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Clinical management of severe infections caused by carbapenem-resistant Gram-negative bacteria: a worldwide cross-sectional survey addressing the use of antibiotic combinations

Elena CARRARA, MD, Alessia SAVOLDI, MD, Laura JV. PIDDOCK, Professor, Francois FRANCESCHI, MD, Sally ELLIS, MSc, Mike SHARLAND, Professor, Adrian John BRINK, Professor, Patrick NA. HARRIS, MD, Gabriel LEVY-HARA, MD, Anusha ROHIT, MD, PhD, Constantinos TSIOUTIS, Professor, Hiba ZAYYAD, MD, Christian GISKE, Professor, Margherita CHIAMENTI, MD, Damiano BRAGANTINI, MD, Elda RIGHI, Professor, Anna GORSKA, PhD

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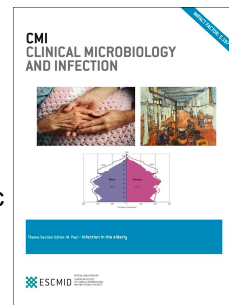
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4 Elena CARRARA*, Alessia SAVOLDI*, Laura JV PIDDOCK, Francois FRANCESCHI, Sally ELLIS, Mike
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6 TSIOUTIS, Hiba ZAYYAD, Christian GISKE, Margherita CHIAMENTI, Damiano BRAGANTINI, Elda RIGHI,
7 Anna GORSKA, Evelina TACCONELLI

8 *equal contribution

9
10 Corresponding author: Elena CARRARA

11 Mail address: elena.carrara@univr.it; phone number +39 045 8127396

12
13 Elena CARRARA, MD: Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Diagnostic and Public Health, University of
14 Verona, P.Le L.A. Scuro 10, 37134, Verona, Italy.

15
16 Alessia SAVOLDI, MD: Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Diagnostic and Public Health, University
17 of Verona, P.Le L.A. Scuro 10, 37134, Verona, Italy.

18
19 Laura JV PIDDOCK, Professor: Global Antibiotic Research & Development Partnership (GARDP), 15 Chemin
20 Louis-Dunant, Geneva, Switzerland.

21
22 Francois FRANCESCHI, MD: Global Antibiotic Research & Development Partnership (GARDP), 15 Chemin
23 Louis-Dunant, Geneva, Switzerland.

24
25 Sally ELLIS, MSc: Global Antibiotic Research & Development Partnership (GARDP), 15 Chemin Louis-Dunant,
26 Geneva, Switzerland.

27
28 Mike SHARLAND, Professor: Institute of Infection and Immunity, St George's University London, London, UK.

29

30 Adrian John BRINK, Professor: Division of Medical Microbiology, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Cape
31 Town, Cape Town, South Africa.

32
33 Patrick NA HARRIS, MD: University of Queensland, Faculty of Medicine, UQ Centre for Clinical Research, QLD,
34 Australia; Central Microbiology, Pathology Queensland, Royal Brisbane & Women's Hospital, QLD, Australia.

35
36 Gabriel LEVY-HARA, MD: Infectious Diseases Unit, Hospital Carlos G Durand, Buenos Aires, Argentina.

37
38 Anusha ROHIT, MD, PhD: Department of Microbiology and Infection Control, The Madras Medical Mission,
39 Adjunct Professor, NITTE University, Chennai, India.

40
41 Constantinos TSIOUTIS, Professor: School of Medicine, European University Cyprus, 6 Diogenes str., Nicosia
42 2404, Cyprus.

43
44 Hiba ZAYYAD, MD: Infectious Diseases Unit, The Baruch Padeh Medical Center, Poriya Hospital, M.P. The lower
45 Galilee, Tiberias, Israel.

46
47 Christian GISKE, Professor: Division of Clinical Microbiology, Department of Laboratory Medicine, Karolinska
48 Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden.

49
50 Margherita CHIAMENTI, MD: Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Diagnostic and Public Health,
51 University of Verona, P.Le L.A. Scuro 10, 37134, Verona, Italy.

52
53 Damiano BRAGANTINI, MD: Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Diagnostic and Public Health,
54 University of Verona, P.Le L.A. Scuro 10, 37134, Verona, Italy.

