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Distribution of pathogens and antimicrobial resistance in bacteremia according to hospitalization duration: A nationwide surveillance study in Switzerland

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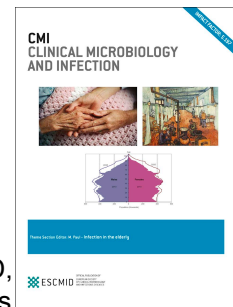
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1 **Distribution of Pathogens and Antimicrobial Resistance in**
2 **Bacteremia according to hospitalization duration: A Nationwide**
3 **Surveillance Study in Switzerland**

4
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36 **Running heading:** Hospitalization duration and bacteremia resistance.

37 **Key words:** hospitalization duration; bacteremia; microorganism; resistance; bloodstream
38 infection.

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40

41 **Abstract**

42 **Objectives.** Changing microorganism distributions and decreasing antibiotic susceptibility with
43 increasing length of hospital stay have been demonstrated for the colonization or infection of selected
44 organ systems. We wanted to describe microorganism distribution or antibiotic resistance in
45 bacteremia according to duration of the hospitalization using a large national
46 epidemiological/microbiological database (ANRESIS) in Switzerland.

47 **Methods.** We conducted a nationwide, observational study on bacteremia using ANRESIS data from
48 1st January 2008 to 31st December 2017. We analyzed data on bacteremia from those Swiss hospitals
49 that sent information on a regular basis during the entire study period. We described the pathogen
50 distribution and specific trends of resistance during the hospitalization for *E. coli*, *K. pneumoniae*, *P.*
51 *aeruginosa*, *S. marcescens* and *S. aureus*.

52 **Results.** We included 28,318 bacteremia isolates from 90 Swiss hospitals. The most common etiology
53 was *E. coli* (33.4%, 9,459), followed by *S. aureus* (16.7%, 4,721), *K. pneumoniae* (7.1%, 2,005), *E.*
54 *faecalis* (5.2%, 1,473), *P. aeruginosa* (4.3%, 1,228), *S. pneumoniae* (4.3%, 1,208) and *E. faecium*
55 (3.9%, 1,101). We observed 489 (1.73%) *Serratia marcescens* isolates. We observed an increasing
56 trend for *Enterococcus faecium* (from 1.5% at day 0 to 13.7% at day 30; $p < 0.001$), *K. pneumoniae*
57 (from 6.1% to 7.8%, $p < 0.001$) and *P. aeruginosa* (from 2.9% to 13.7%, $p < 0.001$) with increasing
58 duration of hospitalization; and a decreasing trends for *E. coli* (from 41.6% at day 0 to 21.6% at day
59 30; $p < 0.001$) and *S. aureus* (from 14.4% to 14.7%; $p < 0.001$). Ceftriaxone resistance among *E. coli*
60 remained stable for the first 15 days of hospitalization and then increased. Ceftriaxone resistance
61 among *K. pneumoniae* and *S. marcescens* and oxacillin resistance among *S. aureus* increased
62 linearly during the hospitalization. Cefepime resistance among *P. aeruginosa* remained stable during
63 the hospitalization.

64 **Conclusions.** We showed that hospitalization duration is associated with a species- and antibiotic
65 class-dependent pattern of antimicrobial resistance.

66

67

68 Introduction

69 Hospital-acquired bloodstream infection is a common and important healthcare-associated infection
70 and is associated with high mortality [1]. Little is known on the impact of hospitalization duration on the
71 epidemiology of hospital-acquired bloodstream infections. Decreasing antibiotic susceptibility with
72 increasing length of hospital stay has been demonstrated for the colonization or infection of selected
73 organ systems [2-4]. Only few investigators with modest numbers of isolates have scrutinized this
74 question for bacteremia [5]. We suspected a systematic relationship between duration of
75 hospitalization and distribution of microorganisms or increasing antimicrobial resistance. Our aim was
76 therefore to describe distribution of pathogens and level of antimicrobial resistance in bacteremia
77 according to the duration of the hospitalization using a large national epidemiological/microbiological
78 database in Switzerland.

