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耐碳青霉烯肠杆菌科细菌的流行病学特点以及抗生素应用策略

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摘要: 耐碳青霉烯肠杆菌科细菌 (carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae, CRE) 在全球范围内的快速增长和流行, 直接影响临床治疗与患者预后, 并给社会经济带来了严重负担。目前 CRE 临床治疗可供选择的药物有黏菌素、氨基糖苷类、替加环素和磷霉素等; 美国食品药品监督局 (FDA) 批准的新药即头孢他啶 / 阿维巴坦 (ceftazidime/avibactam, CAZ-AVI)、美罗培南 / 瓦博巴坦 (meropenem/vaborbactam, MER-VAB)、亚胺培南 / 雷巴坦 (imipenam/ribatam, AMI-LEI) 和 plazomicin 也为 CRE 感染治疗提供了新的选择, 但各类药物的治疗效果、新的耐药产生及不良反应各有不同, 为优化临床治疗方案, 提高治疗效果, 本文对 CRE 的治疗药物的现状做一分析。

关键词: 碳青霉烯酶; 肠杆菌科细菌; 流行; 耐药; 治疗

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Epidemiology and treatment strategies for carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae

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Abstract Carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae (CRE) spreads worldwide, which results in susceptibility and extremely high mortality, and becomes a major public health threat in the world. So far, some antibiotics, colistin, aminoglycosides, tegacycline, and fosfomycin, applied in clinic, are available for CRE. Besides, new drugs which have been approved by United States Food and Drug Administration (FDA), such as ceftazidime-avibactam (CAZ-AVI), meropenem-vaborbactam (MER-VAB), amipenam-Leibatan (AMI-LEI), and plazomicin, offer options for CRE. However, application of these drugs is seriously limited by the rapid resistance of pathogenic bacteria. In the article, the authors reviewed the epidemiology and treatment strategies of CRE to provide correct information to the doctor.

Key words Carbapenemase; Enterobacteriaceae bacteria; Epidemiology; Drug resistance; Treatment

革兰阴性菌尤其是肠杆菌科细菌对抗生素的耐药性严重威胁着公众健康。碳青霉烯类抗生素被认为是治疗多重耐药细菌感染的最后选择, 但随着其广泛应用, 耐碳青霉烯类肠杆菌科细菌 (carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae, CRE) 激增^[1], 给全球带来一场健

康危机。CRE 定义为对亚胺培南、美罗培南、厄他培南或多利培南任何一种碳青霉烯类抗生素耐药的肠杆菌科细菌或者证实产碳青霉烯酶的肠杆菌科细菌 (carbapenemase-producing Enterobacteriaceae, CPE)。CRE 感染与患者的高发病率和死亡率密切

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相关，对基础疾病严重及重症监护室(intensive care unit, ICU)的患者危害更大。找到有效而规范的治疗方案是提高救治率的关键。目前用于治疗CRE的药物有黏菌素、氨基糖苷类、替加环素和磷霉素等，新的抗CRE抗生素及其复合制剂也在不断开发并被美国食品药品监督局(United States Food and Drug Administration, FDA)批准上市，包括头孢他啶-阿维巴坦(ceftazidime-avibactam, CAZ-AVI)、美罗培南-瓦博巴坦(meropenem-vaborbactam, MER-VAB)、亚胺培南-雷巴坦(imipenam-ribatam, AMI-LEI)和plazomicin等，在治疗CRE感染方面得到了较好的疗效，但也应注意其耐药性出现的情况。

1 CRE的主要耐药机制及流行病学特点

近20年来，CRE在全球范围内广泛传播并快速增加^[2-3]，世界卫生组织将其列为首批耐药的“关键优先病原体”之一^[4]。CRE主要的耐药机制是产生碳青霉烯酶，碳青霉烯酶根据水解位点不同可分为丝氨酸酶和金属碳青霉烯酶。丝氨酸碳青霉烯酶包括A组(主要为KPC)和D组(主要为OXA-48)；金属碳青霉烯酶为B组，主要为NDM和VIM。A组碳青霉烯酶可水解青霉素类、氨曲南及头孢菌素类药物，其活性不被乙二胺四乙酸(ethylenediamine tetra acetic acid, EDTA)抑制^[5]；B组可水解包括碳青霉烯类以及头孢菌素在内的所有β-内酰胺类抗生素，但不能水解氨曲南，其活性可被EDTA抑制^[6]；D组可水解碳青霉烯类和广谱头孢菌素，其活性不被EDTA抑制^[7-8]。

