

# Group B Streptococcus (GBS) Streptococcus agalactiae

In the 1970s, Group B Streptococcus (GBS) replaced Escherichia coli as the leading infectious cause of early neonatal morbidity and mortality in the United States (1-4). Prior to preventive screening and treatment, an estimated 7,500 cases of neonatal GBS disease occurred annually in the United States (5). A great reduction in disease occurrence resulted from an increase in preventive measures such as recommendations for intrapartum prophylaxis to prevent perinatal GBS disease issued in 1996 by the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (ACOG), (6) Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), (7) and in 1997 by the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) (8). (9) Disease occurrence declined even further after the publication of CDC guidelines for prevention in 2002 (10) which recommended universal culture-based screening of all pregnant women at 35-37 weeks' gestation to optimize the identification of women who should receive intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis (11). Despite recommendations for prevention, GBS remains the leading infectious cause of morbidity and mortality among newborns in the United States (12, 13). GBS has been recognized as one of the most important pathogens in obstetric patients and can cause urinary tract infections, amnionitis, post-partum endometritis, wound infection, and intrapartum and/or postpartum bacteremia (14, 15). GBS infection may also lead to premature rupture of membranes and preterm delivery (16, 17, 18).

# Epidemiology

- Group B Streptococcus, or Streptococcus agalactiae, is a Gram-positive bacterium that causes invasive disease primarily in infants, pregnant or postpartum women (12, 19–25), and older adults, with the highest incidence among young infants (12).
- Asymptomatic vaginal colonization with GBS occurs in approximately 20% (range 4.6% to 40.6%) of pregnant women (26, 27-30).
- Colonization with GBS in pregnant women varies according to geographic locale, age at pregnancy, duration of gestation, and the location and number of sites cultured.
- The CDC estimates that in recent years, GBS has caused approximately 1,200 cases of early-onset invasive disease per year (31); approximately 70% of cases are among babies born at term (≥37 weeks' gestation) (12).

## Pathogenesis

A MEMBER OF GENESS BIOTECHNOLOGY GROUP

Early-onset infections are acquired vertically through

exposure to GBS from the vagina of a colonized woman. Neonatal infection occurs primarily when GBS ascends from the vagina to the amniotic fluid after onset of labor or rupture of membranes, although GBS also can invade through intact membranes (32, 33).

- Pregnant women with GBS colonization were >25 times more likely than pregnant women with negative prenatal cultures to deliver infants with early-onset GBS disease (34).
- Approximately 10% to 30% of pregnant women are colonized with GBS in the vagina or rectum (35–37).
   GBS colonization during pregnancy can be transient, intermittent, or persistent (38–40).
- Although some women with GBS colonization during a pregnancy will be colonized during subsequent pregnancies, a substantial proportion will not (41, 42).
- In the absence of any intervention, an estimated 1% to 2% of infants born to colonized mothers develop earlyonset GBS infections (7, 34).
- In addition to maternal colonization with GBS, other factors that increase the risk for early-onset disease include gestational age <37 completed weeks, longer duration of membrane rupture, intra-amniotic infection, young maternal age, black race, and low maternal levels of GBS-specific anticapsular antibody (43–50).

# **Clinical Significance**

- Two distinctive clinical syndromes related to age were described as acute and delayed (51) or early and late-onset (52).
- Infants with early-onset GBS disease generally present with respiratory distress, apnea, or other signs of sepsis within the first 24–48 hours of life (3, 53, 54).
- Occult bacteremia or meningitis are common clinical manifestations of late-onset infection, but a variety of focal infections, usually with accompanying bacteremia, are also described. The nonspecific initial signs of lateonset disease, such as lethargy, poor-feeding, and irritability, generally occur in association with fever (temperature ≥38°C).
- Permanent neurologic sequelae will occur in 25% to 50% of survivors of GBS meningitis, regardless of early or late-onset (55, 56).

## Laboratory Diagnosis

 Obtaining specimens from the anorectum and vaginal introitus increases the likelihood of isolation of GBS by



5% to 37% over obtaining specimens from the vagina alone (57, 58).

