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Multi resistance to carbapenems by production of Verona integron-encoded metallo-β-lactamase (VIM) -type carbapenemases in Gram-negative bacilli isolated at Centre Hospitalier Universitaire de Tengandogo (CHU-T) and Hôpital Saint Camille de Ouagadougou (HOSCO) in Burkina Faso

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ABSTRACT

Background: The production of metallo-beta-lactamases (MBL) such as VIM (Verona integron-encoded metallo-β-lactamase), IMP (Imipenem-resistant Pseudomonas) and NDM (New Delhi metallo-β-lactamase) in Gram-negative bacilli (GNB) resistant to carbapenems is a real concern for clinicians, given the therapeutic impasses involved. However, the existence of resistance genes encoding these enzymes is virtually undocumented in Burkina Faso. Aim: To genotypically demonstrate carbapenem resistance through the production of VIM-type carbapenemases in GNB strains collected at the Centre Hospitalier Universitaire de Tengandogo (CHU-T) and the Hôpital Saint Camille de Ouagadougou (HOSCO) in Burkina Faso. Methods: In this study, the resistance profile of 158 strains of GNB to imipenem, meropenem, ertapenem, doripenem and aztreonam was determined using the disc diffusion method. Resistant strains were analyzed by conventional PCR to detect blaVIM using specific primers. Results: Of 158 GNB strains collected, 91 (57.6%) were resistant to at least one of the carbapenems and/or aztreonam. The highest prevalence of resistant strains was observed in Escherichia coli (E. coli) 45.1% (n=41) and Klebsiella pneumoniae (K. pneumonia) 26.5% (n=24), which are the majority species. The blaVIM gene was detected in only 7 resistant strains (7.7%), including 3.3% (n=3/91) of E. coli, and 1.1% (n=1/91) of each of the species Pseudomonas aeruginosa (P. aeruginosa), Klebsiella oxytoca (K. oxytoca), Proteus mirabilis (P. mirabilis) and Serratia marcescens (S. marcescens). Conclusion: This study established the existence of blaVIM gene, which is involved in the resistance of GNB to carbapenems through the production of VIM-type enzymes at CHU-T and HOSCO in Burkina Faso.

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Introduction

The antimicrobial therapy of modern medicine is threatened by a worldwide increase in resistance, especially in Gram-negative bacilli (GNB) [1]. In this antimicrobial therapy, carbapenems are used as a last resort to treat infections caused by these bacteria that are resistant to other antibiotics. However, the most worrying problem of antimicrobial resistance concerns carbapenem-resistant GNB [2], as the rapid emergence and spread of these pathogens presents a real challenge for infection management [3]. Carbapenem resistance in GNB results from the expression of enzymes called carbapenemases, that inactivate these antibiotics and/or from nonenzymatic mechanisms [4]. The production of MBLs is one of the most common enzymatic mechanisms of carbapenem resistance in clinically important GNBs, posing a serious challenge for antimicrobial therapy [5]. MBLs are Ambler class B carbapenemases [6]. Of the 94 MBL types currently identified, VIM are among enzymes which represent a growing challenge to clinical care and are identified in clinical strains of pathogenic GNB including Enterobacteriaceae and P. aeruginosa [5]. Like other MBLs, VIM-type carbapenemases hydrolyze all beta-lactams except monobactams [7]. VIM-type enzymes are the most widespread MBL in the world after NDM-type enzymes, with a prevalence between 22 and 39% [5]. The spread of these MBL is emphasis by the intra and interspecies distribution of VIM genes (blavim) situated within class 1 integrons harboured on broad-host range plasmids [8].

VIM-type carbapenemases have been described in several countries and are widespread in Africa, Europe and the Middle East [9-11]. Several other studies have reported the presence of blavim gene in West Africa in Nigeria [12, 13], in North Africa in Egypt [14, 15] and in Morocco [16]. In Burkina Faso, a few studies have also revealed that clinical strains of Enterobacteriaceae carried blavim gene [17-19]. Despite the threat posed by MBLs, particularly the VIM types, to the therapeutic management of infections caused by MBLproducing germs, these studies do not allow a true estimate to be made of the extent of carbapenem resistance mediated by these enzymes in Burkina Faso. Hence, the interest of this study in reinforcing the inadequate scientific data on the molecular epidemiology of these carbapenemases in our country.