55
56 Elda RIGHI, Professor: Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Diagnostic and Public Health, University of
57 Verona, P.Le L.A. Scuro 10, 37134, Verona, Italy.

58

59 Anna GORSKA, PhD: Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Diagnostic and Public Health, University of
60 Verona, P.Le L.A. Scuro 10, 37134, Verona, Italy.

61
62 Evelina TACCONELLI, Professor: Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Diagnostic and Public Health,
63 University of Verona, P.Le L.A. Scuro 10, 37134, Verona, Italy; Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of
64 Internal Medicine I, German Center for Infection Research, University of Tübingen, Otfried Müller Straße 12,
65 72074 Tübingen, Germany; German Centre for Infection Research (DZIF), Clinical Research Unit for healthcare
66 associated infections, Tübingen, Germany

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67 Abstract

68 **Objectives:** optimal treatment of carbapenem-resistant Gram-negative (CR-GNB) infections is uncertain due to the
69 lack of good-quality evidence and the limited effectiveness of available antibiotics. The aim of this survey was to
70 investigate clinicians' prescribing strategies for treating CR-GNB infections worldwide.

71 **Methods:** a 36-items-questionnaire was developed addressing the following aspects of antibiotic prescribing:
72 respondent's background, diagnostic and therapeutic availability, preferred antibiotic strategies and rationale for
73 selecting combination therapy. Prescribers were recruited following the snowball-sampling approach, and a post-
74 stratification correction with inverse proportional weights was used to adjust the sample's representativeness.

75 **Results:** 1012 respondents from 95 countries participated in the survey. Overall, 298 (30%) of respondents had local
76 guidelines for treating CR-GNB at their facility and 702 (71%) had access to Infectious Diseases consultation, with
77 significant discrepancies according to country economic status: 85% (390/502) in High-Income-Countries vs 59%
78 (194/283) in Upper-Medium-Income-Countries and 30% (118/196) in Lower-Middle-Income-Countries/Lower-
79 Income-Countries). Targeted regimens varied widely, ranging from 40 regimens for CR-*Acinetobacter spp.* to more
80 than 100 regimens for CR-Enterobacteriaceae. Although the majority of respondents acknowledged the lack of
81 evidence behind this choice, dual combination was the preferred treatment scheme and carbapenem-polymyxin was
82 the most prescribed regimen, irrespective of pathogen and infection source. Respondents noticeably disagreed
83 around the meaning of 'combination therapy' with 20% (150/783) indicating the simple addition of multiple
84 compounds, 42% (321/783) requiring the presence of *in vitro* activity and 38% (290/783) of *in vitro*-synergism.

85 **Conclusions:** management of CR-GNB infections is far from being standardized. Strategic public health focussed
86 randomised controlled trials are urgently required to inform evidence-based treatment guidelines.

87

88

89 Introduction

90 In 2017, the World Health Organization (WHO) prioritized carbapenem-resistant Gram-negative bacteria (CR-
91 GNB) *Acinetobacter baumannii*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, and Enterobacteriaceae as species of critical importance
92 for research and development of new and effective antibiotics. (1) Only a few new antibiotics with the potential to
93 treat those bacteria have come to the market, and fewer still are in the later stages of their clinical development.(2)
94 However, none of these new compounds have been tested in large randomized clinical trials enrolling patients with
95 CR-GNB infections before their approval. Robust evidence of their effectiveness and superiority to conventional
96 and available antibiotics still needs to be established.(2) Existing studies on the treatment of CR-GNB infections are

97 mostly observational and limited by small sample sizes and the lack of adjustment for major confounders.(3-5) The
98 few available guidance documents, although recognizing the low quality of the evidence, suggest that combination
99 therapy might be superior to monotherapy when dealing severe infections. (6, 7) However, due to the very limited
100 evidence, it is difficult to provide precise recommendations as to the specific antibiotic combinations that should be
101 adopted for treating the possible clinical scenarios. In an era where the rational use of the few available antibiotics is
102 of utmost importance, clinicians treating severe infections caused by CR-GNB have to make decisions on which
103 antibiotics to use on a daily basis without the support of evidence-based recommendations and heterogeneous access
104 to diagnostic and therapeutic resources.(8)

105 The main goal of this study was to conduct a cross-sectional survey to assess antibiotic prescribing patterns among
106 clinicians worldwide with a particular focus on the use of combination therapy.