- To obtain a specimen, firmly, yet gently, sample the vagina and/or the anorectum with the sterile **OneSwab®** swab, rotating 360° for 10 to 30 seconds to ensure adequate sampling. Remove the swab and place into the vial. Snap off the shaft to fit completely in the vial. To prevent leakage, be sure the swab fits into the vial prior to capping. Tightly cap the vial.
- Traditionally, prenatal screening culture, including broth culture in selective medium, has been considered the gold standard method for the detection of GBS infection but the culture methods require 48 hours to yield results and predict only 87% of women with GBS at delivery (35, 36).
- A rapid antigen-based test has been developed. However, these tests are neither sensitive nor specific enough to substitute for bacterial culture (59 - 62).
- GBS-specific PCR-based assays have demonstrated better sensitivity, but they require complicated procedures (42).
- Medical Diagnostic Laboratories (MDL) has validated a Real-Time PCR assay in a closed tube format that is based upon the amplification of a gene encoding diffusible extracellular protein (CAMP factor) which is produced by GBS (63). The *cfb* gene is present in virtually every GBS isolate and is a good target for the Real-Time PCR assay for the detection of GBS.

#### **Clinical Benefits of Testing**

The advent of Real-Time PCR techniques allows for the detection of PCR amplification of products during the reaction. Traditional PCR methods only allow the visualization of product at the end-point of the reaction. Likewise, gold standard culturing methods require 24 – 48 hours of incubation prior to results. The studies performed by MDL establish the ability of the Real-Time PCR method to detect specific genetic sequences of a target pathogen within a given clinical specimen in a much shorter amount of time without culturing.

#### **Treatment Considerations**

Prevention of Perinatal Group B Streptococcal Disease -Revised Guidelines from CDC, 2010

- Women with GBS isolated from the urine at any time during the current pregnancy or who had a previous infant with invasive GBS disease should receive intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis and do not need third trimester screening for GBS colonization. Women with symptomatic or asymptomatic GBS urinary tract infection detected during pregnancy should be treated according to current standards of care for urinary tract infection during pregnancy and should receive intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis to prevent earlyonset GBS disease.
- All other pregnant women should be screened at 35–37 weeks' gestation for vaginal and rectal GBS

colonization.

- At the time of labor or rupture of membranes, intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis should be given to all pregnant women who tested positive for GBS colonization, except in the instance of cesarean delivery performed before onset of labor on a woman with intact amniotic membranes.
- For circumstances in which screening results are not available at the time of labor and delivery, intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis should be given to women who are <37 weeks and 0 days' gestation, have a duration of membrane rupture ≥18 hours, or have a temperature of ≥100.4° F (≥38.0°C).
- In the absence of GBS urinary tract infection, antimicrobial agents should not be used before the intrapartum period to eradicate GBS genitorectal colonization, because such treatment is not effective in eliminating carriage or preventing neonatal disease and can cause adverse consequences.
- Intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis to prevent earlyonset GBS disease is not recommended as a routine practice for cesarean deliveries performed before labor onset on women with intact amniotic membranes, regardless of the GBS colonization status of the woman or the gestational age of the pregnancy. The use of perioperative prophylactic antibiotics to prevent infectious complications of cesarean delivery should not be altered or affected by GBS status. Women expected to undergo cesarean deliveries should undergo routine vaginal and rectal screening for GBS at 35-37 weeks' gestation because onset of labor or rupture of membranes can occur before the planned cesarean delivery, and under those circumstances GBS-colonized women should receive intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis.
- Health-care providers should inform women of their GBS screening test result and the recommended interventions.
- The recommended dosing regimen of penicillin G is 5 million units intravenously, followed by 2.5–3.0 million units intravenously every 4 hours. The range of 2.5–3.0 million units is recommended to achieve adequate drug levels in the fetal circulation and amniotic fluid while avoiding neurotoxicity. The choice of dose within that range should be guided by which formulations of penicillin G are readily available in order to reduce the need for pharmacies to specially prepare doses.
- Penicillin-allergic women at high risk for anaphylaxis should receive clindamycin if their GBS isolate is susceptible to clindamycin and erythromycin, as determined by antimicrobial susceptibility testing; if the isolate is sensitive to clindamycin but resistant to erythromycin, clindamycin may be used if testing for inducible clindamycin resistance is negative. Penicillin-allergic women at high risk for anaphylaxis should receive vancomycin if their isolate is intrinsically resistant to clindamycin as determined by antimicrobial susceptibility testing, if the isolate demonstrates inducible resistance to clindamycin, or if susceptibility to both agents is unknown.