79

80 Material and methods

81 Study setting and design

82 We conducted a nationwide, retrospective observational study on bacteremia using the Swiss
83 Antibiotic Resistance Surveillance System (ANRESIS) data from 1st January 2008 to 31st December
84 2017. The ANRESIS program receives information on all positive blood cultures from 20 Swiss
85 microbiology laboratories, each of them collecting data from several hospitals distributed across the
86 country. Accordingly, we analyzed data of patients from those Swiss hospitals that sent information on
87 a regular basis during the entire study period without major fluctuations (at least 20 positive blood
88 cultures during the study period). Only isolates from hospitals sending information on hospital length of
89 stay at time of sampling were considered (see Table in the supplementary material). Isolates identified
90 abroad were excluded. In order to remove any bias introduced by an individual patient's resistance
91 evolution, only the first isolate of a species per patient was eligible for the study and duplicates (*i.e.*,
92 the same microorganism detected in subsequent blood cultures during the hospitalization) were
93 excluded. Moreover, we restricted the dataset to pathogens that occurred ≥ 50 times during the study
94 period. Typical skin contaminants (*e.g.*, coagulase-negative Staphylococci [CoNS]) and fungemias
95 were excluded. A comprehensive list of typical skin contaminant was described elsewhere [6].

96 Microbiological analyses

97 Species identification and antimicrobial susceptibility testing are performed at local laboratories
98 according to European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST,
99 <https://eucast.org>) or Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI, <https://clsi.org>) guidelines.
100 Most of the participating laboratories switched from CLSI to EUCAST breakpoints between 2011 and
101 2013. All laboratories are participating in at least one external quality program of either National
102 External Quality Assessment Service (NEQAS; www.uknegas.org.uk) or the Swiss quality control
103 program by the Institute for Medical Microbiology, University of Zürich
104 (<http://www.imm.uzh.ch/services/qc.html>).

105 Resistant isolates were defined as those who were resistant or displayed intermediate susceptibility
106 against the antibiotic tested. Resistance against *first-line* antibiotics was defined as resistance against
107 ceftriaxone or amoxicillin-clavulanic acid for gram-negative microorganisms, amoxicillin for
108 enterococci, and oxacillin for *Staphylococcus aureus*. All non-fermenting gram-negative bacteria were
109 considered as resistant to *first-line* antibiotics as detailed above. Resistance against *second-line*
110 antibiotics was defined as carbapenem resistance for gram-negative, and vancomycin resistance for
111 gram-positive microorganisms. Specific analyses of resistance data were performed for selected
112 frequently detected microorganisms: *Escherichia coli* (ceftriaxone), *Klebsiella pneumoniae*
113 (ceftriaxone), *Staphylococcus aureus* (oxacillin), *Serratia marcescens* (ceftriaxone) and *Pseudomonas*
114 *aeruginosa* (cefepime).

115 Variables routinely collected

116 Epidemiological data allowed stratification by sex, age group, hospital type (university vs community),
117 department (ICU vs non-ICU), region (southwest vs northeast) and year of detection (2008–2017).
118 “Early hospital-acquired” was defined as bacteremias between 2 and 5 days after hospitalization,
119 whereas “late hospital-acquired” bacteremias were those occurring >5 days after hospitalization. The
120 remaining bacteremias were considered “community-acquired”.

121 Statistical analysis

122 The statistical plan had four steps: 1) to describe characteristics of bacteremia in different hospital
123 acquisition setting; 2) to describe trends in pathogen distribution and resistance during the

124 hospitalization using graphical descriptions, 3) to quantify daily increase in proportion of
125 microorganisms or resistance during the hospitalization and, finally, 4) to describe potentially non-
126 linear antibiotic resistance proportion relative to hospitalization duration.

