

# Mortality associated with third generation cephalosporin-resistance in Enterobacteriaceae infections: a multicenter cohort study in Southern China

## INTRODUCTION

Emerging third-generation cephalosporin-resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* (3GCR-EB) pose a global healthcare concern in both hospital and community settings [1-3], particularly those harboring extended-spectrum beta-lactamases (ESBL) [4, 5]. Over the past decade, a significant increase in 3GCR-EB has been observed globally [4-6]. In Europe, the proportion of bloodstream infections due to 3GC-resistant *Escherichia coli* increased from 14% in 2014 to 15% in 2017 [4]; whereas in the United States, the proportion of healthcare-associated infections (HAIs) due to cephalosporin-resistant *E. coli* increased considerably from 23% in 2014 to 30% in 2017 [7]. In Mainland China, the consumption of third-generation cephalosporins is significantly higher than in Europe and the US, both among inpatient [8] and outpatient populations [9]. Consequently, the proportion of *E. coli* resistant third-generation cephalosporins has reached a high level, ranging from 59% to 63% between 2007 and 2017 [6].

Globally, mortality attributable to antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is a major concern [1, 10-14]. Cassini et al. estimated the attributable mortality of AMR in Europe at 6.44 deaths per 100,000 population, causing 170 disability-adjusted life-years per 100,000 population [10]. Another European multicenter study suggested that patients with bloodstream infection due to 3GCR *E. coli* were 2.5 times more likely to die within 30 days following infection onset than patients with bloodstream infection due to third-generation cephalosporin-susceptible *E. coli* [11]. In Asia, the burden of AMR and its clinical impact remain largely understudied because of limited financial resources and laboratory capacity [3, 15, 16]. Indian national research has reported the odds of mortality were 2.6 times higher for patients infected by multidrug-resistant (MDR) *E. coli* compared with non-MDR *E. coli* [15]. In China, a meta-analysis estimated that, in general, patients infected with AMR pathogens have greater

29 likelihood of mortality (odds ratio, 2.7; 95% CI, 2.2 - 3.3) compared to those with infections  
30 caused by antimicrobial susceptible organisms [17]. The mortality burden of 3GCR-EB  
31 infections in Africa remains largely unknown.

32         The National Health Commission of the People's Republic China announced a  
33 national action plan to combat AMR in 2016 and multi-disciplinary collaborations with  
34 European partners have been initiated to address the increasing burden of AMR in China  
35 [17, 18]. However, there remains limited information on the attributable mortality of infection  
36 due to 3GCR-EB in Mainland China. This study aimed to fill this research gap by examining  
37 the excess mortality associated with the resistance profile of *Enterobacteriaceae* infection in  
38 hospitalized patients. To achieve this, in-hospital mortality in patients infected with 3GCR-EB  
39 was compared to that of patients infected with third-generation cephalosporin-susceptible  
40 *Enterobacteriaceae* (3GCS-EB) based on surveillance data from three tertiary-care hospitals  
41 in Southern China in 2017.

42

## 43 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

44

### 45 **Settings**

46 Dongguan is an industrial city located in Guangdong province, Southern China, with a  
47 population of 8.2 million. Dongguan city had a GDP per capita of 14,950 USD in 2018,  
48 equivalent to a high-income area according to the World Bank. In 2014, the city established  
49 the Dongguan Nosocomial Infection Surveillance System to organize yearly point prevalence  
50 surveys, prospective surveillance of surgical site infection, and prospective antimicrobial  
51 resistance surveillance [3]. Data in this study were collected from three tertiary-care public  
52 hospitals, comprising 8% of all public/not-for-profit hospitals in the city, ~~with a mixed patient~~  
53 ~~population~~. Collectively, the study hospitals had 3,972 beds (16% of the city's total beds),  
54 completed 133,150 admissions and accumulated 1,366,756 patient-days in 2017 (14.7%  
55 and 18.6% of the city's totals, respectively).

56

57 **Study design**

58 This retrospective observational cohort study included all patients in the three study  
59 hospitals, who were admitted with a community-onset infection (COI) or developed a HAI  
60 caused by *Enterobacteriaceae* in 2017. Patients of all ages in general wards and intensive  
61 care units were eligible for inclusion, if a susceptibility test for third-generation cephalosporin  
62 resistance had been performed.

