

BRIEF COMMUNICATION**Ventilator-Associated
Pneumonia in Patients with
2009 Pandemic Influenza A
(H1N1) Infection: An
Observational Study**

D. CURCIO¹ - L. FERREIRA CABRERA² - A. DUARTE³ - E. VALENCIA⁴ - C.H. PAZ CHÁVEZ⁵ - C. IBÁÑEZ-GUZMÁN⁶ - M. JÁTIVA⁷ - L. SOTO GERMANI⁸ - J.C. FERNÁNDEZ MERCADO⁹ - Z.U. CONTRERAS¹⁰ - F. MOLINA SALDARRIAGA¹¹ - I. RAMOS PALOMINO¹² - A. ALÍ¹³

The 2009 pandemic influenza A (H1N1) virus has emerged to cause the first pandemic of the 21st century. As of mid-November, approximately 500,000 confirmed cases of 2009 pandemic influenza A (H1N1) infection had been reported to the World Health Organization (WHO). The true worldwide disease burden is yet unknown, but at least 100 times more people than those reported to the WHO have already been infected with this virus¹.

Most clinical disease is relatively mild but complications leading to hospitalization, with the need for intensive care, can occur, especially in very young children, during pregnancy, in morbid obesity, and in those with underlying medical conditions such as chronic lung and cardiac diseases, diabetes, and immunosuppression. Pneumonia is the most common and serious complication of the 2009 influenza A (H1N1) and it has played a significant role in fatal cases². The clinical course of some cases was characterized by severe pneumonia, hypoxemia with multifocal infiltrates on chest x-ray, and rapid progression to acute respiratory distress syndrome and renal or multi-organ failure with requirement of advanced mechanical ventilation³.

The aim of this study was to describe the epidemiological characteristics, clinical features, antibiotic treatment and outcomes of patients with confirmed 2009 influenza A (H1N1) infection complicated by ventilator-associated pneumonia (VAP).

The participating hospitals were from Argentina (n=2), Bolivia (n=1), Chile (n=2), Colombia (n=5), Ecuador (n=1), and Perú (n=2). The physicians used a standardized website form (<http://www.clinicalrec.com.ar>) that included demographic data, influenza-vaccination history for the previous year, risk factors for influenza disease, severity of illness at admission (measured by the APACHE II and SOFA scores), length of stay,

microbiological documentation of VAP, antibiotic treatment and clinical outcomes.

Established criteria were used to define VAP⁴. Bacterial identification and susceptibility testing was performed according to the clinical microbiology procedures handbook⁵.

Outcomes were defined as clinical success (partial or complete improvement of signs/symptoms of infection), clinical failure (no improvement or deterioration of signs/symptoms of infection), or indeterminate.

The study was based on an anonymous case registry methodology and did not require the prescription of specific drugs or other treatments, nor the performance of procedures or diagnostic tests other than the ones prescribed by the responsible physician; therefore informed consent was not required by the institutional review board from the participating institutions.

Results are expressed as proportions. When applicable, two tailed hypothesis testing for difference in proportions was used (Proportion Test); a p value of <0.05 was considered significant.

Thirteen intensive care units (ICU) participated and recruited 59 adult patients (18y) with real-time RT-PCR-confirmed infection with 2009 influenza A (H1N1) and requirement of respiratory support in the form of invasive ventilation admitted during the period June 10th and September 15th 2009. All patients requiring had chest radiograph findings consistent with a diagnosis of acute respiratory distress syndrome.

Patients' median age was 45.6 years (range 18-80; SD ± 14.9); 29 were males (49%).

The median APACHE II score at admission was 18.2 (range 1-39; SD ± 9.9) (<15 in 26/59 patients -44%, and 15 in 33/59 patients -66%) (Table 1). In relation with the SOFA score at admission the median was 8.5 (range 2-18; SD ± 3.6) (Table 1).

In this patient population, the prevalence of risk factors for influenza disease 68% (40/59) (Table 1). Obesity (defined as a body mass index of >30m/kg), asthma, and diabetes mellitus, chronic obstructive were the risk factors more frequently observed (50% -20/40-, 42.5% -17/40- and 25% -10/40- respectively). No patient had received influenza-vaccination during the previous year, also, no patients had pathogens isolated in the respiratory samples taken at admission.

The mean of days of mechanical ventilation (MV) and length of stay (LOS) was 10.9 days (range 1-72; SD ± 11.63) and 12.3 days (range 1-72; SD ± 12.5) respectively.

Fifty-four percent of the patients (32/59) had VAP as nosocomial complication. The mean ICU stay before diagnosis of VAP was 9.5 days (range, 5-16).

