

RESEARCH

Open Access



# Risk factors for detection of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in clinical samples upon hospital admission

Romeo Reyle<sup>1</sup>, Frank Schwab<sup>1,2</sup>, Selin Saydan<sup>1,2</sup>, Michael Behnke<sup>1,2</sup>, Rasmus Leistner<sup>4</sup>, Petra Gastmeier<sup>1,2</sup>, Christine Geffers<sup>1,2</sup> and Tobias Siegfried Kramer<sup>1,2,3\*</sup> 

## Abstract

**Background/introduction** Antipseudomonal antibiotics are frequently used in patients admitted to hospitals. Many of these substances are classified as a reserve or watch status by the WHO. Inappropriate risk assessment of invasive detection of *P. aeruginosa* (PAE) can be a reason for overuse of antipseudomonal antibiotics. Therefore it is important to define relevant and specific risk factors for invasive PAE detection.

**Objective** The objective of this study was to identify risk factors for invasive detection of PAE in patients upon hospital admission.

**Methods** All patients 18 years of age and older with a detection of PAE and/or Enterobacterales in clinical samples taken within 48 h of admission to one of the hospitals of Charité Universitätsmedizin Berlin between 2015 and 2020 were included into this retrospective cohort study.

**Results** Overall, we included a total of 27,710 patients. In 3,764 (13.6%) patients PAE was detected in clinical samples taken within 48 h after admission. The most frequently detected Enterobacterales was *E. coli* in 14,142 (51%) patients followed by *Klebsiella spp.* in 4,432 (16%) patients. Multivariable regression analysis identified that prior colonisation with a multi drug resistant PAE or detection of a PAE in clinical samples during a previous hospitalisation increased the risk for invasive detection of PAE (OR 39.41; 95% CI 28.54–54.39) and OR 7.87 (95% CI 6.60–9.38) respectively. Admission to a specialised ward for patients with cystic fibrosis was associated with an increased risk (OR 26.99; 95% CI 20.48–35.54). Presence of chronic pulmonary disease (OR 2.05; 95% CI 1.85–2.26), hemiplegia (OR 2.16; 95% CI 1.90–2.45) and male gender (OR 1.60; 95% CI 1.46–1.75) were associated with a modest increase in risk for presence of PAE.

**Conclusion** Patients with a prior detection of *P. aeruginosa* or admission to a cystic fibrosis ward had the highest risk for invasive detection of *P. aeruginosa*. Adherence to specific risk scores based on local risk factors could help to optimize prescription of anti-pseudomonal antibiotics that categorized as reserve and watch.

**Keywords** Empirical antimicrobial therapy, Antimicrobial stewardship, Risk factor, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, Antipseudomonal coverage, Watch list, Reserve list

\*Correspondence:  
Tobias Siegfried Kramer  
Tobias.Kramer@charite.de

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article

## Introduction

The increase of antimicrobial resistance is an essential threat to human healthcare [1]. Cassini et al. estimate that more than 33,110 deaths in Europe are caused by multi-drug resistant pathogens [2]. In Germany an increase of healthcare associated infection with multidrug resistant gram negative pathogens is observable [3]. Antimicrobial Stewardship is one of the most important strategies against antimicrobial resistance [4, 5]. Improved and rational use of antimicrobial substances could lower resistance rates [6]. In Europe most antibiotics in hospitals are prescribed for community acquired infections with a third of prescriptions potentially covering *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (PAE) [7]. In German hospitals antibiotics with anti-pseudomonal coverage are also frequently used in patients with community and healthcare associated infections [8, 9]. Substances such as Piperacillin-Tazobactam, Meropenem and Ciprofloxacin account for a quarter of all prescriptions. In its aWaRe classification the WHO has categorised most of antipseudomonal antibiotics to the watch or reserve group [10]. An update of EUCAST criteria in 2020 regarding the meaning of the category „Susceptible, increased Exposure“ might have further increased the use of these substances [11].

De-escalation of antimicrobial therapies is an essential and recommended tool of antimicrobial stewardship [12]. It is safe and effective even in cases with an increased risk for PAE lower respiratory tract infection [13] and suspected sepsis [14]. However, de-escalation is only performed in a fraction of antibiotic prescriptions [9, 15].

Despite the urgent need to improve prescription quality for antipseudomonal antibiotics, only little is known about the reasons for prescriptions of these broad-spectrum antibiotics.

In guidelines risk factors for PAE as a potential cause of lower respiratory tract infections are frequently mentioned, but infrequently reported and or weighted [16, 17]. For other types of infections, only few studies exist for specific patient populations [18, 19].

Therefore, we aim to identify risk factors for detection of PAE in clinical samples acquired within 48 h after hospital admission that are easy asses. In order to potentially improve selection of antipseudomonal antibiotics in this setting.

