

1 **Patterns of inpatient antibiotic use among public hospitals in Hong Kong from 2000 to**
2 **2015**

3

4 Celine S. L. Chui^{1,2,3,4}, Benjamin J. Cowling¹, Wey Wen Lim¹, Christopher K. M. Hui⁵,
5 Esther W. Chan², Ian C. K. Wong^{2,6}, Peng Wu¹

6

7 1 WHO Collaborating Centre for Infectious Disease Epidemiology and Control, School of
8 Public Health, Li Ka Shing Faculty of Medicine, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong
9 Special Administrative Region, China

10 2 Centre for Safe Medication Practice and Research, Department of Pharmacology and
11 Pharmacy, Li Ka Shing Faculty of Medicine, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong
12 SAR, China

13 3 Department of Paediatrics and Adolescent Medicine, Li Ka Shing Faculty of Medicine, The
14 University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, China

15 4 Department of Social Work and Social Administration, Faculty of Social Sciences, The
16 University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, China

17 5 Department of Medicine, Li Ka Shing Faculty of Medicine, The University of Hong Kong,
18 Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, China

19 6 Research Department of Practice and Policy, UCL School of Pharmacy, London, United
20 Kingdom

21

22 **Corresponding Author:**

23 Prof Benjamin J. Cowling, WHO Collaborating Centre for Infectious Disease Epidemiology
24 and Control, School of Public Health, Li Ka Shing Faculty of Medicine, The University of

25 Hong Kong, 1/F Patrick Manson Building (North Wing), 7 Sassoon Road, Hong Kong

26 Special Administrative Region, China

27 Telephone: +852 3917 6711

28 Email: bcowling@hku.hk

29 ORCID iD: 0000-0002-6297-7154

30

31 Running head: Inpatient antibiotic use in Hong Kong

32 Word count: 3,473

33 Abstract word count: 276

34

35 **Abstract**

36 **Background:** Studies have demonstrated that higher rates of antibiotic resistance are found
37 in countries with higher antibiotic consumption. The global increase in antibiotic
38 consumption is a major public health concern.

39 **Objectives:** To describe the antibiotic dispensing patterns in public hospitals in Hong Kong
40 from 2000-2015.

41 **Methods:** We acquired data on all hospital admissions with any antibiotics dispensed from
42 2000-2015 from the Hong Kong public hospitals. The annual proportion of hospital
43 admissions with antibiotic dispensed was estimated and stratified by age group. An
44 interrupted time series analysis was conducted to examine any potential change in
45 tetracycline dispensing after the release of the new clinical practice guideline.

46 **Results:** A total of 35,535,506 antibiotic prescriptions were dispensed among 2,161,360
47 unique hospitalized patients from 2000 to 2015. Antibiotics were dispensed in 29.2% of all
48 hospital admissions in the public hospitals, the annual proportions of hospital admissions
49 with antibiotics dispensed increased over the study period from 27.87% in 2000 to 31.39% in
50 2015, ranging from 27.17 to 31.39%. However, a significant increase was only observed in
51 age groups of 5-19, 20-44 and 85 years or above when stratifying by age. In the interrupted
52 time series analysis, a change in trend was detected for tetracycline dispensing which
53 coincided with the time of publication of the new clinical practice guideline.

54 **Conclusions:** We found that the overall volume of antibiotic use increased between 2000 and
55 2015. The rise in dispensing of carbapenems in our study is concerning. The significant
56 change in tetracycline use after being recommended as one of the preferred regimens
57 demonstrated that the change in clinical practice guideline had an immediate effect on the
58 antibiotic prescribing practice in Hong Kong public hospitals.

59

60

61 **Key Points**

- 62 - The overall volume of antibiotics consumed in Hong Kong increased in the 16 years
- 63 between 2000 and 2015.
- 64 - At least one antibiotic was dispensed in 29.2% of all hospital admissions.
- 65 - Local clinical practice guidelines appeared to influence the actual prescribing practice.
- 66

67 **1. Introduction**

68 Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is a pressing global health concern [1, 2]. Some common
69 infections such as sinusitis, pneumonia, and acute otitis media are becoming more difficult to
70 treat because of AMR [3]. In 2017, the World Health Organization (WHO) published a list of
71 drug-resistant bacteria ranked according to the potential threat posed to human health [4]. The
72 list included bacterial families that are resistant to the last-resort antibiotic classes such as
73 carbapenems. Overuse of antibiotics is thought to be one of the major drivers of AMR [5].
74 Another study also showed that carriage of resistant bacteria is associated with the usage of
75 antibiotics [6]. In addition, higher rates of antibiotic resistance is found in countries with
76 higher antibiotic consumption [7]. Therefore, the use of antibiotics and AMR are closely
77 related.

