

Antibiotic Awareness Week and Hospital Antimicrobial Use Point Prevalence Study

Nalini Singh, MD, MPH;¹ Arno Muller, PhD;² Gabriel Levy Hara, MD;³ Jose Luis Castro, MSc;⁴
Pilar Ramon-Pardo, MD, PhD⁴

The World Health Organization (WHO) and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) recognize the week of November 13–19, 2017, as “Antibiotic Awareness Week.” Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) was presented as a global health and economic threat in May 2017 at the 70th World Health Assembly and the 43rd G7 Summit, and at the 2017 Hamburg Summit in July 2017, as well as at the World Economic Forum in January 2017.^{1,2} It is estimated that, by 2050, millions of lives will be lost and the cumulative economic cost directly attributable to AMR will reach US\$100 trillion.² Globalization of trade and ease of travel have facilitated dissemination of multidrug-resistant (MDR) pathogens around the globe. Multidrug-resistant pathogens, predominantly gram-negative rods (GNRs), have been recognized as a global priority for research and development of antibiotics.³ However, few antibacterial drugs under development are targeting these deadly pathogens, and the clinical efficacy of these new antibacterial agents against life-threatening bacterial infections remains to be seen.⁴

Antimicrobial resistance is a global challenge issue for all nations. Low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) have large reservoirs of patients suffering from difficult-to-treat infections. In contrast, while patients in resource-rich countries survive longer due to advances in health care, including organ transplantation and chemotherapy, they are at risk for infection from MDR pathogens due to prolonged exposure in healthcare settings. Likewise, the prevention of AMR requires judicious use of antibiotics, improvement in surveillance, implementation of infection prevention and control (IPC) efforts, and effective national hygiene and sanitation initiatives.

Antimicrobial resistance is a global threat requiring a multi-pronged global response. Such a response will necessarily include a point prevalence survey (PPS) to assess antibiotic usage at the patient level.⁵ Frontline healthcare and public health professionals will play a pivotal role in measuring the use of antibiotics and determining the indications for their use in managing infectious diseases. The WHO Hospital Antimicrobial Use Point Prevalence Survey (WHO HAMU PPS) is a standardized tool for estimating the prevalence of antimicrobial

use in hospitals (Figure 1). While the methodology is designed for worldwide implementation, it has been developed to meet the need and resources requirement in LMICs. By collecting data at a specific point in time, the WHO HAMU PPS allows key data to be collected in a standardized manner, requiring less time and resources than longitudinal surveys. The WHO HAMU PPS, contrary to the global PPS, collects information on all inpatients with or without antibiotics, which also makes it a useful tool for IPC activities. The WHO HAMU PPS will be implemented to support the Global Action Plan on AMR and to facilitate the monitoring of the National Action Plans. In addition, countries will receive technical support to facilitate the participation of LMICs. Hospitals settings have high patient concentrations and high rates of MDR bacterial infections, which are mostly caused by a high selection pressure due to the use of broad-spectrum antibiotics and an inadvertent breach in IPC practices in particular. In a recent meta-analysis, antimicrobial stewardship was associated with a significant decrease in the incidence of infections and colonization with AMR pathogens in hospitalized patients.⁶ The WHO HAMU-PPS study will assess antimicrobial use at a global level and will raise the overall awareness of rational use of antibiotics. These efforts will generate policy recommendations that will ultimately allow data to be compared at district, country, and regional levels over time.

Pilot sites for the WHO HAMU PPS study will be launched in 33 countries in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC); 26 of these countries (79%) are LMICs.⁷ According to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 8 countries (20%) have a low or medium human development index (average, 0.73; range, 0.493–0.847).⁸ Since 1996, a regional laboratory-based AMR surveillance program, Red Latinoamericana de Vigilancia de las Resistencias Antimicrobianas (ReLAVRA), has been reporting AMR data on 21 pathogens (11 community-acquired pathogens and 10 hospital-acquired pathogens) from a total of 21 national reference laboratories from 18 countries.⁹ The quality of data is ensured by an external quality assurance program, and the

Affiliations: 1. Department of Pediatrics, George Washington University, Washington, DC; 2. World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland; 3. Department of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases, School of Medicine, Buenos Aires, Argentina; 4. Pan American Health Organization, Washington DC.

Received October 26, 2017; accepted October 27, 2017

© 2017 by The Society for Healthcare Epidemiology of America. All rights reserved. DOI: 10.1017/ice.2017.251

Inclusion criteria	Hospital	Patient care unit/Ward	Patient	Antibiotics
	Acute care hospitals <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Primary • Secondary • Tertiary • Specialized 	Inpatient units <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pediatric • Neonatal • Adult • Specialized patient units: Hematology/oncology, transplantation, intensive care units, and burn unit 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hospitalized patients • Hospitalized at 8 am on survey day 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Antibiotics being administered on the survey day at 8 am • Parenteral or Oral • Surgical prophylaxis
Exclusion criteria	Hospital	Patient care unit/Ward	Patient	Antibiotics
	Non-acute care facilities <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nursing care • Rehabilitation centers • Psychiatric centers 	Non-acute patient care unit: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Long-term care • Emergency room • Day-surgery 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Outpatients • Discharged patients • Mothers in nursing unit • Admitted after 8 am 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Received after 8 am • Stopped before 8 am
Data collection	Data structure			
	Hospital level	Patient care unit/Ward		Patient level
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preparation of survey: ethical clearance, identifying lead investigator team and training • Baseline information of the facilities • Develop coordination plan <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - With each patient care unit - Data entry, validation and reporting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No of beds < 700, sample of patients will be included in the survey • 700-1400 beds, 1 in 2 patients per patient care unit will be included • >1400 beds 1 in 3 patients per patient care unit will be included • Type of patient unit and No of patients 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Epidemiology information (age, gender, primary diagnosis) • Indication for antibiotic use (culture taken, diagnosis, type of infection-organism), healthcare-associated infections or community onset • Antibiotics prescriptions (type, dosing, route of administration)