## Methods

### Participants

We identified all patients 18 years and older that were admitted to one of the three hospitals of Charité Universitätsmedizin Berlin which has all together account for about 3000 beds. Prior to the start of the study, we obtained a positive vote from the Charité Ethics Board (internal processing key EA1/264/21). This investigation

was then performed as a retrospective cohort study. Cases were identified from the Institutions own database. We included all cases in patients 18 years of age or older with a finding of PAE and/or Enterobacterales in clinical samples obtained within 48 h of admission. Samples were stratified according to their collection site. In case of multiple samples from a single patient, the most invasive location was chosen.

Cases were defined as patients with the first invasive detection of PAE in a sample taken within 48 h of admission during the study period. Patients that had both invasive PAE and Enterobacterales were accounted to the PAE group. Colonization with PAE was defined as any detection of PAE in the patient during the 12 months prior to admission. Mortality was assessed based on discharge alive or in-hospital death.

For all of the patients enrolled, the following clinical and demographic characteristics were collected: age, sex, in-hospital death, length of hospital stay (LOS); type of initial ward admitted to, specialty of ward admitted to, stay on an intensive care unit (days) previous detection of any PAE prior to the admission and known colonisation or previous infection with multidrug resistant gram negative rod bacteria. Length of stay in total were defined as length of stay until death or discharge. The Charlson comorbidity index (CCI) was obtained based on the patients' diagnosed comorbidities while using the method of Charlson et al. [20] and the adaptation for the ICD-10 by Thygesen et al. [21].

### Microbiological methods

Microbiological sampling was performed at the treating physician's discretion. The samples were at least cultured for forty-eight hours. MALDI TOF MS<sup>®</sup> and Vitek 2<sup>®</sup> automated system (Biomérieux, Marcy l'étoile, France) were used for identification and susceptibility testing of bacterial strains. Interpretation of susceptibility happened according to the updated EUCAST definitions at each point in time. Gram negative rods with non-intrinsic resistance against 3rd generation cephalosporins, fluorquinolone and/or carbapenems were defined as MDRGN according to the national recommendations.

### Statistical methods

In the descriptive analysis, the median and the interquartile range (IQR) (25% percentile, 75% percentile) were calculated for continuous parameters and the number and percentage were calculated for binary parameters. Descriptive analysis was performed for the total cohort of patients with positive clinical sample caused by gram-negative pathogens within 48 h after hospital admission and stratified by the presence of PAE or not. Differences were tested using Wilcoxon rank-sum test for

continuous variables or Chi-square test for binary variables respectively.

The following patient-based parameters were considered in the analysis: age, gender (male/female) and comorbidities. In addition, the following non-patient-based parameters were used in the analysis:

- the type of unit, where the clinical sample was taken (ICU, IMC, regular ward; specialization).
- the type of clinical sample (subgroup).
- the year and the season, when the clinical sample was taken and.
- detection of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in clinical samples prior to the admission.
- colonization with multidrug resistant gram negative bacteria (MDRGN) before or simultaneously to the time point the clinical sample was taken.

Multivariable logistic regression analysis was performed to identify independent risk factors and confounders for the outcome “presence of PAE” in the positive clinical sample within 48 h after admission in the hospital. The multivariable model building strategy was performed in a stepwise backward approach. From a full model including all investigated parameters, non-significant parameters were removed with the significance level of  $p = 0.05$  and above.

P-values less than 0.05 were considered significant. All analyses were exploratory in nature were performed using SPSS version 29 (IBM SPSS statistics, Somers, NY, USA) and SAS version 9.4 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA).

## Results

Of the 802,859 cases admitted to the hospital between 2015 and 2020 a total of 27,710 (3.45%) admitted cases had clinical samples with growth of GN-pathogens within 48 h from admission (Table 1). A total of 3764 (13.6%) patients had growth of PAE in a clinical sample. However, *E. coli* was the GN 14,142 (51%) most frequently detected followed by *Klebsiella spp.* 4432 (16%). Even though the frequency of GN-pathogens in clinical samples increased over time, their sequence did not (Fig. 1).

Patients with growth of GN-pathogens in clinical samples had a median age of 67 (IQR:53–77). They had a median CCS of 5 (IQR:2–8). The Univariable logistic regression identified several potential risk factors for the “presence of PAE” in clinical samples (Table 2). Only for those deemed relevant and statistically significant multivariable analysis was performed.

Multivariable logistic regression analysis identified a variety of independent risk factors for the outcome “presence of PAE” in clinical samples taken within the first 48 h from admission (Table 3).

Male gender of patients increased the risk for presence of PAE OR 1.60 (95% CI 1.46–1.75). Prior colonisation with a multi drug resistant PAE or detection of a PAE in clinical samples during a previous hospitalisation increased the risk OR 39.41 (95% CI 28.54–54.39) and OR 7.869 (95% CI 6.60–9.38) respectively.

In addition, admission to a cystic fibrosis ward was associated with an increased risk of OR 26.99 (95% CI 20.48–35.54). Admission to other types of wards such as oncology, internal medicine, neurology and others were only associated with a modest but statistically significant increased odds.