127 We used individual bacteremia data for all statistical analyses. Characteristics depending of
128 hospitalization duration were compared with chi-square, Fisher- and Kruskal-Wallis test, as
129 appropriate. The prevalence of specific microorganism was calculated as the number of this
130 microorganism over the total number of isolates. The prevalence of specific resistance was calculated
131 as the number of resistant strains over the total number of this isolate. Changes in the percentage
132 were assessed using the Cochran– Armitage test. In order to quantify daily increase in proportion of
133 microorganisms and resistance, we applied multivariate logistic regression models: the prevalence of
134 a specific microorganism (or a specific resistance against an antibiotic) was modelized and the interest
135 variable (duration of hospitalization) was forced in the model. We adjusted for age, sex, hospital type,
136 department and year of detection and we stratified our models by hospital (*i.e.*, center; PROC logistic
137 of SAS with STRATA statement). To describe potentially non-linear antibiotic resistance effects
138 relative to hospitalization duration we fitted unadjusted generalized additive models (PROC GAM of
139 SAS). All statistical analyses were performed with R (version 3.6.1) and SAS (version 9.4). As the
140 analysis was performed on anonymized non-genetic surveillance data, ethical consent was not
141 required according to the Swiss law for research on humans. This study complied with the STROBE
142 guidelines for observational studies.

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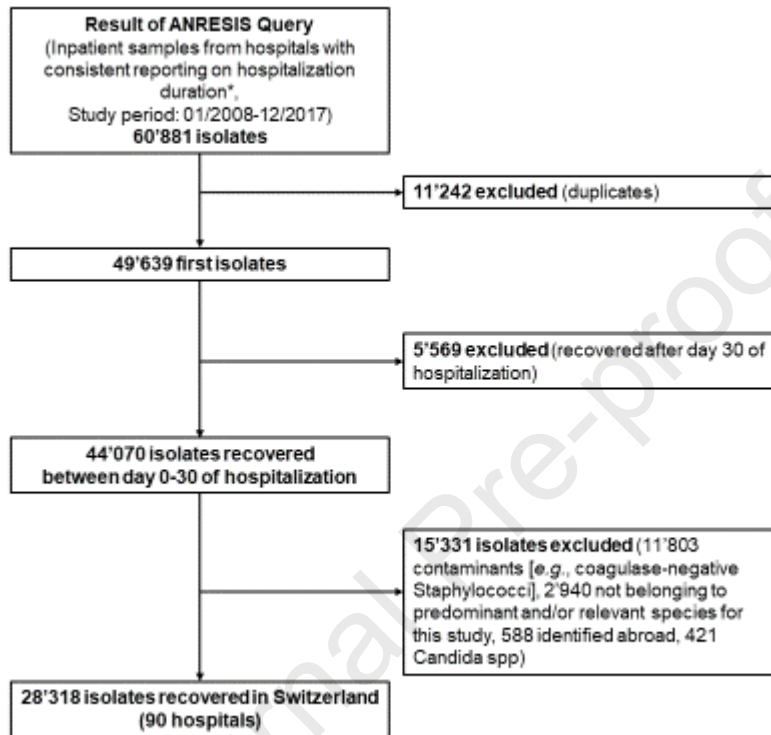
144 **Results**

145 Epidemiological characteristics of bacteremias, 2008-2017

146 We screened 199 hospitals in the entire ANRESIS database. Among them, 44 hospitals (22%)
147 reported less than 20 positive blood cultures during the study period and were therefore excluded. In
148 the remaining 155 hospitals, 56 did not report information on length of stay and were therefore
149 excluded. Overall, among the 137'592 positive blood cultures isolates, 76'711 were excluded (55.8%
150 of positive blood cultures isolated, Table in Supplementary Material). From 1 January 2008 to 31
151 December 2017, data on 28,318 bacteremias were included (Figure 1).