In 31/32 patients (97%) 41 microorganisms considered as the causative agent of the infection were isolated (monomicrobial 69% [22/32] and polymicrobial 31% [10/32]). Among these isolates, *Acinetobacter* spp. (72%, 23/32; in 37% of cases carbapenem-resistant), methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (37.5%, 12/32), and extended-spectrum β-lactamase-producing Enterobacteriaceae (10%, 13/132) were the most common microorganisms, followed by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (6%, 2/32, in both cases carbapenem-susceptible) and *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* (3%, 1/32).

Seventeen patients (53%) had VAP with bacteremia; in all cases with positive blood cultures for *Acinetobacter* spp.

Overall, attending physicians reported clinical success in 28 patients (47.5%). The clinical success rate showed no significant difference between patients with or without VAP (47% vs 48%, p= 0.6049; 95% CI= -0.27-0.24), as well as in patients with bacteriemic and non-bacteriemic VAP (35% vs 60%, p= 0.2971; 95% CI= -0.59-0.09) (Table 1).

The global mortality was 49% (29/59 patients) without significant differences between patients with or without VAP (59%

¹ Instituto Sacre Cour, Argentina; ² Hospital Guillermo Grant Benavente, Chile; ³ Hospital Regional Río Grande, Argentina; ⁴ Clínica Sagrado Corazón, Colombia; ⁵ Hospital Central de la Fuerza Aérea y Clínica San Gabriel, Perú; ⁶ Hospital Obrero N° 1, Bolivia; ⁷ Hospital Eugenio Espejo, Ecuador; ⁸ Hospital San Pablo De Coquimbo, Chile; ⁹ Clínica Crecer, Colombia; ¹⁰ Clínica Universitaria del Norte de Santander, Colombia; ¹¹ Clínica Universitaria Bolivariana, Colombia; ¹² Clínica San Gabriel, Perú; ¹³ Fundación Cardioinfantil, Colombia.

Correspondence: Daniel Curcio, Santo Tomé 5239 4to 22 (1419), Capital Federal, Argentina. Phone: 5411-4567-4426. FAX: 5411-4001-0781. e-mail: djcurcio@gmail.com

vs 37%, p= 0.1475; 95% CI=-0.03-0.48), as well as in patients with bacteriemic and non-bacteriemic VAP (76.5% vs 40%, p= 0.0826; 95% CI=-0.08-0.02) (Table 1).

All patients received at admission a first antibiotic treatment for community-acquired pneumonia (CAP). Based on this data, we divided the patients into three groups according to the number of antibiotic courses received: Group I (27/59; 46%): patients without VAP who received only one course of antibiotics directed to CAP (average of 10.4 days); Group II (25/59; 42%): patients with VAP who received 2 courses of antibiotics for an

average of 18.7 days (the first directed to CAP and the second to VAP due to nosocomial pathogens), and Group III (7/59; 12%): patients with VAP who received 3 courses of antibiotics for an average of 26.4 days (the first directed to CAP, the second to VAP due to nosocomial pathogens and the third as a last resort treatment for VAP) (p 0.0000) (Table 2).

Neuraminidase inhibitors (ozeltamivir 75mg q12 in 53/59-90%- and 150 mg q12 in 6/59-10%-) were initiated in all patients at admission and concomitantly with the first course antibiotic treatment.

TABLE 1- Characteristics of 59 hospitalized patients who were infected with influenza A (H1N1)

	Global and Sub-set of patients						
	Global (n=59)	VAP (n=32)	Non-VAP (n=27)	p	Non-bacteriemic VAP (n=15)	Bacteriemic VAP (n=17)	p
Male; n (%)	29 (49)	17 (53)	12 (45)	0.6869	8 (54)	9 (53)	0.7393
Age; mean (range)	45.6 (18-80)	47.5 (18-80)	43.7 (18-73)	0.2711	46 (18-80)	49 (18-73)	0.2436
Risk factors; n (%)	40 (68)	20 (61)	20 (74)		8 (53)	12 (70.5)	
APACHE II; mean (range)	18.2 (1-39)	18.4 (1-39)	18 (3-36)	0.7990	17.8 (1-36)	19 (1-39)	0.6098
• ≤15	26 (44)	13 (41)	13 (48)	0.7515	7 (47)	6/17 (35)	0.7695
• >15	33 (56)	19 (59)	14 (52)	0.7515	8 (53)	11/17 (65)	0.7695
SOFA; mean (range)	8.5 (2-18)	8 (3-16)	9 (2-18)	0.2244	8.8 (2-18)	7.2 (3-16)	0.2539
Days of MV, mean (range)	10.9 (1-72)	11.9 (1-46)	9.77 (1-72)	0.6588	13.3 (1-46)	9.8 (1-34)	0.9803
LOS; mean (range)	12.3 (1-72)	13.2 (1-46)	11.4 (1-72)	0.7732	15.1 (1-72)	11.3 (1-34)	0.4698
Outcomes							
• Clinical success	28 (47.5)	15 (47)	13 (48)	0.8697	9 (60)	6/17 (35)	0.2971
• Failure	30 (51)	17 (53)	13 (48)	0.9048	6 (40)	11/17 (65)	0.2971
• Indeterminate	1 (2)	0	1 (4)	0.9316	0	0	NA
Mortality; n (%)	29 (49)	19 (59)	10 (37)	0.1475	13 (76.5)	6 (40)	0.0826

