

Group B streptococcal perinatal infection: A Global, Latin American and Mexican Overview

Gerardo C. Palacios-Saucedo¹, Talyha Itzel Hernández-Hernández², Lydia Guadalupe Rivera-Morales², Evangelina Briones-Lara³, Amílcar Caballero-Trejo³, José M. Vázquez-Guillén², Gustavo I. Amador-Patiño², Ricardo García-Cabello¹, Fortino Solórzano-Santos⁴ and Cristina Rodríguez-Padilla²

¹High-specialty Medical Unit, Specialty Hospital No. 25, Instituto Mexicano del Seguro Social (IMSS); ²Laboratory of Immunology and Virology, Faculty of Biological Sciences, Universidad Autónoma de Nuevo León; ³High-specialty Medical Unit No. 23, Hospital de Ginecología y Obstetricia Dr. Ignacio Morones Prieto, IMSS, Monterrey, N.L.; ⁴High-Specialty Medical Unit, Pediatrics Hospital, Centro Médico Nacional Siglo XXI, IMSS, Ciudad de México, Mexico

Abstract

Group B streptococci (*Streptococcus agalactiae*) cause a number of infections in women during pregnancy and postpartum, such as urinary tract infection, chorioamnionitis and endometritis, consequently may affect the newborn. Group B streptococci is the most common cause of severe infections in newborns in developed countries. Studies on the epidemiology of group B streptococci infections in Latin America are still limited. This information is also unknown in Mexico, but studies carried out in the center of the country have found high rates of vaginal colonization in pregnant women and there are case series and case reports of newborns. Microbiological and molecular epidemiology studies in Mexico have shown that populations of group B streptococci have a clonal distribution and that there are clones with genetic and phenotypic characteristics of high virulence that appear to be responsible for most of perinatal pathology. However, the actual role of group B streptococci in perinatal pathology in Mexico is unknown. Consequently, whether to perform or not the screening for determining the group B streptococci colonization status in pregnant women, and the indication or not for intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis to prevent neonatal group B streptococci infection in Mexico, are still controversial.

KEY WORDS: *Streptococcus agalactiae*. Group B streptococcus. Perinatal infection.

Introduction

Streptococcus agalactiae or group B streptococcus (GBS) is a bacterium that can cause infections in women during pregnancy and puerperium, increase the risk of gestation product loss and complicate adequate management of the mother-child dyad. Since the GBS-colonized mother may transmit this microorganism to her newborn, there is risk of infection in the colonized neonate¹. Most information on GBS infection corresponds to developed countries. Although there are studies on GBS perinatal infection published

in Colombia, Argentina, Peru and Brazil, information on GBS infection epidemiology and behavior is still limited in Latin America²⁻¹⁰. In developed countries, in spite of different implemented prevention measures, including intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis (IAP), GBS remains the most common etiological agent of serious infections in the newborn and the most common cause of neonatal sepsis and meningitis¹¹⁻¹⁴. In Mexico, the real role of GBS in perinatal pathology is unknown, and most available information on the subject corresponds to the center of the country¹⁵⁻²⁰. Owing to this, the performance or not of a deliberate search for GBS colonization in pregnant women and

Correspondence:

Gerardo del Carmen Palacios-Saucedo
E-mail: gerardo.palacios@imss.gob.mx
palsauc@gmail.com

Date of modified version reception: 25-06-2016

Date of acceptance: 28-06-2016

Gac Med Mex. 2017;153:329-338

Contents available at PubMed

www.anmm.org.mx

the indication or not of IAP to prevent the occurrence of GBS neonatal serious infection remain controversial in Mexico.

Causative agent

GBS is a Gram-positive bacterium that can be isolated from the genital and low gastrointestinal tract in 5%-40% of pregnant women, out of which 30% have asymptomatic infection^{21,22}. Human GBS isolates express a capsular polysaccharide, which is an important virulence factor that allows for the microorganism to evade the host defense mechanisms, particularly opsonophagocytosis²³. GBS isolates are classified in 10 serotypes according to the unique antigenic characteristics of their capsular polysaccharide (Ia, Ib, II, III, IV, V, VI, VII, VIII and IX)²⁴. In 1974, in developed countries, it was demonstrated that although all GBS serotypes were able to cause neonatal infection, serotype III isolates had significantly increased in neonates with meningitis caused by this microorganism²⁵. In the USA and Europe, the GBS serotypes that cause serious disease (known as “invasive”) are predominantly Ia, Ib, II, III and V²⁶⁻²⁹, whereas a study in Gambia reported serotype V predominance³⁰. A recent global review of invasive isolates demonstrated that serotype III is the most frequently identified one in all regions with data available (48.9%), followed by serotypes Ia (22.9%), V (9.1%), Ib (7%) and II (6.2%)²⁴.

In spite of the fact that colonized mothers' immune status appears to play a crucial role in providing protection to their children, different studies have suggested that differences in GBS isolates' virulence can also contribute to the development of neonatal infection^{13,31,32}. Since serotype III causes more than two thirds of GBS-related neonatal disease, serotyping was proposed as a method to predict the risk of serious or “invasive” disease^{2,11,20}.

However, serotype III is also frequently isolated in asymptomatic colonized newborns, other serotypes different from III are often isolated in early-onset disease, and in up to 10%-15% of cases, the strains have been nontypeable^{12,13,18,33}. Different molecular methods have been used to classify GBS isolates and associate particular genotypes with higher risk for disease³⁴⁻³⁷. In one study, a clone that appeared to be the cause of most cases of serious infections with GBS in the newborn was identified by multi-loci enzyme electrophoresis³⁴. When 128 GBS isolates from different states of the USA were examined, serotype III strains were found to belong to two different

evolutionary lineages, which were regarded as clonal types. One of these clonal types (phylogenetic division I) was the causative agent of the highest morbidity and mortality produced by serotype III isolates, and was then proposed to be a highly virulent clonal type. This clonal type was named “high virulence clone” (HVC). Subsequent studies demonstrated that this HVC possesses several characteristics that confer high virulence, such as elevated values of extracellular products, including type III antigen, hyaluronidase and protease³⁵⁻³⁷. A unique characteristic of isolates that belong to this HVC is its inability to grow at 40 °C in media with high contents of phosphate^{20,38-40}. Several studies carried out in central Mexico have demonstrated the existence of this clone^{38,41}. In a study with isolates from central Mexico, this virulent clone was identified in 15% of a sample of 286 isolates²⁰. Subsequently, this HVC was shown to correspond to the high virulence clonal type RDP-III-3 identified by Takahashi et al.^{42,43} in Japan. Summarizing current evidence, different studies have demonstrated that GBS populations have a clonal distribution, and that there are highly virulent subtypes that appear to be the cause of the higher morbidity and mortality produced by this microorganism.

