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29 **POINT**

30 In this era of increasing focus on antimicrobial stewardship, clinicians and laboratorians
31 are asking whether it is worth revisiting use of BLBLIs for treatment of infections due to ESBL-
32 GNR. Over time, carbapenems have become the first-line treatment option for infections due to
33 ESBL-GNR (1). Increasing use of carbapenems has led to an increase in carbapenem-resistant
34 Gram-negative bacteria. Literature supporting clinical efficacy of carbapenems has largely
35 driven this preference. Clinicians and laboratorians alike are currently reassessing the possibility
36 of treatment of ESBLs with piperacillin-tazobactam. It is well recognized that the *in vitro*
37 susceptibility to clavulanate used in the past as a confirmatory test for ESBL production may
38 not, in fact, translate to *in vivo* susceptibility and clinical efficacy. However, healthcare is
39 entering an era of limited antibacterial treatment options and rising antimicrobial resistance.
40 There are fewer and fewer antimicrobial treatment options available, and interest has been
41 renewed in potential use of antimicrobials which were largely dismissed in the past.

42 Publications assessing the efficacy of BLBLIs for treatment of urinary tract infections due
43 to ESBL-GNR support the efficacy of BLBLIs for this application. One of the earliest retrospective
44 observational studies of PTZ treatment for infections due to ESBL-GNR showed clinical success
45 of PTZ therapy in 6/6 patients with urinary tract infections, regardless of the isolate's minimum
46 inhibitory concentration (MIC) to PTZ (2). Organisms in this study included ESBL-producing
47 *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, and *Klebsiella oxytoca*. Support for BLBLI therapy of
48 ESBL-GNR from urinary sources was also demonstrated in a retrospective study of ESBL-
49 producing *E. coli* and *K. pneumoniae* infections (3). In this study, 522 infections due to ESBL-
50 GNR were included, the majority (55%) of which were urinary tract infections. Clinical success
51 of non-carbapenem therapy (80% of which was BLBLI therapy, primarily cefoperazone-
52 sulbactam) was similar to that of carbapenem therapy, at 79.6% versus 85.7% ($p=0.15$). A
53 recent randomized controlled trial comparing PTZ, cefepime and ertapenem for the treatment
54 of urinary tract infections due to ESBL-producing *E. coli* also supports PTZ as effective treatment
55 for such infections when the isolate tests susceptible (4). A total of 66 patients received either

56 PTZ or ertapenem in that study. PTZ MICs were susceptible, ranging between 4 and 16 µg/mL
57 (MIC ≤16 µg/mL is the susceptible breakpoint for Enterobacteriaceae according to the Clinical
58 and Laboratory Standards Institute) (5). Clinical success rates were similar between PTZ and
59 ertapenem (31/33 [93.9%] with PTZ and 32/33 [97.0%] with ertapenem; p=0.50). Microbiologic
60 success, defined as failure to recover *E. coli* on urine culture performed on day 10-14 post-
61 treatment, was achieved in 97.0% (32/33) of both treatment groups, and 28-day mortality was
62 also the same between the treatment groups at 6.1% (2/33).

63 Thus, the evidence seems fairly strong supporting use of BLBLIs for treatment of ESBL-
64 GNR causing urinary tract infections, provided the organism's MIC tests within the susceptible
65 range. There is also evidence that some non-urinary source infections may respond to BLBLI
66 therapy when the isolate's MIC is within the susceptible range. In the study by Gavin et al.
67 mentioned above which had demonstrated successful PTZ therapy for ESBL-GNR urinary tract
68 isolates, successful treatment outcome with PTZ was also seen in 10/11 (91%) patients with
69 non-urinary source infections (including blood, sputum, skin and soft tissue, and other sources)
70 when the organisms demonstrated MICs ≤16 µg/mL (2). When the PTZ MIC exceeded 16 µg/mL
71 for isolates of non-urinary source infections, clinical success was 1/5 (20%).

