The mortality burden of multidrug-resistant pathogens in India: a retrospective observational study

Sumanth Gandra, MD,<sup>1†</sup> Katie K. Tseng, MPH,<sup>1†</sup> Anita Arora, MD,<sup>2</sup> Bhaskar Bhowmik, MBA,<sup>2</sup> Matthew L. Robinson, MD<sup>3</sup>, Bishnu Panigrahi, MD,<sup>2</sup> Ramanan Laxminarayan, PhD,<sup>1,4,5</sup> Eili Y. Klein, PhD,<sup>1,6,7\*</sup>

- <sup>1</sup> Center for Disease Dynamics, Economics & Policy, Washington, DC 20008, USA
- <sup>2</sup> Fortis Healthcare Ltd., Gurgaon, Haryana, India
- <sup>3</sup> Division of Infectious Diseases, Center for Clinical Global Health Education, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD 21287, USA
- <sup>4</sup> Princeton Environmental Institute, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ 08544, USA
- <sup>5</sup> Department of Global Health, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98104, USA
- <sup>6</sup> Department of Emergency Medicine, Johns Hopkins School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD 21209, USA
- <sup>7</sup> Department of Epidemiology, Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health, Baltimore, MD
   21205, USA
- † Contributed equally

© The Author(s) 2018. Published by Oxford University Press for the Infectious Diseases Society of America.

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted reuse, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Downloaded from https://academic.oup.com/cid/advance-article-abstract/doi/10.1093/cid/ciy955/5164350 by guest on 15 November 2018

### \* Corresponding Author

Eili Y. Klein

Fellow | Center for Disease Dynamics, Economics & Policy

1400 Eye St., Suite 500, Washington, DC 20005

klein@cddep.org | p: (202) 328-5197

Assistant Professor | Department of Emergency Medicine

Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine

5801 Smith Ave., Davis Suite 3220, Baltimore, MD 21209

eklein@jhu.edu | p: (410) 735-7559

### Summary

There is a lack of understanding of the burden of antibiotic resistance in low- and middle-income countries. Using data from 10 hospitals across India, we found that the odds of mortality was significantly higher for patients with multi-drug resistant infections.

### ABSTRACT

### Background

The threat posed by antibiotic resistance is of increasing concern in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) as their rates of antibiotic use increase. However, an understanding of the burden of resistance is lacking in LMICs, particularly for multi-drug resistant (MDR) pathogens.

### Methods

We conducted a retrospective, ten hospital study of the relationship between MDR pathogens and mortality in India. Patient-level antimicrobial susceptibility tests (AST) results for *Enterococcus* spp., *Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Acinetobacter baumannii*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, and *Enterobacter* spp. were analyzed for their association with patient mortality outcomes.

### Results

We analyzed data on 5,103 AST results from 10 hospitals. The overall mortality rate of patients was 13.1% (n = 581), and there was a significant relationship between MDR and mortality. Infections with MDR and XDR *E. coli*, XDR *K. pneumoniae*, and MDR *A. baumannii* were associated with 2-3 times higher mortality. Mortality due to methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) was significantly higher than susceptible strains when the MRSA isolate was resistant to aminoglycosides.

### Conclusions

This is one of the largest studies undertaken in an LMIC to measure the burden of antibiotic resistance. We found that MDR bacterial infections pose a significant risk to patients. While consistent with prior studies, the variation in drug resistance and associated mortality outcomes by pathogen is different from that observed in high-income countries and provides a baseline for studies in other LMICs. Future research should aim to elucidate the burden of resistance and the differential transmission mechanisms that drive this public health crisis.

**Keywords:** Multidrug-resistant organisms, low- and middle-income countries, antimicrobial resistance, healthcare-acquired infections

Antibiotic resistant infections, particularly those caused by multidrug-resistant organisms (MDROs), pose a major threat to global public health. Critically ill patients with prior antimicrobial exposure [1,2] or comorbidities [2] are particularly vulnerable to infection with MDROs, which can increase mortality, hospitalization costs, and length of stay [3–5]. Though antibiotic resistance negatively impacts patients globally [6], analysis of the burden of resistance has been understudied in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) [4,7–9], even though rising incomes, lower drug costs, and unregulated sales have led to increasing antibiotic use and higher rates of resistance [10–12].

While MDROs are a significant global concern, they pose an increased risk in LMICs where a large proportion of healthcare facilities have inadequate hospital environmental conditions and insufficient availability of standard infection prevention and control items [13,14]. Improved awareness of the burden of antibiotic resistance can help lower resistance-related morbidity and mortality and is necessary for developing and marshalling support for interventions. However, surveillance in most LMICs is fragmented at best. Where rates of resistance have been estimated, they are often substantially higher than in high-income countries (HICs) [4,15], and studies of the burden of resistance have also shown relatively higher rates of resistance-related mortality [8,9,15]. To date, most studies of the burden of resistance in LMICs have been limited to single-center studies of modest sample size [4,8] and restricted to intensive care units (ICU), preventing generalizability to the larger patient population.