GBS are well-adapted bacteria to asymptomatic colonization in human adults, but are also potentially invasive pathogens in certain susceptible neonates. Given that newborns are quantitatively and qualitatively deficient in their defense mechanisms, including phagocytes, complement system and antibody specificity, there is a microenvironment where a variety of virulence factors presented by GBS has been reported. The complex interactions of the bacterium and the newborn that lead to disease manifestation can be divided in several important categories (Table 1). The multi-functional nature of the GBS variety of virulence factors (summarized in table 1) represents a big challenge to the underdeveloped immune defense mechanisms of the newborn. Further knowledge on the molecular bases of this pathogenesis will help to have a clearer vision on efficacious innate immunity at first stages of human life and will provide new targets for GBS infection chemotherapy or immunoprophylaxis^{44,45}. Several GBS virulence factors have been identified; in particular, the capsular polysaccharide and secreted hemolysin are highly important to virulence⁴⁶⁻⁴⁹. On the other hand, superoxide dismutase and D-alanylated lipoteichoic acid play important roles^{50,51}. It should be added that many surface proteins can contribute to adherence and colonization in

Table 1. B-group streptococcus virulence factors and their role in the transition from colonization to invasive disease

Virulence factor	Colonization	Adhesion	Invasion	Immune system evasion	Neurotropism
Fibrinogen-binding protein A (FbsA)	+	+			
Fibrinogen-binding protein B (FbsB)			+		
Laminin-binding protein (Lmb)			+		+
Alpha C protein (ACP)	+	+	+	+	
Serine-rich repeat protein (Srr)	+	+	+		
Pili	+	+	+	+	+
Hypervirulent adhesin (HvgA)	+	+	+	+	+
Beta hemolysin-cytolysin (β -H/C)	+	+	+	+	+
Capsular polysaccharides (CPS)				+	
C5a peptidase (ScpB)				+	
H factor				+	
IgA-binding beta antigen				+	
D-alinination				+	
Superoxide dismutase				+	
Hyaluronate lyase				+	
CAMP factor				+	
Lipoteichoic acid		+		+	
Fibrinogen receptor		+		+	

Adapted from Landwehr-Kenzel et al.⁴⁵

the host^{52,53}, as well as to immune system evasion (Table 1)⁵⁴.

Epidemiology

In 1935, Lancefield and Hare⁵⁵ identified GBS in vaginal smears and, in 1938, Fry⁵⁶ described three mortal cases in women after delivery; this event was highly important, since, previously, all serious streptococcal infections in that setting had been attributed to group A streptococcus⁵⁶. Case reports of GBS-associated neonatal disease were occasional until the early 60's, when it was recognized as one of the main causes of neonatal sepsis in the USA^{23,57}, and in the early 80's it was identified as the most common cause of neonatal sepsis and meningitis in several developed countries⁵⁸⁻⁶⁰. GBS is able to cause serious ("invasive") disease, especially in newborns and pregnant and puerperal women²². In spite of the use of IAP in the USA and other countries, GBS remains the most common cause of neonatal sepsis and meningitis in those countries^{11,12}, with nearly 50,000 maternal

infections per year and rates of vertical transmission to newborns of 29%-72%²¹.

In Latin America, studies on GBS infection epidemiology and behavior are still limited. Nevertheless, GBS-related serious neonatal infection cases and fatal cases have been reported³. One study was carried out in Colombia describing epidemiological, clinical and microbiological characteristics of disease-causing (invasive) and non-disease-causing (non-invasive) GBS isolates from patients admitted to a tertiary care hospital over a 17-year period. From 1994 to 2001, 201 GBS strains were detected, out of which 46 were related to invasive infections, 11 (24%) in newborns and 35 (76%) in adults. Between 2004 and 2012, 671 strains were identified and 95 serious infections were reported: 12 (12.6%) in newborns, 5 (5.3%) in children and 78 (82.1%) in adults. Average prevalence of GBS invasive isolates was 17.4% over the 17-year period. Neonatal infections estimated incidence was 1.34 per 1000 live births (0.99 x 1000 live births for early-onset disease and 0.35 x 1000 for late-onset disease)⁴. In Argentina, a GBS maternal colonization percentage of

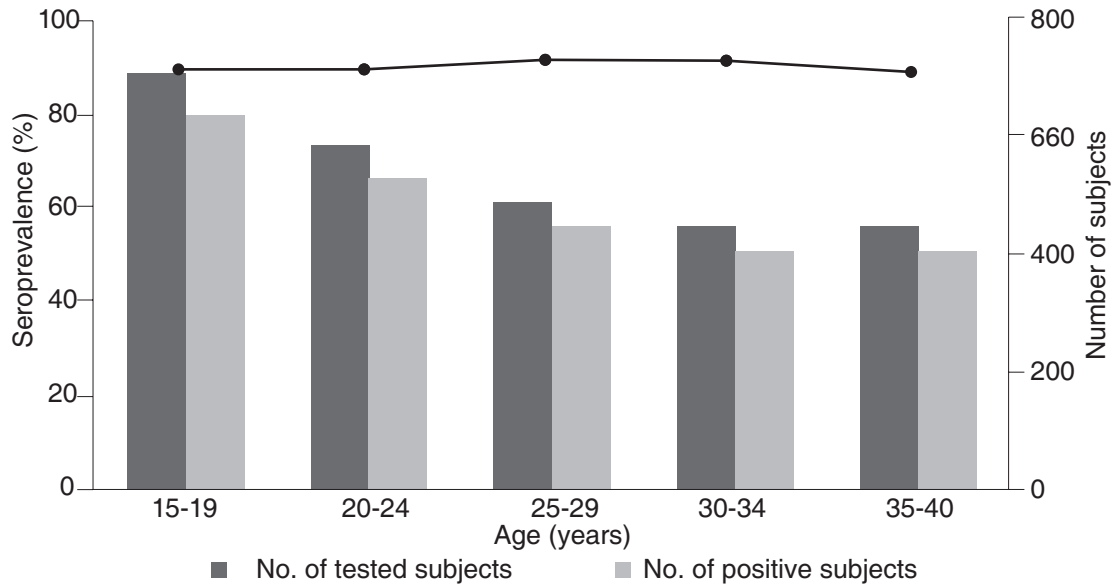


Figure 1. Prevalence of anti-GBS group antigen antibodies in 2669 childbearing age Mexican women. The line indicates seroprevalence, dark bars are the number of tested women and clear bars are the number of seropositive women by age groups, Mexico, 1987-1988 (reproduced with permission of the editor)³¹.

