

Microbial cause of ICU-acquired pneumonia: hospital-acquired pneumonia versus ventilator-associated pneumonia

Charles-Edouard Luyt, Guillaume Hekimian, Despoina Koulenti, Jean Chastre

► To cite this version:

Charles-Edouard Luyt, Guillaume Hekimian, Despoina Koulenti, Jean Chastre. Microbial cause of ICU-acquired pneumonia: hospital-acquired pneumonia versus ventilator-associated pneumonia. Current Opinion in Critical Care, 2018, 24 (5), pp.332-338. 10.1097/MCC.000000000000526 . hal-02305961

HAL Id: hal-02305961 https://hal.sorbonne-universite.fr/hal-02305961

Submitted on 4 Oct 2019

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Microbial etiology of ICU-acquired pneumonia: HAP vs VAP

Charles-Edouard Luyt*, MD PhD; Guillaume Hékimian*, MD; Despoina Koulenti**, MD,PhD, and Jean Chastre*, MD.

*Service de Réanimation Médicale, Institut de Cardiologie, Groupe Hospitalier Pitié– Salpêtrière, Assistance Publique–Hôpitaux de Paris, 47-83 boulevard de l'Hôpital, 75651 Paris Cedex 13, France, and Sorbonne Universités, UPMC Université Paris 06, INSERM, UMRS_1166-ICAN Institute of Cardiometabolism and Nutrition, Paris, France Tel: +33 (1) 42 16 38 22; Fax: +33 (1) 42 16 38 17; E-mail: jean.chastre@aphp.fr

**2nd Critical Care Department, 'Attiko' University Hospital, Athens, Greece, & Burns, Trauma and Critical Care Research Centre, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia. E-mail: <u>deskogr@yahoo.gr</u>

Running head: HAP vs. VAP microbial etiologyKey words: ventilator-associated pneumonia– aerosol –amikacin–colistinWord count (excluding abstract, table and references): words

Conflicts of interest: J. Chastre has received consulting or lecture fees from Bayer, Pfizer, Cubist/Merck, Kenta/Aridis, The Medicines Company, AstraZeneca/Medimmune, Tigenix, Inotrem, and Accelerate Diagnostics. CE Luyt has received consulting or lectures fees from Bayer, MSD and Biomerieux.

Abstract (Word count: 161)

Purpose of review: Successful treatment of patients with hospital-acquired (HAP) and ventilator-associated pneumonia (VAP) remains a difficult and complex undertaking. Better knowledge of the pathogens involved in that setting may allow reassessment of our current modalities of therapy and definition of better protocols.

Recent findings: Microorganisms responsible for HAP/VAP differ according to geographic areas, ICU patients specific characteristics, durations of hospital and ICU stays before onset of the disease, and risk factors for MDR pathogens. However, a number of studies have shown that gram-negative bacilli (GNB)—particularly *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and Enterobacteriaceae—cause many of the respiratory infections in this setting, with minimal differences between HAP and VAP, indicating that the etiology depends more on the underlying clinical condition of patients rather than previous intubation.

Summary: When selecting initial antimicrobial therapy in patients with HAP/VAP, more attention should be paid to individual risk factors for MDR pathogens, severity of the clinical situation and the local epidemiology than to the type of pneumonia.

Keywords: ventilator-associated pneumonia, hospital-acquired pneumonia, microbial etiologies.

Introduction

The clinical spectrum of lower respiratory tract infections potentially affecting patients managed in the intensive care unit (ICU) includes different diseases with peculiar epidemiological, clinical and microbiological aspects. The term "HAP" refers to hospitalacquired pneumonia contracted by a patient at least 48–72 hours after being admitted to the hospital and can be divided into non-ventilated HAP and ventilated HAP (when the patient is ventilated as a result of the pneumonia). "VAP" specifically refers to pneumonia that occurs in association with endotracheal intubation after at least 48 hours of mechanical ventilation. With current standard-of-care therapy, clinical success rates for patients admitted to the ICU with HAP/VAP are often less than 60%, related to the many challenges that encompass antibiotic therapy in critically ill patients, including difficulties in identifying microbial etiologies, relative low penetration of most antibiotics into the lung tissue and the frequency of difficult-to-treat or highly resistant pathogens in that setting [1,2]. Obviously, better knowledge of HAP/VAP microbial etiologies might allow better identification of patients at high risk of infection caused by problematic pathogens, such as multidrug-resistant (MDR) nonfermenting gram-negative bacilli (GNB) and extended spectrum betalactamase (ESBL)producing Enterobacteriaceae (including carbapenemase-producing GNB), and consequently, better selection of initial antibiotics, while avoiding overuse of broad-spectrum antibiotics when the infection is caused by susceptible microorganisms [3–5]. The present review summarizes current data available on these issues for patients admitted to the ICU.