#### **References:**

- 1. Baker CJ, Barrett FF, Gordon RC, Yow MD. 1973. Suppurative meningitis due to streptococci of Lancefield group B: a study of 33 infants. *J Pediatr* 82:724–9.
- Barton LL, Feigin RD, Lins R. 1973. Group B beta hemolytic streptococcal meningitis in infants. *J Pediatr* 82:719–23.
- **3.** Franciosi RA, Knostman JD, Zimmerman RA. 1973. Group B streptococcal neonatal and infant infections. *J Pediatr* **82**:707–18.
- McCracken GH, Jr. 1973. Group B streptococci: the new challenge in neonatal infections. *J Pediatr* 82:703–6.
- Zangwill KM, Schuchat A, Wenger JD. 1992. Group B streptococcal disease in the United States, 1990: report from a multistate active surveillance system. In Surveillance Summaries, November 20, 1992. MMWR 41:25–32.
- American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. ACOG committee opinion. Prevention of early-onset group B streptococcal disease in newborns. Number 173,June 1996. Committee on Obstetric Practice. American College of Obstetrics and Gynecologists. Int J Gynaecol Obstet 54:197–205.
- 7. CDC. 1996. Prevention of perinatal group B streptococcal disease: a public health perspective. *MMWR* **45**(No. RR-7).
- American Academy of Pediatrics. 1997. Revised guidelines for prevention of early-onset group B streptococcal (GBS) infection. American Academy of Pediatrics Committee on Infectious Diseases and Committee on Fetus and Newborn. *Pediatrics* 99:489– 96.
- 9. Schrag SJ, Zywicki S, Farley MM, Reingold AL, Harrison LH, Lefkowitz LB, et al. 2000. Group B streptococcal disease in the era of intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis. *N Engl J Med* **342**:15–20.
- CDC. 2007. Perinatal group B streptococcal disease after universal screening recommendations—United States, 2003–2005. *MMWR* 56: 701–5.
- CDC. 2002. Prevention of perinatal group B streptococcal disease: revised guidelines from CDC. MMWR 51(No. RR-11).
- Phares CR, Lynfield R, Farley MM, Mohle-Boetani J, Harrison LH, Petit S, et al. 2008. Epidemiology of invasive group B streptococcal disease in the United States, 1999–2005. JAMA 299:2056–65.
- CDC. 2009. Trends in perinatal group B streptococcal disease—United States, 2000–2006. MMWR 58:109– 12
- **14. Gibbs RS, Blanco JD**. 1981. Streptococcal infections in pregnancy. A study of 48 bacteremias. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* **140**:405-411.
- **15.** Ledger WJ, Norman M, Gee C, et al. 1975. Bacteremia on an obstetric-gynecologic service. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* **121**:205-212.