The aim of our study was to genotypically demonstrate carbapenem resistance mediated by the production of VIM-type carbapenemases in GNB strains from two hospitals in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso.

Methods

Sampling and identification of bacterial strains

Our study was carried out in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso. It was a retrospective study conducted on 158 bacterial strains. These strains come from previous studies and were collected from September 2018 to October 2018 and from September 2022 to August 2022 in the bacteriology section of the laboratories of the Centre Hospitalier Universitaire de Tengandogo (CHU-T) and Hôpital Saint Camille de Ouagadougou (HOSCO) in Burkina Faso. All of 158 strains were GNB resistant to third-generation cephalosporins and/or aztreonam, including 130 strains collected at HOSCO and 28 strains at CHU-T. The strains were isolated from urine, feces, pus, blood cultures, vaginal and vulvar swabs and peritoneal fluids from hospitalised and nonhospitalised patients. They were identified using API 20E tests (BioMérieux S.A., Marcy l'Etoile, France).

Antibiotic susceptibility testing

The antibiotic susceptibility of the strains was tested by antibiogram using the disc diffusion Mueller-Hinton method on agar medium (Liofilchem, Italy) in accordance with recommendations of EUCAST/CA-SFM vs 2022 [20]. The following antibiotics: imipenem IPM (10 μg), meropenem MRP (10 μg), ertapenem ETP (10 μg), doripenem DOR (10 μg) and aztreonam ATM (30 µg) were used to identify carbapenem-resistant strains. Susceptible strains were classified as "susceptible" and intermediate-susceptible resistant strains as "resistant" using the critical limits of inhibition diameters [20].

Molecular detection of the VIM carbapenemase gene

Bacterial DNA extraction

Bacterial DNA was extracted from isolated colonies obtained from previously strains stored in Luria Bertani storage medium, which were awakened by culturing on MH agar for 18-24h at 37°C. Bacterial DNA was extracted using the boiling method of **Dashti** *et al.*[21] with a few modifications. Two to three identical colonies were suspended in 200 µl of sterile distilled water in a 1.5

ml Eppendorf tube. The resulting suspension was heated in a water bath (MEMMERT, Rost fret) at 100°C for 15 min to release the bacterial genetic material. The heated suspension was then centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 10 minutes (NF 048 centrifuge) to remove the DNA from the cellular debris. The supernatant containing the DNA was recovered and transferred to a new Eppendorf tube. The extracted DNA is quantified and stored at -20 or -80°C until further use.

Molecular identification of gene encoding VIM carbapenemase

All isolates resistant to at least one carbapenem and/or aztreonam were screened by conventional PCR (Polymerase chain reaction), using forward and reverse blavin specific oligonucleotide (5'primers GTTTGGTCGCATATCGCAAC-3' 3'and AATGCGCAGCACCAGGATAG- 5') respectively with a size of 382 base pair (bp) [22]. Reaction mixture of 20 µL was composed of 4 µL Firepol® Master Mix 5X, 0.5 µL of each primer (Forward and reverse), 14 µL of PCR water and 1 µL of DNA extract. Amplification reactions were performed using the GeneAmp System PCR 9700 thermal cycler (Applied Biosystems, California, USA). The cycling protocol involved initial denaturation for 5 min at 96°C, subsequently denatured at 96°C for 30 seconds, annealed at 61°C for 30 seconds, extension step for 30 seconds at 72°C with 30 cycles, and a final extension time of 7 min at 72°C. The holding temperature was 4°C for infinity (\infty). The PCR products (6 to 8 µl) were analyzed by electrophoretic migration on a 1.5% agarose gel at 100 volts for 35 min in TAE 1X buffer supplemented with ethidium bromide (1 µg/ mL). A 100 bp DNA ladder molecular weight marker (Solis Biodyne, Estonia) was used as a reference. The PCR products were viewed under ultraviolet light using the Vilber E-Box transilluminator.