Microbial etiologies of VAP

Microorganisms responsible for VAP differ according to geographic areas, ICU patients specific characteristics, durations of hospital and ICU stays before onset of the disease, and risk factors for MDR pathogens [3,4]. However, a number of studies have shown that gram-

negative bacilli (GNB)-particularly Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Enterobacteriaceaecause many of the respiratory infections in this setting, with relatively minor changes in the distribution of the pathogens during the last decade [2,6–8]. Among a total of 12 851 bacterial isolates that were isolated from patients hospitalized with VAP in US and European medical centers as part of the SENTRY Antimicrobial Surveillance Program from January 2009 to December 2012, the same top 11 organisms were observed in both geographic regions, and Gram-negative organisms represented 61.5/76.1% of strains in US/Europe, respectively [8]. Of the top 11 most frequently isolated organisms, 9 were Gram-negative bacilli in both regions; only *Staphylococcus aureus* among Gram-positive pathogens (number 1 or 2 rank) was commonly isolated, whereas *Streptococcus pneumoniae* was ranked 10th in the USA and 11th in EMR. *P. aeruginosa* was the most frequently isolated GNB in both regions (21% of cases in both regions) and showed reduced susceptibility to most antimicrobials tested, including ceftazidime (79.6/68.7% susceptibility in US/Europe), meropenem (76.3/65.8%) and piperacillin/tazobactam (72.9/63.9%). Klebsiella spp. was isolated from 9.7/11.6% of cases and showed extended-spectrum β -lactamase (ESBL) phenotype rates of 19.5/35.1% in US/Europe. Enterobacter spp. ranked fourth in the US (5.9%) and sixth in Europe (5.5%), whereas *Escherichia coli* ranked fifth in the US (5.5%) and third in Europe (11.8%). Acinetobacter spp. and Stenotrophomonas maltophilia combined were isolated from 8.0/10.7% of cases in US/Europe.

In a recent study designed for assessing the potential usefulness of ceftazidime/avibactam in 726 patients with nosocomial pneumonia, including 246 patients with VAP, prominent GNB isolated from respiratory site or blood were *K. pneumonia*e and *P. aeruginosa* [9]. 100 patients (28%) had one or more ceftazidime-non-susceptible Gramnegative pathogen, including 79 with Enterobacteriaceae and 25 with *P. aeruginosa*. *S. aureus* (detected in 58 patients, [16%]) was the only Gram-positive pathogen to be isolated in ten or more patients. Very similar data were obtained in 2016 in a large French surveillance network that included 5 465 episodes of VAP in which the infection was microbiologically documented by semi- or quantitative cultures, the two most frequently isolated microorganisms being *P. aeruginosa* (19.9%) and *S. aureus* (13.5%) (Surveillance des infections nosocomiales en réanimation adulte, Réseau REA-Raisin, France, résultats 2016. www.invs.santepubliquefrance.fr).

As reported in many longitudinal case series, many episodes of VAP are increasingly caused by pathogens with a reduced susceptibility to current antibiotics, rendering more and more difficult the selection of initial antimicrobial treatment [2,7]. Although VAP typically involves infection with a single pathogen, polymicrobial infection are common (table 1) [10,11]. Interestingly, the clinical outcomes were not influenced by the polymicrobial etiology, when appropriate antibiotic therapy was administered [10].

Until recently, MDR pathogens were isolated more frequently in late-onset VAP cases than in early-onset cases, mostly reflecting prior use of broad-spectrum antibiotics in these patients [4,6,12]. However, several more recent studies found similar rates of etiologies in patients with early- and late-onset VAP (Table 1) [13–17]. In early-onset pneumonia, the initial VAP severity—i.e.; the presence of sepsis or septic shock (odds ratio [OR] = 3.7)—and pneumonia that developed in a center with a prevalence of resistant pathogens greater than 25% were independently associated with the presence of resistant pathogens (OR = 11.3), emphasizing that the local ICU ecology is the most important risk factor for acquiring MDR pathogens, irrespective of the length of intubation [14].

