



Review

Carbapenem and colistin resistance in Enterobacteriaceae in Southeast Asia: Review and mapping of emerging and overlapping challenges



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ABSTRACT

Carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae infections have spread globally, leaving polymyxins, including colistin, as 'last-resort treatments'. Emerging colistin resistance raises the spectre of untreatable infections. Despite this threat, data remain limited for much of the world, including Southeast Asia where only 3 of 11 nations submitted data on carbapenem and colistin resistance for recent World Health Organization (WHO) reports. To improve our understanding of the challenge, we utilised broad strategies to search for and analyse data on carbapenem and colistin resistance among *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella* in Southeast Asia. We found 258 studies containing 526 unique reports and document carbapenem-resistant *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* in 8 and 9 of 11 nations, respectively. We estimated carbapenem resistance proportions through meta-analysis of extracted data for nations with ≥ 100 representative isolates. Estimated resistance among *Klebsiella* was high ($>5\%$) in four nations (Indonesia, Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam), moderate (1–5%) in two nations (Malaysia and Singapore) and low ($<1\%$) in two nations (Cambodia and Brunei). For *E. coli*, resistance was generally lower but was high in two of seven nations with ≥ 100 isolates (Indonesia and Myanmar). The most common carbapenemases were NDM metallo- β -lactamases and OXA β -lactamases. Despite sparse data, polymyxin resistance was documented in 8 of 11 nations, with *mcr-1* being the predominant genotype. Widespread presence of carbapenem and polymyxin resistance, including their overlap in eight nations, represents a continuing risk and increases the threat of infections resistant to both classes. These findings, and remaining data gaps, highlight the urgent need for sufficiently-resourced robust antimicrobial resistance surveillance.

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1. Introduction

Antimicrobial agents are essential to medicine and public health, from treatment of common infections to supportive care for surgery, malignancies and transplantation [1]. However, microorganisms have biological capabilities to resist antimicrobials, leading to antimicrobial resistance (AMR). Genes conferring AMR are often encoded on mobile genetic elements, facilitating their rapid spread. Thus, it is no surprise that the extensive use of antibiotics in humans and agriculture [2,3] is contributing to an increase in infections with multidrug-resistant organisms (MDROs) [1,4,5]. At the same time, development of drugs to treat MDROs has lagged, raising the threat of untreatable infections [1]. As a result, AMR is

a global threat [4,6] posing catastrophic risks to health and development [7].

Among the most problematic MDROs, classified both by the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and the World Health Organization (WHO) as an urgent threat [8,9], are carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae (CRE) [2]. CRE are most commonly associated with healthcare settings [10] but may also be community-acquired [11–13]. Carbapenems are broad-spectrum antibiotics effective against most resistant Gram-negative organisms and are generally reserved for the treatment of serious infections when resistance to alternative antibiotics is documented or suspected [11,14]. However, as resistant organisms have become more common, in particular those expressing extended-spectrum β -lactamases (ESBLs), use of carbapenems has grown [2], as has carbapenem resistance [15]. CRE become resistant through a variety of mechanisms, most importantly by expressing carbapenemases, enzymes encoded on mobile genetic elements that also frequently carry genes conferring resistance to other antibi-

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otics. Whilst there are many carbapenemases, the most common are class A *Klebsiella pneumoniae* carbapenemases (KPCs), class B metallo- β -lactamases (MBLs) including IMP, NDM and VIM types, and class D OXA β -lactamases [16]. CRE infections are difficult to treat, have caused severe outbreaks [17–19] and are associated with excess costs [20] and mortality [21].

Polymyxin antibiotics, including colistin (polymyxin E) and polymyxin B, hereinafter referred to together as polymyxin(s), are often termed antibiotics of ‘last resort’ as they are among the few, sometimes only, available agent(s) active against CRE [7,22,23]. However, in addition to chromosomal mutations associated with resistance to polymyxin(s) [24], increasing reports document the global spread of resistance-conferring plasmids [25], posing the risk that, if present together with carbapenemases, microorganisms may become untreatable with most or all antibiotics [26,27]. Understanding the prevalence and spread of such MDROs is critical to informing public health and medical interventions [5,9,28,29]. The WHO has initiated the Global Antimicrobial Resistance Surveillance System (GLASS) [5,7] and encourages surveillance as a key objective in national AMR action plans [30]. Whilst participation is rapidly growing, currently there are only 48 nations reporting AMR data, of which just 11 are lower-middle- or low-income countries [2,28]. Thus, there continue to be major gaps in data globally [5,28,31].

Historically, Asia has experienced a high burden of infectious diseases, now including ESBL-producing and carbapenem-resistant organisms [15,32]. In this region, as in many others, challenges in access to health care and diagnostics may contribute to misuse of antibiotics, sometimes of poor quality and/or accessed without prescription [33]. Widespread use in food production of antibiotic classes important to human health, including polymyxin(s) [3,34,35], may contribute to AMR [3,36], and there have been increasing reports of Enterobacteriaceae isolated from humans and animals in Asia carrying plasmid-mediated *mcr* genes conferring polymyxin resistance [32,37,38], making tracking of resistance critical [39].