Results

Bacterial strains and antibiotic susceptibility testing

Of 158 GNB isolates used for susceptibility testing tested, 91 (57.6%) were resistant to at least one carbapenem and/or aztreonam as shown in (figure 1). Among the 91 resistant strains, 11 bacterial species were identified: *E. coli, K. pneumonia, P. aeruginosa, P. mirabilis, Enterobacter cloacae* (*E.cloacae*), *Enterobacter aerogenes* (*E. aerogenes*), *Citrobacter freundii* (*C.*

freundii), S. marcescens, Serratia odorifera (S.odrifera), K. oxytoca, Salmonella arizonae (S.arizonae). **Table 1** illustrates the distribution of resistant strains by bacterial species according to area sampling. E. coli 45.1% (n=41) and K. pneumoniae 26.5% (n=24) were the predominant resistant species followed by P. aeruginosa 9.9% (n=9), P. mirabilis 4.4% (n=4) and S. marcescens 4.4% (n=4) (**Table 3**). Most resistant strains were from cytobacteriological examinations of urines 50.5% (n=46), stools 33% (n=30) and pus 13.2% (n=12) and from hospitalized patients 60.4% (n=55), mostly female 51.6% (n=47) were children and adults from 0 to 4 years and 25 to 64 years respectively (**Table 3**).

The distribution of bacterial species according to antibiotic resistance patterns are shown in **(table 2)**. For each imipenem, meropenem and doripenem resistance rate was 22.0% (n=20), and 44.0% (n=40), 94.5% (n=86) for ertapenem and aztreonam respectively (**Table 2**). *Escherichia coli* presented more resistant strains with the highest resistance rates for aztreonam 41.8% (n=38) and ertapenem 20.9% (n=19) followed by *K. pneumoniae* with 25.3 % (n=23) and 11.0% (n=10) respectively.

Molecular detection of gene encoding VIM carbapenemase

Molecular characterization of gene encoding VIM-type carbapenemase by conventional PCR, using specific primers revealed that, out of 91 resistant isolates, 7 strains (7.7%) harboured $bla_{\rm VIM}$ gene (**Table 4**) as showing DNA bands appeared approximatively at 382 bp (**Figure 2**).

VIM gene was mainly detected in E. coli isolates with a prevalence of 3.3% (n=3/91). Indeed, 2 E. coli strains with positive blavim gene were resistant to ertapenem and one other to all carbapenems tested. Therefore, only 1 (1.1%) strain of P. aeruginosa, K. oxytoca, P. mirabilis, S. marcescens was harbored the resistance gene. P. aeruginosa strain and K. oxytoca strain were resistant respectively to imipenem and to all carbapenems; while blavim gene-positive strains of P. mirabilis, S. marcescens were sensitive to all carbapenem. However, blavim was not found in any strain of K. pneumoniae (26.4%; n=24), E. cloacae (3.3%; n=3), E. aerogenes (1.1%; n=1), C. freundii (2.2%; n=2), S. odorifera (1.1%; n=1) and S. arizonae (1.1%; n=1) (**Table 4**). Bacterial strains carrying blavim were only isolated from urine

(57.1%; n=4/7), stool (14.3%; n=1/7) and pus (28.6%; n=2/7) specimens, which were mostly collected from women (71.4%; n=5/7) whose were mainly hospitalized patients.

As for correlation between carbapenem resistance and resistance gene detection, prevalence of bla_{VIM} gene in carbapenem-resistant strains was for: ertapenem (57.1%; n=4/7), imipenem (42.9%; n=3/7), meropenem (28.6%; n=2/7) and doripenem (28.6%; n=2/7).

Table 1. Frequencies of bacterial resistant strains according to collection sites.