78

79 In the past decade, antibiotic consumption has increased by 65% globally, with a particularly
80 concerning increase in the use of last-resort antibiotic drug classes including carbapenems
81 and polymyxins [8, 9]. In 2013, WHO organized the first meeting to work on the strategic
82 plan and priority activities to tackle AMR; the subsequent endorsement of Global Action Plan
83 on Antimicrobial Resistance was proposed in May 2015 [1]. Since then there has not been
84 much longitudinal data on antibiotic use. There is an urgent need to examine antibiotic
85 prescribing patterns after the adoption of this global action plan. According to the statistics

86 from the Department of Health of Hong Kong, the number of community-associated
87 methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (CA-MRSA) cases notified to the Centre for
88 Health Protection CHP of the Department of Health has increased five-fold from 2008 to
89 2016. When compared to other countries, the proportions of resistant bacterial isolates were
90 at a high level in Hong Kong in both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, as indicated
91 in the data on *S. aureus* resistant to methicillin and *Escherichia coli* resistant to third-
92 generation cephalosporins and fluoroquinolones from the Hong Kong Hospital Authority
93 [10]. In light of the emergence of resistant pathogens, the CHP, HA, and experts from local
94 universities published the Inter-hospital Multi-disciplinary Programme on Antimicrobial
95 ChemoTherapy (IMPACT) guideline [11] which is a collection of evidence-based
96 recommendations for clinical antibiotic prescribing in combating AMR in the clinical setting.
97 The IMPACT was first released in 1999; the 5th edition published in 2017 being the latest.
98 Throughout the years, new editions of IMPACT were published with changes in
99 recommendation on prescribing practices based on new evidence. The effect of such changes
100 on the actual prescribing practice should also be examined. This study aims to describe the
101 antibiotic dispensing patterns in public hospitals in Hong Kong from 2000 to 2015 and the
102 characteristics of antibiotic users.

103

104 **2. Methods**

105 2.1 Sources of Data

106 We acquired data on all hospital admissions with any antibiotics dispensed from 2000 to
107 2015 from the Hospital Authority in Hong Kong. The Hospital Authority is a statutory body
108 which manages the public healthcare sector in Hong Kong. Its services are available to all
109 Hong Kong citizens (approximately 7.5 million population) at minimal out-of-pocket cost.
110 More than 80% of hospital admissions in Hong Kong are captured in the public sector [12].

111 Therefore, the source population of this dataset included individuals who had access to public
112 healthcare services in Hong Kong. All prescriptions are dispensed through a centralized
113 management system in the public hospitals managed by the Hospital Authority. The data used
114 in this study were retrieved from this management system.

115

116 All dispensed antibiotics were recorded with details such as unique patient identification
117 number, hospital admission year and month, antibiotic prescription year and month,
118 prescription order (if multiple antibiotics were prescribed), prescribed antibiotic name,
119 frequency and duration in days. Information was also available on the primary discharge
120 diagnosis and up to additional 14 diagnoses of each hospital admission. All diagnoses were
121 coded according to The International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision, Clinical
122 Modification (ICD-9-CM) and were available up to 3 digits. Medication classes were
123 recorded following the British National Formulary Classification [13]. Similar data collected
124 from the Hospital Authority were previously used in epidemiological studies and found to
125 have a high positive predicated value in various diagnoses [14, 15] which demonstrated the
126 validity of the data for conducting the current study.

127

128 We also acquired the aggregated weekly hospital admission data stratified by age from the
129 Hospital Authority. In the case where a week spanned over two months, the number of
130 hospital admissions in each month was counted proportionately based on the number of days
131 in each corresponding month. Age groups were defined as 0-4, 5-19, 20-44, 45-64, 65-84,
132 and 85 years or above.

133

134 2.2 Data analysis

135 *2.2.1 Patterns in antibiotic use*

136 Antibiotic use was defined as having at least one dispensing record of antibiotics within a
137 hospital admission. We divided the number of admissions with antibiotics dispensed by the
138 overall number of hospital admissions in each year to calculate the annual proportion of
139 hospital admissions with antibiotic dispensed. We also calculated the annual proportion
140 stratified by age group. The switch of route of administration was also examined.

141

142 We examined the number of drug classes dispensed in each hospital admission by
143 categorizing antibiotics into the following classes: narrow-spectrum penicillins, broad-
144 spectrum penicillins, β -lactamase inhibitor combinations, 1st and 2nd generation
145 cephalosporins, 3rd and 4th generation cephalosporins, 5th generation cephalosporins,
146 carbapenems, tetracyclines, aminoglycosides, macrolides, lincosamides, polymixins,
147 sulfonamides, metronidazole and tinidazole, quinolones, and other antibiotics. The
148 classification used in this study was based on the previous literature [8, 16] on the prescribing
149 trends in other countries for an easy comparison and the special interest in the resistance
150 against last-resort antibiotics [17] such as carbapenems and polymixins. We calculated the
151 proportion of hospital admissions with different numbers of drug classes prescribed among
152 all admissions with any antibiotic dispensed. The frequency of first prescriptions of the
153 aforementioned antibiotics by drug class within each hospital admission was also examined
154 because frequent use of first-line antibiotics may indicate a good adherence to the
155 prescription guidelines.