Presence of chronic pulmonary disease OR 2.05 (95% CI 1.85–2.26), hemiplegia OR 2.16 (95% CI 1.90–2.45), leukaemia OR 1.52 (95% CI 1.12–2.08), as well as the diagnosis of pneumonia OR 1.35 (95% CI 1.20–1.51) and infection OR 1.17 (95% CI 1.05–1.31) were associated with a modest increase in risk for presence of PAE.

Growth of GN-pathogens in samples derived from the lower respiratory tract and other sites were associated with a modest increased risk for detection of PAE with OR 1.53 (95% CI 1.24–1.90) and OR 1.34 (95% CI 1.11–1.62) respectively.

Interestingly enough the detection GN-pathogens in blood cultures and urine were associated with a statistically significant decreased risk for detection of PAE OR 0.42 (95% CI 0.33–0.53) and OR 0.53 (95% CI 0.43–0.67).

In addition, we identified that patients that were colonized with MDRGN Enterobacterales prior to admission, had a decreased risk for invasive detection of PAE.

## Discussion

In this retrospective single centre cohort study, we were able to identify novel as well as well-established risk factors for the presence of PAE in clinical samples acquired immediately after admission. Our findings could potentially support physicians in evaluation if antipseudomonal coverage in calculated antimicrobial therapy is necessary.

Previous infection with PAE as well as colonisation are well known and internationally established risk factors for subsequent or re-infections with PAE [22]. This is especially true for bacterial infections of the lower respiratory tract such as pneumonia [20].

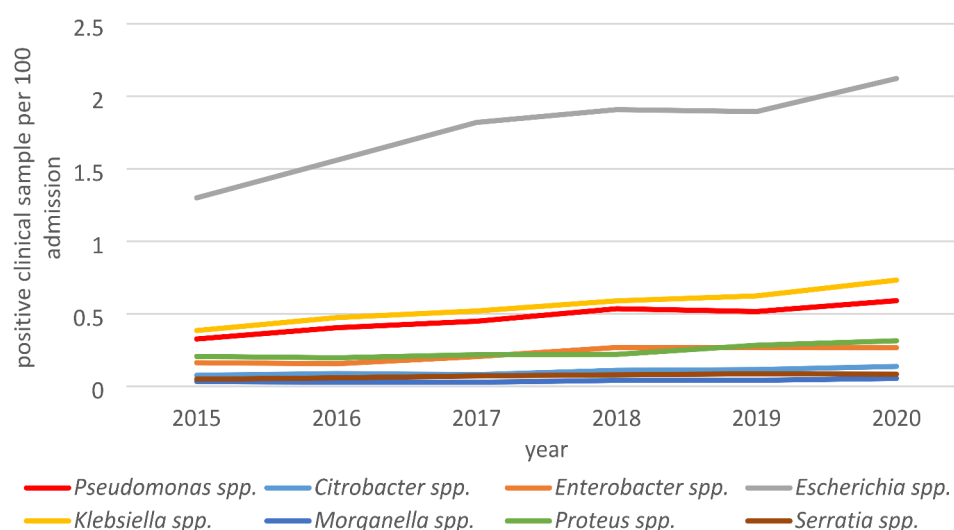
Patients with structural pulmonary disease have an increased risk for bacterial colonisation and infections with PAE [22]. This is based as much on the medical condition itself, as on the recurrent medical treatment for infection and exacerbation often times with antibiotics [23]. Similar observations are true for patients with hemiplegia. Those patients often spend prolonged durations of time in hospitals and rehabilitation facilities and potentially encounter repeated exposition to antibiotics as well as PAE.

**Table 1** Patients (N= 27,710) with positive clinical sample with Gram negative-pathogen during the first 48 h from admission

Parameter	Total amount (%) / median (IQR)
Admissions	27,710 (100%)
Year 2015	3413 (12.3%)
Year 2016	4172 (15.1%)
Year 2017	4170 (15%)
Year 2018	5111 (18.4%)
Year 2019	5542 (20%)
Year 2020	5302 (19.1%)
Length of stay	7 (4–14)
Age	67 (53–77)
Gender female	14,422 (52%)
Gender male	13,288 (48%)
Comorbidities	
Charlson Comorbidity Score	5 (2–8)
Myocardial infarction	558 (2%)
Chronic heart failure	3981 (14.4%)
Peripheral vascular disease	2111 (7.6%)
Cerebrovascular disease	2555 (9.2%)
Dementia	1438 (5.2%)
Chronic pulmonary disease	5573 (20.1%)
Rheumatic disease	1056 (3.8%)
Peptic ulcer disease	357 (1.3%)
Mild liver disease	1623 (5.9%)
Diabetes without chronic complications	4770 (17.2%)
Diabetes with chronic complications	1240 (4.5%)
Chronic kidney disease	10,333 (37.3%)
Malignant tumor	4911 (17.7%)
Moderate to severe liver disease	834 (3%)
Metastasized solid tumor	3032 (10.9%)
AIDS HIV	116 (0.4%)
Hemiplegia	2417 (8.7%)
Leukaemia	453 (1.6%)
Lymphoma	933 (3.4%)
Type of Unit	
Intensive care unit (ICU)	4884 (17.6%)
Regular ward (RW) & intermediate care unit(IMC)	22,826 (82.4%)
Interdisciplinary	4751 (17.1%)
Neurology / Neurosurgery	1606 (5.8%)
Visceral surgery	2600 (9.4%)
Internal medicine	5257 (19%)
Nephrology	3226 (11.6%)
Pediatrics	888 (3.2%)
Oncology	1908 (6.9%)
Obstetrics & Gynaecology	1238 (4.5%)
Urology	1670 (6%)
Cardiology / Visceral surgery	2876 (10.4%)
Cystic fibrosis	994 (3.6%)
Infectious Diseases	1720 (6.2%)
Anaesthesiology	1481 (5.3%)
other	9366 (33.8%)
Clinical Material	
Blood culture	3112 (11.2%)
Gastrointestinal tract	1246 (4.5%)
CSF/otolaryngologic	396 (1.4%)