Based on these data, the recent European guidelines for the management of HAP/VAP suggest that the selection of patients with early-onset VAP (within 4 days of hospital admission) to receive empirical treatment with narrow-spectrum antibiotics should be based on the individual risks, the severity of the clinical situation (shock), and the frequency and

type of MDR pathogens detected in the ICU [3]. Because MDR pathogens are more frequently found in immunocompromised patients with VAP, they should be treated accordingly, using broad-spectrum antibiotics [3].

Extended-spectrum β-lactamase–producing Enterobacteriaceae (ESBL-PE) are increasingly encountered in patients with hospital acquired infections, including VAP, with additional mortality and cost. They now represent 19 to 61% of the episodes, varying according to species and to countries [8,18]. Several studies suggest that previous colonization and antibiotic therapy are the two most important risk factors associated with ESBL-PE related infection [19,20]. In a study conducted in 587 patients with suspected VAP, 40 patients (6.8%) were colonized with ESBL-PE prior to the development of pneumonia and 20 (3.4%) had VAP caused by this microorganism, of whom 17 were previously colonized with ESBL-PE [21]. Thus, positive and negative predictive values of prior ESBL-PE colonization for predicting ESBL-PE involvement in VAP were 41.5% and 99.4%, respectively, confirming that screening for ESBL-producing GNB digestive colonization by weekly active surveillance cultures could reliably exclude the involvement of such pathogens when rectal and/or tracheal swabs for ESBL-PE are negative.

Whether current decision-making algorithms for empiric antibiotic treatment can be improved and thus avoid initially inappropriate treatment or unnecessary carbapenem use is unknown and would depend of the local prevalence of infections caused by ESBL-PE [4,22,23]. In a retrospective nested case-control study performed in eight Dutch hospitals, a scoring system that consisted of 9 clinical predictors available at the onset of infection identified hospital-onset infection caused by 3rd generation cephalosporin-resistant GNB with an acceptable sensitivity (81.5%) and yet, reduced the proportion of patients classified as at risk (i.e.; eligible for empiric carbapenem therapy) by 49%, compared to a basic model

incorporating only prior ESBL-PE colonization and exposure to cephalosporins and/or fluoroquinolones [24].

The emergence of infections caused by carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae (CRE) worldwide represents an alarming problem, although the prevalence of such infections is highly variable across different countries [25–27]. No studies specifically addressing the role of CRE in HAP and VAP are available so far. However, prior use of a carbapenems and prior hospitalization in a country where CRE is highly prevalent have been reported as independent risk factors for the acquisition of KPC- *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and other CRE [28,29].

Oropharyngeal or tracheal colonization with P. aeruginosa increases with increased length of hospitalization, prior antibiotic use, and severity of illness, and is an important risk factor for VAP caused by this microorganism. In an international observational study that included 1873 ventilated patients in 11 countries across four regions, including the United States, Europe, Latin America, and Asia Pacific, corresponding P. aeruginosa VAP prevalences were 4.1%, 3.4%, 4.8%, 4.6%, and 3.2%, respectively (p = 0.49) [30]. Although none of the predefined risk factors were predictive of P. aeruginosa VAP in multivariate regression analysis, high proportion of resistance in the community or hospital unit was significant for prior P. aeruginosa colonization, which was in turn predictive of P. aeruginosa VAP: the odds of developing P. aeruginosa VAP were eight times higher in patients with prior P. aeruginosa colonization than in non-colonized patients [30]. In a study that enrolled 3,837 patients with VAP, including 959 episodes caused by P. aeruginosa, risk factors for P. aeruginosa VAP were older age, transfer from medical ICU or medical unit, length of MV, antimicrobial use, and admission to a ward with high incidence of *P. aeruginosa* infections, confirming the importance of local epidemiology when assessing the risk of developing an infection caused by MDR pathogens [31].