156

157 The proportion of dispensed antibiotics listed in the reserve group of the WHO Model List of
158 Essential Medicines [18] were also estimated by dividing the annual number of hospital
159 admissions with reserve antibiotics dispensed by the total number of hospital admissions of

160 the corresponding year. The list of antibiotics that were in the reserve group and were ever
161 available in the Hospital Authority within the study period includes: aztreonam, cefepime,
162 ceftaroline, daptomycin, fosfomycin, linezolid, polymyxins (including colistin and polymyxin
163 B), and tigecycline.

164

165 The IMPACT 4th edition was published in November 2012 [19] which included the
166 suggestion to replace macrolides with tetracycline as one of the preferred regimens for
167 hospitalized community-acquired pneumonia (CAP) due to the emergence of macrolide-
168 resistant *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* while the preferred regimens was co-amoxiclav with a
169 macrolide in the 3rd edition of the IMPACT in 2005. An interrupted time series analysis was
170 therefore conducted with the data from 2000 through 2015 to examine the potential change in
171 tetracycline and macrolide dispensing among public hospitals before and after the release of
172 the 4th edition of the guideline. The monthly proportion of hospital admissions with
173 tetracycline dispensed was used to measure the tetracycline use in the inpatients. A
174 segmented linear regression was conducted using the R-package “segmented”. The
175 breakpoint was automatically estimated in the model rather than being pre-specified. If a
176 significant change in dispensing trend was identified shortly after the publication of the
177 updated IMPACT guideline (4th edition), it might indicate that changes in the guideline did
178 have an impact on the prescribing practices in the public hospitals.

179

180 2.2.2 Diagnoses associated with antibiotic use

181 We measured the duration of antibiotic use by estimating the days of therapy (DOT) per
182 hospital bed-day [20] for admissions related to bacterial infection based on the primary
183 discharge diagnosis coded by ICD-9-CM. Primary diagnosis was considered to ensure the
184 antibiotic prescription was dispensed for treatment of the primary infections rather than for

185 treatment of secondary infections or prophylaxis. These diagnoses were categorized into
186 following infection groups based on the previous literature [21]: i) Pneumonia (ICD-9: 481-
187 486); ii) skin and subcutaneous infections (ICD-9: 680-686); and iii) septicemia (ICD-9:
188 038). Although the WHO recommends the defined daily dose (DDD) as the unit for drug
189 utilization studies [22], it only reflects drug use for defined major indications among adults.
190 Therefore, the DOT was used in this study instead to examine the drug utilization among
191 patients of different age groups. To estimate the annual DOT per hospital bed-day, we
192 summed the prescription duration in days of all antibiotic prescriptions for admissions with
193 the above selected bacterial infections as the primary discharge diagnosis and divided by the
194 sum of hospital bed-days of these admissions. To ensure the validity and reliability of the
195 data on prescription duration, only antibiotics dispensed on or after year 2004 were included
196 in this part of the analysis. Dispensing records with a missing prescription duration in days
197 were excluded from this analysis.

198

199 All analyses were conducted using R 3.1.2 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna,
200 Austria) and SAS 9.4 (SAS Inc, Cary, NC).

201

202 **3. Results**

203 A total of 35,535,506 antibiotic prescriptions were dispensed among 2,161,360 unique
204 hospitalized patients in 6,091,580 hospital admissions from 2000 to 2015. Antibiotics were
205 dispensed in 29.2% of all hospital admissions in the public hospitals, the annual proportions
206 of hospital admissions with antibiotics dispensed increased over the study period from
207 27.87% in 2000 to 31.39% in 2015, ranging from 27.17 to 31.39%. The number of antibiotics
208 dispensed among the inpatients during admissions into Hong Kong public hospitals from
209 2000 through 2015 were listed in Appendix 1. The most commonly dispensed antibiotics