107

108 **Methods**

109 *Target population and sampling*

110 The target population of the survey was clinicians managing patients with severe infections caused by CR-GNB in
111 their current practice (a minimum of 5 cases of any CR-GNB infection per year was set as a limit to participate in
112 the survey). Participants were sampled from the target population in accordance with the ‘snowball sampling’
113 approach, which relies essentially on two key phases: *i*) the recruitment of a core sample of individuals having
114 similar characteristics to the population target (a core-expert group of 99 prescribers selected from surveillance
115 networks and scientific societies) and *ii*) the referral process, in which this group nominates, through various
116 transmission routes, other individuals who meet the eligibility criteria.(9-11) The objective was to involve at least
117 one representative from all the countries where diagnostic capabilities for detecting carbapenem-resistance are in
118 place (the full process is detailed in Table S1a-S2).

119 *Survey development, validation and distribution*

120 The survey content was developed and validated in accordance with current guidelines on surveys in medical
121 research.(12-16) The final questionnaire consisted of 36 open-ended, single and multiple-choice items addressing
122 four major aspects of antibiotic prescribing: respondent’s background, diagnostic and therapeutic availability,
123 preferred antibiotic strategies and rationale for selecting combination therapy. The questionnaire was validated by
124 experts from different geographic areas and disseminated via a *Survey Monkey* link (<https://it.surveymonkey.com>)
125 during a 10 week period (the final questionnaire and details of the development and validation process are detailed
126 in Fig S1 and Table S1b).

127 *Statistical analysis*

128 Anonymous data were automatically entered by the survey software into an electronic database. Both complete and
129 incomplete questionnaires were included for analysis. Results were expressed as frequency of responses for each
130 question or as median with interquartile range (IQR), when appropriate. The number of total responses for each
131 question item was used as denominator. Responses were computed overall or stratified by four subgroups of interest:
132 WHO region; income category (in accordance with the 2019 World Bank Classification); patients' age (neonates: 0-
133 1 month, children: >1 month- 14 years, adults: > 14 years); respondents' antibiotic prescribing frequency (low rate
134 prescribers: from 1 to 4 cases per year; medium rate prescribers: from 5 to 20 cases per year, high rate prescribers:
135 more than 20 cases per year). Between groups comparisons were computed using Chi-square and a two-sided p
136 value <0.05 was regarded as significant. Data were analysed using STATA 15 (Statacorp LP, College Station, US).
137 Figures were created using Python 3.7.3 and Matplotlib package v. 3.2.1.
138 To address the imbalance due to the non-probabilistic sampling method, a post-stratification correction was applied
139 for pre-selected question items according to the respondent's country and hospital. In the post-stratification analysis,
140 the weights were adjusted so that the totals in each group are equal to the known population totals.(17, 18)

141
142 Official submission to the Ethics Committee was deemed unnecessary because the participation into the survey was
143 voluntary and anonymous.

145 **Results**146 *Respondents' characteristics*

147 The survey was disseminated during a 10 week- period, from April 15th until June 28th 2019. In total 1012
148 respondents from 95 countries and 687 hospitals returned the questionnaire with an average completion rate of 86%.
149 The distribution of respondents according to the four main categories is shown in Table 1. The majority of
150 respondents were specialized in Infectious Diseases (548; 54%), were employed in tertiary level hospitals (810;
151 81%) and in teaching or university affiliated hospitals (859; 85%). The distribution of respondents by country and
152 specialty is displayed in Table S3 and Figure S2.

153 Local prevalence of carbapenem resistance in GNB was reported with high variability among countries and among
154 hospitals within the same country and, in some cases even within the same region. (Table S4). Overall, 20%
155 (193/974) of respondents did not have data on local phenotypic drug resistance rates; the genotypic mechanism of
156 resistance was not known by 32% (299/974) of respondents. Relative to CR-*Klebsiella pneumoniae*, the production

157 of serine-carbapenemases was the most frequent resistance mechanism in the American Region (93/203; 46%),
158 while the production of metallo-beta-lactamases was the most common resistance mechanism in South East Asia
159 (39/90; 43%) and Western Pacific Regions (34/77; 44%) (Table S5).

