

1 **A Nationwide Pharmacoepidemiological Analysis of the Impact of Health Policy on**
2 **Antimicrobial use in Critical Care Settings in India**
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29

30 **Abstract**

31 A nationwide multicentric pharmacoepidemiologic analysis of antimicrobial use in critical care
32 settings over a 2 year period in India, revealed that 76.0% (22,920) received at least one
33 antimicrobial with 36.6% (11,027) receiving multiple antimicrobials. When classified based on
34 the WHO AWaRe stratification, Watch group antimicrobials were most frequently ordered
35 (56.7%;17103 patients), with the joinpoint regression analysis indicating its peak use during the
36 second COVID-19 wave (May 2021-December 2021: MPC=2.01, $p<0.05$) and significantly
37 higher odds noted in patients with COVID-19 (aOR:6.73 (5.78-7.88)), APACHE-II >10
38 (aOR:1.60 (1.49-1.71)) and ventilation requirement (aOR:1.68 (1.55-1.83)), thus indicating its
39 use as empiric antibiotic therapy particularly in severely ill COVID patients. Individual COVID-
40 specific Antimicrobials (CSA) exhibited temporal and geographical variation congruent with the
41 release of scientific literature and local treatment guidelines, reflecting proactive implementation
42 of treatment protocols. Antimicrobials are used extensively in ICUs across India, but overall and
43 individual trends were largely influenced by scientific literature and public health messaging.

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Key words

Antimicrobial stewardship, Public Health, COVID-19, India, Antimicrobial, 27 Pharmacoepidemiological study

45 INTRODUCTION

46 Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) and antimicrobial stewardship (AMS) have been prominent
47 areas of focus in tropical settings with high rates of antimicrobial use, particularly in intensive
48 care units (ICUs).¹⁻³ Multiple factors are at the core of this trend with the most recent factor
49 being the COVID-19 pandemic that instigated antimicrobial treatment regimens that were often
50 unsupported by evidence.⁴⁻⁶ Additionally, several drug combinations previously unused for
51 treating respiratory infections were promoted. Evidence-based guidelines have historically been
52 imperative to ensuring reliable AMS practices, however these peer-reviewed guidelines and
53 policy that evolved over the course of the pandemic were not always easy to follow and/or not
54 always aligned with local messaging. Another compounding factor was the supply-chain issues
55 that frequently inhibited adherence to recommendations.

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57 In India, stark differences between urban and rural settings continue to lead to discrepancies in
58 treatment regimens. Apart from building meticulous community and hospital-based health
59 surveillance systems in India, analysing ICU level data pertaining to antimicrobial use and its
60 influence on outcomes, particularly in the COVID-19 context, is an important avenue to setting
61 up reliable surveillance systems to guide policy making and investment in healthcare
62 infrastructure. Nationwide ICU data and metrics are generally lacking in most tropical settings
63 and therefore longitudinal datasets from diverse settings are imperative for advancement of
64 health systems. In this pharmacoepidemiologic study, we analyse antimicrobial order trends from
65 a combination of government funded, not-for-profit and corporate-run ICUs across 17 Indian
66 states over a 25-month time-frame comprising two COVID-19 waves, the intervening period,
67 and the post-vaccine deployment phase. We also identify risk factors and study the association
68 between antimicrobial orders and outcomes.

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71 METHODS

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73 *Study design and setting*

74 This study met ethics exemption criteria after application to the relevant IRBs (Board Names:
75 Boston Children's Hospital IRB, Cloudphysician IEC; Approval number P00040679, IEC N1-

76 2022; Title: A multi-centric retrospective analysis of clinical and laboratory data among of
77 critically ill patients in India, Approval date: March 1st 2022, April 1st 2022)
78 and was conducted in accordance with the STROBE guidelines as well as in accordance with the
79 ethical standards of the responsible committee on human experimentation (institutional or
80 regional) and with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975 across 68 ICUs in 17 Indian states (**Figure**
81 **1A**) between March 2020-April 2022, which were part of a tele-ICU network that receives
82 critical care expertise in a centralized manner. ⁷ The study period was divided into ‘first COVID
83 wave’, ‘intervening period’, ‘second COVID wave’ and ‘post-COVID period’. The states were
84 classified into North/Central, South, West and East/Northeast zones for geographical trend
85 analysis. (**Table S1**).

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87 *Patient selection, Data Collection, Extraction and Cleaning*

88 All adult patients >14 years admitted to an in-network ICU were included. Patients who
89 received ≥ 1 antimicrobial were the subjects while patients who received no antimicrobials were
90 the comparator population. Further analyses involved comparing orders between COVID and
91 non-COVID status and estimating patient risk factors for receiving non-bacterial antimicrobials
92 (NBAs) and antimicrobials from the WHO’s AWaRe categories. ⁸ (**Table S1,S2**) Demographic
93 data, clinical parameters, and disposition details were collected. (**Tables 1,2**) Although the
94 APACHE-II score ⁹ is considered rudimentary in ICU care, it was found to be an appropriate
95 standardized indicator of gauging severity for the purpose of this study, given the heterogeneity
96 in patients and ICU settings.