72 Observational studies comparing carbapenem therapy to BLBLI therapy for bloodstream
73 infections (BSIs) due to ESBL-GNR show more disparate results (6, 7). In a retrospective
74 observational study of 11 ESBL-producing *Proteus mirabilis* bloodstream infections, only 1/4
75 (25%) BSIs treated with BLBLIs (including PTZ, amoxicillin-clavulanate or ampicillin-sulbactam)
76 responded to therapy (6). On the other hand, 5/5 BSIs due to non-ESBL-producing isolates
77 responded to BLBLI therapy (p=0.02). All BSIs treated with a carbapenem responded to therapy,
78 regardless of ESBL production. An international prospective observational study of *K.*
79 *pneumoniae* BSIs in 1996-1997 demonstrated that the efficacy of carbapenems was superior to
80 non-carbapenem β-lactam therapy including BLBLIs (7). Of the 49 *K. pneumoniae* BSI episodes
81 treated with monotherapy which was considered active in vitro, 2/49 (4%) received PTZ
82 therapy, while two other patients received ticarcillin-clavulanate therapy. Mortality at 14 days
83 was 3.7% (1/27) with carbapenem therapy but was 50% (2/4) with BLBLI therapy (both patients

84 treated with PTZ died). Although the numbers of patients treated with BLBLIs in these studies
85 were relatively small, BLBLI therapy compared less favorably to carbapenem therapy in the
86 treatment of BSIs due to ESBL-GNR.

87 Other studies assessing use of BLBLI therapy for BSI due to ESBL-GNR have shown
88 conflicting results (8-10). Authors of a retrospective observational study of BSIs due to ESBL-
89 GNR compared mortality of patients treated with BLBLIs versus those treated with
90 carbapenems (8). Of the 33 patients treated with BLBLIs (either PTZ or amoxicillin-clavulanate)
91 to which the isolates displayed in vitro susceptibility, 4 (12%) died as compared to 1/28 (3.6%)
92 who were treated with carbapenems. Despite the trend in mortality difference, use of a BLBLI
93 for therapy was not associated with a significant increase in mortality (OR 0.55; 95% CI, 0.19-
94 1.55). In another retrospective study of ESBL-GNR BSI, empirical treatment with BLBLIs
95 (primarily PTZ in this study) was associated with a higher but not statistically significant higher
96 mortality of 38% (6/16 died) as compared to no deaths after empiric carbapenem therapy
97 (0/10) (9). In fact, 5/6 PTZ-treated patients who died had isolates with PTZ MICs in the
98 susceptible range of ≤ 16 $\mu\text{g/mL}$.

99 One of the largest and most recent trials comparing PTZ therapy to carbapenem therapy
100 demonstrated poorer outcomes of PTZ therapy in patients with ESBL-GNR bacteremia (10). In
101 this single-center retrospective study of 213 patients, 103 (48%) received PTZ and 110 (52%)
102 received carbapenems. Seventeen (17%) deaths occurred in the PTZ group, and 9 (8%) in the
103 carbapenem group. The adjusted risk of death for patients who received PTZ therapy was 1.92
104 times higher at 14 days compared to patients who received carbapenem therapy (95% CI, 1.07-
105 3.45). In this study, approximately 44% of BSIs were central-lined associated in both treatment
106 groups, and there was also a high proportion patients with pneumonia as the source of
107 bacteremia. These differences in sources may be significant when comparing to other BSI
108 studies in which ESBL-GNR strains are arising predominantly from urinary or biliary sources.
109 Such is the case with a large post hoc analysis of six prospective studies of BSI caused by ESBL-
110 producing *E. coli* comparing BLBLI therapy with carbapenem therapy (11). In the definitive
111 therapy cohort (in which antibiotics were given after susceptibility reports were released), 54

112 patients received BLBLI (18 PTZ and 36 amoxicillin-clavulanate) and 120 received a carbapenem.
113 Mortality rates at 30 days were similar (9.3% BLBLI and 16.7% carbapenem; $p > 0.2$) for the
114 definitive cohort. However, in the empirical treatment group (in which antimicrobial therapy
115 was administered prior to release of susceptibility results) after adjustment for the propensity
116 score in a Cox regression model, BLBLI therapy showed a hazard ratio for increased mortality of
117 1.14 (CI, 0.29-4.40; $p = 0.84$). Notably, in this study, high dose PTZ (4.5 gm IV every 6 hours) was
118 given instead of the standard dosing of 3.375 gm IV every 6 hr. This higher dosage may favor
119 less mortality difference between the groups. Mortality in this study was also associated with
120 non-urinary and non-biliary sources of bacteremia.

