

New Delhi Metallo- β -Lactamases – the dawn of a post-antibiotic era?

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ABSTRACT

The increasing prevalence of acquired carbapenemases in Gram – negative bacteria is one of the biggest problems in the prevention and therapy of infectious diseases. NDM (*New Delhi Metallo- β -Lactamase*) is a recently discovered enzyme which has the ability to hydrolyze all β -lactam antibiotics, except aztreonam. Making that scenario more worrisome is the fact that mobile fragments of DNA carrying *bla*_{NDM} genes, also

keeps a number of other genes encoding antibiotic resistance. NDM enzymes are currently present in different species of bacteria all over the world. NDM-producing bacteria are resistant to virtually all available antimicrobial agents except tigecycline, colistine and fosfomycine.

Key words: NDM carbapenemases, characteristics, epidemiology, susceptibility to antibiotics

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“Even the most outstanding achievements of engineering are embarrassingly awkward when compared with the level of precision that really miniaturized systems developed during the evolution of living beings.”

Prof. Wladyslaw J.H. Kunicki – Goldfinger

INTRODUCTION

Growing antibiotic resistance seems to be one of the biggest threats of modern medicine. Ten years ago attention was focused on resistant Gram-positive bacteria like *Methycillin Resistant Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) or *Vancomycin Resistant Enterococcus* (VRE), while today, multidrug-resistant Gram-negative pathogens (especially *Enterobacteriaceae*) are the main concern in bacterial infections. Dissemination of genes encoding antibiotic resistance mechanisms between Gram-negative bacteria is possible due to horizontal gene transfer. The exchange of genes encoding resistance mechanisms is possible owing to a mobile genetic element (e.g. plasmids, transposons, and integrons) which serves as a vehicle for these genes. Due to horizontal gene transfer, resistance can readily spread among Gram-negative bacteria [1].

Thus far, the β -lactam antibiotic class called carbapenems (like imipenem or meropenem) has been considered a fundamental therapy of serious infections caused by multidrug-resistant pathogens, especially Gram-negative bacteria producing *extended spectrum β -lactamases* (ESBL) [2]. Hence, the appearance of bacterial enzymes able to inactivate “last line” agents tends to be a serious therapeutic concern. Bacteria producing carbapenemases (e.g., KPC, VIM, and IMP) capable of hydrolyzing almost all β -lactam antibiotics are increasingly reported worldwide [3, 4].

One of the recently reported enzymes is the so-called NDM (*New Delhi Metallo- β -lactamase*) which is frequently encoded on plasmids almost always co-harboring other genes encoding mechanisms of resistance to agents other than β -lactams (e.g., fluoroquinolones, tetracyclines). Bacteria producing NDM owe their “superbug” status to being resistant to virtually all available antimicrobial agents [5, 6].

Bacteria containing the *bla*_{NDM-1} gene were first discovered in Sweden in 2008. A 59-year-old Swedish patient of Indian origin, with type II diabetes mellitus and multiple strokes was found to possess a highly resistant strain. In 2007, a patient was hospitalized in New Delhi where he acquired a urinary tract infection caused by *Klebsiella pneumoniae* which was found to be resistant to all antimicrobial agents except colistin. An isolate

showed metallo- β -lactamase activity although it was negative for previously known metallo- β -lactamase genes [2, 5]. The first fatal case of infection caused by an NDM-producing strain was reported in Belgium 2010. A patient from Pakistan with diabetes died after uncontrolled sepsis due to an NDM-1-producing *Escherichia coli* [7]. Other fatal cases were described in India and the United Kingdom [8].

An abundant group of infections caused by NDM-producing bacteria correlates with prior travel to India. Originally it was thought that only patients admitted to hospitals in India acquired such infections. However, *Walsh et al.* demonstrated that multiple NDM-producing bacteria are circulating in the Indian community [9]. Hence, the source of infection could be environmental rather than purely nosocomial.

Factors contributing to an increased incidence of carbapenemase-producing pathogens are worthy of emphasis. Long-term improper disposal of β -lactam agents has contributed significantly to the growing prevalence of ESBL in India. To date, India has an extremely high prevalence of ESBL in *Enterobacteriaceae* at 70-90% which is one of the highest percentages worldwide [1]. High incidence of ESBL is a major factor in the enormous reliance on carbapenems (e.g., therapy of uncomplicated urinary tract infection). Misinformed antibiotic policy influenced not only the selection of carbapenem-resistant subpopulations but also the production of β -lactamases (e.g., imipenem is a strong inducer of AmpC cephalosporinase) [8, 10].