Acinetobacter baumannii is a common cause of ICU-acquired infection, accounting for 8 to 14% of VAP in the United States and Europe, but much higher rates (19% to >50%) in Asia, Latin America, and some Middle Eastern countries [32–36]. In a cohort of 827 cases of VAP in 27 ICUs in Europe, *A. baumannii* was globally implicated in 11% of early-onset and 26.5% of late-onset VAP, but it was the most common cause of VAP in Greece and Turkey [37]. A prospective study in 10 Asian countries from 2008 to 2009 of HAP/VAP in adults (n=2,554) implicated *Acinetobacter* spp. in 36.5% of cases. Importantly, many isolates are now resistant to all antimicrobials except colistin (polymyxin E) and tigecycline, and some infections are untreatable with existing antimicrobial agents [32,33,38]. Global spread of MDR-*A. baumannii* strains reflects dissemination of a few clones between hospitals, geographic regions, and continents; while excessive use of antibiotics amplifies this spread.

Optimal treatment of VAP implies that the selection of initial antimicrobial agents could be done based on an accurate prediction of the responsible pathogens and of their susceptibility patterns, in order to avoid both ineffective therapy when the pathogen is highly resistant to antibiotics and excessive antibiotic use when it can be covered by a narrowspectrum agent [3,4]. Unfortunately, although major risk factors for MDR pathogens include prolonged hospitalization before onset of VAP, prior antibiotic use, high frequency of antibiotic resistance in the specific hospital unit, immunosuppressive disease and/or therapy, and patient's severity, the exact weight of each of these factors is mostly unknown and no accurate algorithm to manage patients with VAP is thus readily available. Interestingly, in a single-center prospective study conducted in Spain that included 316 patients with clinical and microbiological diagnosis of ICU-acquired pneumonia, 289 (91%) had at least one risk factor for MDR microorganisms causing pneumonia, but MDR caused pneumonia in only 107 [34%] patients, reflecting the poor performance of all risk factors when taken individually for avoiding overuse of broad-spectrum antibiotics in this setting, with always higher-sensitivity values compared with specificity [39]. The highest negative predictive values were for intravenous antibiotic use (79%) and 5 or more days of hospitalization before pneumonia (80%).

Microbial etiologies of HAP

HAP incidence ranges from 5 to more than 20 cases per 1000 hospital admissions, with the highest rates in immunocompromised, post-surgery and elderly patients [3,40–43]. However, in contrast to VAP patients in whom it is relatively easy to collect distal respiratory secretions through the endotracheal tube as soon as the infection is suspected and before the introduction of any new antibiotics, obtaining reliable specimens from the lower respiratory tract for microbiological cultures in patients developing HAP is difficult and thus most of them are receiving new antibiotics before specimens can be obtained. As a consequence, microbial etiologies remain poorly documented in a large fraction of patients with HAP (Table 2) [37,44–46]. Among 421 episodes of ICU-acquired suspected bacterial pneumonia prospectively collected in Barcelona, Spain, 248 patients (59%) had VAP, 69 patients (16%) had non-ventilated HAP, and 104 patients (25%) had ventilated HAP (The FNIH HABP/VABP Project. https://fnih.org/what-we-do/biomarkers-consortium/programs/ventilator-acquired-bacterial-pneumonia). Not surprisingly, patients with non-ventilated HAP had a lower percentage of positive microbiology results (54.8%) compared to ventilated HAP and VAP.

The study by Esperatti et al. analyzed 315 episodes of ICU-acquired pneumonia and found that microbial etiology between VAP and non-ventilated HAP were similar, with the only exception that they observed a higher proportion of *S. pneumoniae* in non-ventilated HAP cases [47]. Using data from 27 ICUs in Europe that participated to the EU-VAP/CAP project, the most frequent microorganisms reported in patients with HAP were

Enterobacteriaceae, *S. aureus*, *P. aeruginosa* and *A. baumannii*, but the dominant isolates differed between countries. *S. aureus* was the dominant microorganism in Spain, France, Belgium and Ireland, whereas for Italy and Portugal it was *P. aeruginosa*, for Greece and Turkey *Acinetobacter* spp., and for Germany *E. coli* (Table 2) [37].

Very similar findings were reported in the SENTRY Antimicrobial Surveillance Program (1997–2008): the 6 top pathogens causing 80% of HAP cases were: *S. aureus, P. aeruginosa, Klebsiella* spp., *E. coli, Acinetobacter* spp., and *Enterobacter* spp. [44]. Secondary analysis of the data obtained in 485 intubated patients with HAP who were part of this project and in whom confirmed etiology and antibiotic susceptibility patterns were available identified that presence of severe sepsis/septic shock (OR = 3.7, 95 % CI 1.5–8.9) and pneumonia developed in centers with greater than 25 % prevalence of MDR pathogens (OR = 11.3, 95 % CI 2.1–59.3) were independently associated with MDR, even in patients with early onset pneumonia and no other risk factors [14].