Southeast Asia has often been particularly challenged by emerging infections [40–42]. When data were sought on CRE for the WHO’s 2014 surveillance report, information was reported for 7 of 11 Southeast Asian nations [5] but was limited except for 3 nations with national surveillance systems (Malaysia [43], the Philippines [44] and Thailand [45]). Only these three nations reported data in WHO’s more recent reports [7,28] and, as a result, widespread data gaps remain. Two reviews published in 2016 document carbapenem resistance in the region as well as a variety of carbapenemase genotypes [32,36] but provide limited national data. Similarly, a recent review documented the global spread of resistance to polymyxin(s) but reported information from only 4 of 11 Southeast Asian countries [24]. We recently showed that similar data gaps regarding CRE in Africa could be addressed in part through broad data searching, extraction, analysis and mapping, enhancing our understanding of regional CRE [46]. The present study uses further refined approaches to help address gaps in our understanding of carbapenem and polymyxin resistance among *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella* spp. in Southeast Asia and provides a comprehensive database and maps, including areas where overlapping resistance may increase the risk of organisms acquiring resistance to both drug classes.

2. Methods

2.1. Sources

A comprehensive search was conducted for data from 11 Southeast Asian nations (Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Timor-Leste and Viet-

nam) based on the United Nations geoscheme [47]. Searches were initiated using four scientific databases (Embase, Global Health, PubMed and Web of Science). These were supplemented by review of relevant citations found in identified studies as well as meta-analyses and by examination of ProMED-mail, ResistanceMap and HealthMap [48–50]. Google Scholar was used to identify open-source data from countries that yielded <4 reports from scientific databases. All reports available from 1 January 1996 to 30 June 2018 were searched.

2.2. Search strategy

Searches were structured to broadly capture data on *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp. isolates from humans for which carbapenem and/or polymyxin(s) susceptibility and/or genotyping was reported from Southeast Asian nations. Boolean search strings were constructed, iteratively tested and refined to optimise sensitivity while, to the degree feasible, enhancing specificity (Supplementary Table S1). The strings (search operators capitalised) followed a general structure of place (e.g. terms for Southeast Asia OR country names) AND terms for AMR (including general OR specific AMR terms OR synonym drug terms) AND species/mechanisms (including resistance enzymes and plasmid-mediated genotypes). Final strings also contained MeSH terms found to improve sensitivity and specificity. Human subject filters were used when available. Manual searches were performed for data on chromosomal mutations associated with colistin resistance, including in the *mgrB*, *phoPQ* and *pmrAB* genes. Manual Google Scholar searches were conducted using terms specific to organism, place and drug class for five countries (Brunei, Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar and Timor-Leste) where database searches resulted in <4 reports. Google Scholar searches followed the structure of ‘country name’ AND (‘carbapenem’ or ‘colistin’ or ‘polymyxin B’) AND ‘*E. coli* OR *Klebsiella*’ AND ‘susceptibility OR resistance’. To reduce irrelevant hits, Google Scholar searches contained negation operators excluding ‘*Acinetobacter*’ OR ‘*Salmonella*’ as well as patents and citations.

2.3. Data collation

Two authors (MDM and LMT) independently evaluated all of the results. Studies were screened based on title, allowing exclusion of irrelevant material. The reviewers then examined the abstracts and full-text of all other studies. Inclusion criteria required that studies contained unique information regarding carbapenem and/or polymyxin susceptibility and/or related genotypes among isolates of *E. coli* and/or *Klebsiella* spp. from humans as well as a description of the study design and sampling, including population, place and testing methods. Both conventional scientific and publicly available ‘grey literature’ (e.g. non-peer-reviewed publications, reports, abstracts, web-based data or conference proceedings) that met the inclusion criteria were eligible. Both reviewers extracted and coded data from studies meeting the inclusion criteria, resolving discordant results by consensus. A third author (JLG) arbitrated remaining questions through mutual agreement. If more than one study reported identical or overlapping data, the most complete study was utilised unless overlapping reports included unique details, in which case both were included on separate lines in the database without dual reporting of any data.

2.4. Database construction and data entry

A structured Microsoft Excel (Microsoft Corp., Redmond, WA, USA) template with pre-defined attributes, building on that utilised for CRE in Africa [46], was developed for data entry and coding (Supplementary Table S2). The following were extracted and entered: location; dates of study and publication; study duration;

population type; age; specimen/sample type; type of study; organism studied and, for each organism, presence or absence of any carbapenem and/or polymyxin resistance; number of isolates; percentage resistance [carbapenems and/or polymyxin(s)]; and resistance genotypes detected. Populations were classified as from acute (e.g. hospital) or chronic (e.g. long-term care) facilities or as community-based (samples specifically obtained from outpatients, from community-based surveillance, or solely within 48 h of admission to a healthcare facility), or as travellers (from individuals following international travel). Selected subpopulations, if studied, were defined by clinical attributes (e.g. pregnant, intensive care unit, clinical syndrome). WHO age classification (infant, child, adolescent, adults [51]) was utilised where feasible. In cases where authors characterised participants as neonates or elderly, the authors' classification was used. Study type was classified as clinical laboratory-based (based on diagnostic specimens), case series (focused on a specific subpopulation of patients and where clinical information was included defining patients beyond demographics), outbreaks (specimens obtained during an outbreak of resistant infections) or surveillance (defined here strictly as studies evaluating susceptibility among colonising organisms rather than samples obtained for clinical diagnosis). When a study provided potentially important findings, but uncertainties were present relevant to our analyses, the authors were contacted, when possible, for clarification (see the Acknowledgments section).