Overall characteristics of metallo- β -lactamases

Bacterial enzymes capable of hydrolyzing the amide bond in the β -lactam ring are divided on the basis of the amino acid sequence. They fall into four classes – A, B, C, and D. The class B includes metalloenzymes, whose activity is determined by the presence of a divalent zinc ion in the active site. Classes A, C and D rely on serine in the active site [11].

Metallo- β -lactamases (hereinafter referred to as MBL) were first described in the mid-1960's, twenty-five years after the discovery of the first serine β -lactamase. Initially, MBLs were found to be produced only by low-virulent bacteria. For over a decade, the increasing incidence of MBLs encoded mostly on plasmids was observed in *Enterobacteriaceae* and other Gram-negative bacteria [12]. At present, acquired MBLs (e.g., IMP, VIM and the newly discovered NDM) are one of the main factors determining multidrug resistance. Apart from the difference in the structure of the active site (and thus the mechanism

of action), MBLs differ from serine β -lactamases in the hydrolytic spectrum. MBLs lack of activity against monobactams and efficiently hydrolyze carbapenems, penicillins and cephalosporins. Another feature distinguishing MBLs from serine enzymes is resistance to clinical inhibitors of β -lactamases [13].

Metallo- β -lactamases (class B) falls into three subclasses, divided on the basis of differences in amino acid sequence and structure of the active site. Subclasses B1 and B3 require two divalent zinc ions, while subclass B2, with the narrower spectrum of activity, requires only one ion. NDM is a new representative of subclass B1 [2] and to date, there are seven described variants of NDM [14].

Genotypic and phenotypic characteristics of NDM

Yong *et al.* characterized a genomic library of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* 05-560 strain (which is the first described NDM-producing isolate) in order to gather all genes conferring resistance to β -lactam antibiotics. Apart from the *bla_{CMY-4}* gene they found a new gene *bla_{NDM-1}*, consisting of a 1350-bp DNA fragment encoded by 807 nucleotides. Among contiguous genetic material, the former element is distinguished by low guanine and cytosine content at 57%, while adjacent genetic material contains 62-65% of these nucleotides [2].

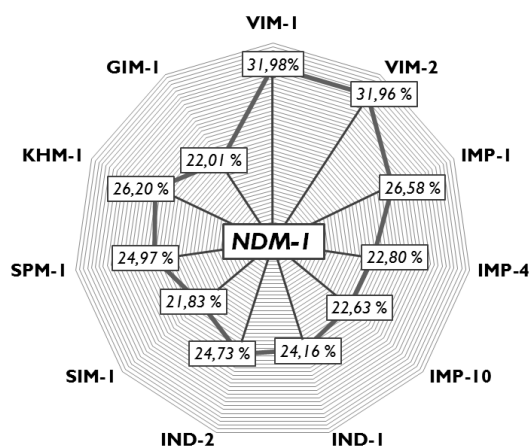


Figure 1. The identity of other metallo- β -lactamases compared to NDM-1. The alignment was prepared with the CLUSTALW application. The Gen Bank accession numbers for the sequences are as follows: VIM-1 EU118150, VIM-2 GQ288399, IMP-1 AB753459, IMP-4 AF244145, IMP-10 AB074433, IND-1 EF394436.1, IND-2 EF394438.1, SIM-1 GQ288397.1, SPM-1 AJ492820.1, KHM-1 AB364006, GIM-1 AJ620678.1.

Gene encoding NDM was found to disseminate between bacterial populations following this unique mechanism. Most of the genes encoding drug resistance in *Enterobacteriaceae* are localized on mobile gene cassettes – components of class I integrons or adjacent to *ISCR* elements using rolling-circle replication [15]. The *bla_{NDM-1}* gene, is the only one thus far described as gene encoding MBLs not carried in a class I integron or adjacent to *ISCR* elements. Expression of the *bla_{NDM-1}* gene is driven by an intact promoter sequence that appears to be acquired along with the gene [2].