VAP=ventilador-associated pneumonia; LOS=length of stay

TABLE 2 - Antibiotic treatment of 59 hospitalized patients who were infected with influenza A (H1N1)

	Group I (n=27)	Group II (n=25)	Group III (n=7)
First course of antibiotic			
• Ceftriaxone + macrolides or fluorquinolones; n (%)	18 (66)	18 (72)	7 (100)
• Piperacillin/tazobactam + macrolides; n (%)	5 (19)	4 (16)	0
• Fluorquinolones alone; n (%)	4 (15)	3 (12)	0
Days; mean (range)	10.4 (1-20) ¹	7.88 (1-14) ²	5.6 (1-13) ³
Second course of antibiotic			
• Vancomycin + carbapenems; n (%)	NA	12 (48)	3 (43)
• Vancomycin + pip/taz or BEC; n (%)	NA	10 (40)	3 (43)
• Carbapenems alone; n (%)	NA	3 (12)	1 (14)
Days; mean (range)	NA	10.8 (2-25) ²	11.5 (1-17) ³
Third course of antibiotic			
• Tigecycline alone; n (%)	NA	NA	2 (28.5)
• Tigecycline + colistin; n (%)	NA	NA	3 (43)
• Tigecycline + aminoglycosides; n (%)	NA	NA	2 (28.5)
Days; mean (range)	NA	NA	9.3 (5-20) ³

Group I: patients without VAP who received only one course of antibiotics; Group II: patients with VAP who received 2 courses of antibiotics; and Group III : patients with VAP who received 3 courses of antibiotics.

BEC=broad-spectrum cephalosporins

1 vs 2y3 p 0.0000

Like seasonal flu, the 2009 influenza A (H1N1) was mild and self-limiting in a great majority of cases, with only 1%-2% of our patients requiring hospitalization. Approximately 9 to 31% of hospitalized patients have been admitted to an ICU^{6,7}, where 56 to 81% of patients required respiratory support in the form of invasive ventilation^{6,8,9}. In our series we found that a clinical diagnosis of VAP was established in 44% of patients. Similar, Koegelenberg *et al.* have published that one of the most frequent complications in patients with confirmed 2009 influenza A (H1N1) infection were the VAP (10/19, 52.6%)¹⁰.

In accordance with other authors few patients older than 60 years in this study were admitted to the ICU (8/59; 13.5%) (data not shown). A potential biological basis for this observation is that patients in this age group have a cross-reactive antibody to 2009 influenza A (H1N1) at much higher rates than younger patients¹¹.

Acinetobacter spp. (in 37% of cases carbapenems-resistant) and MRSA were the most common microorganisms isolated in our patients with VAP. This is not surprising since, beyond the Latin American epidemiology, MDR *Acinetobacter* spp. and *P. aeruginosa*, MRSA and extended-spectrum β -lactamases-producing Enterobacteriaceae are the most common microorganisms isolated in this type of patient¹².

Logically patients with VAP received an additional course of broad-spectrum antibiotics following the antimicrobial therapy indicated at admission. Vancomycin (in combination carbapenems [imipenem or meropenem]; piperacillin-tazobactam or broad-spectrum cephalosporins) and carbapenems alone were the antibiotics most frequently prescribed (88% and 12% of patients who received 2 course of antibiotics, and 86% and 14% of patients who received 3 courses).

It is well-established that the early effective therapy for infections in critically ill patients with VAP (defined as antimicrobial treatment that covers the infecting pathogens) is associated with low mortality rates¹³, however, the problem of bacterial resistance in Latin America means that physicians should improve the way they use antibiotics frequently associated with ecological collateral damage in hospitals (i.e. carbapenems, broad-spectrum cephalosporins, etc.).

As a last resort drug, tigecycline was administrated as a third course of antibiotics in 12% of patients. Tigecycline has not been approved by the US Food and Drug Administration for the treatment of VAP¹⁴; notwithstanding this, its pharmacological and microbiological profile prompted physicians' use of the drug in other infections caused by MDR pathogens featuring limited therapeutic options¹⁵.