Reports that focused on specific subsets of laboratory isolates selected for their resistance were coded noting selection criteria utilised (e.g. for ESBL or CRE). Because many reports of *Klebsiella* included multiple species or were not speciated, and because resistance was similar across *Klebsiella* spp., results for *Klebsiella* isolates, while reported by species in the database, were aggregated for analyses. Where the results of susceptibility testing to multiple carbapenems were reported, the value for the drug with the highest percentage resistance was used to represent overall resistance. Isolates reported as having intermediate susceptibility were classified as resistant. For studies that presented susceptibility with results disaggregated by ESBL status (e.g. carbapenem resistance among ESBL-producing versus non-ESBL-producing isolates), data were re-aggregated to reflect resistance in the whole population of isolates. Documentation of specific carbapenemase or polymyxin resistance-associated genes, while recorded and mapped, was not required to consider as resistant those isolates reported as phenotypically resistant. Thus, reported data include both phenotypic and/or genotypic resistance. For quality control, all entries were reviewed by two authors (MDM and LMT), and a third author (JLG) reviewed one-third of the entries through systematic random sampling.

2.5. Data analyses

2.5.1. Presence of antimicrobial resistance and/or specific resistance genotypes

Any report of one or more carbapenem- and/or polymyxin-resistant *E. coli* or *Klebsiella* isolate, or of a resistance-associated genotype, contributed to defining the presence of carbapenem or polymyxin resistance in a nation. This could include data derived from either population-based studies or from studies of outbreaks, case series, highly selected subpopulations, or isolates selected for their known carbapenem, polymyxin or other resistance.

2.5.2. Crude national resistance proportion estimates

To estimate overall crude resistance proportions for *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* at the country level, data from studies with ≥ 20 isolates studied for resistance to carbapenem(s) or with ≥ 10 isolates for polymyxin(s), and deemed to be reasonably 'generalisable' (i.e. representative of individuals in overall healthcare populations),

were aggregated and analysed across studies. These analyses excluded data from outbreaks and from studies reporting resistant isolates in highly selected subpopulations of patients (e.g. burn injury, oncology, transplantation etc.) that typically have levels of resistance greater than general acute-care populations. Similarly, data reporting resistance among organisms specifically selected for their resistance to antibiotics were not considered generalisable and those data, while contributing to defining the presence or absence of resistance (and of specific genotypes) in a location, were also excluded from national resistance estimates. To enhance the contemporary relevance of carbapenem resistance estimates, they were calculated using data from studies reporting samples obtained from 2010 onward. Due to a paucity of data, crude resistance proportions for polymyxin(s) were calculated using aggregated data from all available years. If the total of generalisable *E. coli* or *Klebsiella* isolates tested for susceptibility to carbapenems or polymyxin(s) in a nation was ≥ 100 , we calculated that nation's mean and, across qualifying studies, median resistance proportions using R v.3.5.2 [52]. When the total of generalisable isolates for a nation was < 100 , a category of either 'Insufficient isolates – Resistance detected' or 'Insufficient isolates – Resistance not detected' was assigned. For nations with ≥ 100 generalisable isolates of *E. coli* or *Klebsiella*, a crude estimated median resistance category was assigned as follows: low, $< 1\%$; moderate, 1–5%; or high, $> 5\%$.

For the three countries with surveillance reporting of carbapenem resistance (Malaysia [43], Philippines [44] and Thailand [45]), data were extracted and analysed (Supplementary Table S3) to determine mean resistance over available time periods most analogous to the 2010–2017 samples included in our analyses in order to allow general comparison of surveillance findings with estimates from our study.

2.6. Geocoding and mapping

ArcGIS Desktop 10.6 (ESRI, Redlands, CA, USA) was used to map estimated crude resistance proportions and detected genotypes at the national level.

2.7. Data sharing

The supplementary material, including all study data and data elements extracted for analyses (Supplementary Table S2), are available through Mendeley (<http://dx.doi.org/10.17632/8tnhz8wfk8.2>).

3. Results

3.1. Data characteristics

The searches of PubMed, Embase, Web of Science and Global Health returned 5459 documents for screening, of which 251 (4.6%) met the inclusion criteria. Five additional studies [53–57] were identified through review of citations in included studies, meta-analyses or reviews. Two additional studies [58,59] were identified through Google Scholar. Altogether, 258 eligible studies were identified and included data from all 11 Southeast Asian countries. ResistanceMap displayed some additional data from surveillance being developed in Vietnam (Supplementary Table S3). All but one document (in French) were in English. Further details regarding search outputs are provided in Supplementary Fig. S1.

Because many studies either included both *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* isolates or data from more than one population, each study could yield more than one unique data report. Thus, 258 study documents yielded 526 data reports, each then extracted and coded as a separate line in the database. Of the 526 data reports, 21

Table 1
Key data attributes^a.