152

153

154 **Figure 1: Flowchart of isolates included in the study**

155

156 Legend. *hospital reporting at least 20 positive blood cultures during the study period and hospitals reporting admission date.

157 Bacteremias were early hospital-acquired (day 2-5) in 4,457 episodes (15.7%) and late hospital-

158 acquired (>5 days) in 9,039 (31.9%). Late hospital-acquired bacteremia occurred more frequently in

159 university hospitals, males, patients <60 years, and in the ICU setting (see Table).

160

161 **Table: Baseline epidemiological characteristics associated with the isolates included, stratified**162 **by acquisition.**

	Community-acquired	Early hospital-acquired	Late hospital-acquired	p-value
Episodes, n	14822	4457	9039	
Sex, male n (%)	8336 (56.3)	2788 (62.6)	5835 (64.6)	<0.001
Age, >= 60y n (%)	10728 (72.4)	3178 (71.3)	6399 (70.8)	0,025

Region, Southwest n (%)	3763 (25.6)	1124 (25.7)	2626 (29.7)	<0.001
Hospital type, university hospital n (%)	2336 (15.8)	1161 (26.0)	3164 (35.0)	<0.001
Department, non-ICU n (%)	13108 (88.4)	3700 (83.0)	7533 (83.3)	<0.001
Year of detection, 2008-2012* n (%)	6626 (44.7)	1985 (44.5)	4358 (48.2)	<0.001

163 Notes. Community acquired: 0-2 days after hospital admission. Early hospital-acquired: 2-5 days after the
 164 hospitalization. Late hospital-acquired: >5 days after the hospitalization. ICU: Intensive Care Unit. y: years old. n:
 165 number. * versus 2013-2017

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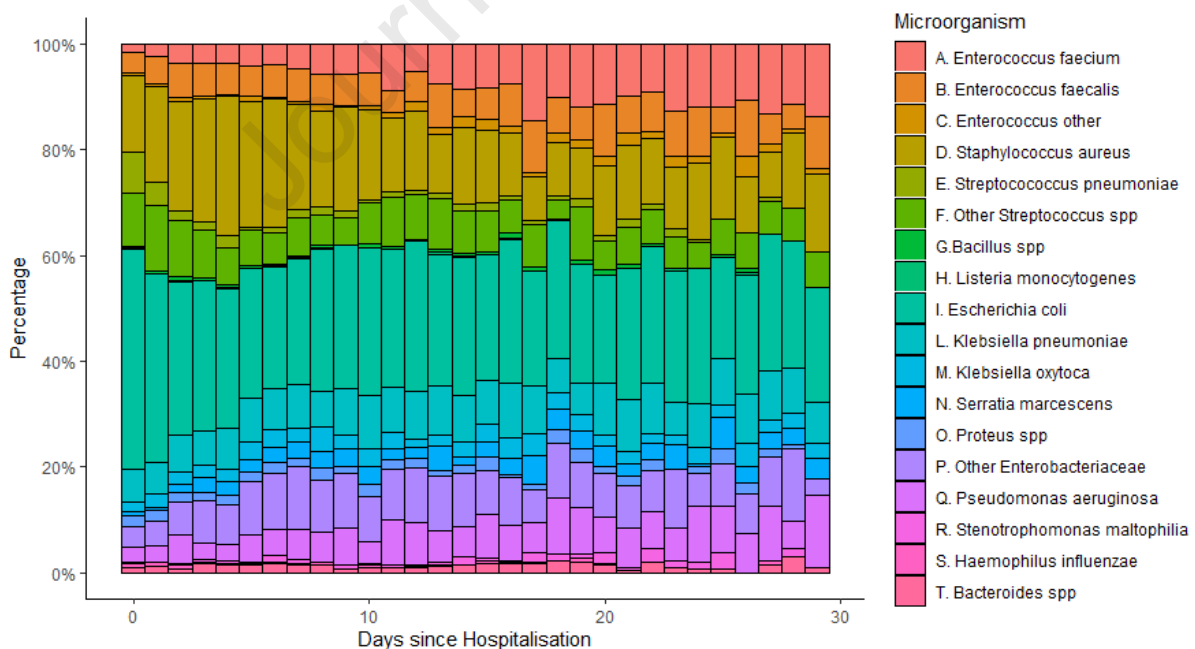
167 The most common etiology was *E. coli* (33.4%, 9,459), followed by *S. aureus* (16.7%, 4,721), *K.*
 168 *pneumoniae* (7.1%, 2,005), *E. faecalis* (5.2%, 1,473), *P. aeruginosa* (4.3%, 1,228), *S. pneumoniae*
 169 (4.3%, 1,208) and *E. faecium* (3.9%, 1,101). We observed 489 (1.73%) *Serratia marcescens* isolates.