India is one of the largest LMICs and the largest consumer of antibiotics [12]. Widespread use of broadspectrum agents has driven the spread of MDROs in both community and hospital settings [8,9,12,13,15]. Despite rapid increases in resistance, and widespread acknowledgement of the issue, the mortality burden of antibiotic resistance remains largely understudied in India. We use multi-institutional hospital data from a large Indian hospital system to examine factors associated with mortality among patients tested for MDROs prioritized by the World Health Organization (WHO). The resulting data on the mortality burden of antibiotic resistance can aid in the development of policy efforts to prioritize antibiotic resistance as a public health threat in LMICs, as well as provide a baseline for future efforts to quantify the burden of resistance across LMICs.

### Methods

### Study design and data collection

We conducted a retrospective, multi-institutional observational study across India using data from Fortis Healthcare Limited, an integrated healthcare service provider. Antimicrobial susceptibility testing (AST) results from January 2015 to December 2015 were collected from ten tertiary and quaternary referral hospital's microbiology databases. The hospitals ranged in size from 120 to 350 beds and were geographically dispersed. Five were in Northern India (four in New Delhi district and one in Jaipur, Rajasthan), two in Western India (Mumbai, Maharashtra), two in Southern India (Bengaluru, Karnataka), and one in Eastern India (Kolkata, West Bengal). All hospitals were equipped with their own microbiology laboratories. Seven hospitals used the VITEK 2 system (bioMérieux, Marcy l'Etoile, France) to conduct organism identification and AST; three hospitals used biochemical tests for organism identification and Kirby-Bauer disk diffusion method for AST. All hospitals categorized AST results based on Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) criteria at the time of testing, except for colistin resistance to Enterobacteriaceae, in which results obtained from VITEK 2 (agar dilution as reference method) were interpreted based on the European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST) guidelines. Data obtained were patient-level AST results and mortality outcomes from hospital inpatient encounters. Mortality data were restricted to in-hospital mortality for the specific encounter. Patients with multiple isolates of a single organism from multiple specimen sources, we included only one, giving preferential inclusion to isolates from blood or cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), followed by isolates from the lower respiratory system, wounds, urine, and any other source (e.g., eye, gastrointestinal, genitourinary, upper respiratory, sterile fluid [non-CSF], stool, and tissue/biopsy). Additional demographic and clinical data included mortality outcome, age and sex, specimen source, location in the hospital (i.e., non-ICU vs. ICU), and place of infection acquisition (i.e., community vs. hospital). Isolates were considered community-acquired infection if they were collected within two days of admission, otherwise they were categorized as hospital-acquired infections.

### **ESKAPE** Pathogens

We examined resistance patterns for the common drugs used to treat the ESKAPE pathogens (*Enterococcus* spp., *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Acinetobacter baumannii*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, and *Enterobacter* spp.), listed as priority antibiotic-resistant pathogens by the WHO [16] (Supplementary Table 1). We also examined resistance patterns for *Escherichia coli* due to its ubiquity. Pathogens were classified as MDR or extensively drug resistant (XDR) based on drug-pathogen combinations proposed by the European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control and the U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (Supplementary Table 1 and 2) [17]. Methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) isolates were considered MDR due to the production of beta-lactamase enzymes, which typically confer resistance to beta-lactam antibiotics including cephalosporins, carbapenems and fluoroquinolones. We further classified MRSA isolates resistant to aminoglycosides, linezolid, tigecycline, or vancomycin as XDR. *Enterococcus* spp. were considered MDR if they were non-susceptible to vancomycin or teicoplanin. For Gram-negative organisms, only isolates tested against at least one agent in three or more

antimicrobial classes were included in analyses. *E. coli* and *K. pneumoniae* were categorized by the following MDR categories: (1) non-susceptibility to three or more antimicrobial classes, (2) non-susceptibility to beta lactam/beta-lactamase inhibitors, and (3) non-susceptibility to all five antimicrobial classes, which we defined as XDR. Finally, for *P. aeruginosa* and *A. baumannii*, we defined MDR as non-susceptibility to three or more antimicrobial classes and XDR as non-susceptibility to all five antimicrobial classes.

### Statistical analysis

To evaluate patient mortality in relation to MDR, we conducted multivariate logit regression analyses adjusting for age, sex, hospital location, and specimen source. For overall analyses, patients with multiple organisms were collapsed to a single row and the highest resistance level was used. Sub-analyses were conducted for each pathogen as well as groups of pathogens (i.e., Gram-negative and Gram-positive) and restricted based on the clinical significance of specific specimen sources and the availability of mortality data. *Enterococcus* infections were restricted to bloodstream, CSF, and urinary infections based upon previous studies demonstrating significant clinical outcomes among patients with bacteriuria of *Enterococcus* spp. [18]. Because the two most common *Enterococcus* spp., *Enterococcus faecalis* and *Enterococcus faecium*, can have distinct antimicrobial susceptibility profiles, we analyzed each species separately. Regression models were clustered at the hospital level to account for differences between hospitals in management and treatment of infections. All analyses were performed using Stata 14 (StataCorp, College Station, TX).

### Results

A total of 19,811 antimicrobial susceptibility test results from 13,086 patients were obtained from ten hospitals between January and December 2015. Of these, 5,103 records met all inclusion criteria (Figure 1). The overall mortality rate was 13.1% (n = 581) (Table 1); however, mortality was higher in patients infected with *A. baumannii* (29.0%), and lower in patients infected with *E. coli* (8.8%) and *Staphylococcus aureus* (11.0%) (Supplementary Table 2).