63

64 **Data collection and definitions**

65 Data collected for each patient enrolled in the study included: demographics (i.e. age, sex),  
66 department of admission, dates of hospital admission and discharge, infection data (i.e. date  
67 of onset, origin and site/type), antibiogram data for major antimicrobials (i.e. ciprofloxacin,  
68 gentamicin, amikacin, piperacillin-tazobactam, and imipenem), and patient outcome upon  
69 discharge from the hospital (ascertained as all-cause death or discharged alive). The  
70 definitions of HAI included temporal (>48 hours after admission), clinical and microbiological  
71 criteria [3, 19]; otherwise, infections diagnosed within 48 hours of admission were defined as  
72 COI. In accordance with the criteria of the European Antimicrobial Resistance Surveillance  
73 Network (EARS-Net) protocol [4], we took into account the first infection with  
74 *Enterobacteriaceae* isolated from clinical samples during the entire hospitalization.

75 The following indicator organisms in the *Enterobacteriaceae* family were included for  
76 analysis: *E. coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Klebsiella spp.*, *Enterobacter spp.*, *Citrobacter spp.*,  
77 and other *Enterobacteriaceae* species (i.e. *Morganella*, *Proteus*, *Providencia*, *Serratia*, and  
78 *Salmonella* species). Microbiological identification and susceptibility testing were performed  
79 using VITEK® 2 (BioMérieux, Marcy l'Etoile, France). The breakpoints for minimal inhibitory  
80 concentration (MIC) were based on the US National Clinical and Laboratory Standards  
81 Institute guidelines (modified version based on M100-28<sup>th</sup> edition in 2017) [20]. The indicator  
82 antimicrobial for third generation cephalosporin resistance was ceftriaxone, with an MIC≤1  
83 defining susceptibility and an MIC ≥2 defining resistance.

84

## 85 **Statistical analysis**

86 To assess excess mortality due to 3GCR-EB infection compared to 3GCS-EB infection, we  
87 applied competing risk survival models [21]. Time to death in the hospital and up to 30 days  
88 from the onset of infection was the primary outcome. Survival times of patients who  
89 remained hospitalized more than 30 days following infection onset were censored at 30  
90 days. Discharge alive from the hospital was treated as a competing event [21]. To describe  
91 the direct effect of 3GCR-EB infection on the two competing outcomes of interest (i.e.  
92 discharge alive and in-hospital mortality), we used cause-specific hazard ratios (csHR) that  
93 we estimated semi-parametrically by means of separate Cox models for each outcome,  
94 assuming proportional hazards. In this analysis, a lower csHR for discharge alive shows that  
95 there is a lower daily probability of being discharged alive, thereby a higher risk for longer  
96 stay in the hospital following infection onset. Additionally, we described the relative excess in  
97 the overall risk of in-hospital mortality, while accounting for the competing event of being  
98 discharged alive using sub-distribution hazard ratios (sHR), which we estimated semi-  
99 parametrically by means of the Fine-Gray model [22]. In all models, we adjusted for potential  
100 prognostic effects by age, sex, ICU admission, origin of infection (COI vs HAI) and type of  
101 infection. The latter was categorized by site as urinary tract, lower respiratory tract,  
102 bloodstream and “other” to enable estimation of prognostic effects for the most frequent  
103 types of infection. In a supplementary sensitivity analysis, we examined long-term effects by  
104 extending the analysis time to 90 days from infection onset. None of the study variables had  
105 missing data, except that survival time could not be calculated for 2 patients (<0.1%)  
106 because the date of discharge was unknown. All statistical analyses were performed using  
107 STATA version 13 (STATA Corp., College station, TX, USA).

108

## 109 **Ethics**

110 The Chinese Ethics Committee of Registering Clinical Trials approved the study and waived  
111 the requirement for patient informed consent (approval no: ChiECRCT20190134).

112 **RESULTS**

113

114 In total, of 2,509 patients with an *Enterobacteriaceae* infection were identified in the three  
115 study hospitals during 2017. Of those, 2,343 (93.4%) had complete antibiogram data and  
116 comprised the study cohort (Figure 1). A 3GCR-EB infection had occurred in 862 (36.8%) of  
117 the patients. Of the latter, 353 isolates (40.1%) were resistant to 3GC only, 494 (57.3%)  
118 were co-resistant to 3GC and fluoroquinolones and 15 (1.7%) were co-resistant to 3GC and  
119 carbapenems, with resistance rates being higher in HAIs than COIs (Table 1).