210 were amoxicillin-clavulanate (co-amoxiclav), cefuroxime, metronidazole, piperacillin-
211 tazobactam, levofloxacin, cloxacillin, ampicillin, cefoperazone, ceftriaxone, and
212 ciprofloxacin. These 10 antibiotics accounted for 68% of all antibiotics dispensed to the
213 inpatients admitted during the study period. A total of 15% of admissions had antibiotic
214 prescriptions with a switched route of administration from oral to parenteral whilst around
215 29% switched from parenteral to oral within one admission. When comparing the first and
216 last antibiotic prescriptions within the same hospital admission, 20.3% switched from
217 parenteral to oral whilst 57.3% remained the same route (38.7% for oral and 18.6% for
218 parenteral). The most common primary discharge diagnoses were listed in Table 1 for all
219 hospital admissions with antibiotic dispensed. Pneumonia was the most common diagnosis
220 with antibiotic dispensed, followed by chronic airway obstruction. General symptoms, the
221 fifth most common diagnosis associated with antibiotic dispensing did not provide adequate
222 details of the hospital admission. Therefore, we examined the second-listed diagnosis among
223 hospitalizations with general symptoms as primary discharge diagnosis (Appendix 2).

224

225 Overall, at least one antibiotic was dispensed in 29.2% of the hospital admissions (in total
226 20,853,366 hospital admissions from 2000 to 2015), and the annual proportions of hospital
227 admissions with antibiotic dispensed increased over the study period. When stratified by age,
228 statistically significant increased trends were observed among the age groups of 5-19, 20-44
229 and 85 years or above ($p < 0.05$) (Figure 1). Among all age groups, patients aged 85 years or
230 above were most likely to have antibiotic treatment when hospitalized, with antibiotic
231 treatment dispensed in more than half of such admissions (Figure 1).

232

233 Among all the hospital admissions with antibiotic(s) dispensed, more than 50% had only one
234 antibiotic drug class dispensed throughout the admission (Appendix 3) which was equivalent

235 to 18% of all the hospital admissions. Among the hospital admissions with one antibiotic
236 drug class only, 58% were dispensed with β -lactamase inhibitors combinations. The most
237 commonly dispensed antibiotics as the first prescription were from the drug class of β -
238 lactamase inhibitor combinations (Figure 2). Over the study period, apart from broad-
239 spectrum penicillins (including ampicillins and amoxicillin), all the drug classes were
240 increasingly dispensed as the first antibiotic in the hospital admissions. Meanwhile, a rapid
241 elevation in the dispensing volume was observed in β -lactamase inhibitor combinations.

242

243 Over the 16-year period, a total of 49,735 hospital admissions (0.24% of overall hospital
244 admissions; 0.82% of all hospital admissions with antibiotic dispensed) had at least one
245 record of dispensed antibiotic in the reserve group. The frequency of annual prescriptions of
246 reserve antibiotics had been increasing over time in general, except for cefepime which
247 however was the most frequently dispensed reserve antibiotic (Figure 3). The most common
248 primary discharge diagnosis associated with prescription of cefepime was pneumonia
249 (16.46%). Only one dispensing record of polymyxin B was identified, which was included in
250 the polymyxins group together with colistin in Figure 3.

251

252 In the interrupted time series analysis on the monthly proportions of hospital admissions (per
253 1,000 admissions) with tetracycline dispensed (Figure 4a), the change in trend was detected
254 in November 2012 (turning point), which coincided with the publication month of the
255 IMPACT 4th edition. The slopes of the fitted linear trends before and after the turning point
256 were -0.003 and 0.127, respectively, which were significantly different from each other

257 (p=0.044). A similar analysis was conducted for macrolides where no similar change in the
258 trend was observed at the same time period (Figure 4b).

259

260 From 2004 to 2015, the total hospital admissions with the three pre-defined bacterial
261 infections as the primary discharge diagnosis accounted for 15.1% of all admissions having
262 antibiotic dispensed. Admissions with diagnoses of pneumonia and septicemia have twice the
263 DOT as compared with admissions with a diagnosis of skin and subcutaneous infections.
264 Meanwhile, the antibiotic utilization patterns were similar between these two kinds of
265 admissions. (Figure 5). Admissions with the primary diagnosis of skin and subcutaneous
266 infections had the shortest average number of bed-days per admission among the three
267 bacterial infections (Table 2). Co-amoxiclav was the most commonly dispensed antibiotic for
268 admissions associated with pneumonia and septicemia while the inpatients with skin and soft
269 tissue infections most often received cloxacillin for treatment (Table 2).

270

271 **4. Discussion**

272 We described the overall antibiotic use in Hong Kong public hospitals with more than 35
273 million records of antibiotic dispensing from 2000 to 2015. We found that the overall volume
274 of antibiotic use had increased over the 16 years. When stratified by age, there were no major
275 increases in the proportions of admissions with antibiotics dispensed in all age groups. The
276 increase in the dispensed β -lactamase inhibitor combinations may account for the overall
277 increase in antibiotic use in all admissions given that majority of the prescriptions were co-
278 amoxiclav. The average overall proportion of hospital admissions with at least one antibiotic
279 prescription (29.2%) estimated in our study was slightly lower than that (34.4%) from the
280 recently published Global Point Prevalence Survey study (Global-PPS) based on the data

281 collected from 53 countries in 2015 [23], while penicillins in combination with β -lactamase
282 inhibitors were the most commonly dispensed antibiotic drug class in both studies.