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98 Demographic data, clinical parameters, as well as disposition details were collected. (**Tables**
99 **1,2**). The data sets for the study analysis were extracted from the larger database system that is
100 part of a custom-built and multidisciplinary interaction platform used by ICU teams within this
101 tele-ICU network. The information was extracted from the cloud-infrastructure that
102 accommodates the usage of software such as PostgreSQL and Python for querying and retrieval
103 of data from the repositories. The extraction process involved using Python (version:3.6) which
104 was part of a cloud-instance that facilitated the usage of database toolkit for PostgreSQL to
105 extract the data including demographic and clinical information for each patient within the study
106 duration, spread across multiple tables. This process generated two different datasets where the

107 primary data consisted of unique patient observations and the secondary data comprising of
108 single and multiple antibiotic orders along with other parameters pertaining to those unique
109 observations. This data was imported into R (version: 3.5.0), an integrated development
110 environment for R programming language, for data cleaning and feature engineering followed by
111 analysis and visualization processes.

112

113 *Data Analysis*

114 Data analysis was split into 5 parts:

- 115 1. The dataset containing unique patient observations were analyzed to establish demographics
116 and baseline characteristics of the cohort overall as well as based on patient COVID status.
- 117 2. The antimicrobial orders dataset containing all antimicrobial orders from the study period
118 (single and multiple per patient) were analyzed to identify overall temporal and geographical
119 trends in orders.
- 120 3. The antimicrobial order dataset was then used to compare orders associated with a COVID
121 positive status and orders associated with a non-COVID status as well as forest plots with odds
122 ratios (OR) were calculated. Notably, these ORs were not adjusted for any patient characteristics
123 as they were related to antimicrobial orders.
- 124 4. The unique patient dataset was also used to identify risk factors for mortality. ORs calculated
125 were adjusted for demographic and clinical characteristics, geographical and temporal details as
126 well as antimicrobial details.
- 127 5. The unique patient dataset was used to identify those receiving single and multiple
128 antimicrobial orders, and this dataset was then used to identify patient risk factors in receiving
129 orders for different antimicrobial classes (Access, Watch, Reserve, Non-recommended, Non-
130 bacterial and COVID-specific), specific CSAs (Azithromycin, HCQ, Oseltamivir, Ivermectin,
131 Favipiravir and Remdesivir) as well for multiple antimicrobial orders. ORs generated by this
132 analysis were adjusted for patient characteristics including a COVID diagnosis, gender, markers
133 of severity (APACHE-II score, ventilation requirement), geographical location during treatment
134 as well as time-period of treatment.

135

136 *Statistical analysis and outcomes*

137 Continuous and categorical data were presented as mean (SD) and a number (percentage)
138 respectively, and tested using Mann-Whitney U and chi-square tests respectively. Cochran-
139 Armitage test was employed while analyzing categorical variables. For all prediction models,
140 univariable and multivariable logistic regression models were used to explore associations of
141 patient baseline demographic and clinical characteristics with the outcome of interest. Due to a
142 host of several predictors and the study's exploratory nature, we did not attempt to pre-select
143 variables a priori for multivariable logistic regressions. Data were presented as odds ratios (OR)
144 and 95% confidence intervals (CI). Tests were 2-tailed, with $P < 0.05$ considered significant. All
145 tests were run using R version 4.1.2 (2021-11-01).

146

147 **RESULTS**

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149 *Demographic and clinical trends and outcomes*

150 There were 30,149 admissions during the study period of which 25,694 (85.2%) were non-
151 COVID; 3,169 (10.5%) tested COVID-positive and 1,286 (4.3%) were COVID suspects (**Figure**
152 **1B**). The first COVID wave accounted for 16.2% (4,919) of all admissions, while the intervening
153 period, second COVID wave and post-COVID period accounted for 13.9% (4,194), 28.5%
154 (8,570) and 41.3% (12,470) respectively. Most admissions occurred in the Eastern/Northeastern
155 zone (12,779;42.4%) followed by the Southern zone (9,810;32.5%). However, COVID-positive
156 and suspected patients were more common than non-COVID patients in the southern (65.4% and
157 70.2% vs. 26.6%, $p < 0.001$) and western zones (22.1% and 25.9% vs.14.8%, $p < 0.001$) reflecting
158 areas of high COVID burden. (**Table2**)

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164 Table 1: Distribution of COVID and non-COVID patients by Antimicrobial class, Geographical
165 locations and admission time-period

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Variables	Non-COVID [n (%)]	COVID- positive [n (%)]	COVID suspected [n (%)]	Overall [n (%)]	P value
Total patients	25698	3169	1286	30153	
Access antibiotic use	3959 (15)	161 (5)	69 (5)	4189 (14)	<0.001
Watch antibiotic use	14043 (55)	1982 (63)	1082 (84)	17107 (57)	<0.001
Reserve antibiotic use	1029 (4)	58 (2)	17 (1)	1104 (4)	<0.001
Non-Recommended antibiotic use	4854 (19)	173 (6)	64 (5)	5091 (17)	<0.001
Non-bacterial antimicrobial use	1313 (5)	1302 (41)	624 (49)	3239 (11)	<0.001
COVID-specific antimicrobial use	486 (2)	1241 (39)	606 (47)	2333 (8)	<0.001
North/Central zone	2509 (10)	211 (7)	14 (1)	2734 (9)	<0.001
Southern zone	6836 (27)	2072 (65)	903 (70)	9811 (33)	
East/Northeastern zone	12560 (49)	186 (6)	36 (3)	12782 (43)	
Western zone	3792 (15)	699 (22)	333 (26)	4824 (16)	
First COVID wave	3056 (12)	1206 (38)	657 (51)	4919 (16)	<0.001
Intervening period	3041 (12)	682 (22)	477 (37)	4194 (14)	
Second COVID wave	7283 (29)	1159 (37)	128 (10)	8570 (29)	
Post-COVID period	12318 (48)	122 (4)	30 (2)	12470 (41)	

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Overall, 16,283 (54.0%) were male, mean age was 53.6±17.5 years and median APACHE-II score was 8.0(IQR:4-13). Among the 7,855 (26.1%) ventilated patients, median ventilation duration was 25(IQR:11-66) hours, with 3,664 (12.2%) receiving invasive ventilation and 4,650 (15.4%) receiving non-invasive ventilation (NIV). The median length of hospital stay (LOHS) overall was 43(IQR:21-87) hours, and 3,164 (10.5%) patients died. COVID-positive patients were more often male, older and had a lower median APACHE-II score on admission. While NIV and High Flow Nasal Cannula (HFNC) usage rates were higher among COVID-positive and suspect patients, COVID-positive patients had lower invasive ventilation rates compared with non-COVID and COVID suspects. Median ventilation duration, HFNC, LOHS and adjusted mortality were higher in COVID-positive compared with COVID suspects and non-COVID patients (**Table2**).

