View Point

One Health Journal of Nepal

Open Access

Impact of Convergence of Antimicrobial Resistance (AMR) and COVID-19 on Population Health, Actions to Improve Health Outcomes

Amrit Pokhrel,^{1*} Usha Ghimire²

¹Department of Health Services, Teku, Kathmandu, Nepal. ²Department of Community Programs and Public Health, Dhulikhel Hospital Kathmandu University Hospital.

ABSTRACT

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is a continuously growing and substantial threat of the twenty-first century to global health and development and its convergence with the current COVID-19 pandemic poses even a worse impact to population health. This viewpoint focuses on combined impact and determinants of AMR and Covid-19 on population health. Furthermore, it outlines potential procedures and interventions to moderate the burden of worldwide AMR in current and future pandemics.

Keywords: Antimicrobial resistance; Covid-19; Health; Impact

INTRODUCTION

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is emerging as a global public health risk. Bacterial AMR accounted for estimates of 1.27 million deaths in 2019. Reportedly AMR affects all the countries but the low- and middle-income countries are most affected. AMR jeopardizes several of the advances in contemporary medicine.¹ AMR not only causes death and disability but also has large economic repercussions.²

In the year 2019, the World Health Organization published a list of ten major threats to global health. The list included a range of diseases and conditions such as vaccine preventable diseases, increasing antimicrobial resistant (AMR) pathogens, increase in physical inactivity and obesity, impacts of change in climate and environmental pollution on health and several humanitarian crises. The report also predicted an influenza pandemic that will occur soon with serious threats to global health.³ Three years later after the WHO report, The Lancet Commission on 21st-Century Global Health Threats reported that the three Cs: climate change, COVID-19 and Conflict along with

increase in obesity, aging population, food insecurity and antimicrobial resistance (AMR) are currently threatening achievements of the past seventy years in global health.⁴

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) and its health and economic impact

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is a phenomenon that arises when disease-causing bacteria, fungi, parasites and viruses change themselves over a period and no longer respond to the medicines. With the increase in AMR, existing antimicrobial drugs like antibiotics, antifungal and other drugs become ineffective to treat infections. This phenomenon leads to the creation and global spread of an antimicrobial resistant bacteria also called "superbugs".⁵ These superbugs and their genes have capability to spread among people in hospitals, primary care centers, home for aged care and in the community rapidly and even unnoticed.⁶ The impact of increasing AMR is reflected not only in increased duration of hospital stay, disability and deaths, but also in increase in treatment costs. A review "Tackling Drug-resistant Infections Globally" chaired by The Lord Jim O'Neil

^{*}Correspondence: pokhrelashu@gmail.com

Department of Health Services, Teku, Kathmandu, Nepal

estimates that there will be 700,000 deaths annually due to pathogens resistant to antimicrobial drugs and the death toll may reach up to 10 million annually by year 2050 with visible disparity in distribution of death among high and low-middle income countries.⁷ The inequalities are not limited to health outcomes among rich and poor countries, but it hits the economic growth of these countries in similar fashion. Underdeveloped and developing countries will face more economical challenges that will advance social inequality. Experts have predicted a loss of 1.1%- 3.8% of the global annual gross domestic product as a result of growing infection due to AMR pathogens by 2050 and forcing 24 million people from low-income countries into extreme poverty by 2030.8 While the alarming health and economic impacts of AMR are clear, it is important to understand the determinants of this issue to describe the current context, their interrelation with other threats to global health, e.g. COVID-19 and gain novel insights for current and future mitigation processes for this progressive problem.

Determinants of AMR in COVID-19 pandemics

Antimicrobial resistance is a process that occurs naturally but the acceleration of this process by excessive and inappropriate use of antimicrobial agents has created a serious threat to the world. This part of the article focuses on how the major determinants of AMR and COVID-19 inter played directly or indirectly with each other. It also further explores their bidirectional effect to each other; most of the time, COVID-19 fuelling AMR and sometimes the devastating effect of already existing AMR on health outcome of those with COVID-19.