1.4% (17 patients) was found, and one case of neonatal sepsis consistent with GBS (0.6%) was reported in a mother with negative culture⁵. In Peru, GBS could be isolated in 26 pregnant women (10.9%), out of which 9 (36.4%) referred having had previous abortions⁶.

In general, the rates of genital colonization by GBS in Latin America range from 2 to 20.4%, as shown by studies conducted in Mexico, Argentina, Colombia and Brazil^{7-10,19}, with an incidence of neonatal serious (“invasive”) infection of 0.3-1% of live births. In Mexico, GBS colonization deliberate search or IAP administration to prevent infection in newborns are generally not performed, since available information on the subject to this moment drives to consider GBS an uncommon cause of perinatal infections in this country^{15-19,61,62}. However, several studies have found percentages of vaginal colonization un pregnant women of up to 20%, and a neonatal infection rate of 1/1500 live births, with a lethality of 38.5%^{15-17,61}. On the other hand, a nation-wide seroepidemiological survey, where the presence of anti-GBS group antigen antibodies was assessed in women between 15 and 40 years of age, demonstrated an elevated frequency of exposure to GBS in the Mexican population, with a seroprevalence of 90% (Fig. 1)³¹.

Studies conducted in Mexico in the decade of 1980 at the Instituto Nacional de Perinatología documented GBS cervicovaginal colonization in 10.3% of 340

pregnant women. The predominant type was serotype I (33%), with low participation of serotype III (3%) and high prevalence of nontypeable isolates (18.2%)^{15,16}. Based on this, the low frequency of GBS-related neonatal disease in Mexico was attributed to the low prevalence of serotype III together with an elevated prevalence of nontypeable isolates^{15,16}. Subsequent studies have confirmed that the predominant serotype in central and western Mexico is serotype I (58.8-61.3%), but higher participation of serotype III (5.9-12.8%) has been documented, with lower participation of nontypeable isolates (0-5.9%)^{18,19,61}. In the year of 2007, Palacios et al.²⁰ documented the predominance of serotype I (48.6%) in pregnant women colonization, with serotype III growing participation (32.9%). In addition, they suggested serotype III higher participation in serious disease in neonates in Mexico. Although the information is still limited and most of it corresponds to studies carried out in central Mexico, previous studies show that the predominant serotype on Mexico is I; however, data suggest that serotype III participation is increasing, not only in Mexican women colonization, but also in newborn infection in Mexico^{18-20,32}.

Disease in newborns and infants

GBS is considered to be the most common etiological agent of neonatal sepsis in developed countries,

Table 2. Characteristics of B group streptococcus-caused disease in pediatric patients

	Early-onset disease	Late-onset disease	Late, late-onset disease
Serotypes	Ia (36%) III (32%) V (14%) II (10%)	III (70%) Ia (15%) V (7%) Ib (5%)	III (36%) Ia (36%) V (14%)
Age at onset	≤ 6 days	7-89 days	≥ 90 days
Affected patients	Premature Obstetric complications		Premature < 32 weeks Immunodeficiency
Clinical presentation	Bacteremia without focus (40-55%) Pneumonia (30-45%) Meningitis (6-15%)	Bacteremia without focus (55-67%) Meningitis (26-35%) Other* (1-6%)	As late-onset disease
Clinical findings	Acute respiratory distress, apnea, state of shock	Fever, irritability, unspecific signs	Fever, irritability, unspecific signs
Lethality	5-15%	2-6%	< 5%

*Osteoarthritis, cellulitis, adenitis, etc.

Modified from Pannaraj et al.⁶³

and it is the cause of 40-50% of all cases of early-onset sepsis. Although GBS-related disease is not restricted to newborns, its highest impact, both in terms of seriousness and incidence, is in the neonatal period and up to the first 90 days of life²⁴. GBS-related disease has been divided in two clearly distinguishable clinical syndromes: early-onset disease, which appears in the course of the first 7 days, and late-onset disease, which starts between the first week and the first 90 days of life. Recently, a third clinical syndrome has been added, which starts after 90 days of life. These syndromes differ in epidemiological characteristics, pathogenesis, clinical findings and prognosis (Table 2). Eighty-five percent of GBS neonatal infections are of early onset, and although clinical manifestations can appear until the seventh day of life, 90% of affected newborns get sick within the first 24 hours. Cases of late-onset disease manifest themselves from the seventh day on, and the infection can be acquired during the passage through the birth canal or horizontally, by contact with the colonized mother or other sources of horizontal transmission^{10,63}.

Early-onset disease

It is defined as infection that occurs within the first 6 days of life, and GBS serotypes Ia, II, III and V are the cause of most cases⁶⁴⁻⁶⁶. Maternal colonization by GBS in the gastrointestinal or genital tract is a requirement for early-onset disease occurrence, and transmission occurs more commonly during or just before delivery. In developed countries, 20-30% of pregnant

women are estimated to be colonized with GBS^{67,68}, approximately 50% of their babies will be colonized, and 1% of these will progress to develop serious disease (Fig. 2). Early-onset disease is frequently associated with preterm birth (< 37 gestation weeks) and to the occurrence of obstetric complications, such as prolonged rupture of the fetal membranes (> 12 to 18 hours), intrapartum fever, chorioamnionitis and postpartum infectious complications. It can occur rapidly, with evident signs at birth or within the first 24 hours of life in 90% of cases (98% within the first 12 hours), and manifests itself typically as bacteremia with no evident infectious focus or pneumonia, and less commonly as meningitis (Table 2)^{13-16,25,69}. Reported lethality in developed countries ranges between about 30% in newborns younger than 33-week gestational age and 2-3% in full-term newborns¹¹. Early in the decade of 1970, the GBS-related early sepsis rate in the USA was estimated to be 1.7 cases for each 1000 live births, with a lethality close to 50%^{12,26}. However, as knowledge on the pathophysiology and clinical behavior of the disease has been developed, as well as on the role of previous colonization as the main risk factor known, together with the development of clinical guidelines for the prevention of this disease by the end of the 1990 decade, a decrease of said rate has currently been achieved to 0.37 cases for every 1000 live births (Fig. 3). Still, it remains the most common cause of neonatal sepsis and meningitis in the USA and other developed countries^{11,12}.