Patients that died were older and more likely to have their isolate obtained in the ICU (Table 1). They were also more likely to have a *K. pneumoniae* or *A. baumannii* infection compared to discharged patients. Overall, mortality among patients with MDR infections were highest among those caused by Gram-negative bacteria (17.7%) as opposed to those caused by Gram-positive bacteria (10.8%), particularly in the ICU where 26.9% of patients with Gram-negative MDR infections died compared to 16.0% of patients with Gram-positive MDR infections.

Controlling for age, sex, site of infection, and the number of coinfections, we found increased odds of mortality among patients with MDR infections (odds ratio [OR] = 1.57; 95% confidence interval [CI]: 1.14-2.16) and XDR infections (OR = 2.65; 95% CI: 1.81-3.88) (Table 2). Restricting the analysis to non-ICU inpatients only, patients with MDR infections had significantly higher odds of mortality (OR = 1.74; 95% CI: 1.06-2.87) as did patients with XDR infections (OR = 2.87; 95% CI: 1.80-4.57). Similarly, ICU patients had a higher likelihood of mortality if they had an XDR infection (OR = 2.07; 95% CI: 1.24-3.26). However, we found these associations were largely driven by patients with Gram-negative MDR infections, where the odds of mortality for XDR infections was 3.15 (95% CI: 2.01-4.94) in the non-ICU and 2.01 (95% CI: 1.12-3.59) in the ICU (Supplementary Table 3). In contrast, XDR Gram-positive infections were only significantly associated with mortality among non-ICU inpatients (OR = 2.93; 95%)

CI: 1.03-8.37). Infection onset location (community vs. hospital) was not significant for any organism (data not shown).

# Gram-negative infections: Escherichia coli, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, and Acinetobacter baumannii

Patients with *E. coli* infections resistant to multiple drug classes including beta-lactam/betalactamase inhibitors had higher odds of mortality after controlling for other factors, though for *K. pneumoniae*, only XDR infections were significantly associated with higher mortality (Table 3). Compared to non-MDR *E. coli*, the odds of mortality were 2.63 (95% CI: 1.29-5.35) times higher for MDR *E. coli*, 2.23 (95% CI:1.65-3.01) times higher for beta-lactam/beta-lactamase inhibitor resistant *E. coli*, and 2.34 (95% CI: 1.40-3.90) times higher for extensively-drug resistant *E. coli*. Compared to non-MDR *K. pneumoniae*, the odds of mortality were 2.29 (95% CI: 1.45-3.62) times higher for extensivelydrug resistant *K. pneumoniae*. Among patients tested for colistin-resistance, 9 (0.8%) *E. coli* cases and 38 (4.6%) *K. pneumoniae* cases were non-susceptible, with 2 and 10 deaths reported among them, respectively.

Among patients with *P. aeruginosa* infections, mortality was not significantly associated with MDR infections (OR = 1.15; 95% CI: 0.65-2.04) or XDR infections (OR = 1.76; 95% CI: 0.84-3.72). However, among patients with *A. baumannii* infections, MDR was associated with 2.81 (95% CI: 1.50-5.27) times higher odds of mortality than similar susceptible infections (Table 3). Notably, patients with *A. baumannii* infections also had higher likelihoods of dying if they were located in the ICU (OR = 1.66; 95% CI: 1.28-2.16). *A. baumannii* and *P. aeruginosa* infections of the lower-respiratory system were also strongly associated with a greater likelihood of mortality.

### Gram-positive infections: Staphylococcus aureus and Enterococcus spp.

Infections with more than one pathogen (i.e., coinfections) comprised a small proportion of all gram-positive infections and were not found to be significantly associated with either *S. aureus* or *Enterococcus* spp. infections. Therefore, we restricted results of all patients with Gram-positive infections to those without coinfections. Controlling for higher mortality associated with *S. aureus* bacteremia or CSF infections, no significant difference in mortality was observed between patients with MRSA infections compared to those with methicillin-susceptible *S. aureus* (MSSA) infections (Table 4). However, patients with MRSA-infections that were also non-susceptible to aminoglycosides had a greater likelihood of mortality compared to MSSA-infected patients (OR = 2.75; 95% CI: 1.16-6.52). Among patients who acquired MRSA-infections with additional resistance to linezolid (n = 1) or reduced susceptibility (i.e., intermediate resistance) to vancomycin (n = 1) or teicoplanin (n = 1), all survived.

Glycopeptide resistance in *Enterococcus* spp. was not associated with increased likelihood of mortality, regardless of species, after controlling for patient demographics (Table 4). Non-susceptibility to linezolid was detected in two (4.8%) patients with a glycopeptide resistant *Enterococcus* infection, one of whom died.

### DISCUSSION

As rates of antibiotic use in LMICs converge with those of HICs [12], there has been increasing acknowledgment of and concern over the problem of antibiotic resistance in LMICs. However, current knowledge of the burden of antibiotic resistance in LMICs, particularly related to MDR infections, is severely lacking. In this study, we used multi-institutional antimicrobial susceptibility data to assess the burden of MDR among the WHO's priority list of AMR bacteria on patient mortality in India. While India is the largest global antibiotic consumer, on a per-capita basis it has antibiotic consumption levels similar to other LMICs [12].

