

REVIEW

Prevalence and spread of extended-spectrum β -lactamase-producing Enterobacteriaceae in Europe

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ABSTRACT

Extended-spectrum β -lactamases (ESBLs) represent a major threat among resistant bacterial isolates. The first types described were derivatives of the TEM-1, TEM-2 and SHV-1 enzymes during the 1980s in Europe, mainly in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* associated with nosocomial outbreaks. Nowadays, they are mostly found among *Escherichia coli* isolates in community-acquired infections, with an increasing occurrence of CTX-M enzymes. The prevalence of ESBLs in Europe is higher than in the USA but lower than in Asia and South America. However, important differences among European countries have been observed. Spread of mobile genetic elements, mainly epidemic plasmids, and the dispersion of specific clones have been responsible for the increase in ESBL-producing isolates, such as those with TEM-4, TEM-24, TEM-52, SHV-12, CTX-M-9, CTX-M-14, CTX-M-3, CTX-M-15 and CTX-M-32 enzymes.

Keywords CTX-M enzymes, epidemiology, Europe, extended spectrum β -lactamases, review

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INTRODUCTION

Extended-spectrum β -lactamases (ESBLs) represent a major threat among multidrug-resistant bacterial isolates. They have been increasingly described worldwide since their description in the early 1980s and have risen to prominence among Enterobacteriaceae isolates in nearly all European countries, now not only in the nosocomial but also in the community setting [1–3]. This review focuses on current European ESBL epidemiology. The population structure of ESBL-producing isolates and the nature of mobile genetic elements carrying *bla*_{ESBL} genes are analysed.

ESBLs HAVE MAINLY EMERGED IN EUROPE

ESBLs are enzymes inhibited by clavulanic acid and other inhibitors of class A β -lactamases, such as sulbactam and tazobactam. They confer resistance or decrease susceptibility to narrow- and

expanded-spectrum cephalosporins, but do not affect cephamycin and carbapenem compounds [4]. Different groups of ESBLs, classified according to their amino-acid sequences, have been described, and most of them were first recognised in Europe (Table 1) [5–21]. The first ESBL was detected in Germany in 1983, among different enterobacterial isolates recovered from inpatients at intensive care units (ICUs). It was recognised by the producer strains abnormal resistance to cefotaxime and ceftazidime, which was transferable by conjugation to *Escherichia coli* [5]. These isolates had a variant of the classic SHV-1 with a single amino-acid change, and this was named SHV-2. Very soon afterwards in France, in 1984, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolates with an identical phenotype were detected in different hospitals and, in this case, a variant of the broad-spectrum TEM-2 β -lactamase was identified. This enzyme was first named CTX-1 and later TEM-3. It has two amino-acid substitutions when compared with the parental enzyme. As with SHV-2, the corresponding phenotype associated with this enzyme was also transferable by conjugation [6]. Different epidemics have since been reported, and new ESBL variants of both groups have been identified in Europe and other geographical areas

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Table 1. Different extended-spectrum β -lactamase (ESBL) families and groups, and type of ESBL and country of emergence

ESBL	Progenitor β -lactamase	Country of emergence	Bacterial species in which these enzymes were first detected	Reference
High prevalence				
SHV	SHV-1/LEN (>90%) ^a	Germany (1983) ^b	Enterobacteriaceae	[5]
TEM	TEM-1, -2 (>90%) ^a	France (1985) ^b	Enterobacteriaceae	[6]
CTX-M-1 group	KLUC <i>Kluyvera cryocrescens</i> (85%) ^a	Germany (1989) ^c	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	[7]
CTX-M-2 group	KLUA <i>Kluyvera ascorbata</i> (80–100%) ^a	Japan (1986) ^c /Argentina (1989) ^c	<i>E. coli</i> , <i>Salmonella</i> spp.	[8,9]
CTX-M-8 group	KLUG <i>Kluyvera georgiana</i> (95%) ^a	Brazil (1996–1997) ^c	<i>Citrobacter amalonaticus</i> , <i>Enterobacter</i> spp.	[10]
CTX-M-9 group	KLUG <i>K. georgiana</i> (80%) ^a	Spain (1994) ^c	<i>E. coli</i>	[11]
CTX-M-25 group	ND	Canada (2000) ^c	<i>E. coli</i>	[12]
OXA	OXA-10 (PSE-2) (>90%) ^a	Turkey (1991) ^c	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	[13]
PER		France (1991) ^c	<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	[14]
VEB	PER (39%) ^a	France (Vietnam) ^d (1996) ^c	<i>E. coli</i>	[15]
Low prevalence				
SFO	AmpA <i>Serratia fonticola</i> (96%) ^a	Japan (1988) ^c	<i>Enterobacter cloacae</i>	[16]
TLA	CME-1 (50%) ^a <i>Chryseobacterium meningosepticum</i>	Mexico (1991) ^c	<i>E. coli</i>	[17]
BES	YENT (51%) ^a <i>Yersinia enterocolitica</i>	Brazil (1996) ^c	<i>Serratia marcescens</i>	[18]
GES-1	YENT (36%) ^a <i>Y. enterocolitica</i>	France (French Guyana) ^d (1998) ^c	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	[19]
IBC	YENT (40%) ^a <i>Y. enterocolitica</i>	Greece (1999) ^c	<i>E. cloacae</i>	[20]
BEL	GES-1 (50%) ^a	Belgium (2004) ^c	<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	[21]