200 Table 2: Clinical and Demographic characteristics of patients admitted to ICUs within this
 201 network

Variables	Non-COVID (n= 25698)	COVID-positive (n=3169)	COVID suspected (n=1286)	Overall (n=30153)	P value
Male	13456 (52)	1996 (63)	833 (65)	16285 (54)	<0.001
Female	9979 (39)	1017 (32)	435 (34)	11431 (38)	
Age (years) [Mean (\pm SD)]	53 (\pm 18)	54 (\pm 18)	55 (\pm 16)	54 (\pm 18)	<0.001
APACHE-II [Median (IQR)]	8 (5-14)	5 (2-9)	7 (4-10)	8 (4-13)	<0.001
LOHS (hours) [Median(IQR)]	39 (20-71)	131 (53-228)	60 (27-132)	43 (21-87)	<0.001
Ventilation duration (hours) [Median (IQR)] ^a	21 (10-51)	60 (22-132)	43 (15-92)	25 (11-66)	<0.001
Invasive ventilation duration (hours) [Median (IQR)] ^b	23 (12-59)	28 (10-67)	24 (7-55)	23 (12-60)	0.433
NIV duration (hours) [Median (IQR)] ^c	16 (7-35)	49 (18-102)	32 (12-78)	20 (8-46)	<0.001
HFNC duration (hours) [Median (IQR)] ^d	12 (2-50)	40 (14-105)	27 (11-70)	26 (7-80)	<0.001
Ventilated [n (%)]	6132 (24)	1153 (36)	571 (44)	7856 (26)	<0.001
HFNC [n (%)]	341 (1)	428 (14)	215 (17)	984 (3)	<0.001
Death	2128 (8)	659 (21)	377 (29)	3164 (11)	<0.001
Transfer out	3261 (13)	379 (12)	156 (12)	3796 (13)	
Discharge	20309 (79)	2131 (67)	753 (59)	23193 (77)	

202 *2437 (8.1%) did not have a coded gender, ^a7856 received ventilation, ^b3665 received invasive ventilation, ^c4650
 203 received NIV, ^d984 received HFNC
 204

205 *Antimicrobial order trends and analyses*

206 Subgroup analysis was performed on all patients with ≥ 1 antimicrobial orders in the ICU
 207 (22,920). The 46,795 antimicrobial orders during the study period were classified into ‘Access’
 208 (5,458;11.7%), ‘Watch’ (28,200;60.3%), ‘Reserve’ (1,845;3.9%) (AWaRe), ‘Non-
 209 Recommended’ (5,475;11.7%) and ‘Non-bacterial antimicrobial (NBA)’ (5,817;12.4%) groups.
 210 COVID-specific antimicrobial (CSA) orders (7,425;15.9%) included either of the following:
 211 Azithromycin, Hydroxychloroquine (HCQ), Ivermectin, Oseltamivir, Favipiravir, Remdesivir,
 212 Molnupiravir and Lopinavir/Ritonavir combination. The most prescribed antimicrobials

213 irrespective of diagnosis included Ceftriaxone (7,881;16.8%), Piperacillin-Tazobactam
214 (6,431;13.7%), Meropenem (3,379;7.2%), Azithromycin (3,264;7.0%) and Amoxicillin-
215 Clavulanic acid (3,019;6.5%).

216
217 Among all antimicrobial orders, 21.4% (10,018) were for COVID patients. Among them, 2.9%
218 (293) were Access, 59.0% (5,912) were Watch, 1.2% (116) were Reserve and 2.7% (273) were
219 Non-Recommended antimicrobials, and the most prescribed included Remdesivir
220 (16.6%;n=1663), Azithromycin (16.1%;n=1617), Ceftriaxone (15.8%;n=1583), Piperacillin-
221 Tazobactam (13.7%;n=1375) and Oseltamivir (7.7%;n=769) over the study duration. Comparing
222 antimicrobial orders between COVID and non-COVID status showed lower unadjusted ORs for
223 COVID status associated orders - Access (OR:0.23(0.10-0.54)), Watch (OR:0.33(0.18-0.61)),
224 Reserve (OR:0.23(0.14-0.37)) and Non-Recommended (OR:0.19(0.07-0.54)) antimicrobials.
225 (**Figure S1**)

226
227 *Temporal trends*

228 Overall and class-wise antimicrobial order frequency revealed a steady rise over the study
229 duration corresponding with increased ICU care demand. (**Table S3**)
230 Based on model selection, the Joinpoint Regression identified three significant joinpoints each
231 for the monthly mean percentage of Access and Watch group order trends and only one joinpoint
232 for Reserve group antimicrobials. (**Figure S2**). Watch group orders fell during the first wave and
233 intervening periods (March 2020-February 2021:MPC=-0.42; February 2021-May 2021:MPC=-
234 2.88), significantly increased during the second wave (May 2021-December 2021:MPC=2.01),
235 and then significantly reduced during the post-COVID period (December 2021-April 22:MPC=-
236 2.47). A similar trajectory was noted with the Access group- a fall during the first wave (March
237 2020-August 2020:MPC=-2.18) followed by a rise in orders during the intervening period
238 (August 2020-February 2021:MPC=1.47) and another fall during the post-COVID period
239 (October 2021-April 2022:MPC=-0.87). Only one joinpoint was observed in September 2020 for
240 the reserve group, with a steady, significant increase (MPC=0.28) until April 2022.