121 Tied to the debate on treatment of ESBL infections with BLBLIs is the laboratory's role in
122 labeling isolates as ESBLs and the manner in which BLBLIs are reported for ESBLs. First, should
123 the laboratory perform ESBL confirmatory testing? CLSI has stated that it is unnecessary to
124 perform routine ESBL testing if a laboratory is using the current (e.g., lower) breakpoints for
125 cephalosporins and aztreonam. Breakpoints for these antimicrobials were revised in January
126 2010, and most commercial AST systems have adopted these revised breakpoints. Prior to this
127 change, laboratories confirmed the presence of an ESBL phenotypically, because results of
128 certain cephalosporins, aztreonam, and penicillins had to be edited to resistant if the isolate
129 proved to be an ESBL-GNR. Breakpoint-setting organizations have stated that confirmatory
130 testing for ESBLs may still be useful for epidemiologic or infection control purposes such as
131 placement of the patient on contact precautions (5). However, with the increasing focus on
132 carbapenem-sparing therapy, and the rising concern of BLBLI treatment for some infections
133 caused by ESBLs, it seems advisable to once again perform ESBL confirmatory testing on isolates
134 A single surrogate marker for ESBL production, such as ceftriaxone resistance, is not sufficient
135 to detect all ESBLs. The ESBLs are a heterogeneous group; fewer than 1000 ESBLs are estimated
136 to have been identified, many of which have different hydrolyzing abilities for different β -
137 lactams (KB, personal communication) (12). In fact, the heterogeneity of ESBLs is reflected in
138 the manner in which phenotypic confirmatory ESBL testing is performed, with the use of more
139 than one antimicrobial agent to improve sensitivity of detection. Additionally, reliance on
140 surrogate antimicrobial agents is imprecise due to the inherent MIC variability in test systems.

141 Variability in MICs over four or more doubling dilutions even in reference broth dilution testing
142 has been noted for ESBLs in particular (13). Given the heterogenous nature of ESBLs and the
143 variability in MICs with different antibiotics, as well as the clinical evidence supporting PTZ
144 treatment for some infections due to ESBL-GNR, it would seem prudent to perform ESBL
145 confirmatory testing on suspected isolates.

146 The second issue in ESBL reporting is the manner in which laboratories report BLBLIs for
147 ESBL-GNR. This issue was debated in the past when ESBLs were first recognized, and cases of
148 PTZ treatment failure for ESBL-GNR were reported. At the time, laboratories took a variety of
149 approaches to reporting PTZ, including automatically reporting it as resistant; reporting the MIC
150 and interpretive category with a linked comment stating the possibility of inadequacy of PTZ
151 treatment; reporting solely the MIC without an interpretation; and, finally, not including PTZ in
152 the report at all. Given the new knowledge we have gained concerning adequacy of PTZ
153 treatment of some types of infections due to ESBL-GNR, laboratories should reassess the
154 manner in which they are reporting PTZ and other BLBLIs for ESBL-GNR. Some laboratories may
155 consider appending a comment to the PTZ report of ESBL isolates warning of the inadequacy of
156 treatment for certain types of infections such as bloodstream infections. Others may wish to
157 only report PTZ on non-sterile sources. Such laboratory decisions should involve infectious
158 diseases practitioners, pharmacists, and the infection control team.

159 In summary, clinical efficacy data of BLBLIs for therapy of ESBL-GNR are generally drawn
160 from retrospective and observational studies. These studies show that choice of therapy
161 depends on the site and severity of infection. A recent randomized clinical trial supports the use
162 of PTZ for treatment of urinary tract infections due to ESBL-producing *E. coli* (4). However,
163 randomized controlled trials specifically comparing carbapenems to BLBLIs for treatment of
164 serious infections due to ESBL-GNR are lacking. The data currently available are limited by
165 relatively small numbers of patients. Although a few studies of bloodstream ESBL infections
166 demonstrate no significant difference in mortality or clinical outcome, the majority of studies
167 favor carbapenem therapy over BLBLIs for BSI. The single large prospective cohort study by
168 Rodruiguez-Bano et al. that failed to demonstrate significant differences in mortality between

169 BLBLI and carbapenem therapy for BSI was based on higher dosing of PTZ (11). Based on these
170 clinical data, it is appropriate to consider treatment of urinary tract infections due to ESBL-
171 producing Enterobacteriaceae with PTZ if the isolate tests susceptible. There is even some
172 evidence, though not strong, supporting the use of BLBLI for therapy of BSIs associated with
173 sources that are urinary or biliary in origin. Finally, laboratories should review both the need for
174 confirmatory testing of ESBLs and the manner in which PTZ (or other BLBLIs) are reported on
175 such isolates. Clinical and laboratory evidence support performance of confirmatory ESBL
176 testing on suspicious organisms in order to guide appropriate clinical therapy. With the
177 increasing pressure to focus on antimicrobial stewardship, it is appropriate that laboratories
178 and clinicians alike explore alternative options to carbapenems for treatment of infections due
179 to ESBL-GNR.