ND, not determined.

^aAmino-acid sequence homology (%).

^bDate of publication.

^cIsolation date.

^dOrigin of the patient in whom the corresponding enzyme was first detected.

[22]. Both TEM and SHV ESBL enzymes are now distributed worldwide, with more than 160 and 100 variants, respectively, recognised (<http://www.lahey.org/studies/webt.htm>). They have been associated with Enterobacteriaceae species, mostly *K. pneumoniae* and *Enterobacter* spp. isolates recovered from ICU patients, and more recently with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Acinetobacter baumannii* [23].

In 1989, almost simultaneously in Germany and Argentina and then in France and Italy, a new ESBL family was recognised. It was named CTX-M, because most of the enzymes within this family confer resistance predominantly to cefotaxime rather than ceftazidime [7,9]. The CTX-M ESBLs have since been detected in many species of Enterobacteriaceae. Previously, in 1986, a β -lactamase (FEC-1) with a similar phenotype was identified in Japan in an *E. coli* isolate recovered from a research laboratory animal [8].

Now, at least 65 CTX-M variants have been recorded, and are clustered in five different groups according to their amino-acid sequences, typified by CTX-M-1, CTX-M-2, CTX-M-8, CTX-M-9 and CTX-M-25 (<http://www.lahey.org/studies/webt.htm>). Some representatives of these groups were first recognised in Europe (Table 1). A close relationship between CTX-M enzymes and different chromosomal β -lactamases from *Kluyvera* spp. has been recognised, and mobilisation of these chromosomal genes to plasmids might involve specific sequences such as insertion sequences (ISs) (*ISCR1* and *ISEcp1*) or phages [2,24–26].

In 1991 in Ankara (Turkey), and later in France, oxacillinases conferring a phenotype similar to that of ESBLs, but with little inhibition by clavulanate, were found [13]. They were recognised as mutants of broad-extended-spectrum OXA-type β -lactamases (most of them OXA-10). These vari-

ants have since been found worldwide, including in Europe, and are mainly associated with *P. aeruginosa* and, to a lesser extent, with *A. baumannii* or Enterobacteriaceae [27,28]. Other, less-prevalent, ESBL groups include PER enzymes, mainly found in *P. aeruginosa* and *Acinetobacter* spp., and VEB and GES in *P. aeruginosa* and Enterobacteriaceae (Table 1) [1,14,15,19,28]. These are often transferable and are inhibited by clavulanate. Even rarer types include SFO, TLA, BEL, BES and IBC enzymes [1,16–18,20,21,29].

CHANGING EPIDEMIOLOGY OF ESBLs

Until the end of the 1990s: (i) most of the ESBLs detected were SHV and TEM types; (ii) isolates expressing these enzymes were almost associated with nosocomial outbreaks, mainly in ICUs, and it was very unusual for them to be associated with community-acquired infections; and (iii) the prevalence of ESBL producers was higher among *K. pneumoniae* than among *E. coli* isolates [30]. Identified risk-factors included admittance to ICUs, recent surgical procedures, use of catheters, bladder catheterisation, long-term hospitalisation and previous use of cephalosporins and/or aminoglycosides [1,31].