120 Table 2 summarizes baseline characteristics and outcomes of the patients. Median  
121 patient age was 60 years (interquartile range 42-74 years, range 0-99 years), 1,058 (45.2%)  
122 were males and 115 (4.9%) required adult intensive care at admission. Most patients  
123 (80.8%) were admitted with a COI. Urinary tract infection (40.0%), lower respiratory tract  
124 infection (20.3%) and bloodstream infection (9.1%) comprised more than two thirds of the  
125 infections recorded. Infecting pathogens are summarized by organism and antimicrobial  
126 resistance markers in Supplementary Table 1. Overall, in-hospital mortality rates at 30 days  
127 of follow-up, 90 days of follow-up and hospital discharge were 1.8%, 2.0% and 2.6%,  
128 respectively.

129 There were 1,481 (63.2%) patients with 3GCS-EB infection and 862 (36.8%) patients  
130 with 3GCR-EB infection (Table 2). Patients in the 3GCS-EB and 3GCR-EB groups had  
131 similar distributions in terms of age, sex, department of admission, and site of infection.  
132 However, 3GCR-EB infections were more likely to be healthcare associated (odds ratio =  
133 1.7;  $p < 0.001$ ). Overall, in-hospital mortality was similar in the 3GCS-EB and 3GCR-EB  
134 groups (2.4% vs. 2.8%,  $p = 0.601$ ).

135 In the multivariable survival analysis, there was no statistically significant difference  
136 between 3GCR-EB infected patients and 3GCS-EB infected patients in the cause-specific  
137 hazards of dying in the hospital within 30 days following infection onset (csHR = 0.74;  
138 95%CI, 0.38 - 1.44;  $p = 0.379$ ), so the daily hazard of in-hospital death was not increased for

139 3GCR-EB infected patients (Table 3). Similarly, no increase in overall 30-day mortality for  
140 patients infected by 3GCR-EB was detected in the analysis of sub-distribution hazards (sHR  
141 = 0.80; 95%CI, 0.41 - 1.55; p=0.505). However, 3GCR-EB infection was associated with a  
142 statistically significant decrease in the csHR for being discharged alive (csHR = 0.84;  
143 95%CI, 0.76 - 0.92; p<0.001); therefore, the daily hazard of being discharged alive was  
144 lower for the 3GCR-EB infected patients, leading to longer hospitalization after being  
145 infected by 3GCR-EB, compared with those with 3GCS-EB infections.

146         Regarding prognostic effects of other covariates, ICU admission, lower-respiratory  
147 tract infection, and bloodstream infection were associated with statistically significant  
148 increases in the cause-specific and sub-distribution hazards of 30-day in-hospital mortality  
149 (Table 3). Of these, ICU admission and lower-respiratory tract infection, but not bloodstream  
150 infection, were associated with decreased cause-specific hazards of being discharged alive,  
151 leading to longer hospitalization. Advanced age, urinary tract infection, and HAI were  
152 associated with increased hospital stay, but not in-hospital mortality.

153         Consistent results were obtained when the analysis time was extended to 90 days  
154 following infection onset (Supplementary Table 2). Figure 2 depicts the comparison of the  
155 cause-specific cumulative hazards for the two competing events (discharge alive and in-  
156 hospital mortality) between the 3GCS-EB and 3GCR-EB infection groups.