**Table 1** (continued)

Parameter	Total amount (%)/median (IQR)
Respiratory Tract	3255 (11.7%)
Skeletal	233 (0.8%)
others	5703 (20.6%)
urine	13,765 (49.7%)
GN pathogen species	
<i>Citrobacter spp.</i>	811 (2.9%)
<i>Enterobacter spp.</i>	1769 (6.4%)
<i>E. coli</i>	14,142 (51%)
<i>Klebsiella spp.</i>	4432 (16%)
<i>Morganella spp.</i>	301 (1.1%)
<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	3764 (13.6%)
<i>Proteus spp.</i>	1919 (6.9%)
<i>Serratia spp.</i>	572 (2.1%)
Infection & MDR detection prior to invasive detection	
Previous invasive <i>P. aeruginosa</i>	1071 (3.9%)
Colonization MDR <i>P. aeruginosa</i>	630 (2.3%)
Colonization MDR <i>E. coli</i>	1662 (6%)
Colonization MDR <i>Klebsiella spp.</i>	599 (2.2%)
Colonization MDR <i>Enterobacter spp.</i>	90 (0.3%)
Colonization other MDRGN	142 (0.5%)

**Fig. 1** Yearly development of admitted cases with positive sample with GN-pathogens within the first 48 h from the admission to the hospital

In patients with cystic fibrosis the course of disease is in direct correlation to the presence and infection with PAE in the lung [24]. Cystic fibrosis is a known risk factor for PAE when compared to patients without. Due to this fact, studies investigating risk factors for PAE frequently exclude patients with cystic fibrosis in their analysis. However, we tried to achieve a full overview of risk factor for our setting. Only 994 adult patients (3.6%) of the cohort were admitted to the cystic fibrosis ward. Of whom 92 did not have PAE detected in their clinical samples.

In general, PAE plays an important role in LRTI. The detection in microbiological samples derived from other

sites is less common and potentially associated with underlying immunosuppressive medical conditions [18]. Our data underline this fact with an increased independent risk for PAE if the sample is derived from the LRT and an independent risk reduction if samples such as blood cultures or even urine grew Gram-negative rods [25]. So, in alternative sites of infection outside the respiratory tract, PAE is less likely to be the cause of infection [26].

Colonization with MDRGN Enterobacterales was associated with significantly decreased risk for detection of PAE in clinical samples with Gram-negative rods upon admission. Underlying reasons could be based on

**Table 2** Results of univariable analysis: admissions ( $N = 27,710$ ) with positive clinical sample with Gram negative-pathogen during the first 48 h from admission stratified by "presence of PAE" or not