241
242 *Geographical trends*

243 Most antimicrobial orders were seen in the East/Northeast (16,598;35.5%) followed by the South
244 (15,965;34.1%). In terms of antimicrobial classes, the East/Northeastern regions had the highest
245 rates of Access (15.6% vs. 9.5%, $p<0.001$) and Watch group orders (65.9% vs. 57.2%, $p<0.001$)
246 compared with other regions. Reserve group (5.9% vs. 3.7%, $p<0.001$) and Non-Recommended
247 antimicrobials (17.8% vs. 10.9%, $p<0.001$) were most prescribed in North/Central regions
248 compared with other zones. NBA and CSA orders were most frequent in the South compared
249 with other regions (18.5% vs. 9.3%, $p<0.001$) and (27.5% vs. 9.9%, $p<0.001$) respectively.
250 **(Table S4).**

251 An Antimicrobial Order Index (**Table S1**) was calculated to determine regions with a high
252 burden of antimicrobial orders relative to patient-bed days. The highest aggregate index was
253 noted in the East/Northeastern zone (7549.7) followed by the South (6173.5). (**Figure 1A**)
254 Compared with non-COVID orders, COVID antimicrobial orders were less likely in the
255 East/Northeast (OR:0.16(0.09-0.27)) and North/Central (OR:0.31(0.19-0.52)) regions, whereas
256 the South and West showed no significant differences between the two groups. Overall, COVID
257 associated antimicrobial orders were less likely (OR:0.49(0.37-0.65)). (**Figure S3**).

258

259 *Risk factor analysis*

260 Mortality

261 Mortality odds were higher among patients with COVID (aOR:3.90(3.37-4.50)), an APACHE-
262 $II \geq 10$ (aOR:2.18(1.94-2.44)) and ventilation requirement (aOR:4.05(3.08-5.28) all $p<0.001$) but
263 decreased with LOHS>44 hours (aOR:0.36(0.32-0.40)), indicating an association with critical
264 illness. Compared with patients in East/Northeast India, the odds of mortality were higher in all
265 other regions. Compared with the first wave, odds of mortality were lower during the intervening
266 period (aOR:0.79(0.68-0.92), $p=0.003$) and the post-COVID period (aOR:0.78(0.67-0.91),
267 $p=0.001$) when COVID-positive rates were lower. The odds of mortality were lower with both
268 single antimicrobial orders (aOR:0.38(0.31-0.48)) and multiple orders (aOR:0.50(0.38-0.65),
269 both <0.001). However, the higher mortality odds with Watch group (aOR:2.00(1.64-2.44),
270 $p<0.001$), Reserve group (aOR:1.88(1.56-2.27), $p<0.001$) and NBAs (aOR:2.05(1.77-2.38),
271 $p<0.001$), and lower odds with the use of CSAs (aOR:0.57(0.49-0.67), $p<0.001$), Access group
272 (aOR:0.63(0.54-0.74), $p<0.001$) and non-recommended antimicrobials (aOR:0.85(0.72-0.99),

273 p=0.043) reiterate the association of higher mortality with critical illness requiring empiric
274 antibiotic coverage. (**Table S5**)

275

276 Patients receiving any antimicrobials

277 Males (aOR:0.87(0.82-0.93), p<0.001) and COVID patients (aOR:0.68(0.62-0.75), p<0.001) had
278 a lower likelihood of receiving any antimicrobials while those with APACHE-II \geq 10
279 (aOR:2.03(1.89-2.18), p<0.001), requiring ventilation (aOR:1.77(1.63-1.94), p<0.001), or
280 located in North/Central India (aOR:2.41(2.11-2.77), p<0.001) and West India (aOR:1.13(1.03-
281 1.24), p=0.012) were more likely to receive antimicrobials. Similarly, antimicrobials orders were
282 more likely during the intervening period (aOR:1.86(1.65-2.09), p<0.001) and less likely during
283 the post-COVID period (aOR:0.90(0.82-0.99), p=0.035). (**Table S6**)

284

285 Patients receiving specific antimicrobial classes and antimicrobials

286 Men had higher odds of receiving AWaRe and NBA orders. The higher odds of Watch group
287 orders in patients with COVID (in addition to CSA orders) and APACHE-II \geq 10 (along with
288 Reserve antimicrobials) reflect its empiric nature. Ventilated patients were associated with the
289 orders from the AWaRe classes as well as CSAs except for HCQ, presumably due to its low
290 safety profile. Compared with the East/Northeast zones, patients in the North/Central, South and
291 Western zones were all more likely to receive Remdesivir, Favipiravir and Oseltamivir.
292 Additionally, patients in the South were less likely to receive AWaRe antimicrobials and
293 Ivermectin, and more likely to receive Azithromycin and HCQ, indicating the influence of local
294 guidelines on antimicrobial order practices. All these risk factors were associated with multiple
295 antimicrobial orders. (**Figure 2**)

296 Compared with the first wave, Watch group and CSA orders (Azithromycin, HCQ and
297 oseltamivir) had lower odds for patients in all subsequent time-periods, while Ivermectin,
298 Favipiravir and Remdesivir had higher odds for patients in the intervening period and second
299 wave. The odds of receiving Ivermectin fell from the second wave to post-COVID period in
300 accordance with the release of more publications dissuading its use in COVID-19. (**Figure 2**)

301 **Supplementary tables S7-S19** contain the crude and adjusted ORs for the above risk factors.