Age group	N (%)	Population type	N (%)	Study type	N (%)	Specimen type	N (%)	Species	N (%)
Adolescent	14 (2.7%)	Community	114 (21.7%)	Case series	126 (24.0%)	Bile	4 (0.8%)	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	255 (48.5%)
Adult	150 (28.5%)	HC-acute	428 (81.4%)	Clinical laboratory	355 (67.5%)	Blood	98 (18.6%)	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	230 (43.7%)
All	68 (12.9%)	HC-chronic	4 (0.8%)	Outbreak	3 (0.6%)	CSF	2 (0.4%)	<i>Klebsiella</i> spp.	41 (7.8%)
Child	41 (7.8%)	HC-unknown	29 (5.5%)	Surveillance	42 (8.0%)	Multiple	197 (37.5%)		
Elderly	7 (1.3%)	Travellers	5 (1.0%)			Other	2 (0.4%)		
Infant	21 (4.0%)					Pus	5 (1.0%)		
Neonate	19 (3.6%)					Rectal swab	17 (3.2%)		
Unknown	250 (47.5%)					Respiratory	27 (5.1%)		
						Stool	48 (9.1%)		
						Tissue	8 (1.5%)		
						Unknown	57 (10.8%)		
						Urine	75 (14.3%)		
						Wound	9 (1.7%)		

HC, healthcare; CSF, cerebrospinal fluid.

^a Number (%) of 526 unique data reports including the indicated subgroups. In some categories, the total is >526 as reports may contain multiple subgroups.

Table 2
Available reports on *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella* spp. carbapenem and polymyxin resistance and related genes.

Nation and references	All reports on named species (reports identifying resistance or genes related to resistance)			
	Carbapenems		Polymyxins ^a	
	<i>E. coli</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>	<i>E. coli</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i>
Brunei [5,17,57]	1 (0)	3 (2)	0	1 (0)
Cambodia [5,54,59,80–82,85–94]	13 (2)	13 (6)	3 (3)	2 (1)
Indonesia [95–113]	15 (7)	18 (7)	1 (1)	1 (0)
Laos [5,34,35,76,114–116]	3 (0)	3 (0)	2 (2)	2 (2)
Malaysia [55,58,60,63,67,83,102,117–150]	20 (7)	37 (26)	3 (3)	6 (3)
Myanmar [5,72,74,151–155]	6 (5)	5 (4)	2 (0)	1 (0)
Philippines [56,60,66,102,127,139,140,156–173]	22 (6)	22 (13)	0	1 (1)
Singapore [18,53,69,70,78,79,102,103,127,139,140,142,162,164,165,167,174–207]	37 (22)	45 (30)	9 (2)	10 (6)
Thailand [23,35,56,60,64–66,68,71,73,75,84,102,104,114,125,127,139,140,142,208–270]	88 (43)	84 (46)	25 (14)	16 (8)
Timor-Leste [271]	1 (0)	1 (0)	0	0
Vietnam [56,60,77,104,127,139,140,272–302]	34 (16)	32 (26)	6 (5)	5 (4)
All reporting nations	240 (108)	263 (160)	51 (30)	45 (25)

^a Colistin and polymyxin B.

(4.0%) were from grey literature. Although we found reports published in all years searched, 75% were from 2010–2018. Three countries (Thailand, Vietnam and Singapore) accounted for nearly two-thirds of reports; in contrast, Myanmar, Brunei and Timor-Leste accounted for only 3%. Moreover, 53% of reports were based on specimens from a single institution, 44% were from multiple institutions and 3% did not specify.

Additional attributes of the reports are shown in Table 1. Reports were evenly distributed by species, with 48.5% including data on *E. coli* and 51.5% on *Klebsiella* spp. Over two-thirds (67.5%) were from clinical laboratory-based studies, 24.0% from case series, 8.0% from surveillance and 0.6% from outbreaks. The most common isolate sources were multiple types (37.5%), blood (18.6%) and urine (14.3%). Subjects included adults in 28.5% of reports, all ages in 12.9%, children in 7.8%, infants in 4.0%, neonates in 3.6%, adolescents in 2.7% and elderly in 1.3%, whilst age was not specified in 47.5% of reports. Most reports (81.4%) included isolates from acute healthcare settings, 21.7% included community-based settings, 5.5% included unspecified healthcare settings, 1.0% included travellers and 0.8% included chronic healthcare. The geographic distribution of the data is represented graphically in Fig. 1 and the reports are further detailed, including references, in Table 2.

3.2. Carbapenem resistance: overview

Carbapenem resistance in either *E. coli* or *Klebsiella* spp. was reported from 9 of the 11 countries studied (Brunei, Cambodia,

Indonesia, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam). All isolates from Laos and Timor-Leste were carbapenem-susceptible. Carbapenem resistance in *E. coli* was reported from 8 of 11 countries (Cambodia, Indonesia, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam), whilst the same eight countries plus Brunei reported resistance among *Klebsiella* spp. Table 3 presents detailed national-level data on carbapenem resistance from all years studied, including whether resistance was reported, specific carbapenemase genotypes were detected and, for all samples from generalisable studies, percent mean resistance.