157

## 158 **DISCUSSION**

159

160 In China, a rapid increase of 3GCR-EB infections has been witnessed in the past decade [6].

161 In this study, we examined the clinical impact of broad-spectrum cephalosporin resistance in  
162 hospitalized patients for the first time in Southern China, by comparing mortality hazards  
163 between 3GCR-EB and 3GCS-EB infections in a large cohort of patients in three tertiary-  
164 care hospitals. Our findings show that third-generation cephalosporin resistance in  
165 *Enterobacteriaceae* was not associated with an excess risk of in-hospital mortality. This

166 implies that resistance does not directly add to mortality and/or 3GCR-EB infections can still  
167 be managed with appropriate antimicrobial treatment. However, our finding does not  
168 diminish the burden of 3GCR-EB infection on patient morbidity and hospital resources [12].  
169 Indeed, our analysis showed that 3GCR-EB infections are associated with decreased daily  
170 rate of discharge (alive) from the hospital and thereby led to lengthier hospitalizations  
171 compared to 3GCS-EB infections. This is important because prolonged hospitalization  
172 increases healthcare costs, increases the risk of other healthcare-associated infections and  
173 patient complications, and may increase the risk of transmission of 3GCR-EB to other  
174 vulnerable patients, particularly occurring cluster and outbreak of 3GCR-EB in the hospitals.

175 Existing research on the clinical impact of third-generation cephalosporin resistance  
176 in *Enterobacteriaceae* infections has looked at either high risk settings such as the ICU [23,  
177 24] or targeted specific populations such as bacteremic patients [11, 13, 25] or cancer  
178 patients [14]. Few studies have investigated the mortality associated with 3GCR-EB  
179 infections in broader acute-care settings [1, 12, 13]. Early single-center investigations  
180 suggested that broad-spectrum cephalosporin resistance is an independent predictor of  
181 increased mortality and prolonged length of stay of patients with bacteremia [13] or other  
182 infections [12] caused by *Enterobacter* species. Other, more recent studies observed that  
183 the presence of *Enterobacteriaceae* resistance to third-generation cephalosporins was not  
184 associated with increased mortality, but did lead to longer length of stay in the ICU [23] and  
185 in the wider hospital setting [1]. Conflicting findings regarding the impact of broad-spectrum  
186 cephalosporin resistance may be partly explained by variable case-mix (e.g. underlying  
187 disease severity, comorbidities and treatment factors), but it is notable that previous studies  
188 [1, 26] disregarded the fact that in-hospital death and discharge (alive) may act as competing  
189 outcomes, which is an important factor to consider when analyzing the survival prospects of  
190 hospitalized patients [21]. Using appropriate competing risks methodology, we confirmed the  
191 lack of excess mortality associated with 3GCR-EB infections, but did note their impact on  
192 prolonging hospital stay in multicenter acute-care settings in China.

193 Our competing risks analysis also allowed a better understanding of the differential  
194 clinical impact of other important factors, such as the site and the origin of the infection. We  
195 found that bloodstream infection and, to a lesser degree, lower-respiratory tract infection  
196 caused by *Enterobacteriaceae* were independently and significantly associated with  
197 increased risk of in-hospital death (regardless of the resistance profile). By contrast, lower-  
198 respiratory tract infection and, to a lesser degree bloodstream infection, were independently  
199 associated with increased risk of prolonged hospital stay (though the effect was not  
200 statistically significant for the latter). Urinary tract infections had no effect on hospital  
201 mortality, but were associated with significantly increased chances of longer hospitalization.  
202 Although not explicitly studied, differential effects by infection site were implied in previous  
203 studies on the same topic. For example, Oliveira et al [1] found that a primary site of  
204 infection, other than UTI, was independently associated with all-cause hospital mortality in  
205 patients who presented with a 3GCR-EB infection upon hospital admission. Similarly, Kang  
206 et al [13] noted that presentation with septic shock and an identified primary site of infection,  
207 were independent risk factors of 30-day mortality in patients with *Enterobacter* bacteremia.

208 Another notable finding from our study is the varying impact by the origin of infection.  
209 Although we found no difference in patient mortality between COI and HAI, the latter was  
210 associated with a significantly decreased probability of being discharged alive (cause-  
211 specific HR=0.50; 95%CI, 0.44 - 0.57). This emphasizes the important burden posed by  
212 HAIs in prolonging hospitalization. Regarding patient-related risk factors, we found that  
213 advanced age (>65 years) was an independent predictor of prolonged hospital stay, but not  
214 in-hospital mortality. ICU admission was significantly and independently associated with  
215 increased risk of both in-hospital death and prolonged hospitalization.