Inappropriate prescribing and use of antimicrobial

One of the greatest achievements of medical science in the 20th century was the introduction of antibiotics into clinical practice. Antibiotics have contributed to an increase in average life expectancy throughout the world, especially by helping children to survive into adulthood.⁸ Whereas, in resource poor countries where sanitation is still an issue, antibiotics contribute to decrease the infection related morbidity and mortality.⁹ While the global burden of diseases data suggests that the battle against the infectious diseases is still far away to win, the precious antimicrobial drugs started to develop resistance. According to an estimate, infections are still a cause of 17 million deaths per year.¹⁰ Along with many other factors, the leading cause for antimicrobial resistance is inappropriate prescription and use of antimicrobial drugs across the globe. While in developing countries, AMR is causing deaths often due to unavailability of affordable and appropriate antimicrobial drugs, it is a bitter truth to note that at least 50% of the antimicrobial agents currently used worldwide are inappropriate and unnecessary.¹¹ While inappropriate use of antimicrobial agents has always been the key factor for development of AMR, the recent COVID-19 pandemic has further fuelled this practice. In the paragraph below, few facts that have accelerated AMR through irrational use of antimicrobial agents while managing COVID-19 cases have been examined.

There has been a tremendous affinity of health workers to treat COVID-19 cases with antibiotics despite a comparatively low proportion of proven secondary bacterial infections. One of the studies confirms that 72% of the COVID-19 cases were treated with antimicrobial agents when only 8% of them had proven bacterial or fungal infection and the rest of them were mild COVID-19 cases.¹² Data from a hospital-based study in Wuhan reveals that 95% out of 191 admitted patients received antibacterial treatment and only 21% of them received antiviral therapy.¹³ The American CDC estimated an increase in antibiotic resistance (AMR) by 15% within a short period between 2019-2020 during COVID-19 pandemic. It resulted in 29,400 extra deaths due to so-called "superbugs" infection, 40% of which were acquired from the hospitals.¹⁴ If this trend of inappropriate use of antibiotics continues, it will expedite the growth rate of AMR. It is obvious from the data of antibiotic uses during COVID-19 pandemic that this process has already been sped up.

Disruption of health services

Due to COVID-19 after the recommendation of WHO. countries worldwide executed different prevention and control measures to fight against the transmission of COVID-19 virus. These included guarantine, hand hygiene, social distancing, contact tracing, travel restriction, closure of schools and lockdown. However, these instruments were applied to prevent virus transmission, they have unintentionally affected several public health programs e.g. disease prevention and health promotion activities, outpatient clinical services, mass campaigns, and activities related to management of public health priority diseases and AMR related activities. Human resource and budget were diverted to COVID-19 related activities thus affecting the rest of the health system functioning.¹⁵ During the COVID-19 pandemic, there has been disruption in health care service provision at each level. COVID-19 has imposed changes in the shape of the organizations that provide services and at the same time in consumer's service seeking behavior.

While AMR prevention, surveillance, and monitoring activities are mostly attached to healthcare services, disruption of these services will shape the future of AMR burden and impact.¹⁶ This evidence shows that this change in service provision and service seeking behavior will further expose the population to antimicrobial

resistance and adversely affect their health outcomes. There has been evidence of disruption of few vital health care services that has further fuelled AMR.

Immunization program

Prevention of infectious diseases at the population level decreases the transmission of AMR genes, which can be achieved by routine and periodic immunization activities.¹⁷ However, during the COVID-19 pandemic there was a discontinuation of the routine vaccination program worldwide. Among the population, there was a fear of contracting COVID-19 while attending immunization clinics and at the same time the supply side was unable to provide service adequately that resulted in global vaccine coverage reduction.¹⁸ Global data suggests that the diphtheria, pertussis and tetanus (DPT) vaccine third dose administration to children decreased by 33% in the first half of 2020 compared to 2019.¹⁹ Vaccines decrease the use of antibiotics by preventing infectious diseases. It is therefore an important instrument to decrease the burden of AMR.