不同人群和地区的菌株耐药机制也有所不同。产KPC型碳青霉烯酶的肠杆菌科细菌多分布于美国和以色列^[9-10]，OXA-48型多分布于土耳其和非洲的部分国家^[11-13]，NDM型多分布于英国和印度^[14-15]，而VIM型则与KPC型以不同形式的共存主要分布于希腊和意大利^[16-17]。我国KPC型和NDM型是CRE耐药的主要决定因素，总体带菌率分别达到63%和34%^[18]。然而，这两种编码基因在不同地区和不同年龄人群的分布极不均匀，如在福建省分离的50例CRE菌株中，48(96%)株产KPC，而在陕西省分离的76株CRE中，74(97%)株产NDM^[18]；儿童患者分离的CRE菌株主要产NDM-1，而成人患者分离的菌株主要产生KPC^[19]。

2 CRE的死亡率

CRE感染带来临床治疗失败、住院时间延长、医疗成本及社会经济负担增加等一系列社会问

题，同时在医院环境中，由CRE引起的感染相对于碳青霉烯抗生素敏感菌(carbapenem-susceptible Enterobacteriaceae, CSE)感染往往具有更复杂的疾病严重性和更多的并发症^[20]。有研究显示，CRE感染患者的死亡率约为CSE感染患者的3倍^[21]。一项包括2462位CRKP感染者及2239位碳青霉烯敏感肺炎克雷伯菌(carbapenem-susceptible *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, CSKP)感染者的研究显示，CRKP感染患者的总死亡率为42.14%，明显高于CSKP感染患者的总死亡率(21.16%)^[22]。多项研究显示CRE更易感染老年人、免疫功能低下和危重症患者，美国国立卫生研究院的一起CRE感染大暴发，主要累及原发性免疫缺陷、实体瘤、淋巴瘤、器官和骨髓移植患者^[23-25]。如果重症患者发生CRE的血流感染，死亡率达40%~50%^[26]；免疫低下的中性粒细胞减少症和血液恶性肿瘤患者感染CRE引起的血流感染中，89%的患者首次经验治疗无效，死亡率高达69%^[27]。探索有效的CRE治疗方案是提高患者救治率的关键。

3 CRE的治疗策略

CRE感染有限的治疗方法把我们推向了后抗生素时代的风口浪尖。目前，临床治疗CRE感染的可选择药物有黏菌素、氨基糖苷类、替加环素和磷霉素等，但各类药物的临床疗效因敏感性差异各有不同，同时需要考虑其安全性。抗生素联合治疗是近年来CRE感染重症患者的主要方案。增加抗菌活性、发挥协同效应以及降低细菌耐药性的发生率是选择多种抗生素联合治疗的主要目的。

3.1 治疗CRE的现有药物

黏菌素是从革兰阳性多黏菌发酵产物中提取的一类抗菌物质，黏菌素与脂质中带负电荷的磷酸盐部分结合，破坏细胞膜导致细胞内产物丢失，从而达到杀菌活性。由于其对CRE菌株有较高的敏感性，过去黏菌素和多黏菌素B一直是控制CRE感染的主要药物，目前对于低风险或主要产生金属β-内酰胺酶的高危CRE患者，黏菌素仍为第一选择^[28-29]。最近研究发现黏菌素联合替加环素及亚胺培南可分别产生70%和75%的协同作用，从而极大提高CRE感染患者的临床疗效^[30]；另外黏菌素联合美罗培南在一定程度上也可降低CRE的临床失败率(46% vs 68%, P=0.185)和28d死亡率(21% vs 35%, P=0.235)，但并无显著性差异^[31]。但也有研究显示黏菌素联合治疗效果并未明显优于单药治疗，增加黏菌素剂量可提高疗效并显著降低CRE感染患者的30d死亡

率，但随之而来的高肾毒性(10%~60%)和神经毒性(4%~6%)限制了黏菌素治疗CRE感染的临床应用，且目前已有对黏菌素耐药的CRE暴发的报道，临床治疗需密切监测^[32-33]。有研究结果显示黏菌素和多黏菌素B的肾毒性临床疗效相似，但肾毒性前者(26.7%)明显低于后者(29.8%)^[34]。