Parameter	<i>P. aeruginosa</i>		% with <i>P. aeruginosa</i>	<i>p</i> -value
	no	yes		
	Total number (%) / median (IQR)	Total number (%) / median (IQR)		
Admissions	23,946 (100%)	3764 (100%)	13.6%	0.534
Year 2015	2974 (12.4%)	439 (11.7%)	12.9%	
Year 2016	3603 (15%)	569 (15.1%)	13.6%	
Year 2017	3618 (15.1%)	552 (14.7%)	13.2%	
Year 2018	4382 (18.3%)	729 (19.4%)	14.3%	
Year 2019	4795 (20%)	747 (19.8%)	13.5%	
Year 2020	4574 (19.1%)	728 (19.3%)	13.7%	
Length of Stay	7 (4–14)	9 (5–16)		< 0.001
Age	68 (54–77)	64 (47–76)		< 0.001
Gender male	12,919 (54%)	1503 (39.9%)	10.4%	< 0.001
Gender female	11,027 (46%)	2261 (60.1%)	17.0%	
Comorbidities				
Charlson Comorbidity Score	5 (2–8)	4 (2–7)		< 0.001
Myocardial infarction	517 (2.2%)	41 (1.1%)	7.3%	< 0.001
Chronic heart failure	3579 (14.9%)	402 (10.7%)	10.1%	< 0.001
Peripheral vascular disease	1906 (8%)	205 (5.4%)	9.7%	< 0.001
Cerebrovascular disease	2145 (9%)	410 (10.9%)	16.0%	< 0.001
Dementia	1315 (5.5%)	123 (3.3%)	8.6%	< 0.001
Chronic pulmonary disease	3652 (15.3%)	1921 (51%)	34.5%	< 0.001
Rheumatic disease	968 (4%)	88 (2.3%)	8.3%	< 0.001
Peptic ulcer disease	311 (1.3%)	46 (1.2%)	12.9%	0.698
Mild liver disease	1274 (5.3%)	349 (9.3%)	21.5%	< 0.001
Diabetes without chronic complications	4254 (17.8%)	516 (13.7%)	10.8%	< 0.001
Diabetes with chronic complications	1131 (4.7%)	109 (2.9%)	8.8%	< 0.001
Chronic kidney disease	9290 (38.8%)	1043 (27.7%)	10.1%	< 0.001
Malignant tumor	4425 (18.5%)	486 (12.9%)	9.9%	< 0.001
Moderate to severe liver disease	722 (3%)	112 (3%)	13.4%	0.895
Metastasized solid tumor	2767 (11.6%)	265 (7%)	8.7%	< 0.001
AIDS HIV	104 (0.4%)	12 (0.3%)	10.3%	0.308
Hemiplegia	1812 (7.6%)	605 (16.1%)	25.0%	< 0.001
Leukaemia	389 (1.6%)	64 (1.7%)	14.1%	0.733
Lymphoma	863 (3.6%)	70 (1.9%)	7.5%	< 0.001
Type of Unit				
Intensive care unit (ICU)	4064 (17%)	820 (21.8%)	16.8%	< 0.001
Regular ward (RW) & intermediate care unit (IMC)	19,882 (83%)	2944 (78.2%)	12.9%	< 0.001
Interdisciplinary	4382 (18.3%)	369 (9.8%)	7.8%	< 0.001
Neurology / Neurosurgery	1387 (5.8%)	219 (5.8%)	13.6%	0.949
Visceral surgery	2353 (9.8%)	247 (6.6%)	9.5%	< 0.001
Internal medicine	4629 (19.3%)	628 (16.7%)	11.9%	< 0.001
Nephrology	2901 (12.1%)	325 (8.6%)	10.1%	< 0.001
Paediatrics	801 (3.3%)	87 (2.3%)	9.8%	< 0.001
Oncology	1677 (7%)	231 (6.1%)	12.1%	0.051
Obstetrics & Gynaecology	1187 (5%)	51 (1.4%)	4.1%	< 0.001
Urology	1536 (6.4%)	134 (3.6%)	8.0%	< 0.001
Cardiology / Visceral surgery	2645 (11%)	231 (6.1%)	8.0%	< 0.001
Cystic fibrosis	90 (0.4%)	904 (24%)	90.9%	< 0.001
Infectious Diseases	1483 (6.2%)	237 (6.3%)	13.8%	0.807
Anaesthesiology	1257 (5.2%)	224 (6%)	15.1%	0.075
other	8231 (34.4%)	1135 (30.2%)	12.1%	< 0.001
Type of clinical material				

**Table 2** (continued)

Parameter	<i>P. aeruginosa</i>		% with <i>P. aeruginosa</i>	<i>p</i> -value
	no	yes		
	Total number (%) / median (IQR)	Total number (%) / median (IQR)		
Respiratory tract	1839 (7.7%)	1416 (37.6%)	43.5%	< 0.001
Blood culture	2936 (12.3%)	176 (4.7%)	5.7%	< 0.001
Urine	12,855 (53.7%)	910 (24.2%)	6.6%	< 0.001
Skeletal	216 (0.9%)	17 (0.5%)	7.3%	0.005
Gastro intestinal tract	1142 (4.8%)	104 (2.8%)	8.3%	< 0.001
Central nervous system; otorhinolaryngology	358 (1.5%)	38 (1%)	9.6%	0.020
other	4600 (19.2%)	1103 (29.3%)	19.3%	< 0.001
Infection & MDRGN colonization				
Previous invasive <i>P. aeruginosa</i>	319 (1.3%)	752 (20%)	70.2%	< 0.001
Colonization MDR <i>P. aeruginosa</i>	51 (0.2%)	579 (15.4%)	91.9%	< 0.001
Colonization MDR <i>E. coli</i>	1541 (6.4%)	121 (3.2%)	7.3%	< 0.001
Colonization MDR <i>Klebsiella</i> spp.	500 (2.1%)	99 (2.6%)	16.5%	0.033
Colonization MDR <i>Enterobacter</i> spp.	81 (0.3%)	9 (0.2%)	10.0%	0.320
Colonization other MDRGN	110 (0.5%)	32 (0.9%)	22.5%	0.002

differences of characteristics in patients underlying conditions. Patients colonized with MDR *E. coli* are frequently less impaired and have a lower Charlson Comorbidity Score compared to other Enterobacterales. Patients colonized with non-fermentative bacteria are known to even have more severe impairment and higher Charlson Comorbidity scores. In addition, prior antibiotic exposure, and differences in the susceptibility of pathogens could play an important role as well [27]. CRE are relatively rare in Germany. However, nonspecific carbapenem resistance in PAE are the most frequently identified Carbapenem-resistant organisms [28].

