Aminoglycoside resistance patterns of Serratia marcescens strains of clinical origin

R. CORIA-JIMÉNEZ AND C. ORTIZ-TORRES

Laboratorio de Bacteriología, Unidad de Investigación en Salud Infantil, Instituto Nacional de Pediatría, Av. IMAN # 1 Col. Camisetas, C.P. 14410 Delegación Coyoacan, México, D.F.

(Accepted 13 August 1993)

SUMMARY

Aminoglycoside resistance patterns of 147 Serratia marcescens strains of clinical origin were studied. All strains analysed belonged to three different bacterial populations. The periods of study and the institutions the strains were isolated from correlated significantly with the resistance patterns shown by the strains. The most frequent resistance patterns found were the following: ACC (6')-I at the Hospital Infantil de México (Children's Hospital of México), and ANT (2")+ AAC(6')-I at the Instituto Nacional de Pediatría (INPed or National Institute of Pediatrics) in Mexico City. Furthermore, the isolation frequency of aminoglycoside-sensitive strains decreased remarkably at the INPed over a 12-year period. These results suggest that there has been a selection of Serratia marcescens strains that are very resistant to aminoglycosides.

INTRODUCTION

Formerly, Serratia marcescens was considered as a non-pathogenic bacterium. However since 1960, increasing numbers of studies have been reported where it actively participates in infectious processes, particularly in patients with immunosuppression, or those undergoing invasive, diagnostic or therapeutical procedures [1–3].

Currently, S. marcescens is a frequent cause of nosocomial infections, presenting a serious problem mainly in epidemic outbreaks with high lethality rates [3, 4]. This bacterium has several pathogenic mechanisms, and the expression of some of these in vitro is subject to the temperature of the medium [3, 5–7]; among these its capability of resisting a great number of antibiotics is outstanding [8–10].

Although aminoglycosides have traditionally been used for the treatment of S. marcescens infections, aminoglycoside-resistant strains are being isolated at increasing frequencies; many of the strains are also resistant to many other antibiotics [10–12].

S. marcescens can show resistance to aminoglycoside activity because of the presence of acetylating, adenylating or phosphorylating enzymes, and because of its capability of modifying its permeability barrier. The relation between aminoglycoside resistance and changes in the bacterial phenotype has been

described previously [9, 13–15]. It has also been reported that the use of aminoglycosides in hospital environments exerts a selective pressure that allows the proliferation of multi-resistant *S. marcescens* strains, and that when this selective pressure disappears the population changes again, favouring the presence of sensitive strains [16–18].

In the present study, we established the frequency of aminoglycoside resistance patterns (AGRP) in 147 *S. marcescens* strains of clinical origin, belonging to three different bacterial populations. We found that the site and period of isolation correlated significantly with the distribution of AGRPs of the bacterial populations.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Bacterial strains

One hundred and forty-seven S. marcescens strains isolated from infected patients were studied. Eleven strains were isolated from the Instituto Nacional de Pediatría (INPed) in Mexico City in 1977; 31 strains were isolated from the Hospital Infantil de México (HIM) in 1978, and 105 strains were isolated between 1988 and 1989 from the INPed [19]. For the purpose of this study, strains were recovered from conservation media. Every strain was re-identified according to the American Society for Microbiology (ASM) criteria [20] and was stored at 4 °C.

Aminoglycoside resistance patterns (AGRP)

The method described by Hare and colleagues [21, 22] was used to study the bacterial contents of aminoglycoside-modifying enzymes, and to establish aminoglycoside resistance patterns. The following 12 different antibiotics were used: netilmicin, gentamicin, tobramycin, amikacin, fortimicin, apramycin, kanamycin, schizomycin-22591, neomycin, schizomycin-21420, 2'-N-ethylnetilmicin and 6'-N-ethyl-netilmicin (Sensidisks impregnated with each antibiotic were provided by Schering-Plough Corp.).

Each strain was recovered from special gelose vials kept at 4 °C, and grown at 37 °C for 18 h in Mueller–Hinton broth. The following day, the bacteria were reseeded in the same medium and incubated at 37 °C until the culture reached the exponential growth phase (approximately 4 h). Each culture's turbidity was then adjusted to that of the 0.5 McFarland nephelometer tube. Bacteria were massively seeded in Petri-dishes with a swab, in unsupplemented Mueller–Hinton agar. Inoculated plates were left to dry at room temperature, and sensidisks for each antibiotic placed. Cultures were then incubated at 37 °C for 24–48 h, and inhibition halos were read with the help of a Vernier calliper. (The base of the Mueller–Hinton medium was provided by Schering-Plough Corp., lot C1DT1J BBL.)