Factors associated with higher risk for neonatal colonization include maternal colonization, male gender,

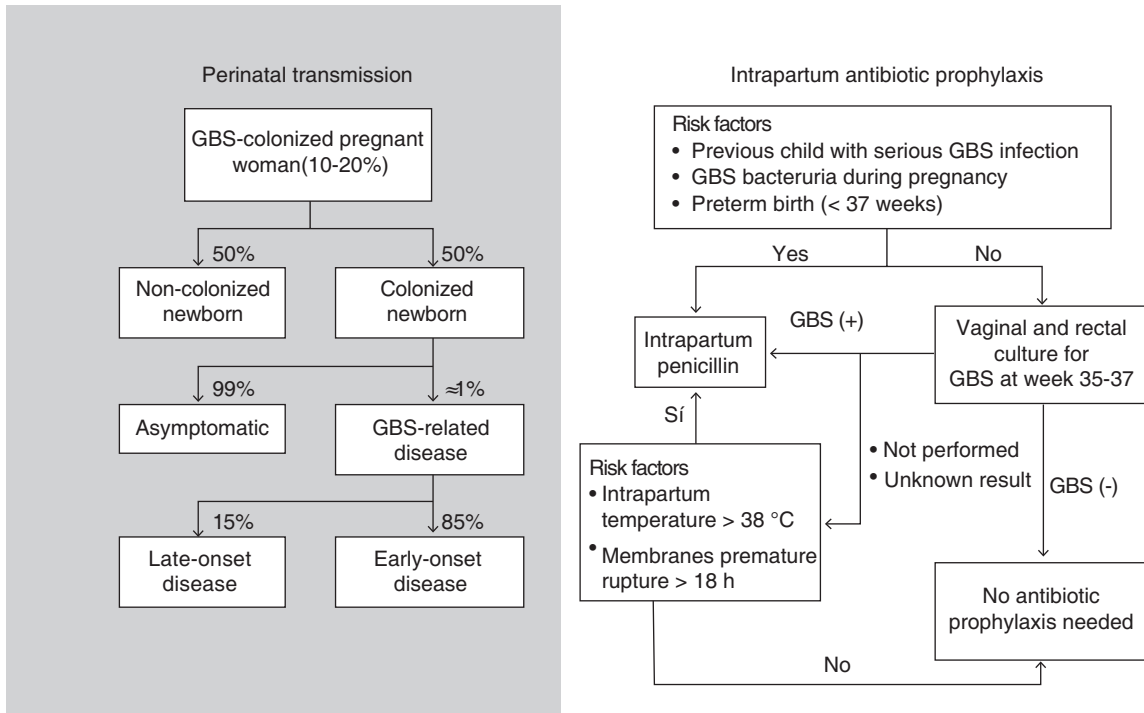


Figure 2. Perinatal transmission and neonatal GBS-related disease development flow chart^{61,64}.

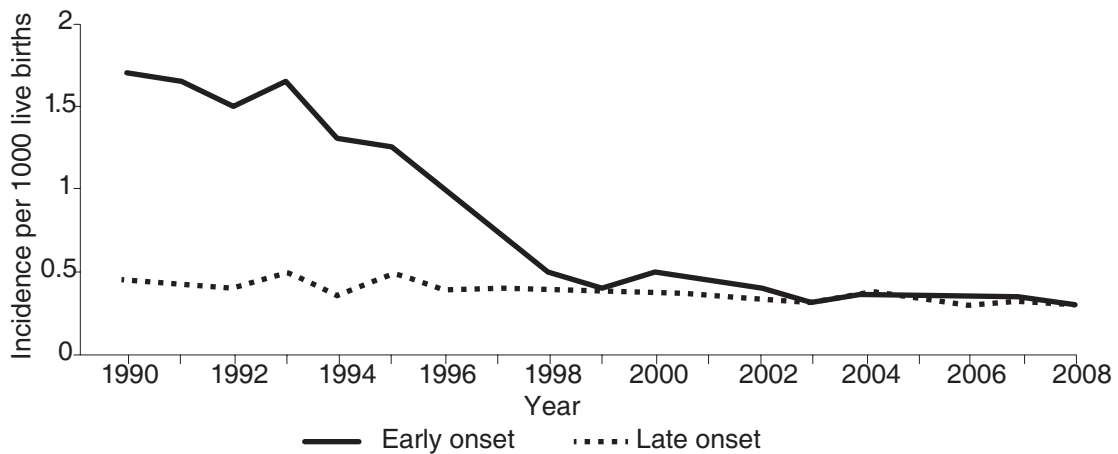


Figure 3. Incidence of early-onset and late-onset GBS disease during the 1990-2008 period in the 10 areas of CDC active surveillance (modified from Verani et al.¹²).

African-origin ethnicity, prolonged rupture of membranes, prematurity, maternal anti-GBS antibodies low titers and intrapartum fever⁷⁰. In addition, newborns from mothers younger than 20 years or of African origin/Hispanic ethnicity⁷¹, those with heavy GBS colonization, with low titers of anticapsular antibodies against GBS²⁶ or a history of previous newborn with early-onset disease⁷³, are at higher risk for early-onset disease.

Late-onset disease

It is mainly caused by serotype III, it is acquired by perinatal route, nosocomially or from community-based sources, and in up to 50% of cases it occurs with meningitis^{64,69,74,75}. The cases occur within the first 90 days after the first week of life and, although infection occurs more commonly in patients with no relevant history of obstetric or neonatal problems it can

affect both full-term and preterm newborns or infants^{12,12,63}. However, recent studies suggest that late-onset disease occurs more frequently in extremely premature newborns (< 34 gestation weeks)⁷⁶⁻⁷⁹. Risk factors for late-onset disease are less known. The male gender, African origin ethnicity, maternal colonization and having a twin with late-onset disease are associated with higher risk for late-onset GBS-related disease^{71,74,79-81}. A higher incidence of late-onset disease has been observed in children born to mothers infected with the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)⁸². The most common presentation forms of this type of disease are bacteremia without an identifiable focus and meningitis, which occurs in 26-40% of late-onset disease cases (Table 2).

Recent studies have also shown higher incidence of EGB-related disease cases in infants older than 3 months, and a third clinical syndrome has therefore been defined, known as late, late-onset disease. It occurs more often in infants who were extremely premature newborns (< 32 gestation weeks) and who have a corrected postnatal age older than 90 days, in infants with HIV infection and in children with other immunodeficiencies. Clinical presentation is similar to that of late-onset disease, with bacteremia without a detectable focus and meningitis as the most common clinical forms^{63,83-85}.