Conclusion:

Most of the currently available studies on nosocomial pneumonia in the ICU have shown that a majority of these infections are caused by GNB often highly resistant to antibiotics, rendering difficult the selection of the initial antimicrobial treatment. Although microbial etiologies are frequently poorly documented in HAP cases, the agents responsible for the infection are mostly identical to those observed in VAP, regardless whether pneumonia is acquired during ventilation or not (Table 2). Therefore, when selecting initial antimicrobial therapy in patients with HAP/VAP, more attention should be paid to individual risk factors for MDR pathogens, severity of the clinical situation and the local epidemiology than to the type of pneumonia. In the future, molecular assays directly applicable to respiratory specimen testing might allow to rapidly determine which pathogen is responsible for infection and thus greatly facilitate the selection of the initial regimen, while avoiding using broad-spectrum antibiotics if no MDR pathogens are identified from a deep respiratory tract sample (endotracheal aspirate or BAL) [3,48].

Key points:

- Better knowledge of the pathogens involved in HAP/VAP may allow reassessment of our current modalities of therapy and definition of better protocols, avoiding initially inappropriate antimicrobial therapy as well as excessive use of broad-spectrum antibiotics.
- HAP/VAP are frequently caused by highly resistant GNB, including *P. aeruginosa* and ESBL-producing Enterobacteriaceae, with minimal differences between these two entities (Tables 1 and 2).
- When selecting initial antimicrobial therapy in patients with HAP/VAP, more attention should be paid to the durations of hospital and ICU stays before onset of the disease, the individual risk factors for MDR pathogens, the severity of the clinical situation and the local epidemiology than to the type of pneumonia.

References:

1. Weiss E, Essaied W, Adrie C, Zahar J-R, Timsit J-F. Treatment of severe hospitalacquired and ventilator-associated pneumonia: a systematic review of inclusion and judgment criteria used in randomized controlled trials. Crit Care **2017**; 21:162.

Weiner LM, Webb AK, Limbago B, et al. Antimicrobial-Resistant Pathogens
 Associated With Healthcare-Associated Infections: Summary of Data Reported to the
 National Healthcare Safety Network at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2011 2014. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol **2016**; 37:1288–1301.

3. Torres A, Niederman MS, Chastre J, et al. International ERS/ESICM/ESCMID/ALAT guidelines for the management of hospital-acquired pneumonia and ventilator-associated pneumonia: Guidelines for the management of hospital-acquired pneumonia

(HAP)/ventilator-associated pneumonia (VAP) of the European Respiratory Society (ERS),

European Society of Intensive Care Medicine (ESICM), European Society of Clinical

Microbiology and Infectious Diseases (ESCMID) and Asociación Latinoamericana del Tórax

(ALAT). Eur Respir J 2017; 50 (3).

**Recently published European recommandations for the management of hospital-acquired and ventilator-associated pneumonia

4. Kalil AC, Metersky ML, Klompas M, et al. Management of Adults With Hospitalacquired and Ventilator-associated Pneumonia: 2016 Clinical Practice Guidelines by the Infectious Diseases Society of America and the American Thoracic Society. Clin Infect Dis **2016**; 63:e61–e111.

5. Dananché C, Vanhems P, Machut A, et al. Trends of Incidence and Risk Factors of Ventilator-Associated Pneumonia in Elderly Patients Admitted to French ICUs Between 2007 and 2014. Crit Care Med **2018**; 46:869–877.

6. Polverino E, Goeminne PC, McDonnell MJ, et al. European Respiratory Society guidelines for the management of adult bronchiectasis. Eur Respir J **2017**; 50 (3).

 Magill SS, Edwards JR, Fridkin SK, Emerging Infections Program Healthcare-Associated Infections and Antimicrobial Use Prevalence Survey Team. Survey of health careassociated infections. N Engl J Med 2014; 370:2542–2543.

8. Sader HS, Farrell DJ, Flamm RK, Jones RN. Antimicrobial susceptibility of Gramnegative organisms isolated from patients hospitalised with pneumonia in US and European hospitals: results from the SENTRY Antimicrobial Surveillance Program, 2009-2012. Int J Antimicrob Agents **2014**; 43:328–334.