Plasmids of different size serve as vehicles for the *bla_{NDM-1}* gene. Some plasmids bearing resistance genes can be efficiently transferred only between closely related bacteria, while others have the ability to replicate in a wide range of hosts. The gene encoding NDM is mostly located on the plasmids belonging to several “incompatibility groups” (IncL/M, IncFII, IncA/C), although it is generally the IncA/C plasmid that is characterized by an especially wide range of potential hosts [1, 16].

The case of the first Swedish patient inferred the transfer of the *bla_{NDM-1}* gene *in vivo*. Apart from *Klebsiella pneumoniae* 05-506 carrying the *bla_{NDM-1}* gene (180-bp plasmid) which was isolated from urine, the patient possessed *Escherichia coli* isolated from the gut which was found to carry a 140-kb plasmid containing the *bla_{NDM-1}* gene. Different sizes of plasmids would suggest additional rearrangement *in vivo* [2].

A value of at least 30% amino acid diversity is used as a cutoff for classification of a new metallo- β -lactamase [17]. NDM-1 proved to be a unique molecule, as compared to closely related VIM-1/VIM-2, which shows 68% diversity (Fig.1). Compared to the other subclass B1 enzymes, the amino acid sequence of NDM-1 shows an additional insert between residues 162 and 166 not present in other MBLs as well as low similarity in methionine-67 – glycine-71 loop region [18-20].

The location of the first unique sequence far away from the active site seems to exclude its direct effect on the catalytic ability of the enzyme. The second unique region is considered to play a crucial role in NDM substrate and inhibitor binding. It is assumed that this loop region has more mobility during substrate binding. Thus, NDM-1 may exhibit a different substrate interacting mode and enzymatic mechanism than related MBLs [19].

MBL active sites need both stability and flexibility to perform the substrate hydrolysis. Two unusual residues, Lys-125 and Tyr-229, were shown to play critical roles in stabilizing the conformation of the active site, through formation of a specific hydrogen bond network (with residues Asn-76, Asp-90, Thr-91, His-122 and Ser-249) and hydrophobic interactions (with residues Leu-209,

Table 1. The worldwide occurrence of NDM- producing isolates

GENUS	COUNTRY	REFERENCES
<i>Achromobacter spp.</i>	India	[9]
<i>Acinetobacter baumannii</i>	Indi, Germany, Egypt	[23, 29]
<i>Aeromonas caviae</i>	India	[30]
<i>Citrobacter braakii</i>	India	[30]
<i>Citrobacter freundii</i>	India, France, United Kingdom	[1, 23, 30]
<i>Enterobacter spp.</i>	India, United Kingdom	[1, 29]
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	India, Belgium, Sweden, France, Canada, Austria, Germany, Norway, United Kingdom	[1, 2, 13, 16, 23, 31]
<i>Kingella denitrificans</i>	India	[9]
<i>Klebsiella oxytoca</i>	India	[1]
<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	India, Sweden, Kenya, Canada, France, Finland, Denmark, Belgium, Austria, Germany, Italy, Netherland, Norway, Spain, Slovakia, United Kingdom, Australia	[1, 2, 12, 23, 31]
<i>Morganella morganii</i>	India, Belgium, United Kingdom	[1, 6, 32]
<i>Proteus mirabilis</i>	France	[23]
<i>Providencia rettgeri</i>	India	[9, 29]
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>		
<i>Pseudomonas oryzihabitans</i>		
<i>Pseudomonas pseudoalcaligenes</i>		
<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>		
<i>Shigella boydii</i>		
<i>Stenotrophomonas maltophilia</i>		
<i>Sutonella indologenes</i>		
<i>Vibrio cholerae</i>		

Leu-218, Leu-221 and Leu-269) [18]. Furthermore, it has been established that the deep cavity of the NDM-1 active site provides a larger volume than other reported MBLs and thus could provide more space for adopting substrates [19].

The *bla*_{NDM-1} gene open reading frame encodes a protein consisting of 269 amino acids with a molecular weight of approximately 27,5 kDa [2]. When compared to VIM-2, NDM-1 displays strong binding ability to cephalosporins and penicillins. Interestingly, NDM does not bind carbapenems as strongly as IMP-1 or VIM-2, but hydrolyzes them at a rate similar to these enzymes. Generally, NDMs compared to other MBLs have a high affinity for the substrate which is probably the result of the specific structure of the active site [2, 19].