Late, late-onset disease

It occurs after the first 90 days of life and is mainly caused by serotypes III, Ia and V. Occurs especially in infants who were premature with < 32 gestation weeks, in those who had a prolonged hospital stay and in those with some immunodeficiency, such as children infected with HIV. Clinical presentation is similar to that of late-onset disease, and it can appear as bacteremia with no focus, meningitis, osteoarthritis, cellulitis, adenitis, etc. Its lethality is lower than 5%^{63,83,86}.

Disease in pregnant women

The incidence of EGB-related disease associated with pregnancy declined in the USA following the introduction of IAP, from 0.29 per 1000 live births in 1993 to 0.11-0.14 for every 1000 live births in 2005²⁸. In a recent study, the incidence was 0.49/1000 in postpartum women⁸⁷. This study emphasized that most cases of EGB-related disease associated with pregnancy occur in the postpartum period. Mean age of symptom onset was 28 years, and half the cases were

associated with upper genital tract, placenta or amniotic sac infection^{87,88}. Gastrointestinal tract is GBS main reservoir and the source of vaginal colonization. Inappropriate hygiene habits and certain sexual practices may increase the risk for vaginal colonization. Other factors associated with GBS maternal colonization include ethnicity (women of African-origin ethnicity), the use of tampons or intrauterine devices, obesity, absence of lactobacilli on intestinal flora and preterm delivery⁸⁹⁻⁹¹. Bacteruria with GBS during pregnancy is associated with higher probability of intense colonization, which is an additional risk factor for perinatal transmission⁹². Furthermore, mothers with GBS-related bacteruria show higher incidence of obstetric adverse outcomes: usual abortion, intrauterine growth restriction, premature delivery, chorioamnionitis, endometritis and premature rupture of membranes^{92,93}.

Prevention

The recommendations for the prevention of GBS disease in newborns issued by the American Association of Obstetrics and Gynecology have suffered substantial changes since their first version in 1997. Currently, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) of the USA, together with different medical associations of that country, on their last 2010 revision recommend deliberate search for vaginal or rectal GBS colonization in every pregnant woman between 35 and 37 weeks of gestation in order to evaluate the use of IAP, which should be administered to every colonized pregnant woman. For IAP, penicillin G is intravenously (IV) administered, during at least 4 hours prior and until delivery, at an initial dose of 5 million international units (IU), followed by a maintenance dose of 2.5 million IU every 4 hours. Ampicillin (2 g IV initial dose followed by 1 g IV every 4 h) is an alternative. In case of penicillin allergy with no risk for anaphylaxis, cefazolin administration is recommended, but when there is such risk, clindamycin or vancomycin administration is recommended. Cefazolin is recommended for its capability to reach elevated concentrations in the amniotic fluid and to prevent early-onset disease; it is administered at an initial dose of 2 g followed by 1 g every 8 hours. Administration of 900 mg of clindamycin every 8 hours can only be used when the isolated GBS is sensitive. However, in the USA, 30% of GBS isolates are clindamycin-resistant and, if the sensitivity of the strain is not known, vancomycin should then be administered at 1 g every 12 hours. The capability of clindamycin or vancomycin to prevent early-onset disease has not been demonstrated.

Table 3. Intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis indications and non-indications for the prevention of neonatal early-onset group B streptococcal disease

Intrapartum prophylaxis indicated	Intrapartum prophylaxis not indicated
Previous child with serious perinatal GBS disease	GBS colonization in previous pregnancy [§]
Bacteruria with GBS at any trimester of current pregnancy*	Bacteruria with GBS on previous pregnancy [§]
Recto-vaginal culture with GBS isolate within the 5 previous weeks [†]	Recto-vaginal culture negative for GBS on current pregnancy [†] , regardless of intrapartum risk factors
Unknown GBS colonization status, with any of the following: Preterm delivery (< 37 weeks) Premature rupture of membranes (≥ 18 h) Intrapartum fever (> 38 °C) [‡]	Cesarean section prior to labor with intact amniotic membranes, regardless of GBS colonization status and gestational age

*IAP is not indicated on this circumstance if c-section is carried out prior to labor initiation with intact amniotic membranes.

†The culture to assess for GBS colonization is performed between gestation weeks 35 and 37.

‡If chorioamnionitis is suspected, change IAP for antibiotic treatment that includes an agent with antimicrobial activity against GBS.

§Unless there is indication for IAP in current pregnancy.

Modified from Verani et al.¹²

Administering this prophylaxis is recommended in all pregnant women with demonstrated urinary infection or bacteruria with this microorganism, in those with a previous child with serious GBS infection and in those with unknown colonization status and preterm delivery or with rupture of fetal membranes ≥ 18 hours or with fever^{10-12,63}. In general, these recommendations are similar in other developed countries (Table 3)^{12,63,86,94-97}.

In spite of the above, the previously described recommendations for prevention have not been officially adopted in Mexico, since there are no established criteria for GBS deliberate search in pregnant women in this country. This is partly due to the low percentages of GBS isolation in pregnant women and newborns, and to the predominance of less virulent serotypes identified in different studies^{13,15-18,31-33,61}. Consequently, sample taking for cultures between gestation weeks 35 and 37 with the purpose to deliberately seek for GBS, is an almost inexistent procedure. The collection of these samples for culture is rather directed to isolation of other microorganisms that cause disease in pregnant women, such as *Candida albicans* and bacterial vaginosis-associated agents²³, than to GBS isolation, which in these samples constitutes an incidental finding. For all the above, although prevention strategies have not yet been officially established in Mexico, research works are needed to allow for Mexican population-specific risk factors for GBS colonization and infection to be evaluated, as well as studies directed to assess the validity in Mexico of applying the prevention criteria implemented in other countries. However, as long as such information is not available, it seems reasonable adopting the criteria proposed by the CDC, or at least adopting and adapting some recommendations, such as treatment of pregnant women with GBS

urinary infection or bacteruria in current gestation, and IAP administration in these women, in those with a previous history of a child with serious GBS infection and in those with an available culture with GBS isolated without subsequent follow-up³.