The adverse impact of COVID-19 on immunization services will lead to more cases of diseases that are preventable by vaccination and complications associated with these diseases, which will further motivate the use of antibiotics and create a favorable environment for development of AMR.²⁰ The level of impact for this effect also varies among countries with higher, low, and middleincome. The decline in vaccine coverage is higher among countries with low-income and poor health systems that poses an increased chance of outbreak of diseases, hence increasing the use of antibiotics, AMR and inequality in health outcomes.²¹ Similarly, studies have shown that people vaccinated with COVID-19 vaccines were at lower risk of developing secondary bacterial infection and less use of antimicrobial, contributing to lower the AMR risk.²² However, when high-income countries were stockpiling vaccines for booster dose, low and middleincome countries were deprived of COVID-19 first dose, making them more vulnerable for developing secondary bacterial infections, use of excessive antimicrobial and contributing to the growth of AMR.

High income countries should treat COVID-19 vaccines as global public health good and donate them to the most resource-constrained countries to eliminate the inequity in vaccine access and make the world safer.²³

COVID-19 pandemic, TB, HIV, and AMR

COVID-19 pandemic has added challenges in management of diseases of public health priority like tuberculosis (TB) and HIV. The difficulties in direct observed treatment strategy (DOTS) for tuberculosis caused by highly drug resistant pathogens has facilitated the spread of antimicrobial resistant (AMR) bacteria causing tuberculosis (TB) and there is a high possibility of missing many cases.²⁴ A modeling report by Stop TB Partnership, Geneva estimates 1.4 million additional deaths due to tuberculosis in a period between 2020 and 2025 as an effect of COVID-19 on TB management.²⁵ Similarly, patients living with HIV (PLWH) are at high risk of infection with antimicrobial resistance pathogens. Studies suggest that PLWH are more susceptible to resistant strains of bacteria as compared to those without HIV infection.²⁶ Uninterrupted healthcare services should be provided to people living with HIV to lower the transmission of HIV, stabilize the viral suppression status, improve clinical outcome by promptly treating any coinfection with AMR and expand lifespan.²⁷ Unfortunately, the prevalence of AMR due to interruption in services, largely due to COVID-19 pandemic, is higher in low-income countries. These countries have limited resource and treatment options to combat these resistant pathogens and play a vital role in further spread of AMR.

Disruption of lab activities and AMR surveillance during COVID-19

Along with other health care services, COVID-19 has also affected diagnostic laboratory services, routine surveillance, and screening activities for antimicrobial resistant pathogens. According to a survey conducted by the WHO Antimicrobial Resistance Surveillance and Quality Assessment Collaborating Centres Network, 67% of the participating countries admitted limited activities for AMR surveillance, prevention as well as control. One of the major causes for reduced activities related to AMR during COVID-19 pandemic in low and middle-income countries was decrease in financial resources.²⁸ This irregularity of AMR related activities during COVID-19 pandemic would result in excessive transmission of resistant pathogens within the healthcare system and beyond. This can be evidenced by the fact that about half of the deaths in COVID-19 patients were associated with bacteria and fungi among which there were AMR pathogens.²⁹ It is therefore important to continue routine surveillance and monitoring activities according to the antimicrobial stewardship (AMS) framework to be vigilant on occurrence of AMR and find the ways forward to prevent and spread of AMR pathogens.

Excessive use of antimicrobial and biocides in other one-health sectors

It will not be correct to blame only the human health sector for creating the AMR crisis, but other health stakeholders from "One Health" should equally take the responsibility of this burden. Other non-health sectors include veterinary, agriculture, and food production.

The contribution of these sectors may even contribute more than human health in creation of AMR. The interesting fact shows that almost 50% of the antibiotics produced in the United States of America is utilized in the livestock sector.³⁰ Adding to this, out of the 700 tons of antimicrobial agents imported in Australia, 78% (550 tons) is consumed in the livestock sector to increase the rate of weight gain and treatment of infections.³¹

It should also be noted that in case of any outbreak in livestock, farmers tend to treat all animals rather than treating the infected ones. This further adds the risk of development of AMR pathogens in livestock sectors and unfortunately, some of these AMR pathogens have capability of transmission to humans making them ill.³² Animal sector along with human hygiene and sanitation sector use biocides (antiseptics, disinfectants and sanitizers, etc.) which also contribute to development of AMR pathogens. The excessive use of hand sanitizer during COVID-19 pandemic for hand hygiene may help dangerous spore forming bacteria to survive and create even more resistant pathogens.³³ It is therefore important to work through the "One Health "initiatives for the prevention and control of AMR"" across all sectors.

