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Short Communication

Poverty and prevalence of antimicrobial resistance in invasive isolates

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SUMMARY

Objectives: To evaluate the association between the income status of a country and the prevalence of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) in the three most common bacteria causing infections in hospitals and in the community: third-generation cephalosporin (3GC)-resistant *Escherichia coli*, methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), and 3GC-resistant *Klebsiella* species.

Methods: Using 2013–2014 country-specific data from the ResistanceMap repository and the World Bank, the association between the prevalence of AMR in invasive samples and the gross national income (GNI) per capita was investigated through linear regression with robust standard errors. To account for non-linear association with the dependent variable, GNI per capita was log-transformed.

Results: The models predicted an 11.3% (95% confidence interval (CI) 6.5–16.2%), 18.2% (95% CI 11–25.5%), and 12.3% (95% CI 5.5–19.1%) decrease in the prevalence of 3GC-resistant *E. coli*, 3GC-resistant *Klebsiella* species, and MRSA, respectively, for each log GNI per capita. The association was stronger for 3GC-resistant *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* species than for MRSA.

Conclusions: A significant association between GNI per capita and the prevalence of MRSA and 3GC-resistant *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* species was found. These results underscore the urgent need for new policies aimed at reducing AMR in resource-poor settings.

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1. Introduction

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12 The emergence of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is a complex 02 13 phenomenon and is intensified by selective pressure through antibiotic use in humans, animals, and agriculture.¹ The transmis-14 15 sion of AMR to humans occurs from contact with animals 16 (including food), other humans, and the environment.¹ Transmis-17 sion is facilitated by several factors, including high population 18 density, lack of access to clean water, suboptimal sewage systems, 19 poor sanitation, and poor healthcare infection control practices, all 20 of which are more common in low- and middle-income countries 21 (LMIC).¹ In addition, with the increasing consumption of anti-22 microbials in humans, lack of regulation on antimicrobial use in 23 farming, and pharmaceutical industry pollution, it may not be 24 surprising that relatively higher levels of AMR among human pathogens are being reported from LMIC.^{2,3} However, the 25

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association between the income status of a country and prevalence 26 of AMR has not yet been published. 27

Escherichia coli, Klebsiella species, and Staphylococcus aureus are 28 the most common bacteria causing infections in hospitals and in 29 the community.² The aims of this study were (1) to evaluate the 30 association between the income status of a country and the 31 prevalence of AMR in the three most common bacteria isolated 32 from invasive samples (third-generation cephalosporin (3GC)-33 resistant E. coli, methicillin-resistant S. aureus (MRSA), and 3GC-34 resistant Klebsiella species),² and (2) to estimate the overall 35 prevalence of AMR among lower-middle-, upper-middle-, and 36 high-income economies. 37

2. Methods

Data from the World Bank (gross national income (GNI) per 39 capita) and from the ResistanceMap repository were used. 40 ResistanceMap is a repository of reliable antimicrobial resistance data from hospitals and laboratory networks from around the 42 world.⁴ 43

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Figure 1. Prevalence of third-generation cephalosporin-resistant (3GCR) *Escherichia coli* (A), 3GCR *Klebsiella sp* (B), and methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (C) by gross national income per capita and predicted values with 95% confidence intervals according to a linear regression model.

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All isolates of E. coli, Klebsiella sp, and S. aureus in the ResistanceMap database for 2013 and 2014 were selected. Countries with fewer than 30 samples and those for which samples came from a single hospital were excluded. Confidence intervals (CI) for proportions were estimated using the Wilson method. To facilitate the interpretation of the results, the proportion of isolates tested that were resistant was modeled as a continuous variable using linear regression with robust standard errors. GNI per capita was measured in US dollars according to 2014 World Bank data. To account for non-linear association with the dependent variable, GNI per capita was log-transformed. GNI per capita is presented on a log scale in the figures.