283

284 The primary discharge diagnoses associated with hospitalization with antibiotic dispensed
285 were mostly infections such as pneumonia, other disorders of the urethra and urinary tract
286 (inclusive of urinary tract infection) and cellulitis. Chronic airway obstruction was the second
287 most common diagnosis among all hospitalizations with antibiotics dispensed. As infection is
288 a known common co-morbidity of chronic airway obstruction, the antibiotics that were
289 dispensed in these episodes might be for the treatment of such co-morbidity [24, 25]. The
290 most common secondary diagnoses of hospitalization with “general symptoms” as primary
291 discharge diagnosis included essential hypertension, diabetes mellitus and some other non-
292 specific conditions (Appendix 2).

293

294 We observed an increasing proportion of admissions with only one drug class of antibiotics
295 dispensed over the study period. This might indicate a decreasing treatment failure rate, or
296 antibiotics being used for prophylaxis. Factors contributing to treatment failure include
297 bacterial resistance, appropriateness of empirical therapy and patients’ adherence to antibiotic
298 therapy, etc [3]. However, we would not be able to determine the occurrence of antibiotic
299 treatment failure and underlying factors associated with the treatment failure (if any) while
300 the observed reduction in the number of drug classes dispensed over time might indicate an
301 improvement in management of hospitalized patients.

302

303 Previous studies suggested that use of antibiotics was one of the factors associated with
304 carriage of antibiotic resistant bacteria [26-28], and overuse of antibiotics might drive the
305 observed increase in AMR [5]. In addition, bacterial load in MRSA carriers was indicated to

306 be related to the use of fluoroquinolones and β -lactam therapy [29]. Therefore, the rise in
307 dispensing of β -lactams including carbapenems in our study was concerning especially when
308 carbapenems, as one of the last-resort antibiotics, had been increasingly dispensed as the first
309 antibiotic dispensed over the study period. The decrease in use of broad-spectrum penicillins
310 as first-line antibiotics was probably due to the preference for β -lactamase inhibitor
311 combinations, such as co-amoxiclav, with a broader spectrum against gram-negative bacteria.
312 This might also indicate an increasing prevalence of AMR in the hospital setting or a
313 conservative prescribing behavior in choosing broad-spectrum antibiotics. A previous study
314 showed that inappropriate empirical antibiotic treatment was an independent risk factor for
315 30-day mortality in patients with *Klebsiella pneumoniae* bacteremia [30]. Given the rapidly
316 increasing use of β -lactamase inhibitor combination drugs such as co-amoxiclav as a first-line
317 drug, further investigation on appropriate use of antibiotics may be needed to prevent the
318 development of resistance and improve the outcome of clinical treatment. It is also worth
319 noting that in addition to clinical use of antibiotics in humans, multiple factors might have
320 been driving the development of AMR including antibiotics used in agriculture and
321 veterinary medicine [31, 32]. Stakeholders should work together within the one-health
322 framework to effectively combat AMR.

323

324 Our study showed that the use of the WHO reserve antibiotics in Hong Kong generally
325 increased from 2000 to 2015 except for cefepime with a decline in prescription after 2006,
326 coinciding with the publication of the consensus statement of the antimicrobial stewardship
327 program in Hong Kong [33]. Linezolid, indicated to treat MRSA infections, was the second
328 most commonly dispensed WHO reserve antibiotic in this study. The increasing dispensing
329 of linezolid was largely consistent with the change in the prevalence of MRSA in Hong Kong
330 from 2.8% to 21.6% between 2005 and 2011 [34, 35]. Although the observed associations [6,

331 7, 36] might not necessarily indicate a causal relationship between antibiotic exposure and
332 development of resistance, the use of the WHO reserve antibiotics should be continuously
333 monitored.

334

335 With this large dataset, we were able to identify an effect of the change in clinical practice
336 guideline on the actual dispensing patterns in hospitals. In the interrupted time series analysis,
337 tetracycline use increased significantly after being added as one of the preferred regimens of
338 the fourth IMPACT guideline published in 2012, whilst during the same time no change was
339 observed in macrolide prescriptions which presumably should not be affected by the
340 guideline update. Tetracycline remained the preferred regimens for hospitalized CAP in the
341 latest edition of the IMPACT guideline [11]. Our analysis demonstrated that the change in
342 clinical practice guideline had an immediate effect on the antibiotic prescribing practice.
343 Should there be any need to change the prescribing practice in the future, changing the
344 clinical practice guideline in public hospitals can be considered as one of the channels for
345 better implementation.