170

171 Trends in microorganism distribution relative to hospitalization duration

172 The number of microorganism observed during the study period were illustrated in the supplementary
 173 Figure 1. The distribution of microorganism during the hospitalization is shown in Figure 2.

174 **Figure 2: Distribution of microorganism during the hospitalization.**



175

176 Notes. spp: species. A-H: Gram positives. I-P: *Enterobacteriaceae* (Gram negatives). Q/R: Non-fermenters (Gram
 177 negatives). S/T: Others.

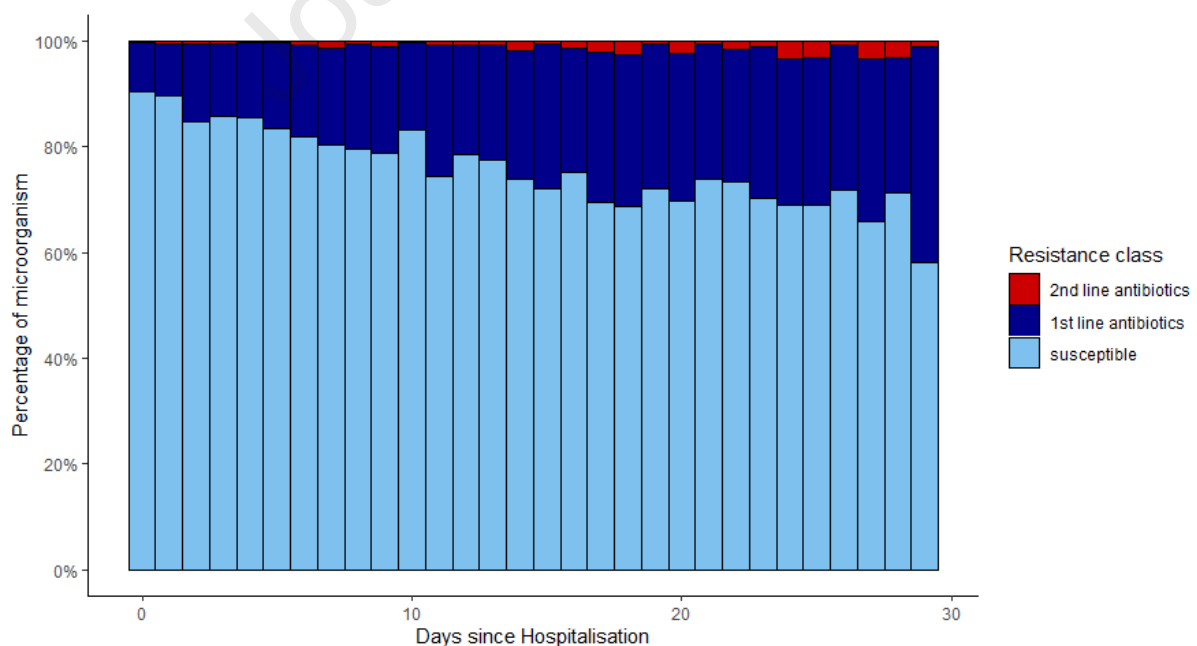
178 We observed an increasing trend for *Enterococcus faecium* (from 1.5% at day 0 to 13.7% at day 30,
 179 $p_{\text{for trend}} < 0.001$), *K. pneumoniae* (from 6.1% to 7.8%, $p_{\text{for trend}} < 0.001$) and *P. aeruginosa* (from 2.9% to
 180 13.7%, $p_{\text{for trend}} < 0.001$) with increasing duration of hospitalization. The adjusted distribution of
 181 microorganism proportion relative to hospitalization duration (starting with day 0) yielded increasing
 182 *Enterococcus faecium* and *K. pneumoniae* bacteremias at a relative daily rate of 7.5% (CI 95% 6.7-
 183 8.2, $p < 0.001$) and 1.8% (CI 95% 1.1-2.5, $p < 0.001$), respectively. The relative daily rate increase of *P.*
 184 *aeruginosa* was 4.6% (CI 95% 3.8-5.3, $p < 0.01$). We observed a change in proportion from *E. faecalis*
 185 to *E. faecium* during the hospital stay (see Supplementary Material, Figure 2).