氨基糖苷类药物的药动学特性是决定这类药物使用的关键因素，如在治疗CRE引起的尿路感染和菌血症方面疗效显著，而对软组织和腹部感染的疗效较差。对于CRE尿路感染的患者，氨基糖苷类药物的疗效优于黏菌素和替加环素，其对CRKP菌血症患者的临床有效率可达54%，其中14d生存率达78%，30d生存率达70%^[35]；提高庆大霉素的剂量(4~5mg/(kg·d)，15~20mg/L)可显著降低其对黏菌素耐药的CRKP感染患者的30d死亡(20.7% vs 61.9%)^[36]；但也有研究显示氨基糖苷类药物单药治疗CRE感染患者的死亡率可达80%，且易出现广泛耐药^[37]，因此目前临床通常将其作为“辅助”抗生素，通过组合来提高主要抗生素的疗效。多项研究显示在治疗由KPC型菌株引起的泌尿系感染时，氨基糖苷类药物联合替加环素、黏菌素比单药治疗有更高的治愈率^[38-39]。氨基糖苷类药物联合另一种蛋白合成抑制剂替加环素，对CRKP菌株显示有70%~85%的协同作用^[40]。肾毒性是使用氨基糖苷类最常见的不良反应，在一周或更长时间内给予高剂量负荷对患者具有明显的毒性风险^[41]。临床治疗应根据患者状况充分衡量利弊。

替加环素作为一种甘氨酸环素类抗生素，是米诺环素的半合成衍生物，通过干扰细菌蛋白质合成起到抑菌活性。FDA批准替加环素可用于治疗复杂的皮肤及腹腔内感染和社区获得性肺炎。替加环素在治疗成人CRE感染时具有较高的敏感性(97.4%)，在治疗儿童患者中，有效率可达82%^[42]。替加环素的常规剂量为每日两次，每次50mg。研究显示替加环素高负荷剂量(200mg)可有效治疗CRE感染患者的血流感染和肺部感染情况，但随着高剂量出现的并发症，及纤维蛋白原水平降低引起的机体稳态紊乱可能会抵消这种疗效^[28]。替加环素在细胞和组织内可迅速积聚，但多项研究显示替加环素单药治疗效果不佳^[43]。对比单药治疗，替加环素联合黏菌素可有效降低CRE感染患者的30d死亡率^[21,43-44]；联合庆大霉素可显著降低KPC型患者的30d死亡率^[45]。替加环素最常见的副作用是胃肠道疾病，如恶心、呕

吐和腹泻。

磷霉素是一种细胞壁活性抗生素，通过竞争性抑制磷酸烯醇式丙酮酸合成酶，阻断N-乙酰壁胺酸的形成，从而抑制肽聚糖的合成。磷霉素对大约80%的CRE，包括对黏菌素和替加环素敏感性降低的菌株均有广泛的杀菌作用，约66%的NDM、77%IMP和57%OXA-48对磷霉素敏感^[46-47]。磷霉素单药多用于治疗慢性尿路感染，临床有效率达90.8%，治愈率达64.7%，但在中国，CRKP菌株对磷霉素具有较高的耐药率(60%)^[48]。因此临床将磷霉素与黏菌素、美罗培南、替加环素或庆大霉素联合治疗严重的CRE感染，患者治愈率可显著提高^[49]。另有研究显示OXA-48型CRE所有菌株对美罗培南、亚胺培南和磷霉素单药均显示耐药，但当磷霉素联合美罗培南(33%)、亚胺培南(42%)和替加环素(33%)时均能显著提高临床有效率^[50]。磷霉素口服治疗多引起头痛、阴道炎和胃肠道等症状；静脉给药多引起低钾血症、高钠血症、局部疼痛和心力衰竭等副作用。

黏菌素、氨基糖苷类、替加环素和磷霉素药物单药或联合治疗CRE的方案仍存在抗菌活性、耐药性及不良反应等方面的诸多问题，为了优化治疗，临床仍需要不断探索联合治疗的药物组合及抗菌药物剂量的研究，而且目前针对CRE感染的多种新型加酶抑制剂的复合抗生素已处于临床应用或临床前研究阶段。