-	Area sampling						
Bacterial species	HOSCO n (%)	CHUT n (%)	Total n (%)				
Escherichia coli	31 (34,1)	10 (11,0)	41 (45,1)				
Klebsiella pneumoniae	21 (23,1)	3 (3,3)	24 (26,4)				
Pseudomonas aeruginosa	9 (9,9)	0	9 (9,9)				
Proteus mirabilis	4 (4,4)	0	4 (4,4)				
Enterobacter cloacae	2 (2,2)	1 (1,1)	3 (3,3)				
Enterobacter aerogenes	1 (1,1)	0	1 (1,1)				
Citrobacter freundii	2 (2,2)	0	2 (2,2)				
Serratia marcescens	3 (3,3)	1 (1,1)	4 (4,4)				
Serratia odorifera	1 (1,1)	0	1 (1,1)				
Klebsiella oxytoca	0	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)				
Salmonella arizonae	0	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)				
Total	74 (81,3)	17 (18,7)	91 (100)				

n= number of resistant strains of each bacterial species; %= proportion of resistant strains of each bacterial species, HOSCO = Saint Camille Hospital Center in Ouagadougou; CHU-T = Tengandogo University Hospital Center.

Table 2. Distribution of bacterial species according to antibiotic resistance patterns.

Bacterial species	IPM ^R (n'/%)	MRP ^R (n'/%)	ETP ^R (n'/%)	DOR ^R (n'/%)	ATM ^R (n'/%)
Escherichia coli (n=41)	7 (7,7)	7 (7,7)	19 (20,9)	8 (8,8)	38 (41,8)
Klebsiella pneumoniae(n=24)	4 (4,4)	7 (7,7)	10 (11,0)	5 (5,5)	23 (25,3)
Pseudomonas aeruginosa (n=9)	7 (7,7)	2 (2,2)	6 (6,6)	4 (4,4)	9 (9,9)
Proteus mirabilis (n=4)	0	0	1 (1,1)	0	4 (4,4)
Enterobacter cloacae (n=3)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	0	2 (2,2)
Enterobacter aerogenes (n=1)	0	0	0	0	1 (1,1)
Citrobacter freundii (n=2)	0	0	0	0	2 (2,2)
Serratia marcescens (n=4)	0	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	4 (4,4)
Serratia odorifera (n=1)	0	0	0	0	1 (1,1)
Klebsiella oxytoca (n=1)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)
Salmonella arizonae (n=1)	0	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)
Total	20 (22,0)	20 (22,0)	40 (44,0)	20 (22,0)	86 (94,5)

R= Resistant; n= strain number of each bacterial species; n'= number of resistant strains of each bacterial species to antibiotic overall of the total of strains; %= percent correlated to the total number of resistant strains bacterial; IPM= Imipenem, MRP= Meropenem, ERT= Ertapenem, DOR = Doripenem, ATM = Aztreonam

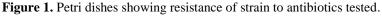
Table 3. Distribution of resistant bacterial species according to biological samples, sex and hospitalized status of patient.

0	Bacteria	l species										
Characteri stics	E. coli	Klebsiella pneumoniae	Pseudomona s aeruginosa	Proteus mirabilis	Enterobacter cloacae	Enterobacter aerogenes	Citrobacter freundii	Serratia marcescens	Serratia odorifera	Klebsiella oxytoca	Salmonella arizonae	Total (n/%)
Specimen (n/%)												
Urine	21 (23,1)	14 (15,4)	4 (4,4)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	0	1 (1,1)	2 (2,2)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	0	46 (50,6)
Feces	12 (13,2)	8 (8,8)	1 (1,1)	3 (3,3)	2 (2,2)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	2 (2,2)	0	0	0	30 (33,0)
Pus	6 (6,6)	1 (1,1)	4 (4,4)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1 (1,1)	12 (13,2)
Blood	1 (1,1)	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1 (1,1)
Vaginal swab	1 (1,1)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1 (1,1)
Vulvaire swab	0	1 (1,1)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1 (1,1)
Total	41 (45,1)	24 (26,4)	9 (9,9)	4 (4,4)	3 (3,3)	1 (1,1)	2 (2,2)	4 (4,4)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	91 (100)
Sex (n/%)												
Female	18 (19,8)	14 (15,4)	5 (5,5)	4 (4,4)	0	0	2 (2,2)	2 (2,2)	0	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	47 (51,6)
Male	17 (18,7)	6 (6,6)	4 (4,4)	0	3 (3,3)	0	0	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	0	0	32 (35,2)
None	6 (6,6)	4 (4,4)	0	0	0	1 (1,1)	0	1 (1,1)	0	0	0	12 (13,2)
Total	41/45,1	24 (26,4)	9 (9,9)	4 (4,4)	3 (3,3)	1 (1,1)	2 (2,2)	4 (4,4)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	91 (100)
Hospitalisa tion (n/%)												
Yes	25 (27,5)	15 (16,5)	5 (5,5)	4 (4,4)	2 (2,2)	0	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	0	55 (60,4)
No	9 (9,9)	6 (6,6)	4 (4,4)	0	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	2 (2,2)	0	0	0	24 (26,4)
None	7 (7,7)	3 (3,3)	0	0	0	0	0	1 (1,1)	0	0	1 (1,1)	12 (13,2)
Total (n/%)	41 (45,1)	24 (26,4)	9 (9,9)	4 (4,4)	3 (3,3)	1 (1,1)	2 (2,2)	4 (4,4)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	1 (1,1)	91 (100)