9. Torres A, Zhong N, Pachl J, et al. Ceftazidime-avibactam versus meropenem in nosocomial pneumonia, including ventilator-associated pneumonia (REPROVE): a randomised, double-blind, phase 3 non-inferiority trial. Lancet Infect Dis **2018**; 18:285–295.

10. Ferrer M, Difrancesco LF, Liapikou A, et al. Polymicrobial intensive care unitacquired pneumonia: prevalence, microbiology and outcome. Crit Care **2015**; 19:450.

11. Combes A, Figliolini C, Trouillet J-L, et al. Incidence and outcome of polymicrobial ventilator-associated pneumonia. Chest **2002**; 121:1618–1623.

12. Trouillet JL, Chastre J, Vuagnat A, et al. Ventilator-associated pneumonia caused by potentially drug-resistant bacteria. Am J Respir Crit Care Med **1998**; 157:531–539.

Ferrer M, Liapikou A, Valencia M, et al. Validation of the American Thoracic
 Society-Infectious Diseases Society of America guidelines for hospital-acquired pneumonia
 in the intensive care unit. Clin Infect Dis **2010**; 50:945–952.

14. Martin-Loeches I, Deja M, Koulenti D, et al. Potentially resistant microorganisms in intubated patients with hospital-acquired pneumonia: the interaction of ecology, shock and risk factors. Intensive Care Med **2013**; 39:672–681.

 Martin-Loeches I, Povoa P, Rodríguez A, et al. Incidence and prognosis of ventilatorassociated tracheobronchitis (TAVeM): a multicentre, prospective, observational study.
 Lancet Respir Med 2015; 3:859–868. 16. Gastmeier P, Sohr D, Geffers C, Rüden H, Vonberg R-P, Welte T. Early- and lateonset pneumonia: is this still a useful classification? Antimicrob Agents Chemother **2009**; 53:2714–2718.

17. Restrepo MI, Peterson J, Fernandez JF, Qin Z, Fisher AC, Nicholson SC. Comparison of the bacterial etiology of early-onset and late-onset ventilator-associated pneumonia in subjects enrolled in 2 large clinical studies. Respir Care **2013**; 58:1220–1225.

18. Rosenthal VD, Maki DG, Mehta Y, et al. International Nosocomial Infection Control Consortium (INICC) report, data summary of 43 countries for 2007-2012. Device-associated module. Am J Infect Control **2014**; 42:942–956.

19. Carbonne H, Le Dorze M, Bourrel A-S, et al. Relation between presence of extendedspectrum β -lactamase-producing Enterobacteriaceae in systematic rectal swabs and respiratory tract specimens in ICU patients. Ann Intensive Care **2017**; 7:13.

20. Razazi K, Mekontso Dessap A, Carteaux G, et al. Frequency, associated factors and outcome of multi-drug-resistant intensive care unit-acquired pneumonia among patients colonized with extended-spectrum β -lactamase-producing Enterobacteriaceae. Ann Intensive Care **2017**; 7:61.

21. Bruyère R, Vigneron C, Bador J, et al. Significance of Prior Digestive Colonization With Extended-Spectrum β -Lactamase-Producing Enterobacteriaceae in Patients With Ventilator-Associated Pneumonia. Crit Care Med **2016**; 44:699–706.

22. Bassetti M, Rodríguez-Baño J. Should we take into account ESBLs in empirical antibiotic treatment? Intensive Care Med **2016**; 42:2059–2062.

23. Anago E, Ayi-Fanou L, Akpovi CD, et al. Antibiotic resistance and genotype of betalactamase producing Escherichia coli in nosocomial infections in Cotonou, Benin. Ann Clin Microbiol Antimicrob **2015**; 14:5. 24. Rottier WC, van Werkhoven CH, Bamberg YRP, et al. Development of diagnostic prediction tools for bacteraemia caused by 3rd generation cephalosporin-resistant
Enterobacteriaceae in suspected bacterial infections: a nested case-control study. Clin
Microbiol Infect **2018 (in press)**

*Retrospective nested case-control study performed in Dutch hospitals. A scoring system based on 9 clinical predictors available at infection onset allowed to identify hospital-onset infection caused by 3rd generation cephalosporin-resistant GNB with an acceptable sensitivity.

25. van Duin D, Doi Y. The global epidemiology of carbapenemase-producing

Enterobacteriaceae. Virulence 2017; 8:460–469.