Scarcity of new antimicrobial drugs

The AMR growth rate had a steady rise, and the current COVID-19 pandemic has fuelled the process by creating a good ground for misuse of antimicrobials and contributing to develop more antimicrobial resistant pathogens worldwide. Even though AMR is an increasing global threat, there has been a lack of interest among pharmaceutical companies to research and develop new antibiotics.³⁴ Drug manufacturing companies consider that the outcome of investment in research and development of new antibiotics is poor as they are used for a shorter time as compared to the drugs for treatment of non-communicable diseases.³⁵ If this scenario continues, we will soon be in the situation of the preantibiotic era, where no existing antimicrobial will be effective to treat infectious diseases. It is recommended that global leading health organizations, regulatory bodies, and bureaucratic channels should work together with pharmaceutical companies to facilitate the development of new stronger antibiotics that will help us to fight against the current and emerging superbugs.

Actions to improve health outcomes

The World Health Organization on May 5, 2023, declared COVID-19 as an ongoing health issue and it is no longer a public health emergency of international concern due to COVID-19 pandemic (PHEIC). While the world is preparing to overcome the several other devastating impacts of COVID-19 pandemic, it is even more important to be prepared for the ongoing and future impacts of this pandemic on antimicrobial resistance. It is now understood that inappropriate use of antimicrobial agents and biocides in human and other one-health sectors along with disruption of essential health services during the pandemic have a disastrous

impact on AMR related activities.³⁶ The spectrum of the problem, which extends beyond the health sector. requires an approach that incorporates the one health concept. In this context, antimicrobial stewardship (AMS) can provide a long-term comprehensive solution to the AMR issue. Antimicrobial stewardship, as defined by Dyar et al., Is "A coherent set of actions which promote the responsible use of antimicrobials. This can also be applied to actions at the individual level as well as the national and global level, across human health, animal health, and the environment".³⁷ AMS is a multidisciplinary and collaborative approach, which involves healthcare leaders, physicians, nurses, infectionists, clinical pharmacist, veterinarians, farmers, and IT experts to minimize development of AMR and improve treatment outcome and patient safety.³⁸ The involvement of health and non-health stakeholders reflects the one health approach in AMS. They can communicate and work together to formulate and implement policies, programs, legislation, and research for better public health outcomes.

AMS aligns with the principle of universal health coverage (UHC) to provide equitable and quality health care through infection control and prevention, patient safety, AMR surveillance and adequate and affordable supply of quality medicines. AMS also includes the core elements of WHO global action plan on AMR and there has been a recent recommendation from WHO to include AMS interventions in the COVID-19 response programs. However, current evidence speaks that AMS has been successful particularly in developed countries, which demands an implementation of an effective AMS program at resource constrained settings.³⁹ There is also a need for expansion of AMS activities from hospitalbased to community level as the antimicrobial misuses at the community may impact hospitals and vice versa. Health promotion activities (awareness programs and campaigns on use of antimicrobials) should be conducted in the community as well as incorporated in the school curriculum.

WAY FORWARD

WHO has defined AMR as one of the top 10 threats to global health in the 21st century. At the same time, the recent COVID-19 pandemic has fuelled the AMR growth rate, the true effect of which is yet to be seen soon. The AMR has escalated due to various reasons, such as inappropriate and excessive use of antimicrobial agents and biocides in human and other non-human sectors, disruption of the vital health services, envisioned to tackle AMR burden, inequity in access to COVID-19 vaccines in low and middle-income countries, and diversion of resources for AMS activity to prevention and control of COVID-19. While COVID-19 is not the last pandemic to hit humankind as well as AMR, it is therefore important to establish better global coordination among leading health agencies and governments to develop relevant guidelines and protocols to combat future pandemics, facilitate to develop stronger antimicrobial against upcoming powerful superbug and make them available to all in affordable price, give access to global public health goods in equitable manner, share the technology beyond borders for the benefit of the humanity.