160 *Availability of diagnostics, therapeutics, and treatment guidelines*

161 Availability of antibiotics was heterogeneous across countries and, often, also within the same country. Gentamicin,
162 trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole (TMP-SMX), rifampin, amikacin, and carbapenems were available in more than
163 95% of the surveyed countries, regardless of the income. Carbapenems were placed under restrictive policies in 78%
164 (32/41) of High-Income-Countries; in 89% (25/28) of Upper-Middle-Income-Countries and in 61% (16/26) of
165 Lower-Middle-Income-Countries/Lower-Income-Countries. Colistin was available in 83% (79/94) of the surveyed
166 countries, with restrictive policies in place in 90% (37/41) of HIC, 91% (25/28) of Upper-Middle-Income-Countries
167 and 77% (20/26) of Lower-Middle-Income-Countries/Lower-Income-Countries. Among the drugs that most recently
168 entered the market, ceftazidime/avibactam was available in 33% (32/94) of countries (26/41, 63% High-Income-
169 Countries; 4/28, 14% Upper-Middle-Income-Countries and 2/26, 8% Lower-Middle-Income-Countries/Lower-
170 Income-Countries). Less than 10 respondents had access to the most recently approved antibiotic compounds
171 (meropenem/vaborbactam, eravacycline and plazomicin). Availability of antibiotics by country and income is
172 detailed in Figures S3a-c.

173 Only 30% (298/981) of respondents reported that local guidelines for treating CR-GNB were available, with no
174 significant difference according to income category (Table S6). Active Infectious Diseases consultation services
175 were significantly more common among respondents from High-Income-Countries (390/582, 85%) compared to
176 respondents from Upper-Middle-Income-Countries (194/283, 59%) and Lower-Middle-Income-Countries/Lower-
177 Income-Countries (118/196, 30%) ($p < 0.01$).

178 As for diagnostic resources, 77% (767/908) of respondents had access to standard susceptibility testing at a local
179 level with no differences according to the income status. More complex diagnostics (MALDI-TOF and NAAT) were
180 significantly more accessible in High-Income-Countries compared to Upper-Middle-Income-Countries and Lower-
181 Middle-Income-Countries/Lower-Income-Countries (Table 2). As a direct consequence of this variability, the timing
182 of diagnosis was considerably longer in low-resourced settings, with 23% (110/473) of respondents from those
183 countries receiving blood cultures more than 72 hours after sampling, compared to only 7% (37/500) in High-
184 Income-Countries (Table 3).

185 *Prescribing strategies*

186 Colistin and tigecycline were preferably prescribed in combination by 73% (492/671) and 71% (330/647) of
187 respondents, followed by combination fosfomycin (53%; 244/463), ceftazidime/avibactam (45%; 145/333),
188 polymyxin B (35%; 104/297) and gentamicin (34%; 264/770) (Table 4).

189 As for prescribing strategies, carbapenem loading dose and extended infusion were adopted more frequently by high
190 rate prescribers compared to clinicians that dealt with CR-GNB infections less frequently. Similarly, higher dose
191 tigecycline and loading dose of polymyxins and tigecycline, were significantly more frequent in the high rate
192 prescribers group compared with the others ($p < 0.01$ for all comparisons; Supplementary Table S7).

193 The decision to start an empiric coverage for CR-GNB was significantly more common in prescribers from High-
194 Income-Countries and directly associated with patients' clinical severity. Local epidemiological data and/or
195 individual risk factors played less of a role in driving the decision to start empiric coverage (Figure 1).

196 As for targeted therapy, the preferred strategy was the combination of two antibiotics (between 35% and 45% of
197 respondents depending on sepsis sources or bacterial species). The use of single-antibiotic therapy was second in
198 preference, especially for CR *Acinetobacter spp.* And CR *Pseudomonas spp.* (23-37% and 26-35% of respondents,
199 respectively, depending on the sepsis source). A combination of three antibiotics was regarded as the preferred
200 strategy by a lower number of respondents (15-20% depending on sepsis sources or pathogen type). Full results on
201 preferred therapeutic choices are displayed in Tables S8-S10.