186 In contrast, decreasing trends for *E. coli* (from 41.6% at day 0 to 21.6% at day 30, $p_{\text{for trend}} < 0.001$) and
 187 *S. aureus* (from 14.4% at day 0 to 14.7% at day 30, $p_{\text{for trend}} < 0.001$) were observed. The daily
 188 decreasing rate was 3.1% for *E. coli* (95% CI 2.7-3.5, $p < 0.0001$) and 1.4% for *S. aureus* (95% CI 0.9-
 189 1.8, $p < 0.0001$), respectively.

190 Resistance trends

191 Antimicrobial resistance to first-line antibiotics was 9.3% at day zero and then increased continuously
 192 ($p_{\text{for trend}} < 0.001$, Figure 3) at an adjusted relative rate of 5.5% per day (95% CI 5.0-6.0, $p < 0.001$).

193 **Figure 3: Antimicrobial resistance to first- and second-line antibiotics across all species.**



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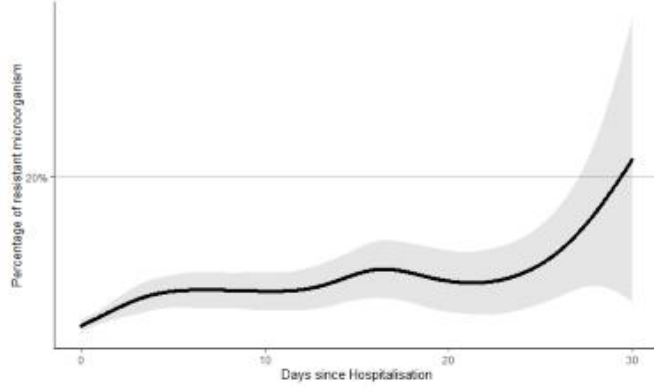
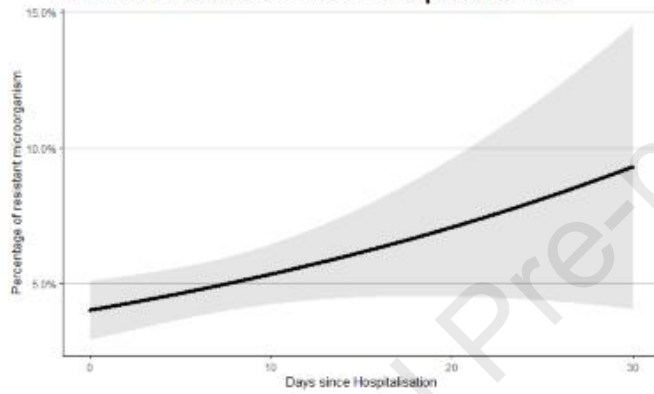
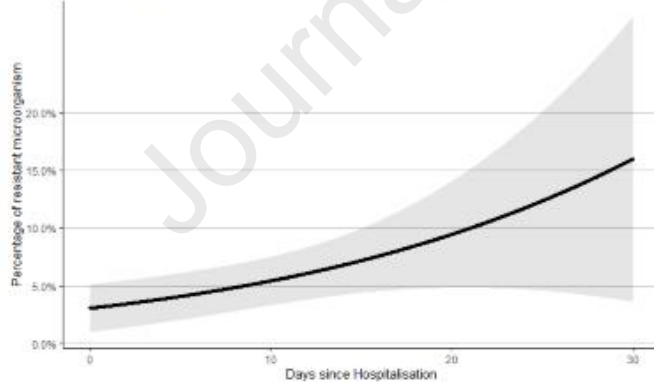
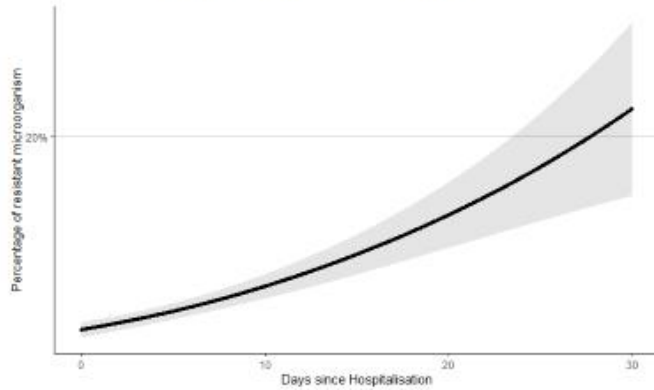
195 Notes. First-line antibiotic resistance (dark blue): ceftriaxone and amoxicillin- clavulanic acid for gram-negative
196 microorganisms, amoxicillin for Enterococci or oxacillin for *S. aureus*. Second-line antibiotic resistance (red):
197 Carbapenem for Gram-negative and vancomycin for Gram-positive microorganisms.

198

199 In contrast, antimicrobial resistance against second line antibiotics was rarely observed (0.7% of
200 isolates), thus precluding a trend's analysis.

201 Our graphical descriptions showed that resistance patterns relative to hospitalization duration were
202 pathogen-specific (Figure 3). Among *E coli* isolates, 670 (7.1%) were ceftriaxone resistant. Ceftriaxone
203 resistance among *E. coli* remained stable for the first 15 days of hospitalization and then increased