References

1. Le Doare K, Kampmann B. Breast milk and group B streptococcal infection: vector of transmission or vehicle for protection? *Vaccine*. 2014;32:3128-32.
2. Crespo-Ortiz MP, Castañeda-Ramirez CR, Recalde-Bolaños M, et al. Emerging trends in invasive and noninvasive isolates of *Streptococcus agalactiae* in a Latin American hospital: a 17-year study. *BMC Infect Dis*. 2014;14:428.
3. Edmond KM, Kortsalioudaki C, Scott S, et al. Group B streptococcal disease in infants aged younger than 3 months: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet*. 2012;379:547-56.
4. Mollerach A, Méndez E, Massa R, Di Conza J. *Streptococcus agalactiae* aislados en Santa Fe, Argentina: estudio de la sensibilidad a antibióticos de uso clínico y mecanismos de resistencia a eritromicina y clindamicina. *Enfermedades Infecciosas y Microbiología Clínica*. 2007;25:67-8.
5. Larcher JS, Capellino F, De Giusto R, et al. Colonización por estreptococo beta hemolítico del grupo B durante el embarazo y prevención de enfermedad neonatal. *Medicina*. 2005;65:201-6.
6. Tamariz JH, Obregón M, Jara JC, et al. Colonización vaginal y anorectal por *Streptococcus agalactiae* en gestantes de los Hospitales Nacionales Cayetano Heredia y Arzobispo Loayza. *Rev Med Hered*. 2004;15:144-50.
7. Reyna-Figueroa J, Ortiz-Ibarra FJ, Pérez-Antonio B, et al. Quimioprofilaxis para evitar la colonización materna por estreptococo grupo B. Consecuencias de no adoptar la recomendación internacional. *Salud Publica Mex*. 2008;50:155-61.
8. Cortés H. Prevención de la infección neonatal por estreptococo del grupo B. ¿Es necesaria en nuestro medio? *Rev Colomb Obstet Ginecol*. 2005;56:231-8.
9. Costa AL, Lamy Filho F, Chein MB, et al. Prevalência de colonização por estreptococos do grupo B em gestantes atendidas em maternidade pública da região Nordeste do Brasil. *Rev Bras Ginecol Obstet*. 2008;30:274-80.
10. Sociedad Latinoamericana de Infectología Pediátrica. Opinión de expertos sobre Infecciones Congénitas y Perinatales (ICP) SLIPE-2014. (Consultado el 10 de marzo de 2015.) Disponible en: <http://www.slipe.org/informesAcademicos.asp>
11. Phares CR, Lynfield R, Farley MM, et al. Epidemiology of invasive group B *Streptococcal* disease in the United States, 1999-2005. *JAMA*. 2008;299:2056-65.
12. Verani JR, McGee L, Scharg SJ. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention: Prevention of perinatal group B streptococcal disease: revised guidelines from CDC, 2010. *MMWR Recomm Rep*. 2010;59:1-36.
13. Edwards MS, Nizet V, Baker CJ. Group B streptococcal infections. En: Remington JS, Klein JO, Wilson CB, editors. *Infectious diseases of the*