Our results indicate that patients who acquire MDR bacterial infections, as opposed to similar drug susceptible infections, have greater odds of mortality. Interestingly, we observed higher odds of mortality among patients with MDR and XDR infections whose isolate was obtained outside the ICU. These results may be due to differences in severity of illness which we were unable to control for. Additionally, we only examined the first isolate from an individual, and thus the future course of hospitalization (which may have included the ICU) was not taken into account.

Given the high rates of hospital infections caused by multidrug-resistant Gram-negative organisms in LMICs [19,20], we examined their relative mortality impact compared to Gram-positive infections. We found that Gram-negative MDRO infections were associated with higher mortality rates, especially among patients in the ICU. However, the high odds of mortality associated with Gram-negative XDR infections among all patients suggests that more rapid identification of Gram-negative infections in both ICU and non-ICU patients, particularly those with bacteremia or lower-respiratory infections, may help reduce the clinical burden of MDR and improve mortality outcomes overall.

In India, infections with MDR and XDR Gram-negative bacteria are frequent [8,13,21,22] and pose a significant challenge to clinicians due to severely limited therapeutic options. Once a pillar for empiric antibiotic therapy, third-generation cephalosporins are largely ineffective against infections of ESBL-producing *Enterobacteriaceae* [13], and rates of carbapenem-resistance are as high as 57% in some Indian healthcare settings [21]. High rates of resistance are strongly related to patient outcomes as indicated by our study; patients infected with MDR *E. coli*, XDR *K. pneumoniae*, and MDR *A. baumannii* were two to three times more likely to die than patients with non-MDR infections. These associated clinical outcomes appear consistent with existing research in smaller studies showing MDR and XDR to be predictors of worse clinical outcomes, particularly among patients with XDR *K. pneumoniae* bacteremia, which in LMICs have been attributed to mortality rates up to 32-50% [4,9].

Our findings also highlight the clinical importance of MDR and XDR strains of *A. baumannii* infections. Increased odds of mortality associated with MDR *A. baumannii* infections were consistent with previous studies linking carbapenem resistance to higher mortality rates and longer hospitalizations [3]. Able to survive in the hospital environment for extended periods of time [25], *A. baumannii* and *P. aeruginosa* are commonly implicated in device-associated infections. In particular, *A. baumannii* has a remarkable propensity for acquiring genetic material from other organisms, allowing it to develop extensive resistance over the last few decades [25].

For *S. aureus* infections, we found a significant difference in mortality between MRSA infections with additional resistance to aminoglycosides and MSSA infections. These findings support existing evidence that MRSA infections are more likely to be resistant to other antibiotics than MSSA infections [26,27], and suggest that MDR may, in part, be driving higher inpatient mortality rates among *S. aureus* infections, as demonstrated in previous studies [28].

Since the late 1970s, *Enterococcus* spp. have been recognized as a leading cause of healthcareassociated urinary and blood stream infections [29]. However, contrary to findings from a 2016 systematic review [30], which reported increased unadjusted mortality risk associated with vancomycin resistant enterococci infections, our study found no significant impact of glycopeptide resistance in *Enterococcus* infections. This result held true after restricting the analysis to blood cultures only (data not shown), which may be explained by the relatively few deaths associated with *Enterococcus* spp. in our study (35 or 12.1%) as well as the limited number of isolates of clinical significance.

There are several limitations to the study. The lack of complete clinical data precluded us from capturing potentially important variables, including severity of illness, comorbid conditions and time to effective therapy, all of which are associated with mortality among MDR infected patients [23,31]. However, previous studies controlling for comorbidity and severity of illness have shown independent associations between increased mortality and inappropriate antimicrobial therapy for infections most

commonly caused by MDROs [31,32]. In addition, though we classified infections as hospital- or community-associated based on time of isolate collection, we lacked more detailed information on timing of collection as well as information on prior hospitalization which prevented us from a more accurate classification of infection acquisition location. This may explain why we found no difference in mortality related to community vs. hospital onset, even though prior studies have shown varied rates of resistance and attributable mortality rates based on infection onset location [9]. Alternatively, the high rates of MDRO in the community [8,9] may mean that there is little difference between the pathogens transmitted in the hospital and the community. Further study is needed to understand the burden of high-community rates of MDROs in resource-limited settings. Finally, while our study is based on multi-institutional data across India, our findings were not able to capture the heterogeneity of India's healthcare landscape and may not be generalizable to specific communities or clinical settings.

While data were observational, preventing establishment of causality, our results provide strong quantification of the association between mortality and multidrug resistant patterns in a representative LMIC, and highlight the significant threat MDR and XDR pathogens pose to human health in developing countries. The high mortality odds underscore the urgent need to improve understanding of the burden of mortality and morbidity attributable to MDR and XDR Gram-negative pathogens in LMICs. In fact, our results are likely an underestimate of the overall burden of MDR infections as we only examined mortality, but resistant infections are also associated with increases in morbidity and hospital costs [5]. Future research should prospectively enroll patients with MDR pathogens and adequate controls to improve understanding of the burden of resistance and to provide greater insight into attributable risks of morbidity and mortality.