This situation has changed dramatically in the last few years, and most ESBL-producing isolates are now *E. coli* expressing CTX-M β -lactamases. The majority of these isolates are now recovered from community patients, most of them with urinary tract infections, and the number of isolates expressing ESBLs has increased in non-ICU areas at the hospital [32–34]. In addition, new risk-factors, including prior fluoroquinolone use, have also been identified [33]. Unlike that of TEM or SHV ESBLs, the population structure of CTX-M-producing isolates is complex and is associated with the spread of specific plasmids and/or other mobile genetic elements rather than clonal epidemics [35–38]. Nevertheless, recent studies, most of them European, have identified epidemics in the community due to *E. coli* isolates with plasmids harbouring *bla*_{CTX-M} genes [2]. In addition, and resembling the scenario described with methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates, an increase in ESBL-producing isolates has been detected in nursing homes and healthcare-associated facilities in the community, with the

potential influx of ESBLs from the community to the hospital [34].

COMPLEX EPIDEMIOLOGY OF ESBLs IN EUROPE

Increasing prevalence, including faecal carriers of isolates producing ESBLs

Different surveillance studies performed in Europe and other geographical areas have shown an increased prevalence and dispersion of ESBL-producing isolates. The latest available EARSS data reflect the increase in invasive *E. coli* isolates, recovered from blood cultures, that are resistant to extended-spectrum cephalosporins. The proportion of such isolates that may express ESBLs are as high as 28% in Bulgaria, 16% in Cyprus and Romania and 12% in Portugal [39] (<http://www.rivm.nl/earss/result/>). Similarly, the MYSTIC surveillance programme (Meropenem Yearly Susceptibility Test Information Collection) showed an increase in ESBL-producing *E. coli* isolates from 1997 (2.1%) to 2004 (10.8%). Corresponding figures for other Enterobacteriaceae indicated an increase in the prevalence among *K. pneumoniae* isolates (from 9.0% to 13.6%) and, to a lesser extent, among *Enterobacter* spp., *Citrobacter* spp. and *Proteus mirabilis* isolates (<4% of isolates in 2004) [40]. This situation is unlike that observed in the USA, where ESBL-producing isolates are less prevalent than in Europe, and where MYSTIC indicated a decrease in ESBL frequency in *E. coli* (from 5.1% to 1.4%) and *K. pneumoniae* isolates (from 7.2% to 4.4%) during the same period [40]. Previous publications of the MYSTIC studies showed that the distribution of ESBL-producing Enterobacteriaceae isolates in Europe varied among countries, the highest rates being in Russia (nearly 50%) and Poland (nearly 40%) in 2000 [41].

Similar findings were also made in the SENTRY and SMART surveillance programmes. In the first one between 1997 and 1999, an increase in the frequency of ESBL-producing isolates was observed for *K. pneumoniae*, *P. mirabilis* and *E. coli* isolates, with a higher prevalence in Europe than in the USA but lower than in South America and Asia [30]. Recent data from this surveillance programme indicate that, in Europe, 1.3% of *E. coli*, 18.4% of *K. pneumoniae*, 2.6% of *Klebsiella oxytoca* and 5.3% of *P. mirabilis* isolates express an ESBL phenotype [42]. These frequencies are much

lower than those observed in Asia [43]. The 2004 SMART study showed that at least 10% of *E. coli* isolates recovered worldwide from intra-abdominal infections were ESBL producers, as were 17% of *Klebsiella* spp. and 22% of *Enterobacter* spp. isolates [44,45]. This increase can be related to the increase in faecal carriers over time and contamination of the abdominal cavity or organs following rupture, trauma or surgery. The issue of carriage has been addressed in different European countries for hospitalised and community patients, including those from healthcare facilities and nursing homes. Data from Spain showed the dramatic increase in faecal carriers from 1991 to 2003 among hospitalised (<1% and 12%, respectively) and community (<1% and 5%, respectively) patients; the prevalence reached nearly 4% in healthy volunteers in 2003 [46]. This situation was corroborated in other studies, with figures ranging from 2% in 2001 to 7% in 2004 in non-hospitalised patients [47,48]. This percentage is even higher in Israel, where at least 11% of patients requiring hospitalisation were faecal carriers of ESBL-producing isolates [34]. These rates could be even higher in nursing homes and among haematology patients [49,50].