FIGURE 1. WHO hospital antimicrobial use point prevalence survey protocol.

regional trends of resistance have been monitored. However, without measuring the usage of antimicrobials in hospital facilities and at patient levels, a correlation between resistance trends and antimicrobial use cannot be established. Moreover, only very limited data are available and only a few studies have been published regarding antimicrobial use at the patient level in this region. Therefore, it is important to carry out WHO HAMU PPS in this region to collect comparable data and provide guidance for policy decisions.

Meanwhile, IPC initiatives remain critical to preventing person-to-person transmission of AMR pathogens, and sometimes these initiatives are the only option available in resource-constrained settings. The IPC measures enhance the effect of an antimicrobial stewardship program in reducing prevalence of MDR-GNR.⁶ IPC guidelines formulated to prevent the spread of MDR pathogens, carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae, *Acinetobacter baumannii*, and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* have been formulated by the WHO and the CDC.^{10,11} In addition, other public-private partnership projects have been established to support the research and development of new antibiotics. They are funded by Biomedical Advanced Research and Development Authority (BARDA) in the United States and by the Combating Antibiotic Bacteria

Biopharmaceutical Accelerator (CARB-X, funded by BARDA, the Wellcome Trust and the US National Institutes of Health). Furthermore, numerous stakeholders, including the Drive-AB project by the Innovative Medicines Initiative, have also focused their discussion on economic models that incentivize the development of new antibiotics while ensuring their value for ongoing use in patients.¹² However, the road to discovery of newer modalities is long and fraught with many obstacles. While we await the success of these initiatives, many LMICs should continue to invest in basic infrastructure for a clean water supply, sanitation, and disinfection, and local facilities should invest in hand hygiene gels and other strategies that address long-term care and rehabilitation of patients infected with MDR pathogens. Multisectorial efforts, international collaboration, public-private partnership, implementation of new economic models to support the research and development of new and effective antibacterial agents, as well as robust surveillance programs, are necessary to address the global challenge of AMR. We are at a crossroad with several significant initiatives. Either these efforts can be made more effective with focused and synergistic efforts or their momentum will dissipate due to the lack of a coherent and effective approach, which will result in serious consequences for us all.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors appreciate help of Chen-Ling Hsieh of PAHO's AMR team and Dr Christopher Houchens of BARDA for helpful suggestions.

Financial support: No financial support was provided relevant to this article.

Potential conflicts of interest: All authors report no conflicts of interest relevant to this article.

Address correspondence to Nalini Singh, Department of Pediatrics, George Washington University, Children's National Health System, 111 Michigan Ave, NW, Washington, DC, 20010 (nsingh@childrensnational.org).

REFERENCES

1. Antimicrobial resistance. Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development website. <http://www.oecd.org/els/health-systems/antimicrobial-resistance.htm>. Published 2017. Accessed September 7, 2017.
2. G20 health ministers' meeting: fighting antimicrobial resistance. Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development website. <http://www.oecd.org/about/secretary-general/g20-health-ministers-meeting-fighting-antimicrobial-resistance.htm>. Published 2017. Accessed September 7, 2017.
3. WHO publishes list of bacteria for which new antibiotics are urgently needed. World Health Organization website. <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/news/releases/2017/bacteria-antibiotics-needed/en/>. Published 2017. Accessed September 7, 2017.
4. Srinivasan A, Stundick M, Sun E, Theuretzbacher U, Wallace B, Wise B. Value-based strategies for encouraging new development of antimicrobial drugs. Duke Margolis Center for Health Policy website. https://healthpolicy.duke.edu/sites/default/files/atoms/files/value-based_strategies_for_encouraging_new_development_of_antimicrobial_drugs.pdf. Published 2017. Accessed September 7, 2017.
5. Global Point Prevalence Survey on Antimicrobial Consumption and Resistance. Global-PPS website. <http://www.global-pps.com/>. Update 2017. Accessed November 6, 2017.
6. Baur D, Gladstone B, Burkert F, et al. Effect of antibiotic stewardship on the incidence of infection and colonisation with antibiotic-resistant bacteria and *Clostridium difficile* infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2017;17:990–1001.
7. Low and middle-income data. World Bank website. <http://data.worldbank.org/income-level/low-and-middle-income>. Published 2017. Accessed September 7, 2017.
8. Human Development Report, pp. 198–201. United Nations Development Program website. <http://hdr.undp.org/en/2016-report>. Published 2016. Accessed September 7, 2017.
9. Antimicrobial resistance. Pan American Health Organization website. http://www.paho.org/hq/index.php?option=com_topics&view=article&id=7&Itemid=40740. Updated 2017. Accessed September 11, 2017.
10. WHO Guidelines for Carbapenem-resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* and Carbapenemase-producing *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Acinetobacter baumannii* in Health Care (update forthcoming in November 2017).
11. Facility guidance for control of carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae (CRE)—November 2015 Update: CRE Toolkit. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention website. <https://www.cdc.gov/hai/organisms/cre/cre-toolkit/index.html>. Published 2017. Accessed September 7, 2017.
12. CARB-X partners. Public Health Emergency website. <https://www.phe.gov/about/barดา/CARB-X/Pages/partners.aspx>. Published 2017. Accessed September 7, 2017.