26. Grundmann H, Glasner C, Albiger B, et al. Occurrence of carbapenemase-producing Klebsiella pneumoniae and Escherichia coli in the European survey of carbapenemase-producing Enterobacteriaceae (EuSCAPE): a prospective, multinational study. Lancet Infect Dis **2017**: 17:153–163

Dis **2017**; 17:153–163.

27. Delle Rose D, Pezzotti P, Fortunato E, et al. Clinical predictors and microbiology of ventilator-associated pneumonia in the intensive care unit: a retrospective analysis in six Italian hospitals. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis **2016**; 35:1531–1539.

28. Tumbarello M, Trecarichi EM, Tumietto F, et al. Predictive models for identification of hospitalized patients harboring KPC-producing Klebsiella pneumoniae. Antimicrob Agents Chemother **2014**; 58:3514–3520.

29. Hussein K, Sprecher H, Mashiach T, Oren I, Kassis I, Finkelstein R. Carbapenem resistance among Klebsiella pneumoniae isolates: risk factors, molecular characteristics, and susceptibility patterns. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol **2009**; 30:666–671.

30. Kollef MH, Chastre J, Fagon J-Y, et al. Global prospective epidemiologic and surveillance study of ventilator-associated pneumonia due to Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Crit Care Med **2014**; 42:2178–2187.

31. Venier AG, Gruson D, Lavigne T, et al. Identifying new risk factors for Pseudomonas aeruginosa pneumonia in intensive care units: experience of the French national surveillance, REA-RAISIN. J Hosp Infect **2011**; 79:44–48.

32. Lynch JP, Zhanel GG, Clark NM. Infections Due to Acinetobacter baumannii in the ICU: Treatment Options. Semin Respir Crit Care Med **2017**; 38:311–325.

33. Chung DR, Song J-H, Kim SH, et al. High prevalence of multidrug-resistant
nonfermenters in hospital-acquired pneumonia in Asia. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2011;
184:1409–1417.

34. Hidron AI, Edwards JR, Patel J, et al. NHSN annual update: antimicrobial-resistant pathogens associated with healthcare-associated infections: annual summary of data reported to the National Healthcare Safety Network at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2006-2007. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol **2008**; 29:996–1011.

35. Inchai J, Pothirat C, Liwsrisakun C, Deesomchok A, Kositsakulchai W,

Chalermpanchai N. Ventilator-associated pneumonia: epidemiology and prognostic indicators of 30-day mortality. Jpn J Infect Dis **2015**; 68:181–186.

36. Vazquez-Guillamet MC, Vazquez R, Micek ST, Kollef MH. Predicting Resistance to Piperacillin-Tazobactam, Cefepime and Meropenem in Septic Patients With Bloodstream Infection Due to Gram-Negative Bacteria. Clin Infect Dis **2017**; 65:1607–1614.

*Retrospective monocenter study. Using simple variables, the authors could identify patients with high probability of resistance to broad-spectrum antibiotics.

37. Koulenti D, Tsigou E, Rello J. Nosocomial pneumonia in 27 ICUs in Europe:
perspectives from the EU-VAP/CAP study. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2017; 36:1999–2006.

38. Nowak J, Zander E, Stefanik D, et al. High incidence of pandrug-resistant Acinetobacter baumannii isolates collected from patients with ventilator-associated pneumonia in Greece, Italy and Spain as part of the MagicBullet clinical trial. J Antimicrob Chemother **2017**; 72:3277–3282.

39. Ekren PK, Ranzani OT, Ceccato A, et al. Evaluation of the 2016 Infectious Diseases Society of America/American Thoracic Society Guideline Criteria for Risk of Multidrug-Resistant Pathogens in Patients with Hospital-acquired and Ventilator-associated Pneumonia in the ICU. Am J Respir Crit Care Med **2018**; 197:826–830.

40. Leroy O, Jaffré S, D'Escrivan T, et al. Hospital-acquired pneumonia: risk factors for antimicrobial-resistant causative pathogens in critically ill patients. Chest **2003**; 123:2034–2042.

41. Montravers P, Harpan A, Guivarch E. Current and Future Considerations for the Treatment of Hospital-Acquired Pneumonia. Adv Ther **2016**; 33:151–166.