Research aimed at understanding the genetic and biochemical mechanisms of antimicrobial resistance in XDR Gram-negative pathogens is critically needed as available therapeutic options, including those in the pipeline, are ineffective against existing molecular mechanisms such as New Delhi metallobeta-lactamase, which are highly prevalent among XDR Gram-negative pathogens. Furthermore,

increased surveillance is necessary to understand the extent of resistance in the community and the hospital, and to better quantify the impact that community transmission has on hospital infection patterns. As resistance can spread worldwide rapidly, investment by both LMICs and HICs into these research areas should be of utmost priority to combat the emergence and spread of MDR pathogens and conserve the global efficacy of antibiotics.

### Disclaimer

The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the NIH.

### Funding

This work was supported by the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation to The Global Antimicrobial Resistance Repository [OPP1112355 to E.Y.K., S.G., and K.K.T.] and the Global Antibiotic Resistance Partnership [OPP1135911 to E.Y.K., S.G., and K.K.T.] at the Center for Disease Dynamics, Economics & Policy. R.L. was supported by Centers for Disease Control [16IPA1609427] at Princeton University. MLR was supported by the National Institute for Allergy and Infectious Diseases (UM1AI104681).

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

### References

- Chan M-C, Chiu S-K, Hsueh P-R, Wang N-C, Wang C-C, Fang C-T. Risk Factors for Healthcare-Associated Extensively Drug-Resistant Acinetobacter baumannii Infections: A Case-Control Study. PLOS ONE 2014; 9:e85973.
- 2. Ben-David D, Kordevani R, Keller N, et al. Outcome of carbapenem resistant Klebsiella pneumoniae bloodstream infections. Clinical Microbiology and Infection **2012**; 18:54–60.
- 3. Sunenshine RH, Wright M-O, Maragakis LL, et al. Multidrug-resistant Acinetobacter Infection Mortality Rate and Length of Hospitalization. Emerg Infect Dis **2007**; 13:97–103.
- 4. Founou RC, Founou LL, Essack SY. Clinical and economic impact of antibiotic resistance in developing countries: A systematic review and meta-analysis. PLOS ONE **2017**; 12:e0189621.
- 5. Cosgrove SE. The relationship between antimicrobial resistance and patient outcomes: mortality, length of hospital stay, and health care costs. Clin Infect Dis **2006**; 42 Suppl 2:S82-89.
- Gulen TA, Guner R, Celikbilek N, Keske S, Tasyaran M. Clinical importance and cost of bacteremia caused by nosocomial multi drug resistant acinetobacter baumannii. Int J Infect Dis 2015; 38:32–35.
- 7. Giske CG, Monnet DL, Cars O, Carmeli Y. Clinical and economic impact of common multidrugresistant gram-negative bacilli. Antimicrob Agents Chemother **2008**; 52:813–821.
- Mave V, Chandanwale A, Kagal A, et al. High Burden of Antimicrobial Resistance and Mortality Among Adults and Children With Community-Onset Bacterial Infections in India. J Infect Dis 2017; 215:1312–1320.
- Lim C, Takahashi E, Hongsuwan M, et al. Epidemiology and burden of multidrug-resistant bacterial infection in a developing country. eLife 5. Available at: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5030096/. Accessed 6 December 2017.
- 10. Laxminarayan R, Matsoso P, Pant S, et al. Access to effective antimicrobials: a worldwide challenge. The Lancet **2016**; 387:168–175.
- McGettigan P, Roderick P, Kadam A, Pollock A. Threats to global antimicrobial resistance control: Centrally approved and unapproved antibiotic formulations sold in India. British Journal of Clinical Pharmacology **2018**; Available at: https://bpspubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/bcp.13503. Accessed 25 April 2018.
- 12. Klein EY, Boeckel TPV, Martinez EM, et al. Global increase and geographic convergence in antibiotic consumption between 2000 and 2015. PNAS **2018**; :201717295.
- 13. Laxminarayan R, Chaudhury RR. Antibiotic Resistance in India: Drivers and Opportunities for Action. PLOS Medicine **2016**; 13:e1001974.