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236 **COUNTERPOINT**

237 With the ongoing global rise in ESBL infections and the need to preserve the efficacy of
238 carbapenems (1), the mounting body of clinical evidence indicating PTZ is an effective option
239 for patients with invasive ESBL-GNR infections appears to be welcome news (2-5). Previously,
240 the inoculum effect - albeit largely confined to experimental data (6-9), co-production of
241 additional β -lactamases not effectively inhibited by β -lactamase inhibitors (10), and concerns
242 regarding inadequate pharmacokinetic-pharmacodynamic drug target attainment with
243 standard β L β LI dosing regimens (11-12) led to restrained enthusiasm when considering PTZ for
244 the treatment of invasive ESBL-GNR infections. However, there are some stark contrasts
245 between available observational data indicating equal efficacy between PTZ and carbapenems
246 for the treatment of ESBL-GNR bloodstream infections (2-5) and those that suggest PTZ results
247 in poorer outcomes (13, 14). These differences should give us pause when considering PTZ for
248 the treatment of invasive ESBL-GNR.

249

250 First, the majority of patients in studies supporting the use of PTZ had “low inoculum”
251 sources of bloodstream infections (e.g., biliary or urinary sources where the bacterial inoculum
252 was anticipated to be $\leq 10^5$ CFU/mL), (6-9) ranging from approximately 60 to 90% (2-5). This is

253 in contrast to studies showing inferior outcomes with PTZ use where the minority (roughly 15-
254 30%) of bloodstream infections were from low inoculum sources (13, 14). It seems intuitive that
255 for infections where relieving an obstruction is arguably the most important component of
256 infection management (i.e., biliary sources) or sites where antibiotic concentrations are
257 expected to be particularly high (i.e., urine) that antibiotic therapy may not need to be as
258 “aggressive.” These are likely more amenable to pathogen eradication than pneumonia, intra-
259 abdominal collections, deep wound infections, or endovascular infections. Second, $\leq 15\%$ of
260 patients in ESBL-GNR bloodstream studies supporting PTZ use were critically-ill (2-5), whereas,
261 one-third to over a half of patients in studies suggesting suboptimal outcomes with PTZ
262 required ICU care (13, 14). Furthermore, studies favoring PTZ generally included isolates with
263 relatively low PTZ MICs (~ 2 mcg/ml) (2-5). In contrast, the median minimum inhibitory
264 concentrations (MICs) in studies indicating inferior outcomes with PTZ approached
265 susceptibility breakpoints (13, 14).

266
267 The species of ESBL- GNR may also be an important determinant of the efficacy of β L β LI
268 treatment. *E. coli* was the predominant pathogen (70-100%) in studies demonstrating similar
269 clinical outcomes between PTZ and carbapenems for ESBL-GNR (2-5). This is in contrast to
270 studies with the opposite conclusions in which other *Enterobacteriaceae* were recovered with
271 equal or greater frequency (13-14). Tazobactam has been shown to have increased activity
272 against *E. coli* compared to *K. pneumoniae*. The addition of tazobactam to ceftolozane yielded
273 an MIC_{50/90} of 0.5/4 mcg/ml and 4 / >32 for large numbers of *E. coli* and *K. pneumoniae* isolates,
274 respectively (15). In a large, multicenter study, ESBL-producing *K. pneumoniae* was
275 independently associated with higher mortality than ESBL-producing *E. coli* (3). Similarly, in an
276 observational study that identified poorer outcomes in the β L β LI group, almost 70% of patients
277 were infected with ESBL-producing *K. pneumoniae* isolates (14). Disparities in outcomes across
278 studies may be related to inherent differences in the molecular epidemiology associated with
279 these organisms (i.e., *bla*CTX-M-types are more often associated with *E. coli* whereas *bla*SHV-
280 types are more commonly associated with other *Enterobacteriaceae*). Additionally, it is
281 unknown if there are microbial characteristics, β -lactamase characteristics (e.g., inhibitor-

282 resistant SHV β -lactamases, etc.), or the presence of other virulence factors on mobile genetic
283 elements that might contribute to differences in the conduct of ESBL-producing *E. coli*
284 compared to other ESBL-producing *Enterobacteriaceae*. Or, perhaps, *E. coli* may simply be a
285 proxy for urinary sources of bloodstream infections whereas other *Enterobacteriaceae* may be
286 more representative of complex sites of infection such as intra-abdominal collections.