3.2.1. Carbapenem susceptibility and resistance among more recent *Escherichia coli* isolates

Table 4 presents carbapenem resistance data from reports including samples collected from 2010 onwards. The data shown include mean, range and, for the 8 countries reporting on *E. coli* carbapenem susceptibility testing from which ≥ 100 generalisable isolates were tested, estimated national resistance proportions (median resistance across qualifying studies) and resulting resistance categories of low (<1%), medium (1–5%) or high (>5%). For *E. coli*, Myanmar, with median resistance estimated across reports of 8.2% [based on 46/666 (6.9%) resistant isolates overall] was classified as in the high category. Resistance in Indonesia was also estimated as high with a median of 5.4% [based on 107/904 (11.8%) resistant isolates]. Cambodia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam all had estimated median resistance in *E. coli*

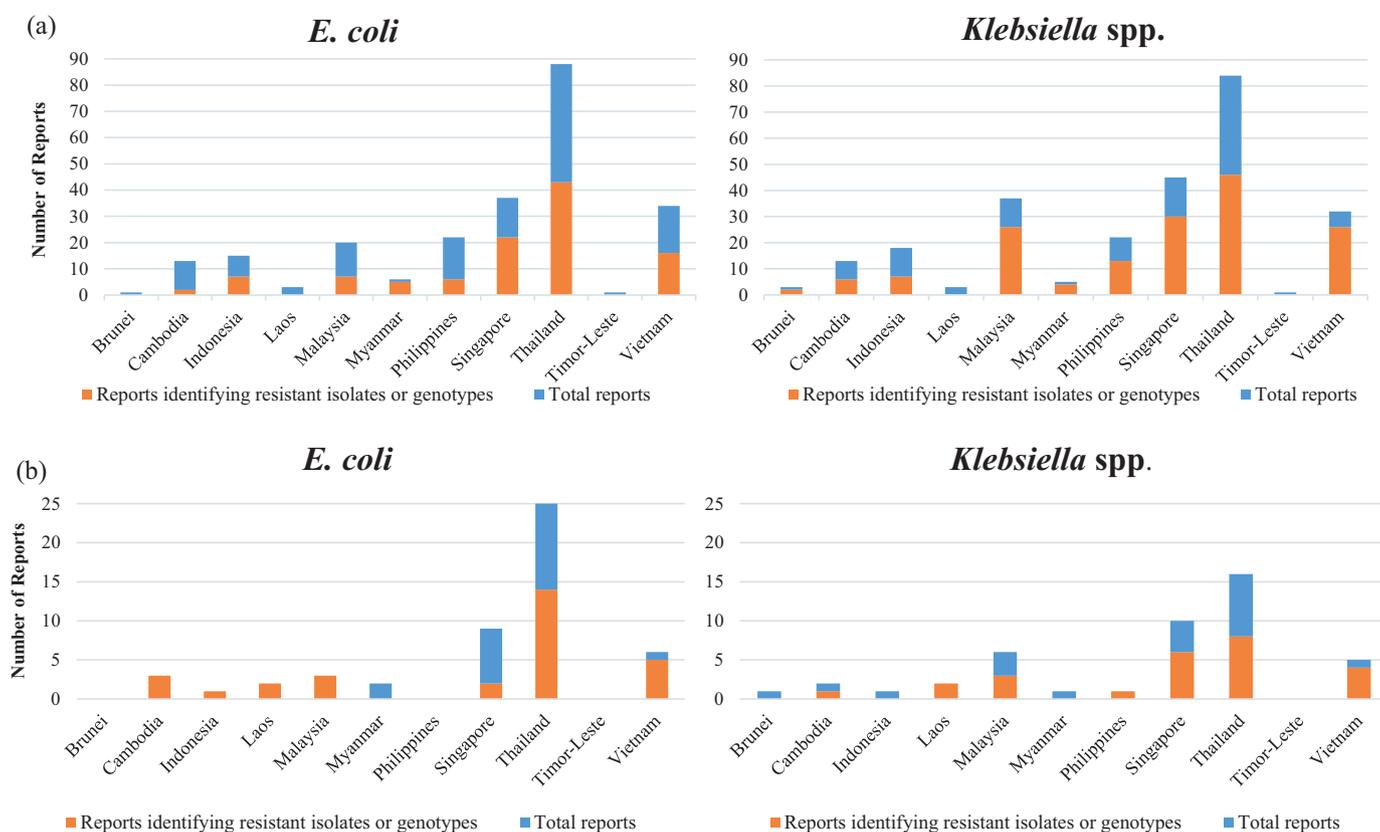


Fig. 1. Number of reports on (a) carbapenem susceptibility and (b) polymyxin susceptibility of *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella* spp. isolates in Southeast Asian nations.

of <1% and were classified in the low category. No carbapenem-resistant *E. coli* isolates were reported from Brunei, Laos or Timor-Leste. No isolates were studied from Brunei from 2010 onwards and the low numbers studied from Laos (78 isolates) and Timor-Leste (49 isolates) did not support estimation of resistance proportions. The resistance data for *E. coli* are mapped in Fig. 2a.

3.2.2. Carbapenem susceptibility and resistance among more recent *Klebsiella* isolates

Eight of eleven nations had ≥ 100 generalisable *Klebsiella* isolates studied, of which four had high estimated median carbapenem resistance. Vietnam had the highest median resistance of 10.1% [based on studies including 142 (10.4%) of 1364 resistant isolates], followed by the Philippines with a median of 8.7% [based on 53 (7.7%) of 692 isolates], Indonesia at 6.4% [based on 30 (12.3%) of 244 isolates] and Thailand at 5.2% [based on 98 (6.0%) of 1631 isolates]. Countries estimated as having moderate median carbapenem resistance included Malaysia at 4.05% and Singapore at 2%, whilst Cambodia and Brunei were classified as low. There were no reports of carbapenem-resistant *Klebsiella* from Laos or Timor-Leste, however both had <100 isolates studied and thus were classified as having 'Insufficient isolates – Resistance not detected'. Finally, although we did not identify reports of phenotypic carbapenem resistance among *Klebsiella* isolates from Myanmar, we did find reports of the presence of NDM-4 and -7 genotypes (see Table 3 and Section 3.2.3) and Myanmar was therefore classified as 'Insufficient isolates – Resistance detected'. The resistance data for *Klebsiella* are mapped in Fig. 2b.