Epidemiology

Since 2008, the medical community has noticed the spread of NDM-producing bacteria from India to Europe (mainly the United Kingdom), the United States, Canada, and Australia, and multi - drug

resistant pathogens across Europe [9]. Currently it is believed that India stands as a major reservoir of NDM-producing bacteria. Recent studies also point out new sources of pathogens: the Balkans (Montenegro, Serbia and Kosovo) and the Middle East (Oman, Iraq) [8].

Bacteria from the *Enterobacteriaceae* family (usually *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Escherichia coli*) and Gram-negative non-fermentative bacteria (such as *Acinetobacter baumannii* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*) are considered as major producers of NDM (Tab.1), although environmental analysis (analysis of tap water and groundwater) conducted by Walsh *et al.* has shown that NDM is also produced by strictly pathogenic microorganisms such as *Shigella boydii* and *Vibrio cholerae*. Experimental conjugation between the studied environmental strains and reference *Escherichia coli* J53 strain conducted by Walsh *et al.* showed the greatest efficiency of the process at 30°C, suggesting a much greater role in environmental gene transfer than previously thought. In India, temperatures reach 30°C for seven months a year, and this period coincides with the monsoon season, rich in flooding.

Such conditions create a perfect opportunity for multidrug-resistant pathogens to circulate in the environment [9].

The prevalence of the *bla*_{NDM-1} gene among *Escherichia coli*, the main component of human intestinal flora, is established at a disturbingly high level. It is likely that the intestinal flora of hundreds of thousands citizens of South Asia are rich in NDM-producing bacteria. Thus, resistant pathogens can very easily spread by the “colonized” hands, water, or everyday objects. This condition creates a risk of high prevalence of community-acquired urinary tract infection or diarrhea [8, 9]. Another factor contributing to the spread of multidrug-resistant bacteria is considerable overcrowding and poor sanitation. As the UN News Centre revealed in India, the second most populous country in the world, only 30% of the population (about 366 million people) has full access to sanitation [21]. The high prevalence of NDM-producing bacteria in environment and poor sanitation could contribute to importing highly resistant subpopulations into

Indian hospitals and other countries. Unfortunately, the situation in a large number of Indian hospitals favors further selection of multi-drug-resistant microorganisms. Many units do not follow hygiene and infection control standards [22]. To make matters worse, India is a country with widespread over-the-counter usage of antimicrobial agents [6].

In 2008, about 5 million tourists visited India and Pakistan and about 10 million citizens have traveled from India. Considerable efflux of people into India is associated to some extent with the phenomenon of medical tourism (e.g., cosmetic surgery, transplants) owing to much lower costs and shorter waiting times than in Europe and America. Thus, there is a high risk of permanent transfer of NDM-producing strains from India [22, 23].

Therapeutic options

NDM-producing pathogens appear to be resistant to virtually all available antimicrobial agents which is a major concern (Tab.2).

Table 2. Antibiotic susceptibility of the NDM-producing isolates

ANTIMICROBIAL AGENT	N° OF TESTED STRAINS	SUSCEPTIBLE STRAINS [%]	REFERENCES
Imipenem	223	1,34	[1, 2, 23, 29 – 31, 33 – 39]
Meropenem	188	18,08	[1, 2, 23, 30, 31, 33 – 35, 37, 38]
Etrapanem	112	0	[2, 23, 29 – 31, 34, 35, 37, 38]
Ciprofloxacin	220	10,91	[1, 2, 23, 29 – 31, 33, 35, 37, 38]
Ampicillin	76	0	[1, 23, 30, 31, 35, 37, 39]
Cefotaxime	217	0	[1, 2, 23, 30, 33, 35, 37, 39]
Gentamicin	189	8,99	[1, 23, 30, 31, 33 – 35, 37 – 39]
Netilimicin	14	0	[29, 33 – 35, 39]
Colistin	246	85,77	[1, 2, 23, 29 – 31, 33, 35 – 39]
Tigecycline	248	63,71	[1, 23, 29, 30, 31, 33 – 39]
Fosfomycin	92	91,30	[30, 36]

The coexistence of different antibiotic resistance genes in NDM-producing bacteria is widespread. Plasmids containing the *bla*_{NDM-1} gene frequently include many other antibiotic resistance genes (Tab.3). Many authors have shown high *in vitro* activity of colistin, tigecycline, and fosfomycin. One of the major drawbacks of colistin (polymyxin group) is its nephrotoxicity (causing acute renal failure) and neurotoxicity (causing paresthesia, ataxia, confusion, respiratory muscles paralysis) [24]. It absorbs very little and poorly diffuses into body fluids and tissues. It also shows

no activity against the *Proteus* group (*Proteus*, *Morganella* and *Providencia*) [12].