216 The main strengths of the present study include its multicenter design with a large  
217 sample size and the use of multivariable competing risks models to assess the risk of in-  
218 hospital mortality. Moreover, the two main exposure groups under comparison (3GCR-EB  
219 and 3GCS-EB infected patients) were well balanced in terms of the distribution of important  
220 confounders, including age, sex, ICU admission, and site of infection. In addition, there were



221 very few multidrug resistant isolates in our study (only 9 isolates were co-resistant to  
222 fluoroquinolones and carbapenems); thus, our analysis is unlikely to have been complicated  
223 by complex multi-resistance patterns and pertains specifically to the third-generation  
224 cephalosporin resistant phenotype. However, there are potential limitations that we should  
225 acknowledge. Data on time-varying confounders such as underlying disease severity and  
226 antibiotic therapy were not available in this study and we cannot exclude entirely the  
227 possibility that residual confounding may still be present. Moreover, we only looked at in-  
228 hospital mortality and did not follow up the patients after discharge from the hospital. This  
229 might potentially result in informative censoring biasing the results of the Cox models, but it  
230 is difficult to assess the magnitude or direction of such bias if it exists.

231           In conclusion, this investigation of the clinical impact of 3GCR-EB infections in broad  
232 acute-care settings in Southern China found no excess risk of in-hospital mortality.  
233 Nevertheless, 3GCR-EB infections were associated with an increased risk of prolonged  
234 hospitalization, thereby placing an important burden on patient morbidity and hospital care.

235 **DECLARATIONS**

236

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241

242 **Author contributions**

243 Conception and design: JW, MZ, and EIK. Acquisition of data: MZ. Data management: JW.  
244 Statistical modelling: EIK. Analysis and interpretation of data: JW, MZ, TH and EIK. Drafting  
245 the manuscript: JW and EIK. Critical revision for important intellectual content and approval  
246 for submission: JW, MZ, TH and EIK. All authors had full access to the study dataset and  
247 take responsibility for the integrity of the data presented.

248

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251

252 **Transparency declarations**

253 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest relevant to this study.

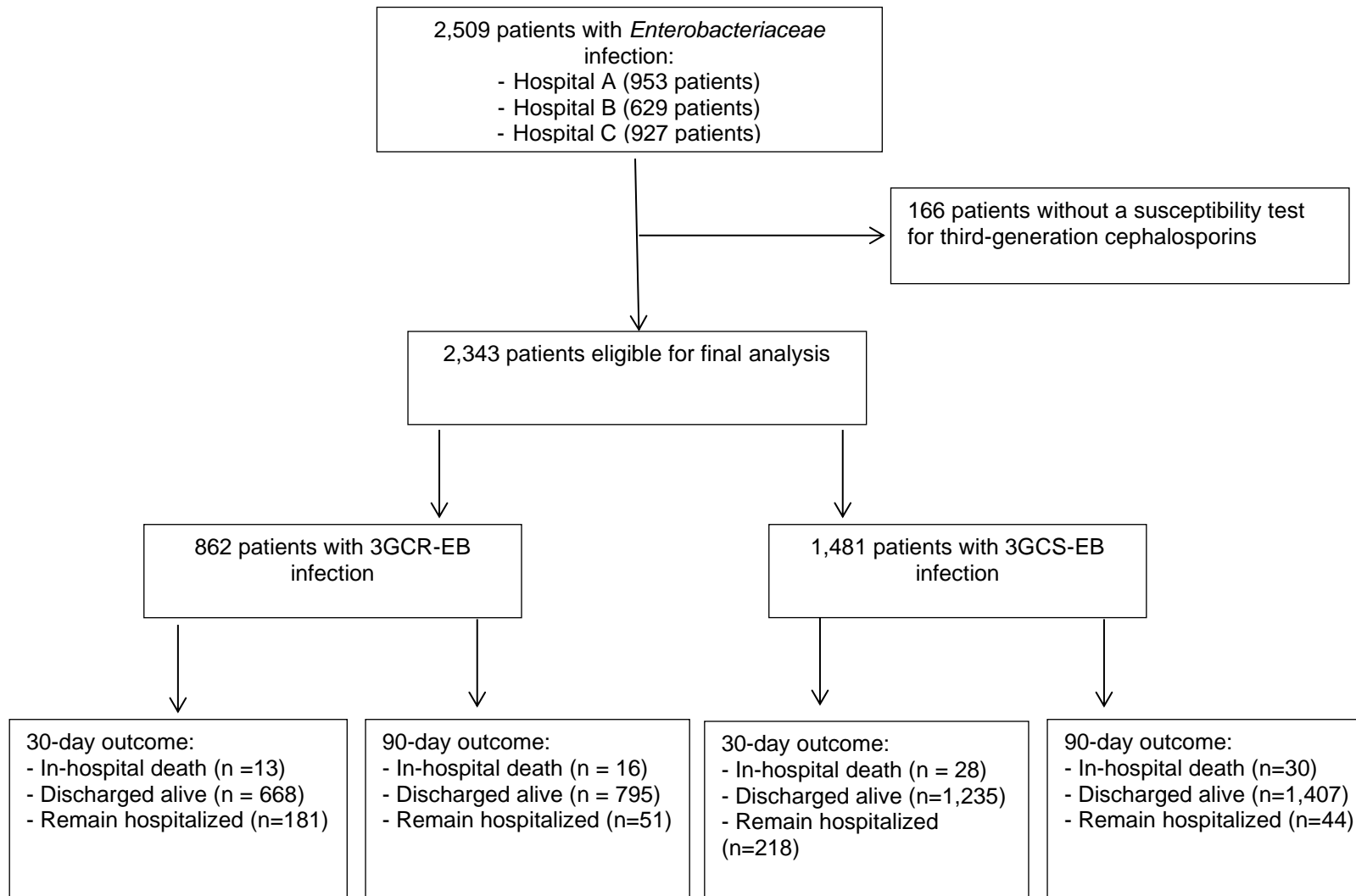
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**Figure 1** Data extraction flow: Inclusion of patients, patient selection and outcomes