- fetus and newborn. 7th ed. Philadelphia: Elsevier Saunders; 2011. p. 419-69.
14. Larsen JW, Sever JL. Group B streptococcus and pregnancy: a review. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2008;198:440-8.
 15. Solórzano-Santos F, Echaniz-Aviles G, Conde-Glez CJ, et al. Cervico-vaginal infection with group B Streptococci among pregnant Mexican women. *J Infect Dis.* 1989;159:1003-4.
 16. Solórzano-Santos F, Díaz-Ramos RD, Arredondo-García JL. Diseases caused by group B Streptococcus in Mexico. *Pediatr Infect Dis J.* 1990;9:66.
 17. González-Pedraza AA, Ortiz-Zaragoza MC, Madrigal de Leon HG, et al. Colonización por Streptococcus grupo B en mujeres de un centro de atención primaria de la ciudad de México. *Arch Med Fam.* 2004;6:44-7.
 18. Palacios GC, González MN, Beltrán M, et al. Serotypes of 286 group B streptococci isolated from asymptomatic carriers and invasive disease cases in Mexico. *Rev Latinoam Microbiol.* 2005;47:21-4.
 19. Reyna Figueroa J, Ortiz Ibarra F, Esteves Jaramillo A, et al. Colonización materna por Streptococcus del grupo B en México: estimación de la prevalencia basada en la revisión bibliográfica. *Ginecol Obstet Mex.* 2007;75:399-403.
 20. Palacios GC, González MN, Beltrán M, et al. High-virulence clone of group B streptococci unable to grow at high temperature is present in serotypes other than type III. *Curr Microbiol.* 2007;54:42-7.
 21. Reyna J, Ortiz F, Beltrán M, et al. Riesgo de infección neonatal temprana en recién nacidos hijos de mujeres embarazadas colonizadas con Streptococcus agalactiae serotipo III. *Rev Enferm Infec Pediatr.* 2005;18:13-7.
 22. Six A, Joubrel C, Tazi A, et al. Infections materno-fœtales à Streptococcus agalactiae. *Presse Med.* 2014;43:706-14.
 23. Hood M, Janney A, Dameron G. Beta hemolytic streptococcus group B associated with problems of the perinatal period. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1961;82:809-18.
 24. Le Doare K, Heath P. An overview of global GBS epidemiology. *Vaccine.* 2013;31:7-12.
 25. Baker CJ, Barrett FF. Group B streptococcal infections in infants. The importance of the various serotypes. *JAMA.* 1974;230:1158-60.
 26. Baker CJ, Kasper DL. Correlation of maternal antibody deficiency with susceptibility to neonatal group B streptococcal infection. *N Engl J Med.* 1976;294:753-6.
 27. Baker CJ, Kasper DL, Tager I, et al. Quantitative determination of antibody to capsular polysaccharide in infection with type III strains of group B Streptococcus. *J Clin Invest.* 1977;59:810-8.
 28. Lin FY, Weisman LE, Azimi PH, et al. Level of maternal IgG anti-group B streptococcus type III antibody correlated with protection of neonates against early-onset disease caused by this pathogen. *J Infect Dis.* 2004;190:928-34.
 29. Lin FY, Philips JB 3rd, Azimi PH, et al. Level of maternal antibody required to protect neonates against early-onset disease caused by group B Streptococcus type Ia: a multicenter, seroepidemiology study. *J Infect Dis.* 2001;184:1022-8.
 30. Suara RO, Adegbola RA, Mulholland EK, et al. Seroprevalence of antibodies to group B streptococcal polysaccharides in Gambian mothers and their newborns. *J Natl Med Assoc.* 1998;90:109-14.
 31. Palacios-Saucedo GC, Caltenco-Serrano R, Torres-Lopez J, et al. Exposición a estreptococo del grupo B en mujeres mexicanas en edad reproductiva. *Salud Publica Mex.* 2002;44:50-6.
 32. Palacios GC, Eskew EK, Solorzano F, et al. Decreased capacity for type-specific-antigen synthesis accounts for high prevalence of non-typeable strains of group B streptococci in Mexico. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1997;35:2923-6.
 33. Solórzano-Santos F, Arredondo-García JL, Ortiz-Ibarra F, et al. Streptococcus del grupo B en la etiología de la infección neonatal. *Bol Med Hosp Infant Mex.* 1990;47:146-52.
 34. Musser JM, Mattingly SJ, Quentin R, et al. Identification of a high-virulence clone of type III Streptococcus agalactiae (group B Streptococcus) causing invasive neonatal disease. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.* 1989;86:4731-5.
 35. Quentin R, Huet H, Wang FS, et al. Characterization of Streptococcus agalactiae strains by multilocus enzyme genotype and serotype: identification of multiple virulent clone families that cause invasive neonatal disease. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1995;33:2576-81.
 36. Hannoun A, Shehab M, Khairallah MT, et al. Correlation between group B streptococcal genotypes, their antimicrobial resistance profiles, and virulence genes among pregnant women in Lebanon. *Int J Microbiol.* 2009;2009:796512.
 37. Seo YS, Srinivasan U, Oh KY, et al. Changing molecular epidemiology of group B Streptococcus in Korea. *J Korean Med Sci.* 2010;25:817-23.
 38. Palacios GC, Eskew EK, Solorzano F, et al. Identification of the high-virulence clone of group B streptococci in Mexican isolates by growth characteristics at 40°C. *Curr Microbiol.* 1999;38:126-31.
 39. Mattingly SJ, Maurer JJ, Eskew EK, et al. Identification of a high-virulence clone of serotype III Streptococcus agalactiae by growth characteristics at 40°C. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1990;28:1676-7.
 40. Mattingly SJ, Eskew EK. Temperature sensitivity of fructose-1,6-bisphosphate aldolase accounts for the inability of the high-virulence clone of Streptococcus agalactiae to grow at 40°C. *Curr Microbiol.* 1993;26:147-50.
 41. Palacios GC, Timmons BC, Eskew EK, et al. Identification of high-virulence clone of group B streptococci by using a probe containing a putative aldolase gene. *Curr Microbiol.* 2003;47:319-22.
 42. Takahashi S, Detrick S, Whiting AA, et al. Correlation of phylogenetic lineages of group B streptococci, identified by analysis of restriction-digest patterns of genomic DNA with infB alleles and mobile genetic elements. *J Infect Dis.* 2002;186:1034-8.
 43. Fleming KE, Bohnsack JF, Palacios GC, et al. Equivalence of high-virulence clonotypes of serotype III group B Streptococcus agalactiae (GBS). *J Med Microbiol.* 2004;53:505-8.
 44. Doran KS, Nizet V. Molecular pathogenesis of neonatal group B streptococcal infection: no longer in its infancy. *Mol Microbiol.* 2004;54:23-31.
 45. Landwehr-Kenzel S, Henneke P. Interaction of Streptococcus agalactiae and cellular immunity in colonization and disease. *Front Immunol.* 2014;5:519.
 46. Doran KS, Liu GY, Nizet V. Group B streptococcal beta-hemolysin/cytolysin activates neutrophil signaling pathways in brain endothelium and contributes to development of meningitis. *J Clin Invest.* 2003;112:736-44.
 47. Nizet V. Streptococcal beta-hemolysins: genetics and role in disease pathogenesis. *Trends Microbiol.* 2002;10:575-80.
 48. Rubens CE, Wessels MR, Heggen LM, et al. Transposon mutagenesis of type III group B Streptococcus: correlation of capsule expression with virulence. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.* 1987;84:7208-12.
 49. Wessels MR, Rubens CE, Benedi VJ, et al. Definition of a bacterial virulence factor: sialylation of the group B streptococcal capsule. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.* 1989;86:8983-7.
 50. Poyat C, Pellegrini E, Gaillot O, et al. Contribution of Mn-cofactored superoxide dismutase (SodA) to the virulence of Streptococcus agalactiae. *Infect Immun.* 2001;69:5098-106.
 51. Poyat C, Pellegrini E, Marceau M, et al. Attenuated virulence of Streptococcus agalactiae deficient in D-alanyl-lipoteichoic acid is due to an increased susceptibility to defensins and phagocytic cells. *Mol Microbiol.* 2003;49:1615-25.
 52. Jones AL, Knoll KM, Rubens CE. Identification of Streptococcus agalactiae virulence genes in the neonatal rat sepsis model using signature-tagged mutagenesis. *Mol Microbiol.* 2000;37:1444-55.
 53. Sutcliffe IC, Harrington DJ. Putative lipoproteins of Streptococcus agalactiae identified by bioinformatic genome analysis. *Antonie Leeuwenhoek.* 2004;85:305-15.
 54. Jones AL, Needham RH, Clancy A, et al. Penicillin-binding proteins in Streptococcus agalactiae: a novel mechanism for evasion of immune clearance. *Mol Microbiol.* 2003;47:247-56.
 55. Lancefield RC, Hare R. The serological differentiation of pathogenic and non-pathogenic strains of hemolytic streptococci from parturient women. *J Exp Med.* 1935;61:335-49.
 56. Fry RM. Fatal infections by hemolytic streptococcus group B. *Lancet.* 1938;1:199-201.
 57. Eickhoff TC, Klein JO, Daly AK, et al. Neonatal sepsis and other infections due to group B beta-hemolytic streptococci. *N Engl J Med.* 1964;271:1221-8.
 58. Fluegge K, Siedler A, Heinrich B, et al. Incidence and clinical presentation of invasive neonatal group B streptococcal infections in Germany. *Pediatrics.* 2006;117:1139-45.
 59. Kalliola S, Vuopio-Varkila J, Takala AK, et al. Neonatal group B streptococcal disease in Finland: a ten-year nationwide study. *Pediatr Infect Dis J.* 1999;18:806-10.
 60. Neto MT. Group B streptococcal disease in Portuguese infants younger than 90 days. *Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed.* 2008;93:90-3.
 61. Villaseñor-Sierra A, Morales-Velázquez P, Palacios-Saucedo G, et al. Prevalencia de Streptococcus agalactiae del serotipo III en embarazadas. *Ginecol Obstet Mex.* 2004;72:103-8.
 62. Palacios-Saucedo GC. Neumonía por estreptococo del grupo B. En: Ávila-Cortés FJ, editor. *Infecciones respiratorias en pediatría.* México, D.F.: McGraw-Hill Interamericana; 2009. p. 352-8.
 63. Pannaraj PS, Baker CJ. Group B streptococcal infections. En: Cherry JD, Steinbach WJ, Harrison GJ, et al., editors. *Feigin and Cherry's Textbook of pediatric infectious diseases.* 7th ed. Philadelphia: Elsevier Saunders; 2014. p. 1153-69.
 64. Weisner AM, Johnson AP, Lamagni TL, et al. Characterization of group B streptococci recovered from infants with invasive disease in England and Wales. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2004;38:1203-8.
 65. Zaleznik DF, Rench MA, Hillier S, et al. Invasive disease due to group B Streptococcus in pregnant women and neonates from diverse population groups. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2000;30:276-81.
 66. Harrison LH, Elliott JA, Dwyer DM, et al. Serotype distribution of invasive group B streptococcal isolates in Maryland: implications for vaccine formulation. *Maryland Emerging Infections Program.* *J Infect Dis.* 1998;177:998-1002.
 67. Jones N, Oliver KA, Barry J, et al. Enhanced invasiveness of bovine-derived neonatal sequence type 17 group B streptococcus is independent of capsular serotype. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2006;42:915-24.