204 (non-linear relationship, $p=0.016$). Among *K. pneumoniae* isolates, 93 (4.6%) were ceftriaxon resistant
205 and ceftriaxone resistance increased linearly during the hospitalization ($p=0.21$). Similarly, among *S.*
206 *aureus* isolates, 263 isolates (5.6%) were oxacillin resistant and oxacillin resistance increased linearly
207 during the hospitalization ($p=0.13$). Ceftriaxone resistance among *S. marcescens* increased linearly
208 during the hospitalization (Figure 4). Interestingly, cefepime resistance among *P. aeruginosa* remained
209 stable during the hospitalization (supplementary Figure 3).

210 **Figure 4: Resistance proportions of *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Serratia***
211 ***marcescens* and *Staphylococcus aureus* – relative to hospitalization duration.**

4A: Ceftriaxone-resistance - E. coli**4B: Ceftriaxone-resistance - K. pneumoniae****4C: Ceftriaxone-resistance - S. marcescens****4D: Oxacillin-resistance - S. aureus**

213 Legend. 95% confidence intervals highlighted in grey.

214 Discussion

215 Here we report a total 28,318 bacteremia microorganisms in a large dataset of 90 Swiss hospitals. Our
216 goal was to describe the influence of hospital length of stay on pathogen distribution and antimicrobial
217 resistance in bacteremia isolates. To our knowledge, our study is the most thorough analysis to date to
218 address this research question. We observed that 1) the hospitalization duration was associated with
219 the pathogen distribution in bacteremic episodes, with proportions of enterococcal bacteremia being
220 more pronounced in the course of hospitalization, 2) the resistance against first-line antibiotics was
221 characterized by a steady increase during the hospitalization duration and 3) antibiotic specific trends
222 differed for the different bacteria analyzed.