NOTE. 3GCR-EB: 3<sup>rd</sup> generation cephalosporin resistant *Enterobacteriaceae*; 3GCS-EB: 3<sup>rd</sup> generation cephalosporin susceptible *Enterobacteriaceae*

**Table 1**

Incidence rates of resistance to 3rd generation cephalosporins and co-resistance to fluoroquinolones and carbapenems in patients with *Enterobacteriaceae* infection

Antimicrobial resistance group	All patients (N = 2,343)		Patients with HAI (N = 449)			Patients with COI (N = 1,894)		
	n	%	n	%	Incidence per 1,000 patient-days (95%CI)	n	%	Incidence per 100 admissions (95%CI)
<b>3GC resistant*</b>	353	15.1	90	20.0	0.07 (0.05 – 0.08)	263	13.9	0.20 (0.17 – 0.22)
<b>3GC+FQ resistant</b>	494	21.1	113	25.2	0.08 (0.07 – 0.10)	381	20.1	0.29 (0.26 – 0.32)
<b>3GC+CAR resistant</b>	6	0.3	1	0.2	0.00 (0.00 – 0.00)	5	0.3	0.00 (0.00 – 0.01)
<b>3GC+FQ+CAR resistant</b>	9	0.4	5	1.1	0.00 (0.00 – 0.01)	4	0.2	0.00 (0.00 – 0.01)

3GCR: 3<sup>rd</sup> generation cephalosporin; FQ: fluoroquinolone; CAR: carbapenem; 95%CI: 95% confidence interval.

NOTE. A total of 133,150 admissions with 1,366,756 patient-days occurred during the study period. The table reports incidence proportions for COI (number of resistant COIs per 100 admissions) and incidence density rates for HAI (number of resistant HAIs per 1000 patient-days).

\*3GCR, without known co-resistance.