68. Bergeron MG, Ke D, Ménard C, et al. Rapid detection of group B streptococci in pregnant women at delivery. *N Engl J Med.* 2000;343:175-9.
69. Heath PT, Balfour GF, Tighe H, et al. Group B streptococcal disease in infants: a case control study. *Arch Dis Child.* 2009;94:674-80.
70. Boyer KM, Gotoff SP. Strategies for chemoprophylaxis of GBS early-onset infections. *Antibiot Chemother.* 1985;35:267-80.
71. Schuchat A, Oxtoby M, Cochi S, et al. Population-based risk factors for neonatal group B streptococcal disease: results of a cohort study in metropolitan Atlanta. *J Infect Dis.* 1990;162:672-7.
72. Pass MA, Gray BM, Khare S, et al. Prospective studies of group B streptococcal infections in infants. *J Pediatr.* 1979;95:437-43.
73. Carstensen H, Christensen KK, Grennert L, et al. Early-onset neonatal group B streptococcal septicaemia in siblings. *J Infect.* 1998;17:201-4.
74. Easmon CS, Hastings MJ, Clare AJ, et al. Nosocomial transmission of group B streptococci. *BMJ.* 1981;283:459-61.
75. Hastings MJ, Easmon CS. Variations in the opsonic requirement of group B streptococcus type III. *Br J Exp Pathol.* 1981;62:519-25.
76. Stoll BJ, Hansen NI, Sánchez PJ, et al. Early onset neonatal sepsis: the burden of group B streptococcal and *E. coli* disease continue. *Pediatrics.* 2011;127:817-26.
77. Verani JR, Schrag SJ. Group B streptococcal disease in infants: progress in prevention and continued challenges. *Clin Perinatol.* 2010;37:375-92.
78. Zangwill KM, Schuchat A, Wenger JD. Group B streptococcal disease in the United States, 1990: report from a multistate active surveillance system. *MMWR CDC Surveill Summ.* 1992;41:25-32.
79. Lin FY, Weisman LE, Troendle J, et al. Prematurity is the major risk factor for late-onset group B streptococcus disease. *J Infect Dis.* 2003;188:267-71.
80. Noya FJ, Rench MA, Metzger TG, et al. Unusual occurrence of an epidemic of type Ib/c group B streptococcal sepsis in a neonatal intensive care unit. *J Infect Dis.* 1987;155:1135-44.
81. Kotiw M, Zhang GW, Daggard G, et al. Late-onset and recurrent neonatal group B streptococcal disease associated with breast-milk transmission. *Pediatr Dev Pathol.* 2003;6:251-6.
82. Epalza C, Goetghebuer T, Hainaut M, et al. High incidence of invasive group B streptococcal infections in HIV-exposed uninfected infants. *Pediatrics.* 2010;126:631-8.
83. Di John D, Krasinski K, Lawrence R, et al. Very late onset of group B streptococcal disease in infants infected with the human immunodeficiency virus. *Pediatr Infect Dis J.* 1990;9:925-8.
84. Levent F, Baker CJ, Rench MA, et al. Early outcomes of group B streptococcal meningitis in the 21st century. *Pediatr Infect Dis J.* 2010;29:1009-12.
85. Schrag SJ, Zywicki S, Farley MM, et al. Group B streptococcal disease in the era of intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis. *N Engl J Med.* 2000;342:15-20.
86. Committee on Infectious Diseases. Group B streptococcal infections. En: Kimberlin DW, Brady MT, Jackson MA, et al., editors. *Red Book.* 30th ed. Illinois: American Academy of Pediatrics; 2015. p. 745-50.
87. Turner C, Turner P, Po L, et al. Group B streptococcal carriage, serotype distribution and antibiotic susceptibilities in pregnant women at the time of delivery in a refugee population on the Thai-Myanmar border. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2012;12:34.
88. Kunze M, Ziegler A, Fluegge K, et al. Colonization, serotypes and transmission rates of group B streptococci in pregnant women and their infants born at a single University Center in Germany. *J Perinat Med.* 2011;39:417-22.
89. Oddie S, Embleton ND. Risk factors for early onset neonatal group B streptococcal sepsis: case-control study. *BMJ.* 2002;325:308.
90. Parry S, Strauss JF 3rd. Premature rupture of the fetal membranes. *N Engl J Med.* 1998;338:663-70.
91. Schuchat A. Group B streptococcus. *Lancet.* 1999;353:51-6.
92. Kessous R, Weintraub AY, Sergienko R, et al. Bacteriuria with group-B streptococcus: is it a risk factor for adverse pregnancy outcomes? *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2012;25:1983-6.
93. Persson K, Christensen KK, Christensen P, et al. Asymptomatic bacteriuria during pregnancy with special reference to group B streptococci. *Scand J Infect Dis.* 1985;17:195-9.
94. Alos Cortes JI, Andreu Domingo A, Arribas Mir L, et al. Prevención de la infección perinatal por estreptococo del grupo B. Recomendaciones españolas. Actualización 2012. Documento de consenso SEIMC/SEGO/SEN/SEQ/SEMFYC. *Enferm Infec Microbiol Clin.* 2013;31:159-72.
95. Money DM, Dobson S, Canadian Paediatric Society, Infectious Diseases Committee. The prevention of early-onset neonatal group B streptococcal disease. *J Obstet Gynaecol Can.* 2004;26:826-40.
96. Rodriguez-Granger J, Alvargonzalez JC, Berardi A, et al. Prevention of group B streptococcal neonatal disease revisited. The DEVANI European project. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis.* 2012;31:2097-104.
97. Ohlsson A, Shah VS. Intrapartum antibiotics for known maternal group B streptococcal colonization. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2013;1:CD007467.