202 When considering the components in the targeted combination regimens, respondents selected an extremely wide
203 spectrum of distinct combinations. The number of regimens ranged from 40 regimens in CR *Acinetobacter spp.* To
204 more than 100 regimens in CR Enterobacteriaceae. Overall, the combination "carbapenem *plus* a polymyxin" was
205 the most prescribed option for treating sepsis, irrespective of bacterial species or sepsis source (full results on
206 targeted treatment are presented in Figures S4a-c and Tables S11-S13).

207 Only 80 responses were available regarding treatment options in children and neonates; similar to the adult
208 population, the most commonly prescribed treatment among children was "carbapenem *plus* polymyxin". Full data
209 on pediatric population are available in the supplementary material (Table S14-S16).

210 *The concept of 'combination therapy'*

211 The main reasons leading to the prescription of combination treatment were to improve clinical efficacy (570/707;
212 81% of respondents) and to reduce resistance development (364/707; 51%) (Figure S5). According to 80% of
213 respondents (611/783), 'combination therapy' must include antibiotics which retain some degree of *in vitro* activity
214 (321/783; 42% of respondents) or be synergic (290/783; 38% of respondents). Twenty percent of respondents

215 (150/783) conceived ‘combination therapy’ as the simple association of two or more antibiotic compounds,
216 regardless their potential *in vitro* activity (Table S17).

217 Type of evidence supporting the use of combination therapy included: experts’ recommendations (62%; 486/777),
218 evidence from randomized controlled trials (37%; 285/777), evidence from *in vitro* studies (36%; 277/777),
219 controlled observational studies (34%; 264/777) and personal experience (29%; 224/777) (Figure S6).

220

221 **Discussion**

222 Our results showed that the treatment of CR-GNB infections is far from being standardized and clinicians over the
223 world use a wide range of antibiotic strategies and combinations depending on clinical severity, local availability
224 and clinical experience. Of interest, empiric coverage for CR-GNB was driven mostly by the severity of the clinical
225 scenario and more commonly prescribed in High-Income-Countries compared to lower resourced settings. As for
226 targeted treatment, the majority of respondents opted for a double-antibiotic combination (most commonly
227 polymyxin plus carbapenem) despite the lack of evidence supporting this indication.

228 Access to rapid diagnostics and recently approved antibiotics was inversely correlated with country economic status.

229 Gentamicin, amikacin and TMP-SMX were the most accessible compounds worldwide, while new BL/BLIs and
230 also older antibiotics such as colistin and polymyxin B were available in less than 50% of the surveyed countries.

231 Our results confirmed that not only high-priced newer drugs are very rarely accessible, but also off-patent drugs can
232 encounter supply shortages since manufacturing costs are not compensated by the low sale-price.(19) A survey
233 conducted by the European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases (ESCMID) revealed that there
234 was a reduction in access to ‘old antibiotics’ in the United States, Europe and Australia from 2011 to 2015.(20)
235 Similar data collected in Lower-Middle-Income-Countries found that access to ‘old antibiotics’ was very limited
236 even in countries with high rates of antibiotic resistance.(21)

237 Up to 80% of respondents from High-Income-Countries favoured empirical coverage for CR-GNB in presence of
238 severe clinical condition and epidemiological risk factors. Conversely, confronted with the same clinical scenario,
239 only half of respondents from Lower-Middle-Income-Countries/Lower-Income-Countries opted for empirical
240 coverage of CR-GNB. The main reason of this significant discrepancy probably resides in the lack of viable
241 therapeutic options in those countries, in line with the most recent findings revealing that early coverage with
242 colistin does not provide any benefit on survival in presence of severe CR-GNB infections.(22)

243 As for targeted treatment, despite the overall preference for dual antibiotic therapy, a notable portion of prescribers
244 still opt for monotherapy when dealing with microbiologically documented CR-GNB infections. The choice of

245 monotherapy could either reflect the actual lack of evidence supporting specific combinations or the absence of
246 other viable options due to concomitant resistance, drug toxicity or local unavailability.