302

303

304 **DISCUSSION:**

305 This multicentric ICU study of antimicrobial order trends in the context of the COVID-19
306 pandemic illustrates the importance of timely publication of treatment guidelines and strong
307 leadership to ensure adherence to it. While over half the study population received ≥ 1
308 antimicrobial, NBA orders were the only group that corresponded with both COVID waves
309 (**Figure 3**) while order trends of individual CSAs fluctuated in accordance with the release of
310 published data and/or local guidelines.

311
312 Watch group antimicrobials were consistently the most ordered class of antimicrobials
313 throughout, (**Figure 3**) accounting for over half of all antimicrobial orders and four of the five
314 most ordered antimicrobials, thus alluding to its position as the empiric antibiotic drug of choice
315 in ICUs, consistent with reports from low- and middle-income settings.³ Furthermore, its easy
316 availability and lower cost, together with the lack of rapid diagnostics particularly in low-
317 resource settings have contributed to its sustained growth in orders and sales compared with
318 Access group antimicrobials.^{1,2}

319
320 Azithromycin, a CSA, accounted for a significant proportion of Watch group orders, which were
321 significantly associated with COVID patients, particularly those with higher APACHE-II scores
322 and admissions during the first COVID wave (**Figure 2; Table S8**) indicating that Watch group
323 antimicrobials, notably Azithromycin and Cefotaxime, were employed as empiric agents in
324 COVID-19, especially in severely ill patients. This could be due to the early pandemic
325 misconception of the similar risk of bacterial co-infections and associated high mortality rates
326 between COVID-19 and influenza, leading many physicians and contemporary local treatment
327 guidelines^{10,11} to consider empiric bacterial coverage with watch group antimicrobials in severe
328 illness/septic shock as appropriate, although all state and national guidelines recommended the
329 judicious use of antimicrobials as needed.¹² Increased antibiotic use in ICUs for COVID-19
330 were reported by both developed and developing countries,^{4-6,13-17} with many ICUs reporting
331 Watch group antimicrobials as the most prescribed,^{4,5,13,16,17} including when not recommended
332 by institutional guidelines.¹⁵ Most of these studies found that antibiotic order rates were higher
333 than confirmed infection rates^{5,6,13,15,18} with one showing a 40% inappropriate order rate.¹⁸ Even
334 though COVID-19 bacterial co-infections were associated with increased mortality rates,^{6,19} so

335 was increased antibiotic use.^{6,13} Furthermore, indiscriminate antibiotic use substantially
336 increased the risk of emergence of Multi-Drug Resistant (MDR) bacterial strains as evidenced by
337 the higher prevalence of MDR strains in COVID patients and its associated higher mortality
338 compared with pre-pandemic periods.^{14,19}

339
340 Another explanation for empiric antibiotic use was the syndromic approach to critically ill
341 COVID-19 patients adopted by many physicians particularly during the early pandemic and low-
342 resource settings where there was limited availability of testing kits and delayed testing turn-
343 around times. While AMS programs to ensure timely and appropriate empiric antimicrobial use
344 would reduce the likelihood of indiscriminate antimicrobial use, the pandemic posed unique
345 challenges to AMS including barriers to diagnosing bacterial/fungal superinfections among other
346 resource-constrained related issues.²⁰ Yet, with suitable considerations, successful AMS
347 programs can be set up.²¹

348
349 As more aggregate data demonstrating the low risk of bacterial co-infections surfaced, removing
350 all justification for empiric antibiotic use in COVID-19,^{22,23} a corresponding decline in Watch
351 group orders, particularly between waves, was noted in our trend analysis. Although Reserve
352 group antibiotic orders remained relatively low, the sustained rise in orders over time (**Figure**
353 **S2**) along with a fall in COVID cases (**Figure 3**) suggest the utility of this tele-ICU system in
354 fulfilling a need for non-COVID critical care.

355
356 Multiple antimicrobials were ordered for half of all admissions with higher odds for patients with
357 COVID and invasive ventilation requirement. They were common for CSAs, with the
358 composition changing over time and region, reflecting the emergence of evidence and/or local
359 guidelines recommending/discouraging the use of different antimicrobials in the treatment of
360 COVID-19.

361
362 Azithromycin, HCQ and Oseltamivir orders among COVID patients spiked during the first wave
363 - presumably a result of published data demonstrating the anti-SARS-CoV-19 effect of AZT and
364 HCQ in vitro^{24,25} and all three drugs clinically,^{26,27} - and then demonstrated a fall in orders
365 correlating with the advent of data demonstrating a low safety profile and lack of clinical benefit

366 in COVID-19 (**Figure 4**).^{28–32} This also explains the higher likelihood of COVID-associated
367 orders for these three antimicrobials during the first wave compared with the second wave.
368 (**Figure S4**) Support for the use of azithromycin and HCQ in local southern guidelines^{33,34} also
369 explains its higher odds of being ordered in the South compared with other regions. (**Figure**
370 **2;Table S13-15**)

371
372 While the proportion of Ivermectin orders remained low, its use in COVID-19 gained popularity
373 during the intervening period and second wave with the release of supportive data and local
374 guidelines^{11,35–38}. Its subsequent decline in the post-wave period coincides with the emergence
375 of more data highlighting its incompetence in COVID-19 (**Figures 2,4;Table S16**).^{39,40}
376 Favipiravir orders exhibited little geographical and temporal variation throughout the study
377 period. The mild fluctuation exhibited coincides with the publication of supportive^{41,42}
378 and unsupportive data⁴³ respectively (**Figure 4**). The relatively low proportion of Favipiravir
379 orders sustained throughout may be due to its high cost and/or limited availability that resulted
380 from a combination of pandemic-related manufacturing and supply chain disruptions and
381 pharmaceutical hoarding.