346

347 The estimated DOT indicated that on average there was more than one antibiotic prescription
348 per hospital-day for admissions due to pneumonia, skin and subcutaneous infections and
349 septicemia, which appeared to be in line with the recommendation of having combined
350 antibiotic treatments [11, 19]. Admissions related to skin and subcutaneous infections had the
351 highest DOT because of the shortest hospital-day but the highest number of antibiotics
352 dispensed among these admissions. In line with the empirical treatment recommended by the
353 local IMPACT guideline [11], co-amoxiclav and cloxacillin were the most commonly
354 dispensed antibiotics for pneumonia and skin and soft tissue infections, respectively,

355 indicating a good adherence to local clinical practice guidelines among public hospitals in
356 Hong Kong.

357

358 There were several limitations of this study. First, the primary discharge diagnostic codes
359 might not be the indication for the dispensed antibiotics. Based on the currently available
360 data, we were unable to determine the indication for which the antibiotic was dispensed.
361 Therefore, we could not rule out the possibilities that some antibiotics were dispensed for
362 infection control or surgical prophylaxis. This is a common limitation of using healthcare
363 records to conduct population-based studies. However, we are confident that the study
364 population had good compliance to the antibiotics dispensed based on stringent medication
365 administration protocols within the hospital. Therefore, the dispensing records should closely
366 reflect the actual usage among the inpatients. Second, this study only included antibiotic use
367 data from public hospitals in Hong Kong. According to the recently published wholesale
368 supply data of antibiotics in Hong Kong [37], the Hospital Authority is the second largest
369 sector, purchasing 20% of all antibiotics supplied in Hong Kong, whilst only 4-5% were
370 supplied to private hospitals. It was consistent with the fact that around 80% of all local bed
371 days occurring in public hospitals. However, more than 50% of the antibiotics supplied to the
372 outpatient sector were consumed by the private general practitioners. Further studies on
373 antibiotic use in the private outpatient healthcare sector are urgently needed.

374

375 **5. Conclusion**

376 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study that examined the dispensing records of
377 antibiotics in Hong Kong. A general increasing trend of antibiotic usage was indicated in
378 patients admitted to public hospitals. Significant temporal changes were observed in
379 prescription of some drug classes. The recent increase in the use of last-resort antibiotic class

380 such as carbapenems is concerning. This study suggested that local clinical practice
381 guidelines appeared to influence the actual prescribing practice in hospitals. Future policies in
382 changing clinical practice with antibiotics may be implemented through modifying the
383 recommendations in the clinical practice guidelines.

384

385 **Conflicts of Interest**

386 BJC reports receipt of honoraria from Roche and Sanofi Pasteur. CSLC, WWL, CKMH,
387 EWC, ICKW, PW declare that they have no conflicts of interest that might be relevant to the
388 contents of this manuscript.

389

390 **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

391 This work was financially supported by a commissioned grant from the Health and Medical
392 Research Fund (grant no. HKS-16-E10).

393 The authors thank Dr. Pak-Leung Ho for clarifying the exact publication month and release
394 of IMPACT 4th edition; and Ms. Julie Au for technical assistance.

395

396 **References**

- 397 1. World Health Organization. Global Action Plan on Antimicrobial Resistance
398 Geneva, Switzerland 2015 [Available from:
399 http://www.wpro.who.int/entity/drug_resistance/resources/global_action_plan_eng.pdf].
- 400 2. O'Neill J. Antimicrobial Resistance: Tackling a crisis for the health and wealth of
401 nations 2014 [Available from: [https://amr-](https://amr-review.org/sites/default/files/AMR%20Review%20Paper%20-%20Tackling%20a%20crisis%20for%20the%20health%20and%20wealth%20of%20nations_1.pdf)
402 [review.org/sites/default/files/AMR%20Review%20Paper%20-](https://amr-review.org/sites/default/files/AMR%20Review%20Paper%20-%20Tackling%20a%20crisis%20for%20the%20health%20and%20wealth%20of%20nations_1.pdf)
403 [%20Tackling%20a%20crisis%20for%20the%20health%20and%20wealth%20of%20nations_](https://amr-review.org/sites/default/files/AMR%20Review%20Paper%20-%20Tackling%20a%20crisis%20for%20the%20health%20and%20wealth%20of%20nations_1.pdf)
404 [1.pdf](https://amr-review.org/sites/default/files/AMR%20Review%20Paper%20-%20Tackling%20a%20crisis%20for%20the%20health%20and%20wealth%20of%20nations_1.pdf)].
- 405 3. Currie CJ, Berni E, Jenkins-Jones S, Poole CD, Ouwens M, Driessen S, et al.
406 Antibiotic treatment failure in four common infections in UK primary care 1991-2012:
407 longitudinal analysis. *BMJ*. 2014;349:g5493.
- 408 4. Willyard C. The drug-resistant bacteria that pose the greatest health threats. *Nature*.
409 2017;543(7643):15.
- 410 5. Ventola CL. The antibiotic resistance crisis: part 1: causes and threats. *P T*.
411 2015;40(4):277-83.
- 412 6. van Bijnen EM, Paget J, de Lange-de Klerk ES, den Heijer CD, Versporten A,
413 Stobberingh EE, et al. Antibiotic Exposure and Other Risk Factors for Antimicrobial
414 Resistance in Nasal Commensal *Staphylococcus aureus*: An Ecological Study in 8 European
415 Countries. *PLoS One*. 2015;10(8):e0135094.
- 416 7. Goossens H, Ferech M, Stichele RV, Elseviers M, Grp EP. Outpatient antibiotic use
417 in Europe and association with resistance: a cross-national database study. *Lancet*.
418 2005;365(9459):579-87.