247 Despite the relatively low percentage of paediatricians and neonatologists contributing to the survey (8.5%), a
248 significant heterogeneity of prescribing patterns was identified also in this patients' population. A similar lack of
249 standardization has been already observed in two global point prevalence surveys, where almost 200 different
250 antibiotic regimens were used for treating sepsis in children and neonates.(23)(24)

251 Overall, 80% of prescribers agreed that the main aim of combination therapy is to improve therapeutic efficacy,
252 while 50% supported the use of combination for reducing resistance development or promoting microbiological
253 eradication when compared to monotherapy. The majority of prescribers seemed to recognize that the use of
254 combination therapy for treating CR-GNB infections comes from "expert" recommendations and that the supporting
255 evidence is very poor and of low quality, being composed almost exclusively of observational and *in vitro* studies.
256 Interestingly, approximately one third of respondents believed that the use of combination therapy is supported by
257 RCTs, although valid examples in the literature are scarce.(25) A even much higher rate of prescribers sharing this
258 same misconception have been also observed in a similar survey on management of CR-GNB infections in Europe
259 and US in 2017. In this study, up to 55% of respondents declared that combination therapy is supported by a strong
260 level of evidence.(26)

261
262 Finally, it is notable that the concept of 'combination therapy' had a different meaning among respondents, with
263 42% indicating 'combination of *in vitro* active drugs', 38% indicating 'combination of *in vitro* synergistic drugs'
264 and 20% indicating 'combination of two or more drugs, regardless the *in vitro* activity'. Disagreement among
265 respondents clearly reflects the lack of a standardized definition for 'combination therapy' also in clinical studies,
266 with the result that there can be a misinterpretation and poor generalizability of study results.(27)

267 Although the referral process allowed the rapid recruitment of respondents from areas of the world that are usually
268 difficult to access, the use of a non-probabilistic sampling method remains a main limitation of this study. Our
269 sampling process started from surveillance networks in order to track and filter hospitals and countries having the
270 minimum standard needed for diagnosing CR-GNB infections. Therefore, we may have missed countries and
271 hospitals in which microbiological diagnosis is made with an acceptable degree of standardization, but without
272 active surveillance systems, particularly in LMIC/LIC and non-English speaking countries. Additionally, it should
273 be considered that individuals embedded in a network have greater probabilities of being identified and accessed

274 than others, with risk of over-representing certain prescribers. For this reason, a post-stratification correction with
275 inverse proportional weighting was applied to mitigate the risk of oversampled countries and hospitals.

276 In conclusion, we recorded a huge variability in the management of severe CR-GNB infections among over one-
277 thousand clinicians worldwide. Unequal access to diagnostic and therapeutic resources and the unavailability of
278 evidence-based recommendations were two strong determinants contributing to this heterogeneity. Additionally, the
279 lack of a universally accepted definition of ‘combination therapy’ might have further impaired the confidence in
280 results from available clinical studies. These results demonstrate the urgent need for public health focussed strategic
281 randomised controlled trials with the involvement of Low and Low-Middle-Income-Countries. International
282 guidelines will be able to inform decision-making only when results from adequately conducted RCTs will be
283 available.

284

285 **Role of the funding source**

286 GARDP supported the entire project, GARDP secondee (LJVP) and employees contributed to study design, data
287 interpretation, and writing of the manuscript. All authors had full access to data and had final responsibility for the
288 decision to submit for publication.

289

290 **Contributors**

291 ET and LJVP conceived the idea for this project. EC, AS, SE, FF, LJVP and ET designed the study. AS, EC, AG
292 contributed to the data analysis and synthesis. AS and EC wrote the paper. All authors contributed to the survey
293 development, pilot phase, revision of the paper and approval of the final version for submission. All authors had full
294 access to all the data in the study and had final responsibility for the decision to submit for publication.

295

296 **Declaration of interests**

297 AS, EC, AG, GLH, ER, CT, AR, HZ, CG, AJB and ET have no competing interests to be declared. SE, FF and
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388

1 **Table 1: Number of respondents stratified by the four subgroups of interest**

WHO region	Respondents, n (%)
Africa	64 (6.0)
Americas	205 (20.5)
Eastern Mediterranean	116 (11.5)
Europe	444 (44.0)
South East Asia	95 (9.3)
Western Pacific	88 (8.7)
Total	1012 (100)
Patients' age	Respondents, n (%)
Adults	867 (85.6)
Pediatric population	145 (14.3)
- Children	- 110 (10.9)
- Neonates	- 35 (3.5)
Total	1012 (100)
Income category	Respondents, n (%)
High income countries	512 (50.6)
Upper-Middle income countries	296 (29.2)
Lower -Middle income/Low income countries	204 (20.1)
Total	1012 (100)
Prescribing frequency*	Respondents, n (%)
Low rate prescribers	257 (25.4)
Medium rate prescribers	416 (41.1)
High rate prescribers	283 (28.0)
Not specified	56 (5.5)
Total	1012 (100)
*low rate prescribers: from 1 to 4 cases per year; medium rate prescribers: from 5 to 20 cases per year, high rate prescribers: more than 20 cases per year	