3. Results

The association between the percentage of 3GC-resistant E. coli and GNI per capita for the 45 countries that met the study criteria is presented in Figure 1A. The model predicted an 11.3% (95% CI 6.5-16.2%) decrease in the prevalence of 3GC-resistant E. coli for each log GNI per capita and was able to explain 65% of the variance $(R^2 = 0.6486)$. When countries were grouped by their GNI per capita into high-, upper-middle-, and lower-middle-income economies, the predicted prevalence of 3GC-resistant E. coli was 11.5% (95% CI 9.2-13.8%), 30.7% (95% CI 19-42.4%), and 77.6% (95% CI 71.2-84.1%), respectively.

The association between the percentage of 3GC-resistant Klebsiella sp and GNI per capita for the 43 countries that met the study criteria is presented in Figure 1B. The model predicted an 18.2% (95% CI 11-25.5%) decrease in the prevalence of 3GCresistant Klebsiella sp for each log GNI per capita and was able to explain 58% of the variance ($R^2 = 0.5745$). When countries were grouped by their GNI per capita into high-, upper-middle-, and lower-middle-income economies, the predicted prevalence of 3GC-resistant Klebsiella sp was 30.6% (95% CI 20.9-40.2%), 56.7% (95% CI 40.6-72.8%), and 78.9% (95% CI 69-88.7%), respectively.

The association between the percentage of MRSA and GNI per capita for the 43 countries that met the study criteria is presented in Figure 1C. The model predicted a 12.3% (95% CI 5.5–19.1%) decrease in the prevalence of MRSA for each log GNI per capita and was able to explain 41% of the variance ($R^2 = 0.4079$). When countries were grouped by their GNI per capita into high-, uppermiddle-, and lower-middle-income economies, the predicted prevalence of MRSA was 19.2% (95% CI 10.2-28.3%), 29% (95% CI 22-36.1%), and 36.4% (95% CI 23.7-49%), respectively.

4. Discussion

87 The burden of bacterial infections is higher in LMIC,⁵ and the 88 present study results demonstrate that they have a higher 89 prevalence of AMR too. This combination is likely to have 90 devastating consequences for LMIC economies. First, infections caused by resistant organisms are associated with increased 91 mortality and health costs.^{2,6,7} Second, antibiotics that are effective 92 93 against bacteria with AMR are more expensive and are not affordable for a substantial number of people living in resource-94 95 limited settings.⁸ Third, increasing the use of effective antibiotics against bacteria with AMR will lead to higher resistance to last-96 resort antibiotics. In fact, carbapenem consumption is increasing at 97 a rapid pace in poor economies,⁹ leading to an increasing 98 prevalence of carbapenem-resistant *E. coli* and *Klebsiella sp.*³ 99

The association was stronger for 3GC-resistant E. coli and 100 Klebsiella sp than for MRSA. This finding is consistent with the 101 conditions that facilitate the transmission of AMR in developing 102 countries. E. coli and Klebsiella sp are part of the human gut 103 microbiota, and the spread of these organisms is facilitated by 104 suboptimal sewage systems, poor sanitation, and a lack of access to 105 clean water. Previous studies have demonstrated a high prevalence 106 of AMR in surface water and ground water in developing 107 countries.¹ Improving sewage systems and access to clean water 108 is likely to have a greater impact on reducing the transmission of 109 AMR in E. coli and Klebsiella sp than in contact-transmitted bacteria 110 such as MRSA. 111

A strong association was found between the income status of a 112 country and the prevalence of AMR in invasive isolates. The 113 findings of this study underscore the urgent need for the 114 implementation of policies to improve environmental sanitation, 115 curb inappropriate antibiotic use, increase vaccination rates, 116 improve laboratory capacity, and establish infection control, and 117 for antimicrobial stewardship programs in healthcare facilities in 118 developing countries. 119

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Ethics approval: This study used data available in the public 125 domain and thus did not require ethics approval.

Conflict of interest: There are no conflicts of interest to disclose.

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