382
383 Remdesivir demonstrated a unique biphasic pattern, with its initial spike appearing after the
384 publication of data indicating a shorter recovery period in COVID-19.^{44,45} While its use
385 temporarily dipped after the SOLIDARITY trial demonstrated no significant benefit in COVID-
386 19,²⁹ Remdesivir use in ICUs continued to rise and peaked during the second wave and post-
387 COVID periods. (**Figure 4, S4**) This variation may be attributed to the influence of local
388 guidelines in determining institutional treatment protocols as Remdesivir was consistently
389 mentioned as a limited therapeutic option for severely ill patients in multiple national and local
390 guidelines.^{11,37,46,47} While trials advocating the use of Dexamethasone appeared early on during
391 the pandemic,^{48,49} it did not seem to influence the overall frequency of antimicrobial orders,
392 empiric or COVID-19 specific. Vaccine deployment also likely had a prominent impact in
393 reducing NBA use between waves, but further analysis was not possible due to lack of high-
394 resolution data of vaccine coverage and issues with statistical power analysis. (**Figure 3**)

395

396 Overall, antimicrobial trends in these ICUs across India were influenced by literature (*Figures*
397 *4,S5-7*), local guidelines and largely uniformly implemented treatment policies, all of which
398 were possible due to the centralized structure of this tele-ICU network. Since the bedside
399 physician is the final decision-maker in this network's modus operandi, some regional variations
400 are to be expected. Yet, overall, these results indicate that even in the absence of adequate
401 diagnostic resources, access to good-quality literature, strong leadership and an effective
402 implementation system are sufficient for judicious antimicrobial use during a pandemic.

403
404 The most prominent limitation of this study is the absence of microbiological data and
405 confirmation of non-COVID infections which makes the determination of the appropriateness of
406 antimicrobial orders, the distinction between empiric orders and targeted antibiotic therapy as
407 well as the determination of early discontinuation of antimicrobials in the confirmed absence of
408 bacterial infections/positive COVID-19 results, impossible. Secondly, a comprehensive list of
409 comorbidities for patients and use of additional therapies such as steroids/other
410 immunomodulatory therapies are also lacking. Thus, establishing the effect of antibiotic use on
411 adverse outcomes (for example, mortality) was not possible. However, our large cohort from
412 multiple varied centres across India not only provide insight into the antimicrobial order
413 practices during the COVID-19 pandemic in the absence of adequate diagnostic resources, but
414 also highlights the role of scientific literature as well as a strong system for implementation of
415 guidelines that determine these practices.

416

417 **CONCLUSION**

418

419 Antimicrobials were used extensively in ICUs for COVID-19 infections during the pandemic,
420 with order trends reflecting local guidelines and changing data on effectiveness of drugs in
421 COVID-19. In the absence of rapid diagnostics, a syndromic approach to treating severe illness
422 can contribute to AMR emergence. Investment in rapid diagnostics and strict AMS is warranted
423 to ensure low mortality and to reduce the risk of AMR.

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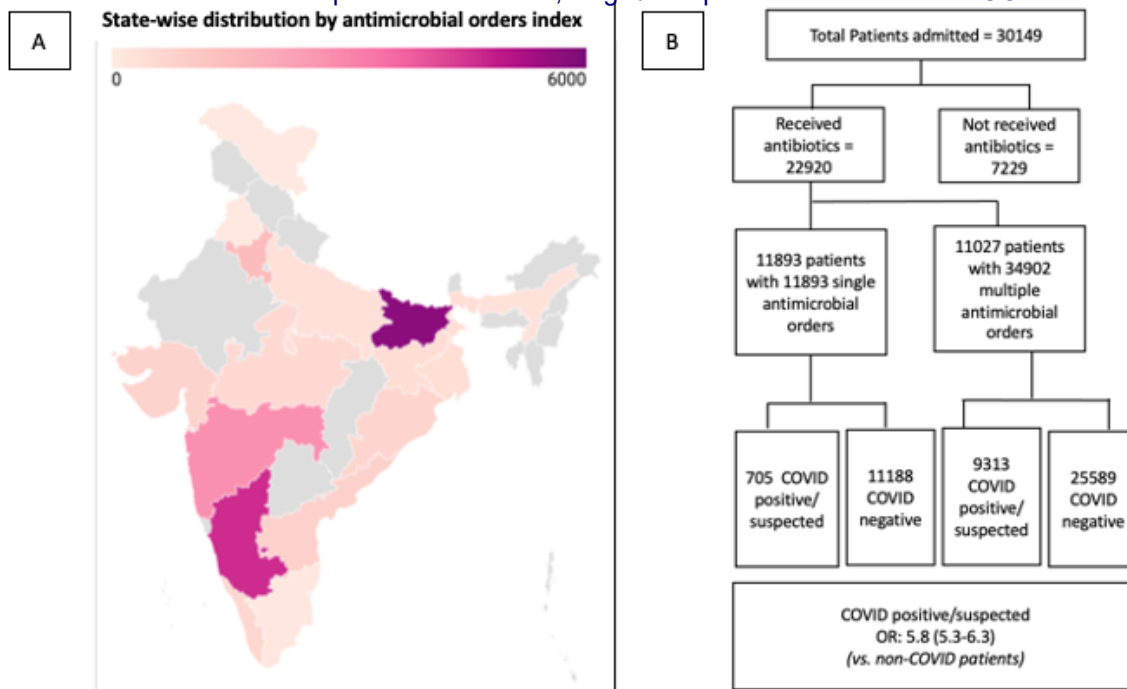
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592 **Figure Legends**