2

3 **Table 2: Availability of diagnostic tools for detecting CR-GNB in blood cultures**

Diagnostic tool % (N)	HIC 45.8 (N 469)	UMIC 26.3 (N 268)	LMIC/LIC 27.9 (N 171)	Overall N 908	P value
Standard AST	75.2 (373)	82.6 (238)	76.3 (156)	77.5 (767)	NS
MALDI-TOF	58.8 (277)	17.7 (61)	2.8 (15)	32.4 (353)	<0.001
Rapid phenotypic test from blood isolates	32.3 (142)	21.1 (61)	1.5 (15)	20.8 (218)	<0.001
NAAT	47.2 (217)	15.4 (45)	9.6 (21)	28.4 (283)	<0.001
- in all CR-GNB strains	26.6 (157)	6.4 (16)	5.8 (11)	15.5 (184)	<0.001
- only in selected cases	20.6 (60)	9.1 (29)	3.7 (10)	12.9 (99)	0.008
Internal testing facilities NOT available	5.3 (34)	14.0 (38)	21.7 (25)	10.6 (97)	<0.001
<p>Frequencies of positive responses are presented as percentages of the total of responses from each income category after adopting post-stratification correction by hospital and country; n: number of respondents.</p> <p>AST: Antimicrobial susceptibility test; NAAT: nucleic acid amplification testing; NS: non-significant; HIC: High income countries, UMI: Upper-Middle income countries; Lower -Middle income/Low income countries</p>					

4

5 **Table 3: Time needed by laboratories to inform on the positivity of blood cultures**

Time to positive blood cultures	Income category % (n) of country			P value
	HIC 51.5 (N 500)	UMI 27.2 (N 282)	LMI/LIC 25.3 (N 191)	
Within 36 hours	41.2 (172)	21.6 (70)	20.8 (51)	0.01
Within 48 hours*	73.2 (349)	40.0 (139)	42.5 (93)	<0.001
Within 72 hours*	80.1 (463)	52.0 (224)	59.8 (139)	<0.001
Within 96 hours*	99.1 (494)	91.8 (260)	80.4 (174)	<0.001
More than 96 hours	0.9 (6)	8.2 (22)	19.6 (17)	<0.001
<p>Frequencies of positive responses are presented as cumulative percentages within each time interval using the total of responses from each income category as a denominator and applying post-stratification correction by hospital and country; HIC: High Income countries, UMI: Upper-Middle income countries; Lower -Middle income/Low income countries</p>				

6

7 **Table 4: Antibiotic compounds always prescribed in combination by respondents**