**Table 2**

Descriptive results of baseline characteristics of the patients and outcomes

Variables	Overall (n = 2,343)	Enterobacteriaceae infection		
		3GCR-EB (n = 862)	3GCS-EB (n = 1,481)	P*
<b>Age, years</b>				
Median (IQR)	60 (42 - 74)	60 (42 - 75)	59 (41 - 74)	0.985
> 65 years, n (%)	934 (39.9%)	343 (39.8%)	591 (39.9%)	0.957
<b>Sex</b>				
Male, n (%)	1,058 (45.2%)	401 (46.5%)	657 (44.4%)	0.311
<b>Department of admission</b>				
Adult intensive care, n (%)	115 (4.9%)	42 (4.9%)	73 (4.9%)	0.118
Internal medicine, n (%)	697 (29.8%)	242 (28.1%)	455 (30.7%)	
Surgery, n (%)	1,010 (43.1%)	399 (46.3%)	611 (41.3%)	
Pediatrics & Neonatology, (%)	109 (4.7%)	43 (5.0%)	66 (4.5%)	
Other departments, n (%)	412 (17.6%)	136 (15.8%)	276 (18.6%)	
<b>Origin of infection</b>				
Healthcare, n (%)	449 (19.2%)	209 (24.3%)	240 (16.2%)	<0.001
Community, n (%)	1,894 (80.8%)	653 (75.8%)	1,241 (83.8%)	
<b>Site of infection</b>				
Lower respiratory tract, n (%)	476 (20.3%)	180 (20.9%)	296 (20.0%)	0.106
Urinary tract, n (%)	937 (40.0%)	366 (42.5%)	571 (38.6%)	
Bloodstream, n (%)	212 (9.1%)	67 (7.8%)	145 (9.8%)	
Other, n (%)	718 (30.6%)	249 (28.9%)	469 (31.7%)	
<b>30-day outcome</b>				
In-hospital death, n (%)	41 (1.8%)	13 (1.5%)	28 (1.9%)	<0.001
Discharged alive, n (%)	1,903 (81.2%)	668 (77.5%)	1,235 (83.4%)	
Remain hospitalized, n (%)	399 (17.0%)	181 (21.0%)	218 (14.7%)	
<b>90-day outcome</b>				
In-hospital death, n (%)	46 (2.0%)	16 (1.9%)	30 (2.0%)	0.002
Discharged alive, n (%)	2,202 (93.9%)	795 (92.2%)	1,407 (95.0%)	
Remain hospitalized, n (%)	95 (4.1%)	51 (5.9%)	44 (3.0%)	
<b>Final outcome</b>				
In-hospital death, n (%)	60 (2.6%)	24 (2.8%)	36 (2.4%)	0.601
Discharged alive, n (%)	2,283 (97.4%)	838 (97.2%)	1,445 (97.6%)	
<b>Length of hospital stay, days</b>				
Patients discharged alive, median (IQR)	13 (7 - 26)	15 (8 - 29)	12 (7 - 24)	<0.001
Patients discharged dead, median (IQR)	20 (11 - 106)	30 (15 - 135)	17 (9 - 61)	0.056

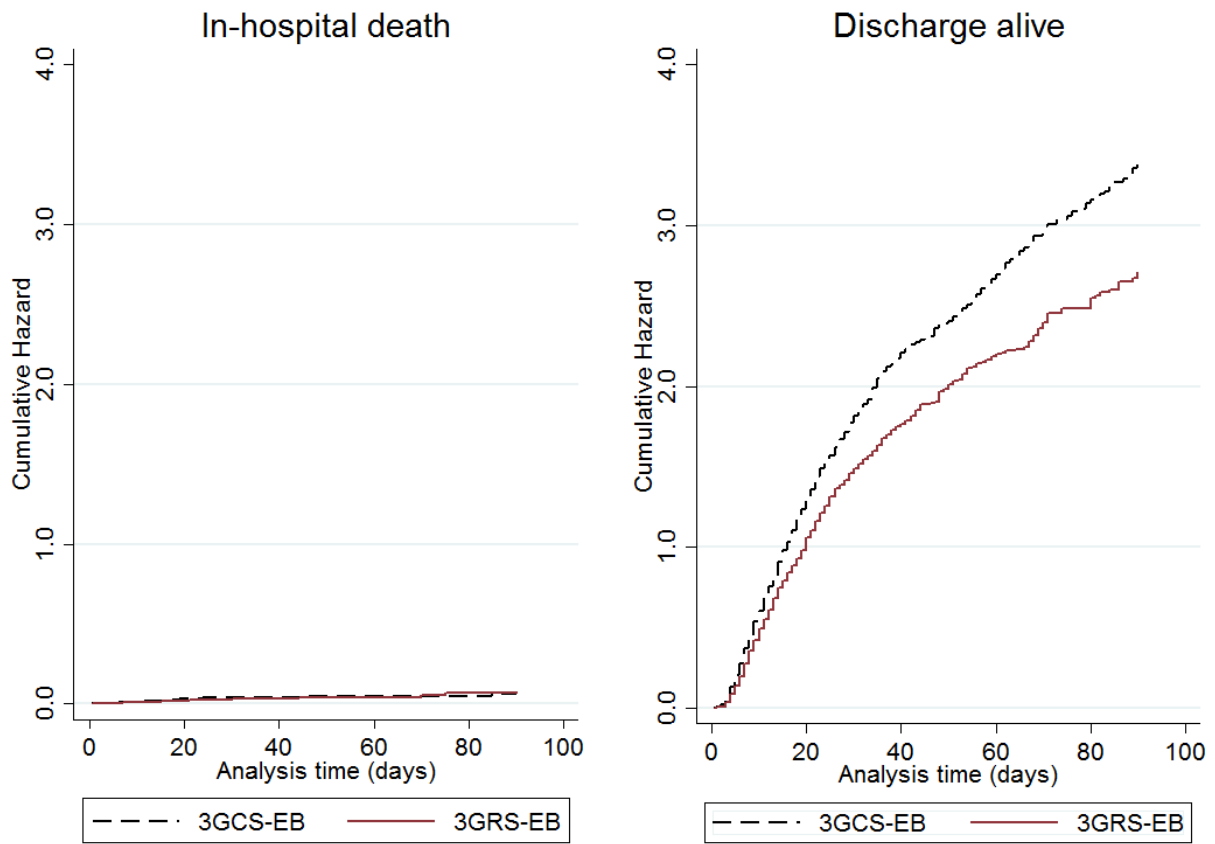
\*Distributions of categorical variables were compared by the Pearson *Chi*-square test. Distributions of continuous variables were compared by the Mann–Whitney U test.