National surveillance studies have also shown the increase in prevalence of ESBL-producing isolates over time. France, Italy, Spain, Belgium and Poland all exemplify these trends [3,51–54]. In Spain, a 40-centre study performed during a 4-month period in 2000 showed ESBL prevalence rates in *K. pneumoniae* and *E. coli* of 2.7% and 0.5%, respectively. Most of the *K. pneumoniae* isolates (93%) were found in hospitalised patients, whereas 51% of *E. coli* isolates were associated with community-acquired infections [54]. Preliminary data from a new surveillance study in Spain in 2006 indicated further increases in prevalence, to 8% of *K. pneumoniae* and 6% of *E. coli* isolates (A. Pascual, personal communication). In Italy, the prevalence of ESBL producers in 2003 was 7.4% among isolates from inpatients and 3.5% among isolates from outpatients. Among hospitalised patients, the most prevalent ESBL-positive species was *E. coli* (*K. pneumoniae* in 1999), and among outpatients, the most prevalent ESBL-positive species was *P. mirabilis*. Most of the producer isolates were obtained from urinary tract infections [52]. Researchers from other countries, such as the UK, have raised the alarm about the sudden increase in ESBL-pro-

ducing isolates in the community setting [55]. The prevalence of ESBL-producing Enterobacteriaceae is lower in the UK than in other several European countries, but producers seem to have spread mainly in the community [56,57]. Generally, it is also noticeable that countries in the north and north-west of Europe, traditionally with low rates of antimicrobial resistance, such as Germany, Norway and Sweden, have found significant prevalence rates of ESBLs [58–60].

Increased diversity of ESBLs and different distribution of ESBLs in Europe

Recent European studies have confirmed the persistence of TEM and SHV ESBLs and the increase in CTX-M producers among Enterobacteriaceae. The identification of other ESBLs remains rare, and when detected they have been mostly found in *P. aeruginosa* and *Acinetobacter* [1,3,27]. Pooling different European studies, it seems that certain isolates expressing specific enzymes are better adapted to specific environments and geographical areas. Moreover, in the last few years, new ESBL variants from different families, including CTX-M, have emerged. In addition, it has been suggested that co-resistance might have played a relevant role in the current endemic situation, allowing the maintenance of ESBL-producing organisms. Other ESBLs are linked to specific clones and/or plasmid incompatibility groups, and have been shown to be widespread in some European countries [2].

TEM family.

Continuous monitoring by a Polish reference laboratory shows the evolution of TEM ESBLs in this country [61]. The emergence of new TEM ESBL variants has been shown in France, Italy, Spain, Belgium and Portugal, as has the spread of specific epidemic clones such as those of *Enterobacter aerogenes* with TEM-24 [62–68]. TEM-3 and TEM-4 also seem to be widespread, and to be associated with different clones of *K. pneumoniae* in ICUs [69,70]. TEM-52 is also widespread in Europe, and is associated with *Salmonella* isolates and, more recently, with *E. coli* from urinary tract infections [68,71–73].

SHV family.

SHV-12 is one of the most prevalent enzymes within the SHV family. It has been reported all

over the world in *K. pneumoniae* and, more recently, in *E. coli* from community patients [46,54,74]. The presence of the corresponding *bla*_{SHV-12} gene has been associated with genetic elements conferring resistance to fluoroquinolones, (*qnr*) which may have contributed to its dispersion [75,76]. SHV-12 has also been found in isolates expressing other ESBLs such as TEM, GES and CTX-M types [77–80]. The presence of more than one ESBL in a single isolate is increasingly being detected, and the reasons for this situation need further investigation.

CTX-M family.

Within the CTX-M family, the CTX-M-9 cluster has been shown to be highly represented in Spain. In particular, CTX-M-14 is frequently detected in *E. coli* isolates recovered from non-hospitalised patients [33,81]. These enzymes have also been reported in Portugal, France and the UK, but are infrequent in other European countries (Fig. 1).

Within the CTX-M-1 cluster, CTX-M-1 and CTX-M-32 were originally found to be prevalent

in the Mediterranean area, but nowadays they are prevalent in nearly all European countries. CTX-M-15 has risen to prominence all over Europe, whereas CTX-M-3 is mainly described in eastern European countries [3]. CTX-M-15 was initially detected in an isolate recovered in India in 2001 [82]. It is distinguished from CTX-M-3 by a point mutation that increases hydrolytic activity against ceftazidime.