The AGRP assignation was made on the basis of the differential activities of the antibiotics and the differential resistance pattern of each tested strain as proposed by Hare and colleagues and Shimizu and co-workers [21, 22] (Table 1).

Unequal increases in resistance (i.e. Gm 16-fold; Amk-twofold), even if they involved all aminoglycosides, suggested the presence of combinations of modifying enzymes. Permeability resistance can be detected as an equal increase in MIC (decrease in diameters) with all aminoglycosides tested.

Table 1. Aminoglycoside resistance mechanism Gram-negative bacteria substrate profiles (resistance patterns)

	Aminoglycoside Gentamicin Tobramycin = Dibekacin Netilmicin Amikacin Sch 21420 2'-Net 6'-Net Sch 22591 Portimycin Apramycin	
$\begin{array}{c} AAC(3)\text{-}\mathrm{I}\\ (AAC(3)\text{-}a) \end{array}$	+ +	
AAC(3)-I $AAC(3)$ -Ia $AAC(3)$ -III $AAC(3)$ -b) $ANT(2'')$ ($AAC(3)$ -d)	+	
ANT(2'')	+ + +	
	+++ +	
AAC(3)-IV $(AAC(3)$ -a)	++++	
AAC(3)-V or AAC(3)-II (AAC(3)-c A	++++	
AAC(2')	++++	
$\begin{array}{c} \mathrm{AAC}(6')\text{-}\mathrm{II} \\ \mathrm{AAC}(2') \ (\mathrm{AAC}(6')\text{-}\mathrm{b}) \end{array}$	++++	
$\mathrm{ANT}(2'') + \mathrm{AAC}(6'')$	+ + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +	
AAC(3)-V + $AAC(6')$	+++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++++	
$\begin{array}{c} \mathrm{AAC}(6')\text{-}\mathrm{I}\\ \mathrm{or}\\ \mathrm{AAC}(6')\text{-}\mathrm{IV}\\ \mathrm{(AAC}\ 6'\text{-}\mathrm{a)} \end{array}$	+1 + + + + +1 +	

Resistance caused by AAC(6')-I is usually low level and Sch 21420 is usually two- to fourfold more active than amikacin, therefore, 21420 is often active (i.e. MICs 16) vs. these strains. AAC(3)-b could be a subset of AAC(3)-c with low-level resistance to TOB and DKB. A plus (+) indicates a change (eightfold) normal values while a±indicates that smaller changes or variable changes depending on host background or enzymic activity are usually seen (Hare et al. 1988).

	INPed (1977) $(n = 11)$	HIM (1978) $(n = 31)$	INPed (1988–9) $(n = 105)$
ANT(2") AAC(6')-I APH(3')-I	1 2	$\begin{array}{c} 4 \\ 10 \\ 2 \end{array}$	4 3 1
ANT(2") + AAC(6')	2	2	70
ANT(2") + AAC(6')-I + APH(3')-I		1	23
Permeability	2	2	1
Sensitive	3	5	_
N.D.*	1	5	3

Table 2. Aminoglycoside resistance patterns of Serratia marcescens strains of clinical origin

Controls

Two reference strains were tested for each assay (Escherichia coli ATCC-25992 and Pseudomonas aeruginosa ATCC-35218). The results of the assays were considered as satisfactory when the control strains showed a behaviour similar to that previously described for each one [23].

RESULTS

It was possible to assign the AGRP to 95.9% of the strains studied. Table 2 shows the strains grouped according to the period of study and the hospital from which they were isolated. As shown, the AGRPs characterized were significantly different at each institution.

Among the strains isolated from the INPed in 1977, the most frequent were aminoglycoside-sensitive, followed by those with AAC(6')-I and ANT(2'') aminoglycoside resistance patterns. However, among the INPed strains isolated in 1988–9, the most frequent AGRP was ANT(2'')+AAC(6')-I, followed by ANT(2'')+AAC(6')-I + APH(3')-I, and no aminoglycoside-sensitive strains were found. Among the bacteria isolated from the HIM, the most frequent AGRP found was AAC(6')-I, while five strains were aminoglycoside sensitive.

In a previous study [19], we determined the biotypes of the bacteria analysed in this study. Table 3 shows the AGRPs found according to the biogroups of the strains. There was no clear correlation of AGRPs and biogroups, except for the case of biogroup A5/8, which correlated with AGRPs ANT(2'') + AAC(6')-I and ANT(2'') + AAC(6')-I + APH(3')-I.

DISCUSSION

Serratia marcescens is currently a serious hospital epidemiological problem, because it is associated with outbreaks that have high lethality rates [4].

^{*} Not determined.