Table 4. Distribution of *VIM* gene according to resistant bacterial species.

Bacterial species	VIM gene '+' (n/%)	VIM gene '-' (n/%)	Total of resistant strains	
Escherichia coli	3/3,3	38/41,8	41/45,1	
Klebsiella pneumoniae	0	24/26,4	24/26,4	
Pseudomonas aeruginosa	1/1,1	8/8,8	9/9,9	
Proteus mirabilis	1/1,1	3/3,3	4/4,4	
Enterobacter cloacae	0	3/3,3	3/3,3	
Enterobacter aerogenes	0	1/1,1	1/1,1	
Citrobacter freundii	0	2/2,2	2/2,2	
Serratia marcescens	1/1,1	3/3,3	4/4,4	
Serratia odorifera	0	1/1,1	1/1,1	
Klebsiella oxytoca	1/1,1	0	1/1,1	
Salmonella arizonae	0	1/1,1	1/1,1	
Total	7/7,7	84/92,3	91/100	

n= number of resistant strains of each bacterial species harbouring or not gene resistance; '+'indicating gene detected; '-'= indicating gene not detected; %= percent correlated to the total number resistant strains bacterial.



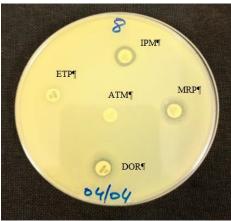
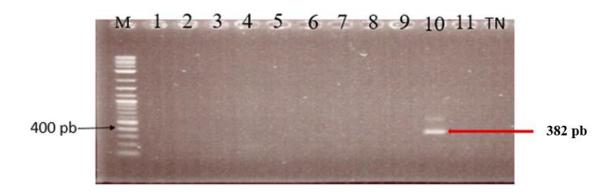


Figure 2. Agarose gel electrophoresis of blaVIM gene amplicons (382 bp). M= molecular weight marker, DNA ladder 100 pb (Solis Biodyne, Estonia); TN= negative control; Lanes 1-11 correspond to strains samples; Lane 10 corresponds to a strain with positive VIM carbapenemase gene.



Discussion

Currently, the proliferation of carbapenemases constitutes the uppermost pressing problem in GNB [23]; as MBL production has become the most common mechanism carbapenem resistance in clinically relevant GNB and represents a major challenge for antimicrobial therapy [5]. Despite the threat posed by resistance to carbapenems through MBL production in clinically important GNB, data on the epidemiology of genes encoding these carbapenem resistance enzymes are still lacking in Africa and particularly in Burkina Faso. The present study was therefore undertaken to help improve epidemiological data on MBL-type carbapenemase resistance genes, with a view to better monitoring of carbapenem-resistant GNB in our country.