Tigecycline, the first representative of the glycylocyclines, exhibits high *in vitro* activity against many multidrug-resistant strains [25], but at the same time shows no activity against the *Proteus* group and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. It cannot be used in urinary tract infections and there are no specific data confirming the safety of tigecycline under 18 years of age [26].

Unfortunately, each of these agents has considerable pharmacological limitations.

Table 3. The presence of other antibiotic resistance genes in NDM-producing strains

ANTIMICROBIAL AGENTS	RESISTANCE GENES	REFERENCES
β-lactam antibiotics	<i>bla</i> _{TEM-1} , <i>bla</i> _{OXA-1} , <i>bla</i> _{OXA-10} , <i>bla</i> _{OXA-23} , <i>bla</i> _{OXA-24} , <i>bla</i> _{OXA-28} , <i>bla</i> _{OXA-51} , <i>bla</i> _{OXA-58} , <i>bla</i> _{CTX-M-15} , <i>bla</i> _{CMY-2} , <i>bla</i> _{CMY-4} , <i>bla</i> _{CMY-6} <i>bla</i> _{DHA} , <i>bla</i> _{SHV-2A} , <i>bla</i> _{SHV-11} , <i>bla</i> _{SHV-12} , <i>bla</i> _{KPC-2}	[1, 2, 29, 33, 34]
Chinolones	<i>qnrB1</i>	[32]
Aminoglycosides	<i>armA</i> , <i>rmtA</i> , <i>rmtB</i> , <i>rmtC</i> , <i>rmtD</i> , <i>npmA</i> , <i>aadA1</i>	[2, 33, 34]
Rifampicin	<i>arr-2</i>	[2]
Sulfonamides	<i>sul-2</i>	
Chloramphenicol	<i>cmlA</i>	
Macrolides	<i>ereC</i>	

Fosfomicin, an almost forgotten antimicrobial agent may be one of the therapeutic options for the treatment of infections caused by NDM-producing bacteria. However, in monotherapy it is useful only in urinary tract infection [11, 12].

Current pharmaceutical research includes very few novel antimicrobial agents acting on Gram-negative bacteria [1]. D-captopril is one of the currently developed agents, which shows affinity to the active site of NDM and is considered a potential inhibitor of these enzymes; however, the dosage able to inhibit the MBLs presents a high cytotoxicity [19].

Research is also being conducted on ACHN-490, a sisomicin derivative that exhibits activity against bacteria resistant to carbapenems. However, it is ineffective in the presence of 16S rRNA methylase which confers resistance to aminoglycosides [26, 27].

Unfortunately, NDM-producing bacteria almost always possess genes encoding 16S rRNA methylase.

Another antimicrobial agent, apramycin (aminoglycoside analog), used in veterinary medicine, has shown *in vitro* activity against all NDM-producing strains with co-produced 16S rRNA methylase. Unfortunately, apramycin is not suitable for use in therapy because of its narrow therapeutic index. However, its unique structure may serve in the future as a prototype for new molecules resistant to both NDM and methylases [27].

One of the more innovative approaches is called “antiplasmidic therapy” or “plasmid

targeting”. This novel approach is based on molecules imitating plasmidic ctRNA (counter-transcribed RNA) involved in replication control of plasmids, including the induction of their elimination. Such futuristic therapy could restore effectiveness of a large group of antimicrobial agents, although the utility of plasmid targeting is still only a concept that requires further studies [28].

CONCLUSIONS

Hostile environments (e.g., antibiotic pressure) accelerate the selection of features which give particular advantage to bacterial populations. Due to the aforementioned selections, extremely efficient mechanisms of gene transfer have developed. Genes encoding NDM with many others resistance genes are currently disseminating between different species with unprecedented ease. In contrast to currently known resistance mechanisms (e.g., ESBL or MBL), NDM could rise to worldwide concern for reasons beyond nosocomial infections. To date there is no therapeutic option for putative infection caused by NDM-producing bacteria. Pathogens producing *New Delhi Metallo-β-lactamases* may be the dawn of post-antibiotic era.

Conflicts of interest

We declare that we have no conflicts of interest.

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