- 419 8. Van Boeckel TP, Gandra S, Ashok A, Caudron Q, Grenfell BT, Levin SA, et al.
420 Global antibiotic consumption 2000 to 2010: an analysis of national pharmaceutical sales
421 data. *Lancet Infect Dis.* 2014;14(8):742-50.
- 422 9. Klein EY, Van Boeckel TP, Martinez EM, Pant S, Gandra S, Levin SA, et al. Global
423 increase and geographic convergence in antibiotic consumption between 2000 and 2015. *Proc*
424 *Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 2018;115(15):E3463-E70.
- 425 10. Centre for Health Protection. Hong Kong Strategy and Action Plan on Antimicrobial
426 Resistance 2017-2022. In: Department of Health, editor. Hong Kong 2017.
- 427 11. Ho PL, Wu TC, Chao DVK, Hung IFN, Lui L, Lung DC, et al. Reducing bacterial
428 resistance with IMPACT, 5th edition. Hong Kong 2017.
- 429 12. Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department. Thematic Household Survey Report
430 No. 3 Hong Kong 2000 [Available from:
431 <https://www.statistics.gov.hk/pub/B11302032000XXXXB0100.pdf>].
- 432 13. British Medical Association and Royal Pharmaceutical Society. British National
433 Formulary United Kingdom: BMJ Group and Pharmaceutical Press; 2018 [Available from:
434 www.bnf.org].
- 435 14. Lau WC, Chan EW, Cheung C-L, Sing CW, Man KK, Lip GY, et al. Association
436 between dabigatran vs warfarin and risk of osteoporotic fractures among patients with
437 nonvalvular atrial fibrillation. *JAMA.* 2017;317(11):1151-8.
- 438 15. Wong AY, Root A, Douglas IJ, Chui CS, Chan EW, Ghebremichael-Weldeselassie Y,
439 et al. Cardiovascular outcomes associated with use of clarithromycin: population based study.
440 *BMJ.* 2016;352:h6926.
- 441 16. Baggs J, Fridkin SK, Pollack LA, Srinivasan A, Jernigan JA. Estimating National
442 Trends in Inpatient Antibiotic Use Among US Hospitals From 2006 to 2012. *JAMA Intern*
443 *Med.* 2016;176(11):1639-48.

- 444 17. Liu YY, Wang Y, Walsh TR, Yi LX, Zhang R, Spencer J, et al. Emergence of
445 plasmid-mediated colistin resistance mechanism MCR-1 in animals and human beings in
446 China: a microbiological and molecular biological study. *Lancet Infect Dis.* 2016;16(2):161-
447 8.
- 448 18. World Health Organization. WHO Model List of Essential Medicines 2017 [20th
449 List:[Available from:
450 http://www.who.int/medicines/publications/essentialmedicines/20th_EML2017.pdf?ua=1].
- 451 19. Ho PL, Wong SY, Hung IFN, Lung DC, Tsang KY, Wu TC, et al. Reducing bacterial
452 resistance with IMPACT, 4th edition. 2012.
- 453 20. Polk RE, Fox C, Mahoney A, Letcavage J, MacDougall C. Measurement of adult
454 antibacterial drug use in 130 US hospitals: comparison of defined daily dose and days of
455 therapy. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2007;44(5):664-70.
- 456 21. Lee CC, Lee MT, Chen YS, Lee SH, Chen YS, Chen SC, et al. Risk of Aortic
457 Dissection and Aortic Aneurysm in Patients Taking Oral Fluoroquinolone. *JAMA Intern
458 Med.* 2015;175(11):1839-47.
- 459 22. World Health Organization. Introduction to Drug Utilization Research Oslo, Norway
460 2003 [Available from: <http://apps.who.int/medicinedocs/pdf/s4876e/s4876e.pdf>].
- 461 23. Versporten A, Zarb P, Caniaux I, Gros MF, Drapier N, Miller M, et al. Antimicrobial
462 consumption and resistance in adult hospital inpatients in 53 countries: results of an internet-
463 based global point prevalence survey. *Lancet Glob Health.* 2018.
- 464 24. Benfield T, Lange P, Vestbo J. COPD stage and risk of hospitalization for infectious
465 disease. *Chest.* 2008;134(1):46-53.
- 466 25. Hopkinson NS, Molyneux A, Pink J, Harrisingh MC, Guideline C. Chronic
467 obstructive pulmonary disease: diagnosis and management: summary of updated NICE
468 guidance. *BMJ.* 2019;366:l4486.