- CDC. 1996. Prevention of perinatal group B streptococcal disease: a public health prespective. *MMWR* 45(No. RR-7):1-24.
- 17. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. Prevention of early-onset group B streptococcal disease in newborns. ACOG Committee Opinion 173. Washington DC: American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists, 1996.
- Regan JA, Chao S, James LS. 1981. Premature rupture of membranes, preterm delivery, and group B streptococcal colonization of mothers. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 141:184-186.
- **19. Pass MA, Gray BM, Dillon HC, Jr**. 1982. Puerperal and perinatal infections with group B streptococci. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* **143**:147–52.
- **20. Braun TI, Pinover W, Sih P**. 1995. Group B streptococcal meningitis in a pregnant woman before the onset of labor. *Clin Infect Dis* **21**: 1042–3.
- **21.** Strasberg GD. 1987. Postpartum group B streptococcal endocarditis associated with mitral valve prolapse. *Obstet Gynecol* **70**(3 Pt 2):485–7.
- 22. Aharoni A, Potasman I, Levitan Z, Golan D, Sharf
  M. 1990. Postpartum maternal group B streptococcal meningitis. *Rev Infect Dis* 12: 273–6.
- 23. Yancey MK, Duff P, Clark P, Kurtzer T, Frentzen BH, Kubilis P. 1994. Peripartum infection associated with vaginal group B streptococcal colonization. *Obstet Gynecol* 84:816–9.
- 24. Krohn MA, Hillier SL, Baker CJ. 1999. Maternal peripartum complications associated with vaginal group B streptococci colonization. *J Infect Dis* **179**:1410–5.
- 25. Shimoni Z, Ben David M, Niven MJ. 2006. Postpartum group B streptococcal tricuspid valve endocarditis. *Isr Med Assoc J* 8:883–4.
- 26. Eickhoff TC, Klein JO, Daly AL, et al. 1964. Neonatal sepsis and other infections due to group B betahemolytic streptococci. *N Engl J Med* **271**:1221-1228.
- Baker CJ, Barrett FF. 1973. Transmission of group B streptococci among parturient women and their neonates. *J Pediatr* 83:919-925.
- **28.** Anthony BF, Okada DM, Hobel CJ. 1978. Epidemiology of group B streptococcus: longitudinal observation during pregnancy. *J Infect Dis* **137**:524.
- **29.** Anthony BF, Okada DM, Hobel CJ. 1979. Epidemiology of the group B streptococcus: maternal and nosocomial sources for infant acquisitions. *J Pediatr* **95**: 431-436.
- **30. Yow MD, Leeds U, Thompson PK, et al.** 1980. The natural history of group B streptococcal colonization in the pregnant woman and her offspring. I. Colonization studies. *Am J. Obstet Gynecol* **137**:34-38.
- 31. CDC. 2009. Active Bacterial Core Surveillance Report, Emerging Infections Program Network, Group B Streptococcus, 2008. Atlanta, GA: US Department of Health and Human Services, CDC: <u>http://www.cdc.gov/ abcs/reports-findings/survreports/gbs08.html</u>. Date accessed: April 25, 2012.
- 32. Desa DJ, Trevenen CL. 1984. Intrauterine infections



with group B beta-haemolytic streptococci. *Br J Obstet Gynaecol* **91**:237–9.

- **33. Katz V, Bowes WA Jr.** 1988. Perinatal group B streptococcal infections across intact amniotic membranes. *J Reprod Med* **33**:445–9.
- **34. Boyer KM, Gotoff SP**. 1985. Strategies for chemoprophylaxis of GBS early-onset infections. *Antibiot Chemother* **35**:267–80.
- **35. Regan JA, Klebanoff MA, Nugent RP**. 1991. The epidemiology of group B streptococcal colonization in pregnancy. Vaginal Infections and Prematurity Study Group. *Obstet Gynecol* **77**:604–10.
- **36.** Yancey MK, Schuchat A, Brown LK, Ventura VL, Markenson GR. 1996. The accuracy of late antenatal screening cultures in predicting genital group B streptococcal colonization at delivery. *Obstet Gynecol* 88:811–5.
- **37. Campbell JR, Hillier SL, Krohn MA, Ferrieri P, Zaleznik DF, Baker CJ.** 2000. Group B streptococcal colonization and serotype-specific immunity in pregnant women at delivery. *Obstet Gynecol* **96**(4):498–503.
- **38.** Lewin EB, Amstey MS. 1981. Natural history of group B *Streptococcus* colonization and its therapy during pregnancy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* **139**:512–5.
- **39.** Hoogkamp-Korstanje JA, Gerards LJ, Cats BP. 1982. Maternal carriage and neonatal acquisition of group B streptococci. *J Infect Dis* **145**:800–3.
- **40.** Hansen SM, Uldbjerg N, Kilian M, Sorensen UB. 2004. Dynamics of *Streptococcus agalactiae* colonization in women during and after pregnancy and in their infants. *J Clin Microbiol* **42**:83–9.
- **41. Cheng PJ, Chueh HY, Liu CM, Hsu JJ, Hsieh TT, Soong YK.** 2008. Risk factors for recurrence of group B *Streptococcus* colonization in a subsequent pregnancy. *Obstet Gynecol* **111**:704–9.
- **42. Turrentine MA, Ramirez MM**. 2008. Recurrence of group B streptococci colonization in subsequent pregnancy. *Obstet Gynecol* **112** (2 Pt 1):259–64.
- Baker CJ, Edwards MS, Kasper DL. 1981. Role of antibody to native type III polysaccharide of group B Streptococcus in infant infection. Pediatrics 68:544–9.
- 44. Boyer KM, Gadzala CA, Burd LI, Fisher DE, Paton JB, Gotoff SP. Selective intrapartum chemoprophylaxis of neonatal group B streptococcal early-onset disease. I. Epidemiologic rationale. *J Infect Dis* **148**:795–801.
- 45. Schuchat A, Oxtoby M, Cochi S, Sikes RK, Hightower A, Plikaytis B, et al. 1990. Populationbased risk factors for neonatal group B streptococcal disease: results of a cohort study in metropolitan Atlanta. J Infect Dis 162:672–7.
- 46. Schuchat A, Deaver-Robinson K, Plikaytis BD, Zangwill KM, Mohle-Boetani J, Wenger JD. 1994. Multistate case-control study of maternal risk factors for neonatal group B streptococcal disease. The Active Surveillance Study Group. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 13:623– 9.
- Schuchat A, Zywicki SS, Dinsmoor MJ, et al. 2000. Risk factors and opportunities for prevention of early-