Table 3. Biotyping and	$aminogly cosides\ resistance$	patterns of Serratia marcescens					
strains of clinical origin							

	A5/8												
Biogroup	A1	A2/6	3 A3	A4	A5	A8a	A8b	A8d	Nt*	TCT	ND†	Aux‡	Nt*
AGRP ANT(2")			1	1	2	1	2	1		_	1		
AAC(6')-I	_		_	1	3	_	1	4	3		_	_	1
APH(3')-I		_		_	1		1	_	1		_	_	
AAC(6')-II		_			1	_		-		_			_
AAC(3)-V	_	_	1	_			_						—
AAC(3')-III							1	_	-		-		
AAC(6')-I APH(3')	_		_				1			_		1	
ANT(2") AAC(6')-I	_	_			5	_	11	59	_		2		
ANT(2") AAC(6')-I APH(3')-I	_	_		_	3		6	13	_	_			_
Permeability	_			2	_	_	1	_	_	_	_	_	_
Sensitive	1	_	1	2	_	1				2			
ND	_	1	_	_	2	_	1		1	1	_	_	_

^{*} Nt, Non-typable.

This microorganism is capable of acquiring and propagating antibiotic resistance genes, with the consequent development of multi-resistant strains in environments with selective pressure which inhibit the development of susceptible populations [24].

We studied this microorganism's resistance to aminoglycosides in three different bacterial populations, with the purpose of assessing its adaptability; also to study its evolution over a 12-year period at the INPed. We were able to assign AGRPs to most of the strains studied; it is important to mention that in certain cases, the assignment of AGRPs may have been imprecise, because the presence and expression of several aminoglycoside resistance genes may result in the same AGRP. However, the AGRP identification technique we used is simple to implement, and correlates well with the bacterial genotype and phenotype as regards antibiotic resistance [25].

AGRPs of bacteria isolated from the HIM showed a wide diversity. This particular population was also the most heterogeneous of those analysed. We found a low number of sensitive strains and of strains with aminoglycoside resistance due to barrier permeability changes.

We analysed two different bacterial populations from the INPed, isolated 12 years apart. Over this period, we observed a decrease in the percentage of strains with aminoglycoside resistance due to permeability changes, the disappearance of aminoglycoside-sensitive strains, an increase in the diversity of identified AGRPs, and a better capability of the bacteria to resist a wide spectrum of aminoglycosides. AGRPs of bacteria isolated in 1988–9 were more homogeneous, possibly because

[†] ND, Not-determined.

[†] Aux, Auxotrophs.

most bacteria from this population were isolated from a previously reported nosocomial outbreak [26].

Currently, the AGRP most frequently associated with aminoglycoside-resistant S. marcescens is ANT(2'') + AAC(6')-I [21, 22, 25]. According to our data, there seems to have occurred a selection of resistant strains from bacterial populations that were originally mostly aminoglycoside sensitive, and that AGRPs are evolving to ANT(2'') + AAC(6')-I + APH(3')-I.

The correlation of biogroup A5/8 with more effective antibiotic resistance has been previously reported [27]. Our results are in accordance with the latter, and biotype A8d showed the most efficient antibiotic resistance activity.

Considering our result and those of Sifuentes and co-workers [27], we can infer that in Mexico City, biogroup A5/8, aminoglycoside-modifying enzymes ANT(2") and AAC(6')-I, and AGRP ANT(2") + AAC(6')-I are the most important among S. marcescens populations. The virulence of these populations is apparently increasing, along with the importance of this microorganism as a causal agent of infectious processes in our country.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to thank Dr Teresa Villareal for her help with the manuscript, E. Rico for typing, and Dr Alessandra Carnevale for her invaluable support.