As the issue of AMR extends beyond the health sector, it is equally important to educate communities and coordinate with other stakeholders through the principles of one health within the country and across the globe also priority setting, antimicrobial stewardship and people centered approach may be the great milestone in tackling this silent pandemic. The AMR superbug does not recognize international borders. It is therefore important to help each other in the fight against AMR, as no one is safe until everyone is safe.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST:

None

REFERENCE

- Murray CJ. Global Burden of Bacterial Antimicrobial Resistance in 2019: A Systematic Analysis. The Lancet [Internet]. 2022 Jan 19;399(10325):629–55. Available from:https://www.thelancet. com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736(21)02724-0/ fulltext
- World Bank Group. Drug-Resistant Infections: A Threat to Our Economic Future [Internet]. World Bank. 2017 [cited 2023 Dec 16]. Available from:https://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/ health/publication/drug-resistant-infections-a-threat-to-oureconomic-future
- 3. World health organisation. Ten threats to global health in 2019 [Internet]. 2019 [cited 2023 Feb 16]. Available from: World health organisation. https://www.who.int/news-room/spotlight/tenthreats-to-globalhealth-in-2019
- Kanem N, Murray CJ, Horton R. The Lancet Commission on 21st-Century Global Health Threats. The Lancet. 2023 Jan 7;401(10370):10-1. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(22)02576-4
- World Health Organization. Antimicrobial resistance, Key facts [Internet]. World health organisation. 2021 [cited 2023 Dec 16]. Available from: https://www.who.int/news-room/fact sheets/ detail/antimicrobialresistance
- ACSQHC A. fourth Australian report on antimicrobial use and resisatnce in human health. Australian Comission on Safety and Quality in Health Care. [(accessed on 23 March 2022)]. 2021:2021-09.
- O'Neill J. Tackling drug-resistant infections globally: final report and recommendations. https://www.biomerieuxconnection. com/wp-content/uploads/2018/04/Tackling-Drug-Resistant-InfectionsGlobally_-Final-Report-and-Recommendations.pdf
- Drug-Resistant Infections, A Threat to Our Economic Future. [Internet]. World Bank Group; 2017 [cited 2023 Dec 16]. Available from:https://documents.worldbank.org/en/publication/ documentsreports/documentdetail/323311493396993758/ final-report
- 9. Piddock LJ. The crisis of no new antibiotics—what is the way

forward? The Lancet Infectious Diseases [Internet]. 2012 Mar;12(3):249–53. Available from: https://www.sciencedirect. com/science/article/abs/pii/S1473309911703164