- 14. Årdal C, Outterson K, Hoffman SJ, et al. International cooperation to improve access to and sustain effectiveness of antimicrobials. The Lancet **2016**; 387:296–307.
- Teerawattanapong N, Panich P, Kulpokin D, et al. A Systematic Review of the Burden of Multidrug-Resistant Healthcare-Associated Infections Among Intensive Care Unit Patients in Southeast Asia: The Rise of Multidrug-Resistant Acinetobacter baumannii. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol 2018; :1–9.
- 16. WHO | Global priority list of antibiotic-resistant bacteria to guide research, discovery, and development of new antibiotics. Available at: http://www.who.int/medicines/publications/global-priority-list-antibiotic-resistant-bacteria/en/. Accessed 18 April 2018.
- 17. Magiorakos A-P, Srinivasan A, Carey RB, et al. Multidrug-resistant, extensively drug-resistant and pandrug-resistant bacteria: an international expert proposal for interim standard definitions for acquired resistance. Clin Microbiol Infect **2012**; 18:268–281.
- 18. Colodner R, Eliasberg T, Chazan B, Raz R. Clinical significance of bacteriuria with low colony counts of Enterococcus species. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis **2006**; 25:238–241.
- 19. Investigators of the Delhi Neonatal Infection Study (DeNIS) collaboration. Characterisation and antimicrobial resistance of sepsis pathogens in neonates born in tertiary care centres in Delhi, India: a cohort study. The Lancet Global Health **2016**; 4:e752–e760.
- 20. Le Doare K, Bielicki J, Heath PT, Sharland M. Systematic Review of Antibiotic Resistance Rates Among Gram-Negative Bacteria in Children With Sepsis in Resource-Limited Countries. J Pediatric Infect Dis Soc **2015**; 4:11–20.
- Gandra S, Mojica N, Klein EY, et al. Trends in antibiotic resistance among major bacterial pathogens isolated from blood cultures tested at a large private laboratory network in India, 2008– 2014. Int J Infect Dis 2016; 50:75–82.
- Aggarwal P, Uppal B, Ghosh R, et al. Multi drug resistance and Extended Spectrum Beta Lactamases in clinical isolates of Shigella: A study from New Delhi, India. Travel Med Infect Dis 2016; 14:407–413.
- Melzer M, Petersen I. Mortality following bacteraemic infection caused by extended spectrum betalactamase (ESBL) producing E. coli compared to non-ESBL producing E. coli. J Infect 2007; 55:254–259.
- Lee N-Y, Lee H-C, Ko N-Y, et al. Clinical and economic impact of multidrug resistance in nosocomial Acinetobacter baumannii bacteremia. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol 2007; 28:713– 719.
- 25. Clark NM, Zhanel GG, Lynch JP. Emergence of antimicrobial resistance among Acinetobacter species: a global threat. Curr Opin Crit Care **2016**; 22:491–499.

- 26. Joshi S, Ray P, Manchanda V, et al. Methicillin resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA) in India: Prevalence & susceptibility pattern. Indian J Med Res **2013**; 137:363–369.
- 27. Arora S, Devi P, Arora U, Devi B. Prevalence of Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus Aureus (MRSA) in a Tertiary Care Hospital in Northern India. J Lab Physicians **2010**; 2:78–81.
- 28. Cosgrove SE, Sakoulas G, Perencevich EN, Schwaber MJ, Karchmer AW, Carmeli Y. Comparison of Mortality Associated with Methicillin-Resistant and Methicillin-Susceptible Staphylococcus aureus Bacteremia: A Meta-analysis. Clin Infect Dis **2003**; 36:53–59.
- 29. Cetinkaya Y, Falk P, Mayhall CG. Vancomycin-Resistant Enterococci. Clin Microbiol Rev **2000**; 13:686–707.
- Prematunge C, MacDougall C, Johnstone J, et al. VRE and VSE Bacteremia Outcomes in the Era of Effective VRE Therapy: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol 2016; 37:26–35.
- 31. Harbarth S, Garbino J, Pugin J, Romand JA, Lew D, Pittet D. Inappropriate initial antimicrobial therapy and its effect on survival in a clinical trial of immunomodulating therapy for severe sepsis. The American Journal of Medicine **2003**; 115:529–535.
- 32. Ibrahim EH, Sherman G, Ward S, Fraser VJ, Kollef MH. The Influence of Inadequate Antimicrobial Treatment of Bloodstream Infections on Patient Outcomes in the ICU Setting. Chest **2000**; 118:146–155.

## **Figure Legend**

**Figure 1**: Study inclusion/exclusion flowchart of antimicrobial susceptibility testing (AST) results. ICU is intensive-care unit.

	All cases	Discharged Patients	Non-Surviviors
	N (%) <sup>a</sup>	n (%) <sup>a</sup>	n (%) <sup>a</sup>
Fotal N	4,437 (100.0)	3,856 (86.9)	581 (13.1)
Median age (IQR)	58 (40-69)	57 (38-69)	61 (48-70)
Age in years			
0-11	253 (5.7)	229 (5.9)	24 (4.1)
12-44	1,070 (24.1)	970 (25.2)	100 (17.2)
45-64	1,560 (35.2)	1,334 (34.6)	226 (38.9)
>64	1,554 (35.0)	1,323 (34.3)	231 (39.8)
Semale	1,767 (39.8)	1,561 (40.5)	206 (35.5)
CU	1,154 (26.0)	891 (23.1)	263 (45.3)
Drganism <sup>b</sup>			
Staphylococcus aureus	282 (5.5)	251 (5.8)	31 (4.1)
Enterococcus spp. <sup>c</sup>	300 (5.9)	262 (6.0)	38 (5.1)
Escherichia coli	1,907 (37.4)	1,739 (40.0)	168 (22.3)
Klebsiella pneumoniae	1,370 (26.9)	1,118 (25.7)	252 (33.5)
Enterobacter spp. <sup>d</sup>	133 (2.6)	116 (2.7)	17 (2.3)
Pseudomonas aeruginosa	591 (11.6)	496 (11.4)	95 (12.6)

Acinetobacter baumannii	520 (10.2)	369 (8.5)	151 (20.1)
-------------------------	------------	-----------	------------

Note: ICU = intensive care unit, IQR = interquartile range.

<sup>a</sup> Unless otherwise indicated.