3.2.3. General comparability of findings with available national surveillance data

Our study focused on the utilisation of non-traditional data to help address gaps where sufficient surveillance data are not

available. For this reason, and because at least some of the data sources are likely to have included data also reported as part of national surveillance, we did not include in our analyses surveillance system reports from Malaysia [43], the Philippines [44] or Thailand [45], or abbreviated available laboratory surveillance data from Vietnam [49]. We did extract those available national surveillance data from Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand from similar timeframes to permit general comparison with our resistance estimates. The median carbapenem resistance estimates based on the studies included in our analyses are, in fact, broadly similar to mean resistance as reported in surveillance data (Supplementary Table S3). Consistent with surveillance data, carbapenem resistance in Malaysia was estimated through our analyses as low (<1%) among *E. coli* and moderate (1–5%) among *Klebsiella* spp. Also consistent, carbapenem resistance in the Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam was estimated as high (>5%) among *Klebsiella* spp. However, for the Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam there was lower overall carbapenem resistance estimated among *E. coli* using the data included in our analyses compared with available surveillance data.

3.2.4. Carbapenem resistance genotypes

Carbapenemase genotypes were included in 114 data reports, with specific carbapenemases identified in all nine countries from which phenotypic resistance was reported (Table 3). No genotypic studies were available from Laos or Timor-Leste. Among *E. coli*, NDM genotypes were most commonly detected and were reported from Malaysia (NDM-1), Myanmar (NDM-1, -4, -5 and -7), Philippines (NDM-1, -7 and -unspecified), Singapore (NDM-1, -7 and -unspecified), Thailand (NDM-1 and -5) and Vietnam (NDM-1, -4 and -5). OXA genotypes were reported among *E. coli* isolates from Cambodia (OXA-48), Myanmar (OXA-181), Singapore (OXA-23, -48, -181 and -unspecified), Thailand (OXA-48 and -181) and