There are certain limitations that apply to this study. (i) The retrospective design of this study and the non-clinical definition for presence of PAE in clinical samples potentially affects our findings to a certain degree. Often patients that are colonized with MDRGN are believed to be similar to patients with predetected colonisation or infection with PAE. However, in clinical medicine often the presence of a pathogen in a clinical sample is considered for the antibiotic treatment. (ii) Our findings might not be applicable for some other centers, since this cohort is derived from a single university hospital that consist of three independent hospitals and provides specialized care as including patient with cystic fibrosis as well as organ transplant. (iii) We were not able to differentiate between community acquired and healthcare associated infections with readmission. But often this not possible for the physicians evaluating the patients upon admission. (iiii) Some of the variables used in this study rather represent surrogates than the directly measured information. (iiiii) The definition used for MDRGN is specific to the German healthcare system and unfortunately cannot easily be extrapolated to international definitions.

## Conclusion

PAE is frequently cultured from clinical samples taken from patients within 48 h after admission. The overall most important risk factors are prior detection or cystic fibrosis. Knowledge of these risk factors upon admission can significantly help shaping the use of anti-pseudomonal antibiotics. Future studies should investigate the potential of such risk factor analysis in clinical routine for antibiotic prescriptions.



**Table 3** Results of multivariable logistic regression analysis for the outcome “presence of *P. aeruginosa*” in clinical sample with Gram negative-pathogen during the first 48 h from admission

Parameter	OR	95%CI	p-value
male	1.599	1.461–1.75	< 0.0001
Comorbidities			
Myocardial infarction	0.806	0.706–0.921	0.0015
Chronic heart failure	0.803	0.678–0.952	0.0114
Chronic pulmonary disease	2.045	1.847–2.263	< 0.0001
Mild liver disease	0.686	0.556–0.847	0.0005
Diabetes with chronic complications	0.716	0.567–0.903	0.0048
Chronic kidney disease	0.905	0.82–0.997	0.044
Metastasized solid tumor	0.847	0.727–0.988	0.034
Infection	1.171	1.049–1.306	0.0048
Pneumonia	1.349	1.203–1.513	< 0.0001
Hemiplegia	2.157	1.897–2.453	< 0.0001
Leukaemia	1.524	1.117–2.079	0.0079
Lymphoma	0.715	0.538–0.95	0.0208
Type of ward			
Interdisciplinary	0.742	0.642–0.856	< 0.0001
Neurology / Neurosurgery	1.256	1.049–1.504	0.0129
Internal medicine	1.347	1.191–1.523	< 0.0001
Oncotherapy	1.739	1.446–2.092	< 0.0001
Cardiology Visceral Surgery	0.712	0.598–0.848	0.0001
Cystic fibrosis	26.978	20.481–35.537	< 0.0001
others	1.401	1.256–1.564	< 0.0001
Type of clinical sample			
other	1.338	1.106–1.618	0.0027
Respiratory tract	1.534	1.24–1.898	< 0.0001
Blood culture	0.419	0.328–0.534	< 0.0001
Urine	0.525	0.433–0.638	< 0.0001
Infection & MDRGN colonization			
Previous invasive <i>P. aeruginosa</i>	7.869	6.601–9.381	< 0.0001
Colonization MDR <i>P. aeruginosa</i>	39.401	28.542–54.391	< 0.0001
Colonization MDR <i>E. coli</i>	0.634	0.471–0.854	0.0027
Colonization MDR <i>Klebsiella spp.</i>	0.33	0.256–0.425	< 0.0001
Colonization MDR <i>Enterobacter spp.</i>	0.537	0.301–0.959	0.0355

### Acknowledgements

We acknowledge support from the German Research Foundation (DFG) and the Open Access Publication Funds of Charité–Universitätsmedizin Berlin.

### Author contributions

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, T.S.K. and R.R.; methodology, T.S.K., R.R. and R.L.; software, M.B., F.S., P.G. and R.L.; validation, T.S.K., F.S. and R.R.; formal analysis, T.S.K., F.S., S.S., B.S. and R.R.; investigation, T.S.K., R.R. and R.L.; resources, P.G. and C.G.; data curation, R.R., F.S., T.S.K.; writing—original draft preparation, T.S.K., R.R., R.L. and P.G.; writing—review and editing, T.S.K., R.R., F.S., D.G., M.B., P.G. and R.L.; visualization, S.S. and F.S.; supervision, P.G., T.S.K., C.G.; project administration, T.S.K. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

### Funding

Open Access funding enabled and organized by Projekt DEAL.  
This research received no external funding.

### Data availability

No datasets were generated or analysed during the current study.