<sup>b</sup> For species-level analyses, the pathogen counts (N = 5,103) include all isolates meeting MDR testing criteria, including isolates obtained from the same patient for different organisms (i.e., co-infecting pathogens)

<sup>c</sup> Enterococcus spp. include E. faecalis (47.3%), E. faecium (42.3%), E. gallinarum (0.7%), and unknown Enterococcus spp. (9.3%).

<sup>d</sup> Enterobacter spp. include E. aerogenes (10.5%), E. cloacae (67.7%), E. dissolvens (6.8%), and unknown Enterobacter spp. (15.0%).

	All cases	Inpatient (non-ICU)	ICU
	N = 4,437	n = 3,282	n = 1,155
	OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)
Resistance pattern			
Non-MDR	Referent	Referent	Referent
MDR <sup>a</sup>	1.57 (1.14-2.16)**	1.74 (1.06-2.87)*	1.24 (0.81-1.88)
$XDR^{b}$	2.65 (1.81-3.88)***	2.87 (1.80-4.57)***	2.01 (1.24-3.26)**
Age (years)			
0-11	Referent	Referent	Referent
12-44	1.09 (0.68-1.75)	1.14 (0.65-1.99)	1.05 (0.46-2.41)
45-64	1.60 (0.88-2.90)	1.52 (0.84-2.75)	1.82 (0.70-4.71)
>64	1.62 (0.81-3.28)	1.59 (0.81-3.13)	1.74 (0.58-5.24)
Female	0.97 (0.79-1.18)	0.80 (0.61-1.04)	1.34 (1.11-1.61)**
Site of infection			
Other	2.39 (1.52-3.74)***	2.34 (1.61-3.38)***	2.67 (1.20-5.95)*
Urine	Referent	Referent	Referent
Wound	1.26 (0.96-1.65)	1.20 (0.74-1.94)	1.38 (0.62-3.11)

### Table 2. Mortality odds among patients with culture-confirmed bacterial infections

Lower respiratory	3.45 (2.19-5.42)***	2.45 (1.28-4.69)**	3.75 (2.49-5.64)***
Blood/CSF	5.34 (2.58-11.08)***	5.29 (2.30-12.17)***	4.27 (3.00-6.09)***
Coinfection <sup>c</sup>			
None	Referent	Referent	Referent
Single	1.34 (1.02-1.76)*	1.18 (0.82-1.69)	1.51 (0.82-2.78)
Multiple	1.54 (0.96-2.47)	1.69 (1.22-2.35)**	1.48 (0.50-4.36)

Note: Logit regression with clustered standard errors at the hospital level; CI = confidence interval, CSF = cerebrospinal fluid, ICU = intensive care unit, MDR = multi-drug resistant, OR = odds ratio, XDR = extensively-drug resistant

\*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001

<sup>a</sup> MDR is defined as non-susceptibility to 1 or more agents in 3 or more antimicrobial classes (i.e., aminoglycosides, 3rd/4th generation cephalosporins, fluoroquinolones, beta-lactam/beta-lactamase inhibitors, and carbapenems) for Gram-negative organisms; non-susceptibility to oxacillin and/or cefoxitin (anti-staphylococcal beta-lactams) for Gram-positive *Staphylococcus aureus*; and non-susceptibility to vancomycin and/or teicoplanin (glycopeptides) for Gram-positive *Enterococcus* spp.

<sup>b</sup> XDR is defined as non-susceptibility to 1 or more agents in all 5 antimicrobial classes for Gram-negative organisms; non-susceptibility to oxacillin and/or cefoxitin and to 1 or more agents in the antimicrobial class aminoglycosides for Gram-positive *S. aureus*.

<sup>c</sup> Isolation of 2 or more pathogens (i.e., *S. aureus, Enterococcus* spp., *Escherichia coli, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Enterobacter* spp., *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, and *Acinetobacter baumannii*) from a single patient.

	Escherichia coli	Klebsiella pneumoniae	Pseudomonas aeruginosa	Acinetobacter baumanni
	n = 1,907	n = 1,370	n = 591	n = 520
	OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)
Resistance pattern				
Non-MDR	Referent	Referent	Referent	Referent
MDR <sup>a</sup>	2.63 (1.29-5.35)**	1.47 (0.52-4.11)	1.15 (0.65-2.04)	2.81 (1.50-5.27)**
MDR + beta-lactamase inhibitors <sup>b</sup>	2.23 (1.65-3.01)***	1.20 (0.61-2.37)	NA	NA
XDR <sup>c</sup>	2.34 (1.40-3.90)**	2.29 (1.45-3.62)***	1.76 (0.84-3.72)	2.26 (0.77-6.61)
Age (years)				
0-11	Referent	Referent	Referent	Referent
12-44	0.94 (0.65-1.36)	1.80 (0.90-3.62)	0.64 (0.17-2.38)	0.83 (0.30-2.27)
45-64	1.50 (0.65-3.46)	3.05 (1.38-6.74)**	0.83 (0.21-3.22)	1.09 (0.45-2.68)
>64	1.19 (0.42-3.39)	3.20 (1.23-8.31)*	0.74 (0.24-2.22)	1.97 (0.63-6.14)
Female	0.83 (0.54-1.27)	0.84 (0.60-1.17)	1.05 (0.73-1.50)	1.40 (0.99-1.97)
ICU	1.57 (0.89-2.79)	2.10 (1.36-3.25)**	2.09 (1.25-3.49)**	1.66 (1.28-2.16)***
Site of infection				
Other	1.62 (1.02-2.57)*	2.47 (1.01-6.07)*	1.86 (0.91-3.83)	2.69 (0.62-11.63)
Urine	Referent	Referent	Referent	Referent