onset neonatal sepsis: a multicenter case-control study. *Pediatrics* **105**(1 Pt 1):21–6.

- **48.** Zaleznik DF, Rench MA, Hillier S, et al. 2000. Invasive disease due to group B Streptococcus in pregnant women and neonates from diverse population groups. *Clin Infect Dis* **30**:276–81.
- **49. Oddie S, Embleton ND**. 2002. Risk factors for early onset neonatal group B streptococcal sepsis: case-control study. *BMJ* **325**(7359):308.
- Adair CE, Kowalsky L, Quon H, et al. 2003. Risk factors for early-onset group B streptococcal disease in neonates: a population-based case-control study. *CMAJ* 169:198–203.
- **51. Franciosi RA, Knostman JD, Zimmerman RA**. 1973. Group B streptococcal neonatal and infant infections. *J Pediatr* **82**:707-718.
- 52. Baker CJ, Barrett FF, Gordon RC, et al. 1973. Supportive meningitis due to streptococci of Lancefield group B: A study of 33 infants. J Pediatr 82:724-729.
- **53. Baker CJ.** 1978. Early onset group B streptococcal disease. *J Pediatr* **93**:124–5.
- **54.** Chin KC, Fitzhardinge PM. 1985. Sequelae of earlyonset group B streptococcal neonatal meningitis. *J Pediatr* **106**:819-822.
- **55. Edwards MS, Rench MA, Haffar AAM, et al**. 1985. Longterm sequelae of group B streptococcal meningitis in infants. *J Pediatr* **106**:717-722.
- **56. Wald ER, Bergman I, Taylor HG, et al**. 1986. Longterm outcome of group B streptococcal meningitis. *Pediatr* **77**:217-221.
- **57. Dillon HC, Gray E, Pass MA, et al**. 1982. Anorectal and vaginal carriage of group B streptococci during pregnancy. *J Infect Dis* **145**:794.
- Badri MS, Zawnaeh S, Cruz AC, et al. 1977. Rectal colonization with group B streptococcus: Relation to vaginal colonization of pregnant women. *J Infect Dis* 135:308.
- 59. Hagay ZJ, Miskin A, Goldchmit R, et al. 1993. Evaluation of two rapid tests for detection of maternal endocervical group B Streptococcus: enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay and Gram stain. *Obstet Gynecol* 82:84-87.
- **60. Kontnick CM, Edberg SC.** 1990. Direct detection of group B streptococci from vaginal specimens compared with quantitative culture. *J Clin Microbiol* **28**: 336-339.
- **61. Perkins MD, Mirrett S, Reller LB.** 1995. Rapid bacterial antigen detection is not clinically useful. *J Clin Microbiol* **33**:1486-1491.
- **62.** Yancey MK, Armer T, Clark P, et al. 1992. Assessment of rapid identification tests for genital carriage of group B streptococci. *Obstet Gynecol* **80**:1038-1047.
- **63. Wilkinson HW**. 1977. CAMP-disk test for presumptive identification of group B streptococci. *J Clin Microbiol* **6**:42-45.
- 64. Prevention of Perinatal Group B Streptococcal Disease, Revised Guidelines from CDC, 2010, Recommendations and Reports November 19, 2010 / Vol. 59 / No. RR-10