The aim of the study was to genotypically demonstrate carbapenem resistance through the production of VIM-type carbapenemases in GNB

from two hospitals, the Centre Hospitalier Universitaire de Tengandogo (CHU-T) and the Hôpital Saint Camille de Ouagadougou (HOSCO) in Burkina Faso. Overall 158 GNB isolates collected, 57.6% (n=91) of them were carbapenem-resistant including E. coli (45.1%, n=41), K. pneumoniae (26.5%, n=24) which were the predominant species (Table 1). Similar results were also reported in Cameroon [24] and Ghana [25], where the most prevalent species were E. coli (50% and 46%) and K. pneumoniae (37.5% and 17%) respectively. In Burkina Faso, Kabore et al. [26] made the same observation but with a higher rate for E. coli (82.69%), which was more resistant to antibiotics including carbapenems, and a lower rate for K. pneumoniae (9.62%). Furthermore, resistant strains in our study were mostly isolated from urine (50.5%, n=46), including 23.1% (n=21) of *E. coli*; urine specimens were predominantly originated from female patients (51.6% n=47) and hospitalized

(60.4%, n=55). This higher prevalence of E. coli resistant strains could be explained by the predominance of urine specimen and by fact that E. coli is known as the bacterial specie most incriminated in urinary tract infections [24]. Haji et al.[23] have also observed that urine was the dominant type of biological samples (62%) and originated from women (60%). However, Balkhair et al.[27] have reported a lowest carbapenem resistance rate for E. coli (2.9%) and slightly higher rates at 46.4% and 29.9% for K. pneumoniae and P. Furthermore, aeruginosa respectively. prevalence of carbapenem resistance in our study (57.6%) was higher than those (30.9%, 37%, 27.7%) observed respectively by Haji et al.[23], Armin et al.[28] and Balkhair et al.[27].

Concerning the antibiotic susceptibility profiles, our bacterial strains showed slightly high carbapenem resistance level with rates at 44.0% for ertapenem and 22.0% for imipenem, meropenem and doripenem (Table 2). Similar resistance rates to ertatpenem (40.0%) and imipenem (23.0%) in Enterobacterales were reported in Morocco by Belouad et al. [29]. Moreover, Djuikoue et al. [24] in Cameroon have recorded lower levels resistance in Enterobacterales with rates at 14.4%, 13.8% and 7.5% respectively for imipenem, ertapenem and meropenem. However, Haji et al.[23] have observed slightly higher resistance rates for imipenem (41%) and meropenem (40%) and a slightly low resistance level for ertapenem (36%). The differences observed between the resistance rates in our study and those in the other studies could be explained partly by the size of the samples and partly by the method of phenotypic detection of antibiotic resistance. In our study, any strain with reduced sensitivity to at least one of carbapenems was categorized resistant and suspected as a carbapenemase-producing strain in accordance with the CA-SFM vs 2020 [30]. This detection of carbapenem-resistant strains was carried out using manual disc diffusion method [20], which is not always easy used to demonstrate resistance to carbapenems [19]. On the other hand, in the study by Haji et al.[23], the resistance profile of bacterial strains to carbapenems was determined using an automated method [31], making it possible to improve resistance detection.

All bacterial isolates resistant to carbapenem and/or to aztreonam therefore suspicious of carbapenemase production, were screening by molecular approaches to detect *VIM*