42. Corrado RE, Lee D, Lucero DE, Varma JK, Vora NM. Burden of Adult Communityacquired, Health-care-Associated, Hospital-Acquired, and Ventilator-Associated Pneumonia: New York City, 2010 to 2014. Chest **2017**; 152:930–942.

43. Quartin AA, Scerpella EG, Puttagunta S, Kett DH. A comparison of microbiology and demographics among patients with healthcare-associated, hospital-acquired, and ventilator-associated pneumonia: a retrospective analysis of 1184 patients from a large, international study. BMC Infect Dis **2013**; 13:561.

44. Jones RN. Microbial etiologies of hospital-acquired bacterial pneumonia and ventilator-associated bacterial pneumonia. Clin Infect Dis **2010**; 51 Suppl 1:S81-87.

45. Giunta V, Ferrer M, Esperatti M, et al. ICU-acquired pneumonia with or without etiologic diagnosis: a comparison of outcomes. Crit Care Med **2013**; 41:2133–2143.

46. Cilloniz C, Martin-Loeches I, Garcia-Vidal C, San Jose A, Torres A. Microbial
Etiology of Pneumonia: Epidemiology, Diagnosis and Resistance Patterns. Int J Mol Sci
2016; 17.

47. Esperatti M, Ferrer M, Theessen A, et al. Nosocomial pneumonia in the intensive care unit acquired by mechanically ventilated versus nonventilated patients. Am J Respir Crit Care Med **2010**; 182:1533–1539.

48. Kollef MH, Burnham C-AD. Ventilator-Associated Pneumonia: The Role of Emerging Diagnostic Technologies. Semin Respir Crit Care Med 2017; 38:253–263.

Table 1. Most common etiological pathogens isolated from patients with VAP, as documented in a prospective observational study that enrolled patients from 27 ICUs in nine European countries (By courtesy of Dr. Koulenti, Ref. 37).

Causative pathogen	VAP* (n=465)		
	Early-VAP (<5 days)	Late-VAP (\geq 5 days)	
	(n=193)	(n=272)	
Unknown, n (%)	48 (24.9)	61 (22.4)	
Other, n (%)	43 (22.3)	26 (9.6)	
Staphylococcus aureus, n (%)	58 (62.4)	58 (21.3)	
MRSA, n (%)	18 (9.3)	34 (12.5)	
MSSA, n (%)	40 (20.7)	24 (8.8)	
P. aeruginosa, n (%)	26 (13.5)	55 (20.2)	
Acinetobacter spp., n (%)	16 (8.3)	56 (20.6)	
Enterobacteriaceae, n (%)	61(31.6)	92 (33.8)	
Polymicrobial infection, n (%)	50 (25.9)	64 (23.5)	

*VAP was defined as pneumonia arising 48 hours or more after endotracheal intubation with no evidence of pneumonia at the time of intubation. All 465 episodes of VAP were first episodes.

Table 2. Most common etiological pathogens grouped by type of pneumonia, as documented in a prospective observational study that enrolled patients from 27 ICUs in nine European countries (By courtesy of Dr. Koulenti, Ref. 37).

Causative pathogen	Very early-VAP*	VAP**	HAP†
	(n=138)	(n=465)	(n=224)
Unknown, n (%)	59 (42.8)	109 (23.4)	84 (37.5)
Other, n (%)	31 (22.5)	69 (14.8)	20 (8.9)
Staphylococcus aureus, n (%)	26 (18.8)	116 (24.9)	44 (19.6)
MRSA, n (%)	10 (7.2)	52 (11.2)	30 (13.4)
MSSA, n (%)	16 (11.6)	64 (13.8)	14 (6.3)
<i>P. aeruginosa</i> , n (%)	16 (11.6)	81 (12.5)	36 (16.1)
Acinetobacter spp., n (%)	8 (5.8)	72 (15.5)	30 (13.4)
Enterobacteriaceae, n (%)	29 (21)	153 (32.9)	70 (31.3)
Polymicrobial infection, n (%)	25 (18.1)	114 (24.5)	46 (20.5)

*Very early VAP was defined as pneumonia developing within 48 hours after intubation. **VAP was defined as pneumonia arising 48 hours or more after endotracheal intubation with no evidence of pneumonia at the time of intubation. All 465 episodes of VAP were first episodes.

[†]HAP was defined as a lung infection presenting in nonintubated patients 48 hours or more after hospital admission, which was not already incubating at the time of such hospital admission.