223 The role enterococcal bacteremias appear to be more pronounced in the course of hospitalization.
224 Unfortunately, we cannot provide rational explanations for his finding. It is conceivable that an
225 increasing use of cephalosporins (e.g., ceftriaxone and cefepime) in Switzerland may play a major role
226 [7]. Although our epidemiological analysis did not allow firm clinical conclusions, enterococcal
227 treatment should be considered for therapy of very *late* severe infections.

228 The decision between narrow versus broad-spectrum antimicrobial therapy in severe sepsis is often
229 based on a time cut-off between community-acquired or early hospital-acquired and late hospital-
230 acquired (or “healthcare-associated”) presentation. Considering for example the acquisition of multi-
231 drug resistant gram-negative bacteremia, some authors have chosen a time cut-off of 5 days for
232 comparisons between early and late onset following hospital admission [8]. For surveillance purposes,
233 the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention defined “healthcare-associated” infections as those
234 that occurred after the third hospital day [9]. We found that overall resistance against first-line
235 antibiotics increased *linearly* during the hospitalization duration, however, the detailed view of
236 individual species shows a much more complicated picture. Our data therefore provides evidence that
237 simplistic recommendations based on a specific time cut-off may not properly reflect the complex
238 epidemiological situation. Rather, the increasing duration of hospitalization should be included in the
239 consideration of empirical therapy as a continuous and interacting risk factor along with other
240 parameters.[10].

241 The linear increase of ceftriaxone resistance among *K. pneumoniae* and oxacillin resistance among *S.*
242 *aureus* probably reflected a predominantly time-dependent dynamic. These findings suggested an
243 important role of the hospital environment for the acquisition and subsequent infection with these
244 specific resistant microorganisms [11-13]. In contrast, selection by antimicrobial therapy may better
245 explain ceftriaxone resistance among *E. coli* [13, 14]: This assumption is based on the relatively stable
246 resistance proportion for *E. coli* ceftriaxone resistance in the first 15 days of hospitalization, followed
247 by a late increase.

248 Our study has several limitations. First, similarly to other resistance surveillance databases, relevant
249 clinical data was unavailable (e.g., patient-based antimicrobial treatment, comorbidities, complication
250 during the hospitalization, information on invasive devices, specific data on wards of admission).
251 Second, Switzerland is considered a country of low prevalence of multidrug resistant microorganisms.
252 The generalization to other geographical settings requires caution; further studies are necessary in
253 countries where high rates of resistance against first- and second class antibiotics are currently
254 observed. Third, no information on molecular resistance mechanisms (e.g., extended-spectrum beta
255 lactamase-producing bacteria). Fourth, we excluded all CoNS from our analysis and, therefore, first
256 and second line antibiotic resistance should be interpreted with caution, especially the low vancomycin
257 resistance. Fifth, due to the low numbers of bacteremias in some small centers, we could not introduce
258 a random effect for the different centers in our models and our analyses were only stratified by
259 geographical region. Sixth, no baseline data on the number of hospital admissions was available and
260 we used only the total number of bacteremias as denominator. Finally, a selection bias could have
261 been introduced when restricting the analysis to bacteremias with known acquisition relative to
262 hospitalization duration, but we consider this bias to be negligible.

263 In conclusion, we illustrated that hospitalization duration exerts a species- and antibiotic class-
264 dependent effect on antimicrobial resistance. Further clinical studies and/or recommendations may be
265 based on these findings.

266

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316 **Transparency declaration**

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