The crude mortality rate in our study was 49%. Although other series of critically ill patients with confirmed 2009 influenza A (H1N1) infection have shown smaller percentage (i.e. 14-28%^{16,17}), Heyland *et al.*¹⁸ reported that in patients with VAP the mortality rate can be increased to 76% if the infection is caused by MDR pathogens.

Interestingly, there were no significant differences between patients with and without VAP and between patients with bacteriemic and non-bacteriemic VAP, in terms of demographic characteristics, APACHE II and SOFA scores, prevalence of risk factors for influenza disease, duration of the MV, LOS, clin-

ical success and mortality rate (Table 1). Our small sample size may have biased this observation.

In summary, we have demonstrated that VAP was a common complication among our patients with confirmed 2009 influenza A (H1N1) and required invasive respiratory support. In the Latin American scenario of high rates of infections due to resistant microorganisms these patients received several courses of broad spectrum antibiotics associated with the selection and emergence of MDR pathogens (i.e. carbapenems, vancomycin).

From this particular point of view we should consider the 2009 influenza A (H1N1) outbreak as a challenge for our hospital infection control and antimicrobial stewardship programs.

REFERENCES

- Oshitani H, Kamigaki T, Suzuki A. Major issues and challenges of influenza pandemic preparedness in developing countries. *Emerg Infect Dis.* 2008;14:875-80.
- Al Hajjar S, McIntosh K. The first influenza pandemic of the 21st century. *Ann Saudi Med.* 2010;30:1-10.
- Perez-Padilla R, de la Rosa-Zamboni D, Ponce de Leon S, et al. Pneumonia and respiratory failure from swine-origin influenza A (H1N1) in Mexico. *N Engl J Med.* 2009;361:680-9.
- Garner JS, Jarvis WR, Emori TG, Horan TC, Hughes JM. CDC definitions for nosocomial infections, 1988. *Am J Infect Control* 1988;16:28-40.
- Krieg NR, Holt JG. *Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology*, Volume 1. Baltimore, MD, USA: Williams & Wilkins, 1984.
- Jain S, Kamimoto L, Bramley AM, et al. Hospitalized patients with 2009 H1N1 influenza in the United States, April-June 2009. *N Engl J Med* 2009;361:1935-1944.
- Dominguez-Cherit G, Lapinsky SE, Macias AE, et al. Critically ill patients with 2009 influenza A(H1N1) in Mexico. *JAMA* 2009;302:1880-1887.
- Kumar A, Zarychanski R, Pinto R, Cook DJ, Marshall J, Lacroix J, et al. Canadian critical care trials group H1N1 collaborative. Critically ill patients with 2009 influenza A (H1N1) infection in Canada. *J Am Med Assoc* 2009;302:1872-9.
- ANZIC Influenza Investigators. Critical care services and 2009 H1N1 influenza in Australia and New Zealand. *N Engl J Med* 2009;361:1925-34.
- Koegelenberg CF, Irusen EM, Cooper R, et al. High mortality from respiratory failure secondary to swine-origin influenza A (H1N1) in South Africa. *QJM.* 2010;103:319-25.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Serum cross-reactive antibody response to a novel influenza A (H1N1) virus after vaccination with seasonal influenza vaccine. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep.* 2009;58(19):521-524.
- Sader HS, Jones RN, Gales AC, Silva JB, Pignatari AC; SENTRY Participants Group (Latin America). SENTRY antimicrobial surveillance program report: Latin American and Brazilian results for 1997 through 2001. *Braz J Infect Dis.* 2004;8:25-79.
- Kollef MH, Sherman G, Ward S, Fraser VJ. Inadequate antimicrobial treatment of infections: a risk factor for hospital mortality among critically ill patients. *Chest* 1999;115(2):462-474.
- Pankey GA. Tigecycline. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2005;56:470-80.
- Curcio D, Fernández F, Cané A, et al. Indications of a new antibiotic in clinical practice: results of the tigecycline initial use registry. *Braz J Infect Dis* 2008;12:198-201.
- Cui W, Zhao H, Lu X, et al. Factors associated with death in hospitalized pneumonia patients with 2009 H1N1 influenza in Shenyang, China. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2010;10:145.
- Dominguez-Cherit G, Lapinsky SE, Macias AE, et al. Critically ill patients with 2009 influenza A(H1N1) in Mexico. *JAMA.* 2009;302:1880-7.
- Heyland DK, Cook DJ, Griffith L, et al. The attributable morbidity and mortality of ventilator-associated pneumonia in the critically ill patient. The Canadian Critical Trials Group. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 1999;159:1249-56.