## Table 3. Mortality odds among patients with Gram-negative infections

Wound	0.61 (0.32-1.14)	1.45 (0.83-2.55)	1.33 (0.68-2.59)	2.09 (0.30-14.54)
Lower respiratory	1.61 (1.05-2.47)*	2.70 (1.52-4.79)**	2.67 (1.77-4.03)***	3.77 (1.58-8.99)**
Blood/CSF	3.28 (2.21-4.85)***	6.67 (2.32-19.15)***	2.76 (1.24-6.13)*	4.52 (1.41-14.46)*
Coinfection <sup>d</sup>				
None	Referent	Referent	Referent	Referent
None Single	Referent 2.41 (1.65-3.52)***	Referent 1.55 (1.28-1.88)***	Referent 2.16 (1.38-3.38)**	Referent 1.35 (0.70-2.60)

Note: Logit regression with clustered standard errors at the hospital level; CI = confidence interval, CSF = cerebrospinal fluid, ED = emergency department, ICU = intensive care unit, MDR = multi-drug resistant, NA = not applicable, OR = odds ratio, XDR = extensively-drug resistant

\*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001

- denotes observations excluded from analysis due to clinical insignificance or no observed mortalities

<sup>a</sup> Non-susceptibility to 1 or more agents in at least or more 3 antimicrobial classes (i.e., aminoglycosides, 3rd/4th generation cephalosporins, fluoroquinolones, betalactamase inhibitors, and carbapenems), excluding non-susceptibility to beta-lactamase inhibitors.

<sup>b</sup> Non-susceptibility to 1 or more agents in the antimicrobial class beta-lactamase inhibitors.

<sup>c</sup> Non-susceptibility to 1 or more agents in all 5 aforementioned antimicrobial classes

<sup>d</sup> Isolation of 2 or more pathogens (i.e., *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Enterococcus* spp., *E. coli*, *K. pneumoniae*, *Enterobacter* spp., *P. aeruginosa*, and *A. baumannii*) from a single patient.

	S. aureus	Enterococcus spp. <sup>b</sup>	E. faecalis	E. faecium
	n = 237	n = 192	n = 99	n = 40
-	OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)	OR (95% CI)
Resistance pattern				
MSSA or glycopeptide sensitive	Referent	NA	Referent	Referent
MRSA <sup>c</sup>	0.17 (0.01-2.15)	NA	NA	NA
MRSA + aminoglycosides <sup>d</sup>	2.75 (1.16-6.52)*	NA	NA	NA
Glycopeptide resistant <sup>e</sup>	NA	1.09 (0.36-3.33)	2.55 (0.13-51.65)	0.98 (0.08-11.58)
Age (years)				
0-11	Referent	Referent	_	_
12-44	1.09 (0.23-5.22)	4.29 (0.75-24.47)	Referent	Referent
45-64	0.47 (0.09-2.62)	7.74 (0.68-88.45)	1.69 (0.04-75.57)	2.88 (0.35-23.89)
>64	0.65 (0.12-3.64)	0.70 (0.12-4.15)	0.07 (0.00-1.37)	
Female	0.47 (0.20-1.11)	0.93 (0.29-2.96)	0.49 (0.12-2.04)	1.34 (0.12-15.07)
ICU	1.45 (0.37-5.58)	1.59 (0.62-4.10)	4.78 (2.52-9.06)***	0.45 (0.04-4.72)

Table 4. Mortality odds among patients with Gram-positive infections<sup>a</sup>

Site of infection

Urine	NA	Referent	Referent	Referent
Wound	Referent	-	_	_
Lower respiratory	3.81 (1.29-11.30)*	-	_	_
Blood/CSF	4.56 (1.61-12.94)**	7.13 (0.61-83.48)	9.57 (0.49-187.79)	1.35 (0.06-31.27)

*Note*: Logit regression with clustered standard errors at the hospital level; CI = confidence interval, CSF = cerebrospinal fluid, ED = emergency department, ICU = intensive care unit, MSSA = methicillin-susceptible *S. aureus*, MRSA = methicillin-resistant *S. aureus*, NA = not applicable, OR = odds ratio.

\*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001

- denotes observations excluded from analysis due to clinical insignificance or no observed mortalities

<sup>a</sup> Patients with coinfections were excluded from analysis due to small sample size and statistical insignificance in relation to mortality

<sup>b</sup> Enterococcus spp. includes the species E. avium, E. faecalis, E. faecium, E. gallinarum, and unknown Enterococcus spp.

<sup>c</sup> Non-susceptibility to oxacillin and/or cefoxitin (anti-staphylococcal beta-lactams), excluding non-susceptibility to aminoglycosides; no deaths occurred among MRSA infections with additional resistance to linezolid.

<sup>d</sup> Non-susceptibility to oxacillin and/or cefoxitin and to 1 or more agents in the antimicrobial class aminoglycosides

<sup>e</sup> Non-susceptibility to vancomycin and/or teicoplanin (glycopeptides)

## Figure 1