Prescribing frequency	I prescribe combination very rarely	Meropenem /vaborbactam	Ceftazidime/ avibactam	Ceftolozane/ tazobactam	Plazomicin	Eravacycline	Aztreonam
	N (%)	C/A (%)	C/A (%)	C/A (%)	C/A (%)	C/A (%)	C/A (%)
High rate prescriber	11/255 (4.3)	0/4 (0)	39/86 (45.3)	26/93 (28.0)	1/3 (33.3)	0/2	28/100 (28.0)
Medium rate prescriber	29/321 (9.0)	7/19 (36.8)	72/146 (49.3)	47/151 (31.1)	0/3 (0.0)	0/4	37/139 (26.6)
Low rate prescriber	68/209 (32.5)	4/23 (17.4)	34/101 (33.7)	21/100 (21.0)	2/6 (33.3)	2/6 (33.3)	24/117 (20.5)
Overall	108/785 (13.7)	11/46 (23.9)	145/333 (45.3)	94/344 (27.3)	3/12 (25)	2/12 (16.7)	89/356 (25)
P value	<0.001	NP	0.047	NP	NP	NP	NP
Prescribing frequency	Gentamicin	Tobramycin	Amikacin	Tigecycline	Polymyxin B	Colistin	Fosfomycin (IV)
	C/A (%)	C/A (%)	C/A (%)	C/A (%)	C/A (%)	C/A (%)	C/A (%)
High rate prescriber	81/250 (32.4)	17/132 (12.9)	119/248 (48.0)	132/228 (57.9)	45/99 (45.5)	191/230 (83.0)	98/162 (60.5)
Medium rate prescriber	109/315 (34.6)	26/176 (14.8)	173/307 (56.4)	61/263 (23.2)	41/121 (33.9)	212/281 (75.4)	105/188 (55.9)
Low rate prescriber	74/205 (36.1)	37/137 (27.0)	102/187 (54.5)	137/156 (87.8)	18/77 (23.4)	89/160 (55.6)	41/113 (36.3)
Overall	264/770 (34.2)	80/445 (17.9)	394/742 (53)	330/647 (70.6)	104/297 (35)	492/671 (73)	244/463 (52.7)
P value	NP	0.004	NP	<0.001	0.009	<0.001	<0.001
<p>Legend: C: always in combination; A: number of respondents with available agent; NP: not performed (less than five respondents contributed to the analysis)</p> <p>The results are presented as proportions and stratified by prescribing frequency. As denominator, only the number of respondents declaring the availability of the antibiotic compounds were considered. The statistical significance was computed only if more than five respondents contributed to the analysis.</p>							

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9

10 **Figure 1: Percentage of respondents who are likely to cover empirically for CR-GNB according to different**
 11 **clinical, epidemiological/microbiological factors and stratified by country-income**

12

(%) OF RESPONDENTS			CLINICAL FACTORS			
			Clinically stable/ No risk factor for immunodepression	Clinically stable/ Risk factors for immunodepression	Worsening clinical conditions (empirical therapy not covering CR- GNB)	Septic shock
EPIDEMIOLOGICAL/MICROBIOLOGICAL FACTORS	Known colonization in ANY site	HIC	8.1	32.7	80.6	70.2
		UMIC	4.3	26.4	66.6	63.4
		LMIC/LIC	2.3	35.5	50.1	43.7
		p value	NS	NS	0.003	0.02
	The Infection originates from a known colonized site	HIC	28.0	55.0	83.1	67.9
		UMIC	14.8	46.9	74.1	62.8
		LMIC/LIC	26.9	36.0	40.6	42.6
		p value	NS	NS	< 0.001	0.03
	Recent admission in a highly- endemic hospital (<90 days)	HIC	7.6	64.3	67.2	66.8
		UMIC	6.3	29.8	65.7	62.7
		LMIC/LIC	6.0	38.7	49.1	36.4
		p value	NS	NS	NS	0.005
	Recent travel in a highly- endemic country (<90 days)	HIC	4.7	26.2	58.7	57.1
		UMIC	4.6	18.3	62.1	58.7
		LMIC/LIC	9.3	18.2	43.7	31.1
		p value	NS	NS	NS	0.01
	Recent exposure to carbapenem (<90 days)	HIC	5.9	23.0	56.0	55.3
		UMIC	5.4	27.2	66.4	50.1
		LMIC/LIC	3.9	15.8	44.0	61.3
		p value	NS	NS	NS	NS
	Preliminary identification highly suggestive of CR-GNB	HIC	25.6	60.5	81.0	70.5
UMIC		24.8	45.9	81.2	70.9	
LMIC/LIC		13.2	46.7	58.0	41.0	
p value		NS	NS	0.006	0.003	
Positive rapid susceptibility tests i.e. NAAT, carba-NP*	HIC	54.6	68.3	63.5	62.7	
	UMIC	30.9	53.6	67.4	65.5	
	LMIC/LIC	0.0	30.4	69.5	54.3	
	p value	NS	NS	NS	NS	

Abbreviations: HIC: high income countries; UMIC: upper-middle income countries; LMIC: lower-middle income countries; LIC: low income countries; NAAT: nucleic acid amplification testing; NS: not statistically significant.
 *Number of respondents for denominator are 215 (only the respondents declaring that their labs can perform rapid tests for CR-GNB).
 The results are presented as weighted proportions after adopting post-stratification correction according to hospital and country. The likelihood of empiric coverage for CR-GNB is divided into four thresholds and graphically represented according to this color scale: < 15% 15-30% 31-50% > 50%

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