CTX-M-15-producing isolates have been increasingly recognised in community isolates, particularly in healthcare-associated patients, and more recently in the nosocomial setting [35,36,57,83,84]. The successful dispersion of CTX-M-15 has been associated with specific clones, particularly in the UK, and the transfer of specific epidemic plasmids harbouring the *bla*_{CTXM-15} gene. These epidemic plasmids have been identified in Europe (Spain, France, Portugal, Austria, UK), Africa (Tunisia and Central Africa Republic) and North America (Canada) [35,38,85,86]. It is of note that some of the epidemic *E. coli* clones expressing CTX-M-15 in

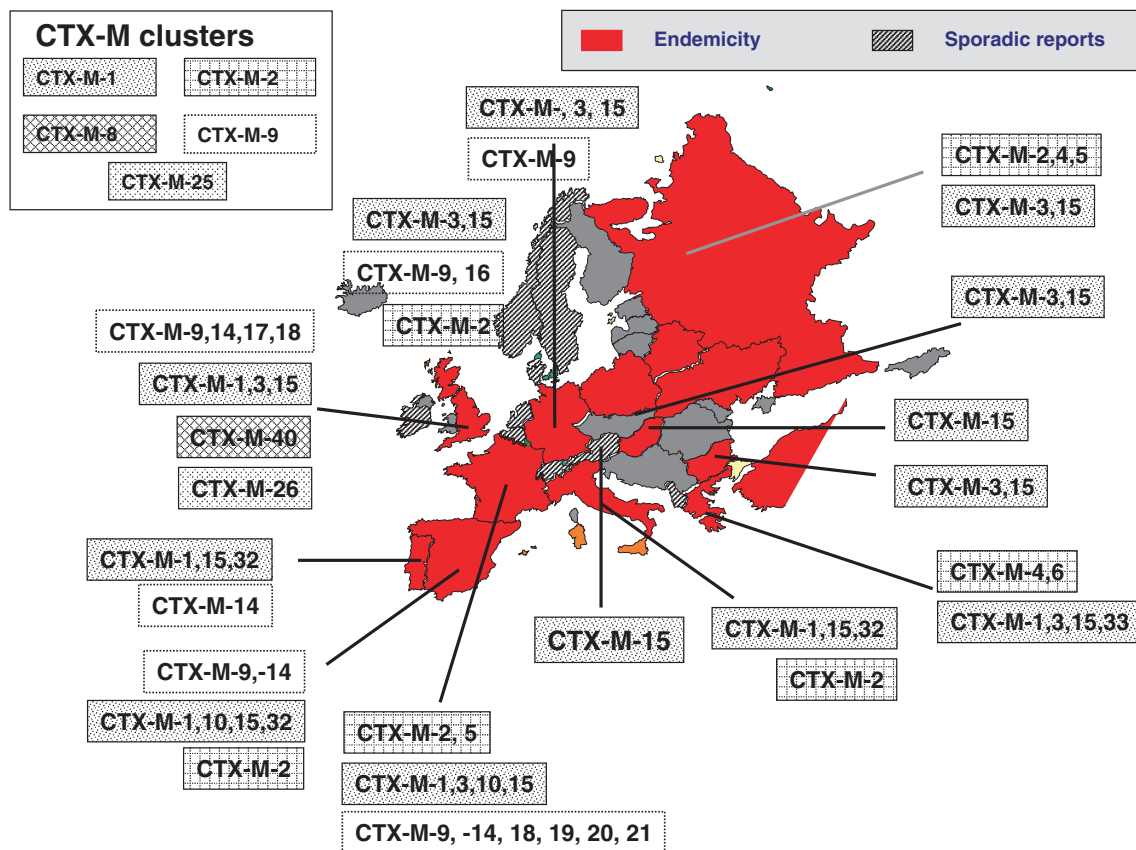


Fig. 1. Distribution of CTX-M enzymes in Europe.

the UK may also express plasmid AmpC enzymes, which further limits therapeutic options and may become a new threat in the future [85].