593 **Figure 1:** Fig 1A : State-wise representation of total antimicrobial orders ; 1B : Distribution of total admissions based on receipt of antimicrobials, single/multiple antibiotic order and COVID status



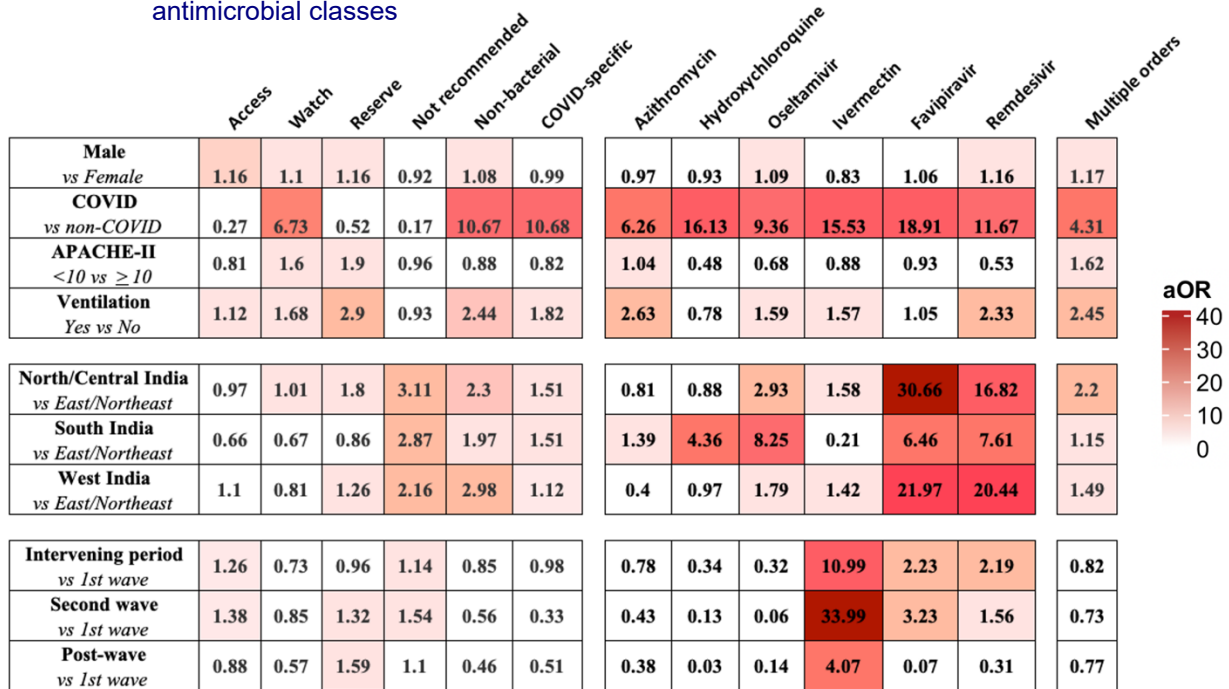
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Panel A – State-wise representation of total antimicrobial orders relative to total patient-days in the ICUs (Antimicrobial Order Index). The highest aggregate index was noted in the East/Northeastern zone (7549.7), followed by the South (6173.5), the West (3491.2) and then the North/Central zone (2590.9). The 3 states with the highest burden were Bihar (5709.7), followed by Karnataka (4611.9) and Maharashtra (2741.9).

Panel B – Distribution of total admissions based on receipt of antimicrobials, single/multiple antibiotic order and COVID status. COVID positive patients were more likely to receive multiple antimicrobial orders than non-COVID patients.

Figure 2: Heatmap of all patient risk factors and their adjusted odd ratios for receiving orders of different antimicrobial classes