- Rossolini GM, Arena F, Pecile P, Pollini S. Update on the antibiotic resistance crisis. Current Opinion in Pharmacology. 2014 Oct;18(1):56–60. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1016/j. coph.2014.09.006
- Butler MS, Buss AD. Natural products The future scaffolds for novel antibiotics? Biochemical Pharmacology. 2006 Mar;71(7):919–29. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1016/j. bcp.2005.10.012
- Dryden MS, Cooke J, Davey P. Antibiotic stewardship--more education and regulation not more availability? Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy. 2009 Sep 2;64(5):885–8. Available from:https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkp305
- Rawson TM, Moore LSP, Zhu N, Ranganathan N, Skolimowska K, Gilchrist M, et al. Bacterial and Fungal Coinfection in Individuals With Coronavirus: A Rapid Review To Support COVID-19 Antimicrobial Prescribing. Clinical Infectious Diseases. 2020 May 2;71(9). Available from:https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciaa530
- 14. Zhou P, Yang XL, Wang XG, Hu B, Zhang L, Zhang W, et al. A pneumonia outbreak associated with a new coronavirus of probable bat origin. Nature. 2020 Feb 3;579(7798):270–3. Available from :https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-020-2012-7
- 15. COVID C. 19: US Impact on Antimicrobial Resistance, Special Report 2022. Atlanta, GA: US Department of Health and Human Services, CDC. 2022. Available from :https://www.cdc.gov/ drugresistance/covid19. Html CDC
- Alastruey-Izquierdo A, Bonilla O, Ortíz B, Gamboa O, Salazar LR, Mercado D, Pérez JC, Denning DW, Arathoon E, Rodriguez-Tudela JL, Medina N. Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on HIV care in Guatemala.Available from:https://doi.org/10.1016/j. ijid.2021.06.011
- Bloom G, Merrett GB, Wilkinson A, Lin V, Paulin S. Antimicrobial resistance and universal health coverage. BMJ global health. 2017 Oct 1;2(4):e000518.Available from: https://doi.org/10.1136/ bmjgh-2017-000518
- Bramer CA, Kimmins LM, Swanson R, Kuo J, Vranesich P, Jacques-Carroll LA, Shen AK. Decline in child vaccination coverage during the COVID-19 pandemic—Michigan Care Improvement Registry, May 2016-May 2020. American Journal of Transplantation. 2020 Jul 1;20(7):1930-1.
- Shet A, Carr K, Danovaro-Holliday MC, Sodha SV, Prosperi C, Wunderlich J, Wonodi C, Reynolds HW, Mirza I, Gacic-Dobo M, O'Brien KL. Impact of the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic on routine immunisation services: evidence of disruption and recovery from 170 countries and territories. The Lancet Global Health. 2022 Feb 1;10(2):e186-94. Available from :https://doi.org/10.1016/ S2214-109X(21)00512-X
- 20. GAVI for Vaccine Alliance .World leaders make historic commitments to provide equal access to vaccines for all [Internet]. GAVI for Vaccine Alliance. 2020 [cited 2023 Dec 16]. Available from: https://www.gavi.org/news/media-room/world-leaders-make-historic-commitmentsprovide-equal-access-vaccines-all
- Knight GM, Glover RE, McQuaid CF, Olaru ID, Gallandat K, Leclerc QJ, Fuller NM, Willcocks SJ, Hasan R, Van Kleef E, Chandler CI. Antimicrobial resistance and COVID-19: Intersections and implications. Elife. 2021 Feb 16;10:e64139. Available from :https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.64139
- 22. Seo WJ, Kang J, Kang HK, Park SH, Koo HK, Park HK, Lee SS, Song JE, Kwak YG, Kang J. Impact of prior vaccination on clinical outcomes of patients with COVID-19. Emerging Microbes & Infections. 2022 Dec 31;11(1):1316-24. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1080/ 22221751.2022.2069516