Unlike in South America and Asia, the CTX-M-2 cluster is unevenly represented in Europe, with different variants appearing in different areas, particularly in Russia, Israel and eastern countries [86,87]. In Spain, it has been scarcely found, despite the relationship of this country with South America, where this cluster is highly prevalent [1,88]. Moreover, *E. coli* strains with CTX-M-2 were recently isolated from chicken meat samples imported to the UK from The Netherlands and Brazil. Recently, CTX-M-2 has been found associated with nosocomial isolates of *A. baumannii* in Japan [89].

In Europe, the CTX-M-8 cluster is only represented in the UK, by the CTX-M-40 variant [90]. CTX-M-26 from the CTX-M-25 cluster has also been detected in the UK [12].

FEATURES FUELLING THE INCREASE OF ESBL-PRODUCING ISOLATES

Different features affecting the increase of ESBLs have been discussed previously, particularly for CTX-M enzymes [2]. Previous use of expanded-spectrum cephalosporins, aminoglycosides and, more recently, fluoroquinolones has been recognised as a risk-factor for infections with ESBL-producing organisms. The presence of genetic platforms containing multiple antibiotic resistance genes ensures co-selection of ESBL processes. For example, *bla*_{CTX-M-2} and *bla*_{CTX-M-9} genes can be linked to class 1 integrons bearing *ISCR1*, often linked with mercury resistance transposons such as *Tn21* [37,88,91]. These integrons may carry different resistance cassettes, such as those conferring resistance to aminoglycosides, trimethoprim and sulphonamide compounds. Moreover, the association of *bla*_{ESBL} genes with genetic determinants encoding emerging resistance mechanisms has also been described, mostly with CTX-M enzymes. These include 16S RNA methylase (*armA* and *rtmB* genes linked to CTX-M-3), different Qnr proteins (QnrA linked with CTX-M-1, -15 and -9; QnrB with CTX-M-15; and QnrS with CTX-M-1 and -9) and a fluoroquinolone acetyltransferase [*aac(6')*-Ib-cr with CTX-M-15] [76,92–99].

Although transposons and ISs are important elements in the mobilisation and spread of *bla*_{ESBL}

genes, plasmids also play an important role in the dissemination of these genes. Early in the 1990s, *bla*_{SHV} and *bla*_{TEM} were associated with a few specific incompatibility groups of plasmids (IncM, IncA/C, IncFI, and IncHI2) with variable size (40–300 kb) and frequency of transfer (10^{-2} to $>10^{-9}$) that had been present for several years in resistant bacteria [100]. A similar situation seems to have occurred with different *bla*_{CTX-M} genes. International dissemination of *bla*_{CTX-M-15} seems to be associated with IncFII plasmids [101,103], whereas *bla*_{CTX-M-32} is associated with IncN plasmids [38] and *bla*_{CTX-M-9} with IncHI2 [37]. Some of these Inc groups are broad-host-range plasmids that might allow future dissemination in non-Enterobacteriaceae isolates [2]. Finally, in *E. coli*, specific association of different phylogenetic groups has been suggested: B2 phylogenetic group mainly with CTX-M-15, A with CTX-M-14 and CTX-M-9, or both A and D with SHV-12 [2,37]. Some of these isolates also harbour virulence determinants, such as those carrying *bla*_{CTX-M-15} [101–103]. However, most of these studies have been performed with ESBL-producing isolates from single geographical sources, and wider investigations may be useful to identify patterns of association, not only to trace the emergence and evolution of ESBLs in different geographical areas, but also to develop future measures to curtail their spread.

CONCLUSION

ESBLs were first described in Europe as variants of TEM and SHV broad-spectrum β -lactamases. CTX-M enzymes, now increasingly dominant, were also first detected in this continent. During the 1980s and 1990s, there were important nosocomial outbreaks associated with ESBL-producing *K. pneumoniae* isolates, but *E. coli* producer isolates have now risen to prominence, mainly associated with community-acquired infections. The prevalence of ESBLs in Europe is higher than in the USA but lower than in Asia and South America, although important differences among European countries have been observed. The spread of mobile genetic elements, mainly conjugative plasmids belonging to classic incompatibility groups, and the dispersion of specific clones have been responsible for the increase in ESBL-producing isolates and for the spread of TEM-4, TEM-24, TEM-52, SHV-12, CTX-M-9, CTX-M-14,

CTX-M-3, CTX-M-15 and CTX-M-32 in particular. Co-selection with other resistances, including quinolone resistance, may also have contributed to the current epidemiological ESBL scenario.

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