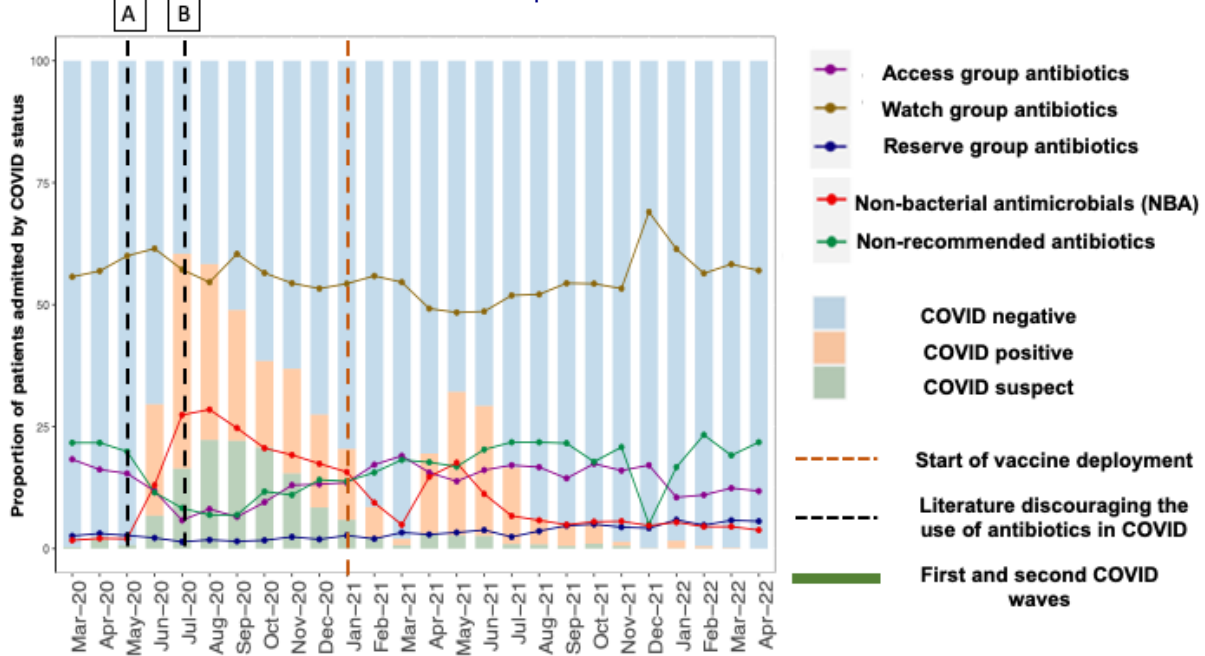


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Heatmap of all patient risk factors and their adjusted odd ratios for receiving orders of different antimicrobial classes (AWaRe, NBAs, CSAs), individual CSAs (Azithromycin, HCQ, Oseltamivir, Ivermectin, Favipiravir and Remdesivir) as well as multiple antimicrobial orders. Risk factors were demographic (Male, COVID positive diagnosis), indicators of severity (APACHE-II ≥ 10 , ventilation requirement), Geographical location (North/Central, South or West zones) or time-period (Intervening period, second COVID wave and post-COVID period). Adjusted ORs are mentioned for each risk factor and outcome.

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615 **Figure 3:** Distribution of total admissions by COVID status as well as receipt of antimicrobial class during admission between March 2020 – April 2022.

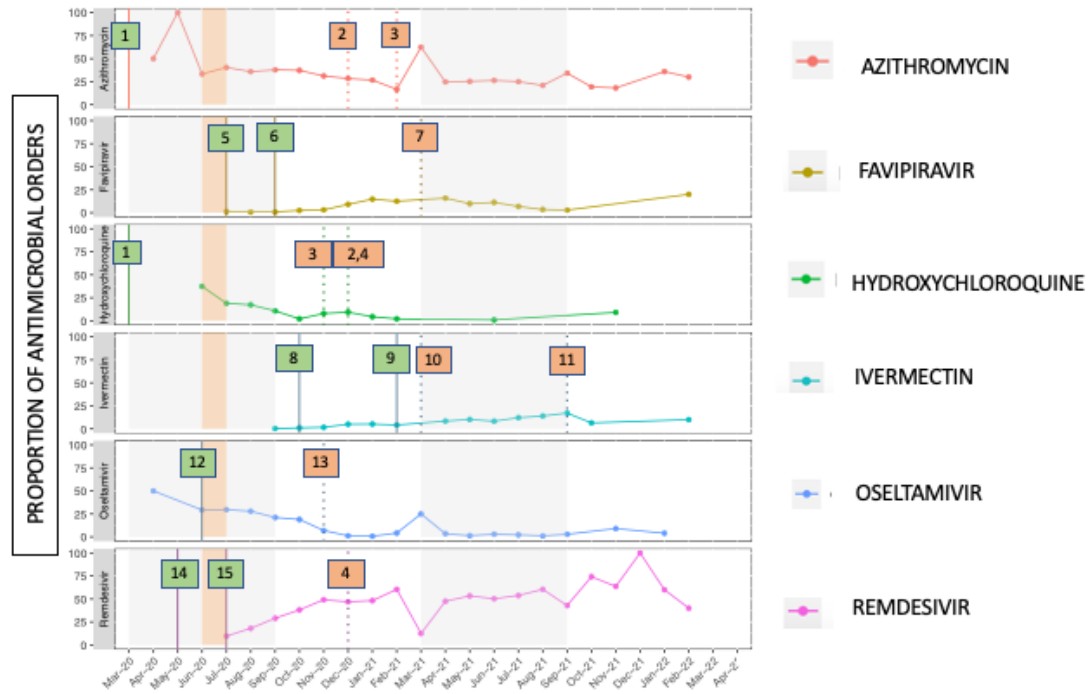


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617 Distribution of total admissions by COVID status as well as receipt of antimicrobial class during
 618 admission between March 2020 – April 2022. Publishing of literature discouraging the use of
 619 antimicrobials in COVID-19 (A- Rawson et al; B- Langford et al) appears to have little effect on
 620 the AWaRe antibiotic order trends.

621

622 **Figure 4:** Temporal trends of individual COVID-specific antimicrobial orders associated with COVID status



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624

625 Temporal trends of individual COVID-specific antimicrobial orders associated with COVID
 626 status over the study period in light of literature supporting its use (solid line) or dissuading its
 627 use (dotted line) in COVID-19. References: (1) Gautret et al; (2) Ghazy et al; (3) RECOVERY
 628 trial; (4) SOLIDARITY trial; (5) Nasir et al; (6) Shrestha et al; (7) Ozlusen et al; (8) Rajter et al;
 629 (9) Chowdhury et al; (10) Lopez-medina et al; (11) Lawrence et al; (12) Coenen et al; (13) Tan et
 630 al; (14) Beigel et al; (15) Davies et al.

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