- Tatar M, Shoorekchali JM, Faraji MR, Seyyedkolaee MA, Pagán JA, Wilson FA. COVID-19 vaccine inequality: A global perspective. Journal of Global Health. 2022;12. Available from: https://doi. org/10.7189/jogh.12.03072
- Lobie TA, Roba AA, Booth JA, Kristiansen KI, Aseffa A, Skarstad K, Bjørås M. Antimicrobial resistance: A challenge awaiting the post-COVID-19 era. International Journal of Infectious Diseases. 2021 Oct 1;111:322-5. Available from :https://doi.org/10.1016/j. ijid.2021.09.003
- 25. 3.Stop TB partnership, Imperial College, Johns Hopkins University, USAID. THE POTENTIAL IMPACT OF THE COVID-19 RESPONSE ON TUBERCULOSIS IN HIGH-BURDEN COUNTRIES: A MODELLING ANALYSIS BACKGROUND AND AIM [Internet]. 2022 [cited 2023 Feb 27]. Available from: https://stoptb.org/ assets/documents/news/Modeling%20Report_1%20May%20 2020_FINAL.pdf
- Olaru ID, Tacconelli E, Yeung S, Ferrand RA, Stabler RA, Hopkins H, Aiken AM, Kranzer K. The association between antimicrobial resistance and HIV infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Clinical Microbiology and Infection. 2021 Jun 1;27(6):846-53. Available from :https://doi.org/10.1016/j. cmi.2021.03.026
- SeyedAlinaghi S, Mirzapour P, Pashaei Z, Afzalian A, Tantuoyir MM, Salmani R, Maroufi SF, Paranjkhoo P, Maroufi SP, Badri H, Varshochi S. The impacts of COVID-19 pandemic on service delivery and treatment outcomes in people living with HIV: a systematic review. AIDS Research and Therapy. 2023 Jan 6;20(1):4. Available from https://doi.org/10.1186/s12981-022-00496-7
- Tomczyk S, Taylor A, Brown A, De Kraker ME, El-Saed A, Alshamrani M, Hendriksen RS, Jacob M, Löfmark S, Perovic O, Shetty N. Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the surveillance, prevention and control of antimicrobial resistance: a global survey. Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy. 2021 Nov 1;76(11):3045-58. Available from https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkab300
- Cox MJ, Loman N, Bogaert D, O'Grady J. Co-infections: potentially lethal and unexplored in COVID-19. The Lancet Microbe. 2020 May 1;1(1):e11. Available from :https://doi.org/10.1016/S2666-5247(20)30009-4.
- 30. Laxminarayan R. How broad should the scope of antibiotics patents be?. American Journal of Agricultural Economics. 2002 Dec 1;84(5):1287-92.
- Shaban RZ, Cruickshank M, Christiansen K. National surveillance and reporting of antimicrobial resistance and antibiotic usage for human health in Australia. Canberra: Antimicrobial Resistance Standing Committee, Australian Heath Protection Principal Committee. 2013 Jun.

- 32. Bardosh KL, Scoones JC, Grace D, Kalema-Zikusoka G, Jones KE, de Balogh K, Waltner-Toews D, Bett B, Welburn SC, Mumford E, Dzingirai V. Engaging research with policy and action: what are the challenges of responding to zoonotic disease in Africa? Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences. 2017 Jul 19;372(1725):20160172. Available from https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2016.0172
- Venter H, Henningsen ML, Begg SL. Antimicrobial resistance in healthcare, agriculture and the environment: the biochemistry behind the headlines. Essays in biochemistry. 2017 Mar 3;61(1):1-0. Available From : https://doi.org/10.1042/ EBC20160053WHO. (2021).
- 34. Dutescu IA, Hillier SA. Encouraging the development of new antibiotics: are financial incentives the right way forward? A systematic review and case study. Infection and drug resistance. 2021 Feb 5:415-34. Available From : https://doi.org/10.2147/ IDR.S287792
- Bartlett JG, Gilbert DN, Spellberg B. Seven ways to preserve the miracle of antibiotics. Clinical infectious diseases. 2013 May 15;56(10):1445-50. Available From : https://doi.org/10.1093/ cid/cit070
- 36. Rezasoltani S, Yadegar A, Hatami B, Asadzadeh Aghdaei H, Zali MR. Antimicrobial resistance as a hidden menace lurking behind the COVID-19 outbreak: the global impacts of too much hygiene on AMR. Frontiers in microbiology. 2020 Dec 15;11:590683.
- Dyar OJ, Huttner B, Schouten J, Pulcini C. What is antimicrobial stewardship?. Clinical microbiology and infection. 2017 Nov 1;23(11):793-8. Available From : https://doi.org/10.1016/j. cmi.2017.08.026GAVI.
- MacDougall C, Polk RE. Antimicrobial stewardship programs in health care systems. Clinical microbiology reviews. 2005 Oct;18(4):638-56. Available From : https://doi.org/10.1128/ CMR.18.4.638-656.2005
- 39. Cox JA, Vlieghe E, Mendelson M, Wertheim H, Ndegwa L, Villegas MV, Gould I, Hara GL. Antibiotic stewardship in low-and middleincome countries: the same but different?. Clinical microbiology and infection. 2017 Nov 1;23(11):812-8.Available From : https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.cmi.2017.07.010\