3.2 治疗CRE的新型药物

头孢他啶/阿维巴坦(ceftazidime-avibactam, CAZ-AVI)是一种新型β-内酰胺酶抑制剂复合制剂，可抑制A组(如KPC)和D组(如OXA-48)CRE，抗菌活性可达98%^[51-52]，然而B组(如VIM、IMP和NDM)不受阿维巴坦的抑制^[53]。2015年FDA和欧洲药品管理局(European Medicines Agency, EMA)批准CAZ-AVI用于治疗复杂性尿路感染、腹腔感染、医院获得性和呼吸机相关性肺炎，且EMA已扩大其适应症，包括治疗选择有限的耐药革兰阴性菌感染的患者^[54]。目前研究发现使用CAZ-AVI药物治疗的CRE感染患者的30d生存率可达76%^[35]，且治疗组生存率增加了92%(12/13)，而其他方案的生存率增加了55%(53/96)，其他方案主要包括黏菌素、氨基糖苷类和碳青霉烯的联合或单一治疗($P=0.01$)^[55-56]。虽然这些数据令人鼓舞，但值得关注的是，8%的CRE感染患者已出现对CAZ-AVI耐药的情况^[56]。目前有

研究发现 CAZ-AVI 联合其他抗生素可提高 CRE 感染患者的临床疗效，如联合黏菌素治疗组的全因死亡率比 CAZ-AVI 单药组显著降低 ($P=0.001$)^[55]；联合氨曲南这一稳定水解金属 β -内酰胺酶的抗生素可有效抑制 B 组 CRE 菌株的活性 (90%, 27/30)^[57-58]。

对 CRE 分离物有效的新药 MER-VAB 和 AMI-LEI 是碳青霉烯类抗生素和新型 β -内酰胺酶抑制剂的联合制剂，可有效抑制 A 组 CRE 菌株的活性^[59]，但其对 B 组 (NDM、VIM) 或 D 组 (OXA-48) 在体外并未显示明显的抑菌效果^[60-63]。2017 年，MER-VAB 治疗各种生物引起的复杂尿路感染的疗效在 TANGO I 期试验中证实，且 MER-VAB 在体外对 CRE 菌株有良好的抑菌效果，敏感性可达 66.2%~100%^[64-65]。目前 MER-VAB 对 CRE 感染的研究仍在进行中。雷巴坦 (以前称为 MK-7655) 结构上与阿维巴坦相似，通过降低药物的最低抑菌浓度显著提高亚胺培南对大多数肠杆菌科细菌的活性。两项已完成的 II 期临床试验 (NCT01506271 和 NCT01505634) 结果显示亚胺培南 - 雷巴坦治疗复杂腹腔内感染比单独使用亚胺培南有更高的有效性和安全性。迄今为止，MER-VAB 和 AMI-LEI 在健康受试者和传染病患者中均表现出良好的耐受性，很少有报道与药物治疗相关的严重不良事件。

Plazomicin(原名 ACHN-490) 是一种新型半合成氨基糖苷类药物，通过抑制细菌蛋白质的翻译过程进而起到杀菌作用。目前已被 FDA 批准用于成人复杂性尿路感染及肾盂肾炎的治疗^[66]。在治疗 CRE 感染的三期临床试验中，联合 plazomicin 比联合黏菌素更能显著降低 CRE 感染患者的死亡率、并发症和不良反应的发生率^[67]。另有研究显示 plazomicin 比其他氨基糖苷类抗生素有更高的敏感性，且更能抑制 KPC 菌的活性，但对 NDM 和 OXA-48 型菌株的疗效仍有待进一步研究^[68]。

随着新的抗生素和治疗模式的出现并得到更广泛的应用，重新评估由 CRE 和 CSE 引起的感染患者的死亡率将非常重要。对 CRE 感染的低危患者，单药治疗方案更为合理，而对高危亚群多药联合治疗可显著降低患者的并发症 (如严重脓毒血症、脓毒性休克和 / 或快速致命的潜在疾病高危血流或肺部感染患者) 及死亡率。尽管 CRE 患者高死亡率的确切原因尚不清楚，但这可能是由于早期接受适当的经经验疗法延迟所致。早期进行有效的抗菌素治疗对治

疗 CRE 引起的严重感染至关重要，延迟适当的抗菌治疗与死亡率增加和住院时间延长显著相关。然而，由于目前各类抗生素耐药率较高，选择经验性处理往往比较困难。另外 CAZ-AVI 和 MER-VAB 有望成为引起严重感染的高危 CRE 患者靶向治疗的首选^[69]。

4 总结

综上所述，日益升高的 CRE 临床感染率是一种巨大的临床挑战，而目前的治疗方案选择有限，且并发症及死亡率持续增高，合理使用抗生素对降低 CRE 流行有一定作用；对 CRE 患者进行早期、合理、联合、有效的抗菌治疗对降低患者的死亡率和严重并发症发生率至关重要。

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