a



b

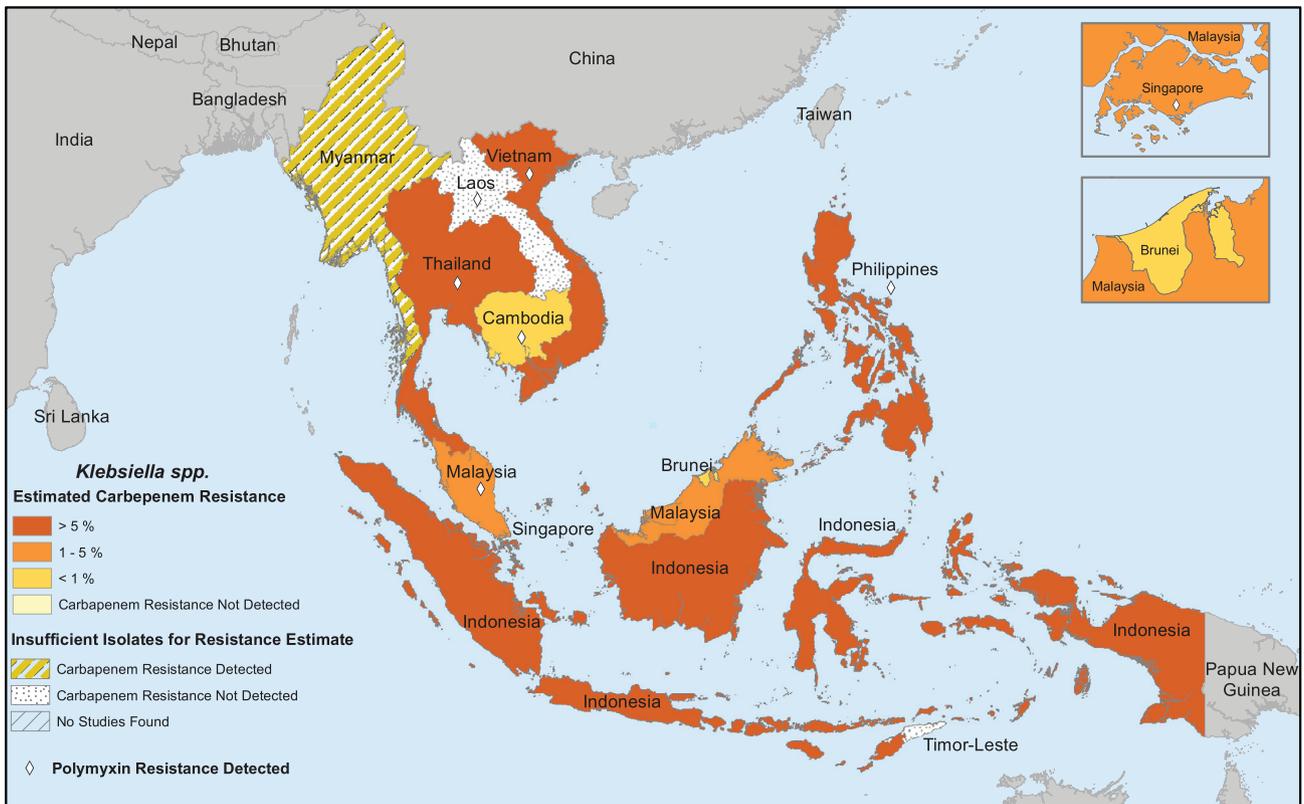


Fig. 2. Estimated median national carbapenem resistance proportions for (a) *Escherichia coli* and (b) *Klebsiella spp.* based on including samples from 2010–2017. For nations with ≥ 100 isolates from qualifying studies (see Methods), median proportions across studies were calculated. Where there were < 100 isolates, data were deemed insufficient to estimate proportions and resistance is represented as either detected or not. +, national surveillance data indicates resistance in the moderate (1–5%) category [44,45]. See Section 3.2.3, Discussion and Supplementary Table S3. # Limited surveillance data indicates resistance in the high ($> 5\%$) category [49]. See Section 3.2.3, Discussion and Supplementary Table S3.

Table 3
Carbapenem resistance (R) and resistance-related genotypes in *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella* spp. isolates: data from all years.

Nation	No. of reports	Specimens in all reports	Any R	Findings in reports from all study years meeting criteria for generalisability					Genes identified
				Reports meeting criteria	Specimens meeting criteria	Specimens range	Resistant specimens	Resistant specimens (%)	
Brunei									
<i>E. coli</i>	1	4	N	0	0	– ^a	0	0	
<i>Klebsiella</i>	3	1062	Y	1	1038	–	8	0.8	OXA-232
Cambodia									
<i>E. coli</i>	13	1814	Y	10	1217	26–337	0	0	OXA-48
<i>Klebsiella</i>	13	1956	Y	7	465	32–142	4	0.9	OXA-48
Indonesia									
<i>E. coli</i>	15	1100	Y	10	1075	25–280	107	10.0	
<i>Klebsiella</i>	18	495	Y	8	416	30–80	33	7.9	NDM-1
Laos									
<i>E. coli</i>	3	138	N	2	132	54–78	0	0	
<i>Klebsiella</i>	3	26	N	0	0	–	0	0	
Malaysia									
<i>E. coli</i>	20	2301	Y	8	2108	22–1642	86	4.1	NDM-1
<i>Klebsiella</i>	37	2823	Y	16	1947	23–656	69	3.5	KPC-2, -6; IMP-4, -8; NDM-Unsp., -1, -5; OXA-48, -232
Myanmar									
<i>E. coli</i>	6	721	Y	3	666	20–426	46	6.9	NDM-1, -4, -5, -7; OXA-181
<i>Klebsiella</i>	5	80	Y	1	58	–	5	8.6	NDM-4, -7
Philippines									
<i>E. coli</i>	22	1399	Y	10	1205	36–319	1	0.1	IMP-4, -32; NDM-Unsp., -1, -7
<i>Klebsiella</i>	22	1353	Y	11	1123	20–292	58	5.2	KPC-2; IMP-4, -32; NDM-Unsp., -1, -7
Singapore									
<i>E. coli</i>	37	14717	Y	13	14378	25–12287	47	0.3	KPC-Unsp., -2; IMP-Unsp., -1, -8; NDM-Unsp., -1, -7; OXA-Unsp., -23, -48, -181
<i>Klebsiella</i>	45	9345	Y	15	8627	26–7000	112	1.3	KPC-Unsp., -2; IMP-Unsp., -1, -4; NDM-Unsp., -1, -5; OXA-Unsp., -48, -181, -232; VIM-Unsp., -1
Thailand									
<i>E. coli</i>	88	73658	Y	57	72357	20–33338	314	0.4	KPC-13; IMP-Unsp., -14; NDM-1, -5; OXA-48, -181
<i>Klebsiella</i>	84	20666	Y	47	17944	20–5483	289	1.6	IMP-Unsp., -14, -27; NDM-Unsp., -1, -4, -5; OXA-48, -181, -232
Timor-Leste									
<i>E. coli</i>	1	49	N	1	49	–	0	0	
<i>Klebsiella</i>	1	18	N	0	0	–	0	0	
Vietnam									
<i>E. coli</i>	34	5841	Y	18	5131	21–1370	96	1.9	KPC-Unsp., -2; NDM-1, -4, -5; OXA-Unsp., -48
<i>Klebsiella</i>	32	2401	Y	18	2146	20–438	203	9.5	KPC-2; NDM-1, -4; OXA-Unsp., -48; VIM-Unsp.

N, no; Y, Yes; Unsp., unspecified.

^a – Data not available.

Vietnam (OXA-48 and -unspecified). IMP genotypes were reported in *E. coli* from the Philippines (IMP-4 and -32), Singapore (IMP-1, -8 and -unspecified) and Thailand (IMP-14 and -unspecified). The same KPC genotypes (KPC-2 and -unspecified) were reported in *E. coli* both from Singapore and Vietnam, and KPC-13 was reported in Thailand. The same carbapenemase genotypes were de-

tected in *Klebsiella* isolates, with the addition of VIM (VIM-1 and -unspecified) reported from Singapore and Vietnam; OXA-232 reported from Brunei, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand; OXA-48 reported from Malaysia; IMP-4 reported from Singapore; and IMP-27 reported from Thailand. All genotypes identified in Southeast Asia are listed in Table 3 by nation and are mapped in Fig. 3.