gene. In our study, blavim was found in 7 isolates (7.7%, n=7/91) resistant to carbapenems and/or aztreonam including 3 strains of E. coli (3.3%, n=3/91) and 1 strain (1.1%, n=1/91) for each species P. aeruginosa, K. oxytoca, P. mirabilis, S. marcescens (Table 4). This study is not the first to report the presence of VIM-type carbapenemase resistance genes in Burkina Faso. Some previous studies by Sanou et al.[17], Dembele et al.[18], Kabore et al.[19] and Ouattara et al.[32] in Burkina Faso have also identified *bla*_{VIM} gene in 1, 2, 2 and 4 strains of E. coli resistant to carbapenems, respectively. Whereas, in our study, carbapenemase-VIM encoding gene was identified not only in E. coli, but also in other Enterobacteriaceae (Table 4) and then in P. aeruginosa. Likewise, to the best of our knowledge, our study is one of the first in our country to record detection of bla_{VIM} gene in K. oxytoca, P. mirabilis, S. marcescens, P. aeruginosa strains resistant to carbapenems at CHU-T and HOSCO in Burkina Faso. Furthermore, our low blavim detection rates, in agreement with those of these previous findings, might underlined a weak spread of VIM-like enzymes in carbapenemresistant GNB in our country. A surveillance study of infections related to carbapenem-resistant Enterobacterales and P. aeruginosa in Africa, from the ATLAS program, has also recorded a low detection rate of bla_{VIM} at 7.0% (n=11/156), including 3 strains of E. coli [9]. Then, our findings were corroborated by those of Estabrook et al.[11] according to which blayim was identified only in (n=9/94) of meropenem-nonsusceptible Enterobacterales strains from Africa, collected as part of a global surveillance study. However, our carbapenem-resistant strains frequency (57.6%, n=91/158) and bla_{VIM} detection rate (7.7%, n=7/91) were discordant with the findings of **Haji** et al. [23] in Iraq, who have recorded lower carbapenem resistance rate 30.9% (n=34/110) and higher prevalence of VIM gene 49% (n=26/53).

Of interest, P. mirabilis (n=1) and S. marcescens (n=1) strains with positive $bla_{\rm VIM}$ gene, were sensitive to all carbapenems in our study. Other authors had also reported some cases of GNB strains susceptible to carbapenems, which were positive to $bla_{\rm VIM}$ gene and to other carbapenemase-encoding gene such as $bla_{\rm NDM}$, $bla_{\rm IMP}$, $bla_{\rm KPC}$, $bla_{\rm GES}$, $bla_{\rm OXA-48}$ [33, 34]. Such results could be justified by the fact that resistance genes not expressed in these carbapenem-sensitive strains would not have been detected by phenotypic tests,

thus favouring their silent spread in hospital and community environments [34].

Finally, among carbapenemresistant strains of K. pneumoniae (26.4%; n=24), E. cloacae (3.3%; n=3), E. aerogenes (1.1%; n=1), C. freundii (2.2%; n=2), S. odorifera (1.1%; n=1) and S. arizonae (1.1%; n=1) (**Table 4**), none strain has harboured VIM-type carbapenemase-encoding gene. The non-detection of blavim in carbapenemresistant strains in our study was also reported in a study by Belouad et al.[29] in Morocco, who have not detected VIM gene in carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae (E. coli, K. pneumoniae, E. cloacae). In this Moroccan study, none blavim gene was not found in these carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae, but blaoXA-48 and blandm genes were predominantly detected. Likewise, previous studies in our country [17-19, 35] have recorded the presence of NDM, IMP, OXA-48, KPC, GES carbapenemase-encoding genes involved carbapenem resistance in clinical GNB isolates. Thus, these resistance genes not researched in our study might justified carbapenem resistance in our VIM gene-negative isolates. Further, these bacterial isolates with negative blavim would exhibited nonenzymatic carbapenem resistance mechanisms such as modification or loss of porins [36, 37] and overexpression of efflux pumps [37], and then being non-susceptible to carbapenems.

Conclusion

In addition to the existence of numerous extended-spectrum beta-lactamases (ESBLs) sufficiently described in multi-resistant enterobacteria in Burkina Faso, the emergence and spread of carbapenemase-producing GNB in hospital and community settings is another real public health problem in our country. Our study revealed the presence of blavim gene encoding VIMtype carbapenemases in carbapenem-resistant GNB of clinical interest from HOSCO and CHU-T in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso. Carbapenemases of the VIM type, as well as enzymes of the NDM, IMP, KPC and OXA-48 types, cause therapeutic impasses that increase healthcare costs and mortality. Consequently, national epidemiological surveillance is needed to prevent and control the spread of these resistance genes in our country. We therefore recommend this will be made possible by setting up platforms for phenotypic detection and genotypic characterization of these carbapenemases

in both public and private medical biology laboratories.

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Conflicts of interests

The authors declare having no competing interests.

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