### Declarations

#### Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

#### Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest. Parts of this study were presented at ECCMID 2023 and DGHM annual meeting 2023 as part of a poster session.

#### Author details

<sup>1</sup>Institute of Hygiene and Environmental Medicine, Charité

Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Hindenburgdamm 27, 12203 Berlin, Germany

<sup>2</sup>National Reference Center for the Surveillance of Nosocomial Infections, 12203 Berlin, Germany

<sup>3</sup>LADR der Laborverbund Dr. Kramer & Kollegen, 21502 Geesthacht, Germany

<sup>4</sup>Department of Gastroenterology, Infectious Diseases and Rheumatology, Charité Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Hindenburgdamm 30, 12203 Berlin, Germany

Received: 19 May 2024 / Accepted: 27 January 2025

Published online: 25 February 2025

### References

1. Antimicrobial Resistance Collaborators. Global burden of bacterial antimicrobial resistance in 2019: a systematic analysis. *Lancet Lond Engl* 12 Februar. 2022;399(10325):629–55.
2. Cassini A, Högberg LD, Plachouras D, Quattrocchi A, Hoxha A, Simonsen GS. u. a. attributable deaths and disability-adjusted life-years caused by infections with antibiotic-resistant bacteria in the EU and the European Economic Area in 2015: a population-level modelling analysis. *Lancet Infect Dis Januar*. 2019;19(1):56–66.
3. Remschmidt C, Schneider S, Meyer E, Schroeren-Boersch B, Gastmeier P, Schwab F. Surveillance of antibiotic use and resistance in Intensive Care Units (SARI). *Dtsch Arzteblatt Int* 15 Dezember. 2017;114(50):858–65.
4. Baur D, Gladstone BP, Burkert F, Carrara E, Foschi F, Döbele S. u. a. effect of antibiotic stewardship on the incidence of infection and colonisation with antibiotic-resistant bacteria and *Clostridium difficile* infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Infect Dis September*. 2017;17(9):990–1001.
5. Kallen MC, Binda F, Ten Oever J, Tebano G, Pulcini C, Murri R. u. a. comparison of antimicrobial stewardship programmes in acute-care hospitals in four European countries: a cross-sectional survey. *Int J Antimicrob Agents September*. 2019;54(3):338–45.
6. Mo Y, Oonsivilai M, Lim C, Niehus R, Cooper BS. Implications of reducing antibiotic treatment duration for antimicrobial resistance in hospital settings: a modelling study and meta-analysis. *PLoS Med Juni*. 2023;20(6):e1004013.
7. Plachouras D, Käski T, Hansen S, Hopkins S, Lyytikäinen O, Moro ML. November, Antimicrobial use in European acute care hospitals: results from the second point prevalence survey (PPS) of healthcare-associated infections and antimicrobial use, 2016 to 2017. *Euro Surveill Bull Eur Sur Mal Transm Eur Commun Dis Bull*. 2018;23(46):1800393.
8. Aghdassi SJS, Gastmeier P, Piening BC, Behnke M, Peña Diaz LA, Gropmann A. u. a. antimicrobial usage in German acute care hospitals: results of the third national point prevalence survey and comparison with previous national point prevalence surveys. *J Antimicrob Chemother 1 April*. 2018;73(4):1077–83.
9. Aghdassi SJS, Hansen S, Peña Diaz LA, Gropmann A, Saydan S, Geffers C. Healthcare-Associated infections and the Use of antibiotics in German hospitals—results of the Point Prevalence Survey of 2022 and comparison with earlier findings. *Dtsch Arzteblatt Int*. 3. Mai 2024;(Forthcoming):arztebl. m2024.0033.
10. Adekoya I, Maraj D, Steiner L, Yaphe H, Moja L, Magrini N. u. a. comparison of antibiotics included in national essential medicines lists of 138 countries using the WHO Access, Watch, Reserve (AWaRe) classification: a cross-sectional study. *Lancet Infect Dis Oktober*. 2021;21(10):1429–40.
11. Munting A, Regina J, Damas J, Lhopitalier L, Kritikos A, Guery B. u. a. impact of 2020 EUCAST criteria on meropenem prescription for the treatment of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infections: an observational study in a university hospital. *Clin Microbiol Infect off Publ Eur Soc Clin Microbiol Infect Dis April*. 2022;28(4):558–63.