287
288 Synthesizing available clinical data, although PTZ may be an effective agent for the
289 treatment of invasive ESBL infections in patients who are not critically ill, with lower inoculum
290 infections, and lower piperacillin MICs, one cannot infer that PTZ is effective beyond these
291 parameters based on available observational data. Hopefully, lingering questions will be
292 answered by the MERINO study, the first randomized controlled trial to address the question of
293 meropenem vs. PTZ for ESBL bloodstream infections (16).

294
295 The question then arises as to whether ESBL confirmatory testing is value-added in
296 guiding treating decisions. A number of healthcare facilities have abandoned confirmatory ESBL
297 testing, in accordance with Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) guidance (17). This
298 has left many clinicians puzzled as to when ESBLs may be produced. Ceftriaxone
299 nonsusceptibility is often used as a proxy for ESBL presence and when ceftriaxone MICs greater
300 than 1 mcg/ml are observed, carbapenem therapy is frequently pursued. While it is true that
301 ESBL-producers are likely to have ceftriaxone MICs in the nonsusceptible range, not all
302 *Enterobacteriaceae* with ceftriaxone MICs in the nonsusceptible range are ESBL producers (18).
303 ESBL confirmatory testing can be helpful by taking the guesswork out of deciding if an isolate is
304 ESBL-producing, potentially leading to the avoidance of unnecessary carbapenem therapy.
305 Additionally, the current PTZ CLSI breakpoint is ≤ 16 mcg/ml and the European Committee on
306 Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST) breakpoint is ≤ 8 mcg/ml. ESBL isolates with PTZ
307 MICs nearing the breakpoints may not respond as favorably to PTZ as isolates with lower PTZ
308 MICs (19-20). Knowing when *Enterobacteriaceae* with PTZ MICs in these higher ranges are
309 ESBL-producing is helpful to guide clinicians towards alternate regimens. Taken together, we

310 believe that performing ESBL confirmatory testing can favorably impact antibiotic prescribing
311 decisions.

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394 **SUMMARY**

395 Points of Agreement

- 396 1. The decision to use PTZ to treat an infection with an ESBL-GNR is complex and requires
397 consideration of the source of the infection, the severity of the infection, the organism,
398 the MIC of the organism, and the dosage of antibiotic used.
- 399 2. PTZ may be effective for treating invasive ESBL-GNR infections in patients who are not
400 critically ill, with lower inoculum of infection and a lower MIC (≤ 2 ug/ml).
- 401 3. The strongest data supporting the use of a BLBLI for treating infections caused by ESBL-
402 GNR is with urinary tract infections and possibly biliary tract infections.
- 403 4. BLBLIs appear to be less effective than carbapenem therapy for blood stream infections
404 due to ESBL-GNR.
- 405 5. If PTZ is used for these infections, the laboratory should report MIC data and perform
406 ESBL confirmatory testing, as to provide clinicians with optimal information for clinical
407 decisions.
- 408 6. Laboratories that perform ESBL confirmatory testing should consider including a
409 comment that PTZ therapy may be inadequate for treating blood stream infections or
410 other serious infections.

412 Issues to be resolved

- 413 1. The efficacy of BLBLIs for blood stream infections due to ESBL-producing organisms
414 needs to be assessed in a large multi-center trial. The ongoing MERINO study, a
415 randomized controlled trial of PTZ versus meropenem for the treatment of
416 bloodstream infections due to these organisms, should provide much needed data
417 on appropriate treatment options.
- 418 2. Similar studies are needed for other types of infections, such as intra-abdominal
419 infections.
- 420 3. Outcomes studies assessing of the clinical utility of rapid molecular methods for
421 detecting ESBL-producing organism are needed to assist clinical laboratories in
422 determining the ideal approach to confirming ESBL producing organisms.

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425 Editor, Journal of Clinical Microbiology

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