REFERENCES

- Yu VL. Serratia marcescens. Historical perspective and clinical review. N Engl J Med 1979; 300: 887–93.
- 2. Saito H, Elting L, Bodey GP, Berkey P. Serratia bacteremia: review of 118 cases. Rev Infect Dis 1989; 11: 912–20.
- 3. Bollman R, Halle E, Sokolowska-Kohler, W, et al. Nosocomial infections due to *Serratia marcescens* clinical findings, antibiotic susceptibility patterns and fine typing. Infection 1989: 17: 294–300.
- Farmer JJ, Davis B, Hickman F. Detection of serratia outbreaks in hospital. Lancet 1976;
 ii: 455-9.
- Bar-Ness R, Rosenberg M. Putative role of a 70 KDa outer surface protein in promoting cell-surface hydrophobicity of Serratia marcescens RZ. J Clin Microbiol 1989; 135: 2277–81.
- 6. Konig W, Faltin Y, Scheffee J, Schoffler H, Bran V. Role of cell-bound hemolysin as pathogenicity factor for *Serratia* infections. Infect Immun 1987; 55: 2554-61.
- 7. Poole K, Braun V. Influence of growth temperature and lipopolysaccharide on hemolytic activity of Serratia marcescens. J Bacteriol 1988; 170: 5146-52.
- 8. Fujimaki K, Fujii T, Aoyama H, et al. Quinolone resistance in clinical isolates of *Serratia marcescens*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1989; **33**: 785-7.
- Sanders S, Watanakunakorn C. Emergence of resistance to β-lactams, aminoglycosides, and quinolones during combination therapy for infection due to Serratia marcescens. J Infect Dis 1986: 153: 617–9.
- 10. Hechler U, Van den Weghe M, Martin H, Frere JM. Overproduced β -lactamase and the outer-membrane barrier as resistance factors in *Serratia marcescens* highly resistant to β -lactamase-stable β -lactam antibiotics. J Gen Microbiol 1989; 135: 1275–90.
- 11. Goldstein FW, Gutmann L, Williamson R, Collatz E, Acar JF. In vivo and in vitro emergence of simultaneous resistance to both β-lactam and aminoglycoside antibiotics in a strain of Serratia marcescens. Ann Microbiol (Inst Pasteur) 1983; 134: 329–37.
- 12. Traub WH, Bauer D. Outer membrane protein alterations in Serratia marcescens resistant against aminoglycoside and β -lactam antibiotics. Chemotherapy 1987; 33: 172-6.

- 13. Shaw KJ, Rather PN, Sabatelli FJ, et al. Characterization of the chromosomal aac(6')-Ic gene from Serratia marcescens. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1992; 36: 1447-55.
- 14. Dang P, Gutmann L, Quentin C, Williamson R, Collatz E. Some properties of Serratia marcescens, Salmonella paratyphi A and Enterobacter cloacae with non-enzyme-dependent multiple resistance to β-lactam antibiotics, aminoglycosides and quinolones. Rev Infect Dis 1988: 10: 899–904.
- 15. Traub WH, Spohr M, Bauer D. Plasmid independent resistance of 'gray' colony variants of a strain of *Serratia marcescens* resistant to amikacin, cefotaxime and moxalactam. Chemotherapy 1983; 29: 265-74.
- 16. Larson T, Garret C, Gerding D. Frequency of aminoglycoside 6'-N-Acetyltransferase among Serratia species during increased use of amikacin in the hospital. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1986: 30: 176–8.
- 17. Rubens CE, McGee Z, Farrar W. Loss of an aminoglycoside resistance plasmid by *Serratia marcescens* during treatment of meningitis with amikacin. J Infect Dis 1980; 141: 346-50.
- 18. Mendoza MC, Blanco MG, Mendez FJ, Hardisson C. Evolution de la résistance aux aminosides chez des souches hospitalières de *Serratia*. Path Biol 1984; 32: 750-4.
- 19. Coria-Jiménez R, Ortiz-Torres C, Cruz-Camarillo R. Biotyping of Serratia marcescens strains of clinical origin. Rev Lat amer Microbiol 1992; 34: 253-8.
- 20. Kelly MT, Brenner DJ, Farmer JJ. Enterobacteriaceae. In: Lennette EH, Balows A, Hausler WJ, Shadomy HJ, eds. Manual of clinical microbiology, 4th ed. Washington: American Society for Microbiology, 1985: 263-77.
- Hare RS, Miller G, Sabatelli F, Shaw K. Aminoglycoside resistance mechanism. Schearing Research New Jersey USA, 1988.
- Shimizu K, Kumada T, Hsieh WC, et al. Comparison of aminoglycoside resistance patterns in Japan, Formosa and Korea, Chile and the United States. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1985; 28: 282-8.
- 23. Washington JA. Susceptibility tests: agar dilution. In: Lennette EH, Balows A, Hausler WJ, Shadomy HJ, eds. Manual of clinical microbiology, 4th ed. Washington: American Society for Microbiology, 1985: 967-71.
- 24. Sanders WE, Sanders S. Inducible β -lactamases: clinical and epidemiological implication for use of newer cephalosporins. Rev Infect Dis 1988; 10: 830–8.
- Shaw KJ, Hare RS, Sabatelli FJ, et al. Correlation between aminoglycoside resistance profiles and DNA hybridization of clinical isolates. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1991; 35: 2253-61.
- 26. Coria-Jiménez R, Villa-Tanaka L, Ortiz-Torres C. Partial characterization of Serratia marcescens nosocomial strains. Arch Invest Méd (Méx) 1991; 22: 273-8.
- Sifuentes-Osornio J, Ruiz-Palacios G, Groschell DHM. Analysis of epidemiologic markers of nosocomial Serratia marcescens isolates with special reference to the Grimont biotyping system. J Clin Microbiol 1986; 23: 230-4.