12. de With K, Allerberger F, Amann S, Apfalter P, Brodt HR, Eckmanns T. u. a. strategies to enhance rational use of antibiotics in hospital: a guideline by the German Society for Infectious diseases. *Infect Juni*. 2016;44(3):395–439.
13. Deshpande A, Richter SS, Haessler S, Lindenauer PK, Yu PC, Zilberberg MD. u. a. de-escalation of empiric antibiotics following negative cultures in hospitalized patients with pneumonia: Rates and outcomes. *Clin Infect Dis off Publ Infect Dis Soc Am* 26 April. 2021;72(8):1314–22.
14. Moehring RW, Yarrington ME, Warren BG, Lokhnygina Y, Atkinson E, Bankston A. u. a. evaluation of an opt-out protocol for antibiotic de-escalation in patients with suspected Sepsis: a Multicenter, Randomized, Controlled Trial. *Clin Infect Dis off Publ Infect Dis Soc Am* 8 Februar. 2023;76(3):433–42.
15. Waagsbø B, Tranung M, Damås JK, Heggelund L. Antimicrobial therapy of community-acquired pneumonia during stewardship efforts and a coronavirus pandemic: an observational study. *BMC Pulm Med* 14 Oktober. 2022;22(1):379.
16. Metlay JP, Waterer GW, Long AC, Anzueto A, Brozek J, Crothers K. u. a. diagnosis and treatment of adults with community-acquired Pneumonia. An Official Clinical Practice Guideline of the American Thoracic Society and Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1 Oktober. 2019;200(7):e45–67.
17. Ewig S, Kolditz M, Pletz M, Altner A, Albrich W et al. Drömann D, [Management of Adult Community-Acquired Pneumonia and Prevention - Update 2021 - Guideline of the German Respiratory Society (DGP), the Paul-Ehrlich-Society for Chemotherapy (PEG), the German Society for Infectious Diseases (DGI), the German Society of Medical Intensive Care and Emergency Medicine (DGIIIN), the German Viological Society (DGV), the Competence Network CAPNETZ, the German College of General Practitioners and Family Physicians (DEGAM), the German Society for Geriatric Medicine (DGG), the German Palliative Society (DGP), the Austrian Society of Pneumology Society (ÖGP), the Austrian Society for Infectious and Tropical Diseases (ÖGIT), the Swiss Respiratory Society (SGP) and the Swiss Society for Infectious Diseases Society (SSI)]. *Pneumol Stuttg Ger*. September 2021;75(9):665–729.
18. Royo-Cebrecos C, Laporte-Amargós J, Peña M, Ruiz-Camps I, García-Vidal C, Abdala E. u. a. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Bloodstream infections presenting with septic shock in Neutropenic Cancer patients: impact of empirical antibiotic therapy. *Microorganisms* 30 März. 2024;12(4):705.
19. Gudiol C, Albasanz-Puig A, Laporte-Amargós J, Pallarès N, Mussetti A, Ruiz-Camps I. u. a. clinical predictive model of Multidrug Resistance in Neutropenic Cancer patients with bloodstream infection due to *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 24 März. 2020;64(4):e02494–19.
20. Hyun H, Song JY, Yoon JG, Seong H, Noh JY, Cheong HJ. u. a. risk factor-based analysis of community-acquired pneumonia, healthcare-associated pneumonia and hospital-acquired pneumonia: microbiological distribution, antibiotic resistance, and clinical outcomes. *PLoS ONE*. 2022;17(6):e0270261.
21. Rojas A, Palacios-Baena ZR, López-Cortés LE, Rodríguez-Baño J. Rates, predictors and mortality of community-onset bloodstream infections due to *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Clin Microbiol Infect off Publ Eur Soc Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* August. 2019;25(8):964–70.
22. Restrepo MI, Babu BL, Reyes LF, Chalmers JD, Soni NJ, Sibila O. u. a. Burden and risk factors for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* community-acquired pneumonia: a multinational point prevalence study of hospitalised patients. *Eur Respir J* August. 2018;52(2):1701190.
23. Fujitani S, Sun HY, Yu VL, Weingarten JA. Pneumonia due to *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: part I: epidemiology, clinical diagnosis, and source. *Chest* April. 2011;139(4):909–19.
24. Stapleton PJ, Izydorczyk C, Clark S, Blanchard A, Wang PW, Yau Y. u. a. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain-sharing in early infection among children with cystic fibrosis. *Clin Infect Dis off Publ Infect Dis Soc Am* 2 November. 2021;73(9):e2521–8.
25. Herrera S, Bodro M, Soriano A. Predictors of multidrug resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* involvement in bloodstream infections. *Curr Opin Infect Dis* 1 Dezember. 2021;34(6):686–92.
26. Fernández-Barat L, Ferrer M, De Rosa F, Gabarrús A, Esperatti M, Terraneo S. u. a. intensive care unit-acquired pneumonia due to *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* with and without multidrug resistance. *J Infect* Februar. 2017;74(2):142–52.
27. Cobos-Trigueros N, Solé M, Castro P, Torres JL, Hernández C, Rinaudo M. u. a. Acquisition of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and its resistance phenotypes in critically ill medical patients: role of colonization pressure and antibiotic exposure. *Crit Care Lond Engl* 4 Mai. 2015;19(1):218.
28. Kresken M, Wohlfarth E, Wichelhaus TA, Gattermann SG, Pfennigwerth N, Eisele J. u. a. susceptibility of Multidrug-Resistant *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* from Germany to Ceftolozane-Tazobactam, Ceftazidime-Avibactam, and Imipenem-Relebactam. *Microb Drug Resist Larchmt N April*. 2023;29(4):138–44.

## Publisher's note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.