- 469 26. Cheng VCC, Chen JHK, So SYC, Wong SCY, Yan MK, Chau PH, et al. Use of
470 fluoroquinolones is the single most important risk factor for the high bacterial load in patients
471 with nasal and gastrointestinal colonization by multidrug-resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii*.
472 *Eur J Clin Microbiol*. 2015;34(12):2359-66.
- 473 27. Costelloe C, Metcalfe C, Lovering A, Mant D, Hay AD. Effect of antibiotic
474 prescribing in primary care on antimicrobial resistance in individual patients: systematic
475 review and meta-analysis. *BMJ*. 2010;340:c2096.
- 476 28. Furuno JP, McGregor JC, Harris AD, Johnson JA, Johnson JK, Langenberg P, et al.
477 Identifying groups at high risk for carriage of antibiotic-resistant bacteria. *Arch Intern Med*.
478 2006;166(5):580-5.
- 479 29. Cheng VCC, Li IWS, Wu AKL, Tang BSF, Ng KHL, To KKW, et al. Effect of
480 antibiotics on the bacterial load of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* colonisation in
481 anterior nares. *J Hosp Infect*. 2008;70(1):27-34.
- 482 30. Man MY, Shum HP, Chan YH, Chan KC, Yan WW, Lee RA, et al. Clinical
483 predictors and outcomes of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* bacteraemia in a regional hospital in Hong
484 Kong. *J Hosp Infect*. 2017;97(1):35-41.
- 485 31. Levy SB, Marshall B. Antibacterial resistance worldwide: causes, challenges and
486 responses. *Nat Med*. 2004;10(12 Suppl):S122-9.
- 487 32. Holmes AH, Moore LS, Sundsfjord A, Steinbakk M, Regmi S, Karkey A, et al.
488 Understanding the mechanisms and drivers of antimicrobial resistance. *Lancet*.
489 2016;387(10014):176-87.
- 490 33. Ho PL, Cheng JC, Ching PT, Kwan JK, Lim WW, Tong WC, et al. Optimising
491 antimicrobial prescription in hospitals by introducing an antimicrobial stewardship
492 programme in Hong Kong: consensus statement. *Hong Kong Med J*. 2006;12(2):141-8.

- 493 34. Ho PL, Wang TK, Ching P, Mak GC, Lai E, Yam WC, et al. Epidemiology and
494 genetic diversity of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* strains in residential care
495 homes for elderly persons in Hong Kong. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 2007;28(6):671-8.
- 496 35. Cheng VC, Tai JW, Wong ZS, Chen JH, Pan KB, Hai Y, et al. Transmission of
497 methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in the long term care facilities in Hong Kong.
498 *BMC Infect Dis.* 2013;13:205.
- 499 36. Bell BG, Schellevis F, Stobberingh E, Goossens H, Pringle M. A systematic review
500 and meta-analysis of the effects of antibiotic consumption on antibiotic resistance. *BMC*
501 *Infect Dis.* 2014;14:13.
- 502 37. Centre for Health Protection. Wholesale Supply Data of Antibiotics in Hong Kong
503 (2014 – 2016) Hong Kong 2018 [Available from:
504 <https://www.chp.gov.hk/en/static/100290.html>].
505

506 Figure legend:

507 Figure 1. Proportion of hospital admissions with antibiotics dispensed from 2000 to 2015 by

508 age

509 Figure 2. Frequency of drug classes of the first antibiotic dispensed in each hospital

510 admission from 2000 to 2015

511 Figure 3. Proportion of hospital admissions with dispensing of antibiotics in the WHO

512 reserve group from 2000 to 2015

513 Figure 4. Proportion of hospital admissions with (a) tetracycline and (b) macrolides dispensed

514 from 2000 to 2015. Note the spike in 2003 associated with a large local epidemic of Severe

515 Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS).

516 Figure 5. Days of therapy per bed-day for admissions with the primary discharge diagnosis of

517 pneumonia, skin and subcutaneous infections and septicemia