**Table 3**Multivariable competing risk survival analysis for 30-day in-hospital mortality of patients infected by *Enterobacteriaceae*

Risk factor	Cause-specific hazards						Sub-distribution hazards		
	In hospital death			Discharge alive			In hospital death		
	csHR	95%CI	P	csHR	95%CI	P	sHR	95%CI	P
<b>Male sex</b>	1.28	0.65 - 2.51	0.478	0.90	0.82 - 1.00	0.041	1.34	0.66 - 2.72	0.411
<b>Age &gt; 65 years</b>	1.27	0.68 - 2.38	0.445	0.60	0.55 - 0.66	<0.001	1.48	0.78 - 2.79	0.232
<b>ICU admission</b>	2.39	1.08 - 5.30	0.032	0.40	0.30 - 0.53	<0.001	3.48	1.36 - 8.88	0.009
<b>Origin of infection</b>									
Community	1.00	-	-	1.00	-	-	1.00	-	-
Healthcare	1.51	0.79 - 2.89	0.218	0.50	0.44 - 0.57	<0.001	1.87	0.96 - 3.64	0.064
<b>Site of infection</b>									
Lower respiratory tract	2.73	1.02 - 7.29	0.045	0.83	0.72 - 0.95	0.009	2.92	0.98 - 8.72	0.055
Urinary tract	0.41	0.11 - 1.49	0.176	0.85	0.76 - 0.96	0.006	0.45	0.12 - 1.71	0.244
Bloodstream	5.27	1.93 - 14.42	0.001	0.90	0.76 - 1.06	0.207	5.40	1.96 - 14.87	0.001
Other	1.00	-	-	1.00	-	-	1.00	-	-
<b>3<sup>rd</sup> generation Cephalosporin</b>									
Susceptible	1.00	-	-	1.00	-	-	1.00	-	-
Resistant	0.74	0.38 - 1.44	0.379	0.84	0.76 - 0.92	<0.001	0.80	0.41 - 1.55	0.505

Note: csHR: cause-specific hazard ratio; sHR: sub-distribution hazard ratio; 95% CI: 95% confidence interval



**Figure 2** Comparison of cause-specific cumulative hazards of in-hospital death and discharge alive between patients infected by third-generation cephalosporin-susceptible *Enterobacteriaceae* (3GCS-EB) and patients infected by third generation cephalosporin-resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* (3GCR-EB). Cause-specific cumulative hazards were estimated by the Cox model, adjusting for age, sex, intensive care admission, origin of infection and type of infection.