Table 4
Carbapenem resistance (R) in *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella* spp. isolates from studies including samples from 2010 and later.

Nation	No. of reports	Specimens in all reports	Any R	Findings in reports from 2010–2017 meeting criteria for generalisability							Resistance estimate category
				Reports meeting criteria	Specimens meeting criteria	Specimens range	Resistant specimens	Resistant specimens (%)	Resistant range (%)	Median R (%)	
Brunei											
<i>E. coli</i>	0	– ^a	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	N/A ^b	No studies found
<i>Klebsiella</i>	2	1043	Y	1	1038	–	8	0.8	–	0.8	Low (<1%)
Cambodia											
<i>E. coli</i>	6	1105	Y	3	508	36–337	0	0	–	0	Low (<1%) ^c
<i>Klebsiella</i>	8	1677	Y	3	203	34–87	1	0.5	0–3	0	Low (<1%) ^c
Indonesia											
<i>E. coli</i>	10	913	Y	7	904	25–280	107	11.8	0–28.2	5.37	High (>5%)
<i>Klebsiella</i>	11	317	Y	4	244	49–80	30	12.3	0–28.8	6.4	High (>5%)
Laos											
<i>E. coli</i>	2	84	N	1	78	–	0	0	–	N/A ^b	Insufficient isolates – Resistance not detected
<i>Klebsiella</i>	3	26	N	0	0	–	0	0	–	N/A ^b	Insufficient isolates – Resistance not detected
Malaysia											
<i>E. coli</i>	3	189	Y	1	183	–	0	0	–	0	Low (<1%) ^c
<i>Klebsiella</i>	14	1301	Y	5	730	53–321	50	6.8	3.2–43.4	4.05	Moderate (1–5%)
Myanmar											
<i>E. coli</i>	5	705	Y	3	666	20–426	46	6.9	3.64–15	8.2	High (>5%)
<i>Klebsiella</i>	3	75	Y	1	58	–	5	8.6	–	N/A ^b	Insufficient Isolates – Resistance detected ^c
Philippines											
<i>E. coli</i>	7	857	Y	4	853	174–319	1	0.1	0–0.3	0	Low (<1%) ^{c,d}
<i>Klebsiella</i>	10	726	Y	4	692	110–292	53	7.7	0–13.8	8.7	High (>5%)
Singapore											
<i>E. coli</i>	18	1618	Y	3	1328	79–1075	22	1.7	0–2	0	Low (<1%) ^d
<i>Klebsiella</i>	24	1560	Y	4	926	104–515	48	5.2	1.8–7.8	2.0	Moderate (1–5%)
Thailand											
<i>E. coli</i>	33	3252	Y	15	2460	22–543	21	0.9	0–4.5	0.4	Low (<1%) ^d
<i>Klebsiella</i>	27	2072	Y	11	1631	49–317	98	6.0	0–27	5.2	High (>5%)
Timor-Leste											
<i>E. coli</i>	1	49	N	1	49	–	0	0	–	N/A ^b	Insufficient isolates – Resistance not detected
<i>Klebsiella</i>	1	18	N	0	0	–	0	0	–	N/A ^b	Insufficient isolates – Resistance not detected
Vietnam											
<i>E. coli</i>	25	3559	Y	13	3477	23–1370	67	1.9	0–5.1	0	Low (<1%) ^{d,e}
<i>Klebsiella</i>	22	1480	Y	12	1364	20–345	142	10.4	0–55	10.1	High (>5%)

^a – Data not available.^b Insufficient isolates (<100) for carbapenem resistance estimate.^c Only genotypic resistance reported.^d National surveillance data indicate resistance in the moderate (1–5%) category [44,45]. See Section 3.2.3, Discussion and Supplementary Table S3.^e National surveillance data indicate resistance in the high (>5%) category [49]. See Section 3.2.3, Discussion and Supplementary Table S3.

3.3. Polymyxin resistance: overview

We located 58 studies regarding susceptibility and/or resistance to polymyxin(s) among *E. coli* and/or *Klebsiella*, together providing data from 10 of 11 Southeast Asian countries. Despite the relative paucity of studies and limited number of isolates studied compared with studies on carbapenems, phenotypic resistance to polymyxin(s) in *E. coli* and/or *Klebsiella* was reported from 8 of 11 countries and specific resistance-related genotypes from 7 countries (Table 5). Myanmar was the single country where testing was performed but resistance was not detected among either *E. coli* (240 samples tested) or *Klebsiella* spp. (only 7 samples tested).

3.3.1. Polymyxin resistance among *Escherichia coli* isolates

Escherichia coli isolates resistant to polymyxin(s) were reported from seven countries (Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam), whereas all *E. coli* isolates from Myanmar were reported as susceptible (Table 5). No studies were identified of samples from Brunei, Philippines or Timor-Leste. Crude median resistance proportions were estimated for the four countries where data from ≥100 isolates from generalisable reports were available (Cambodia, Myanmar, Thailand and Vietnam). Vietnam was categorised in the moderate resistance category with estimated median resistance across available reports of 3.6%. Cambodia, with an estimated median resistance proportion of

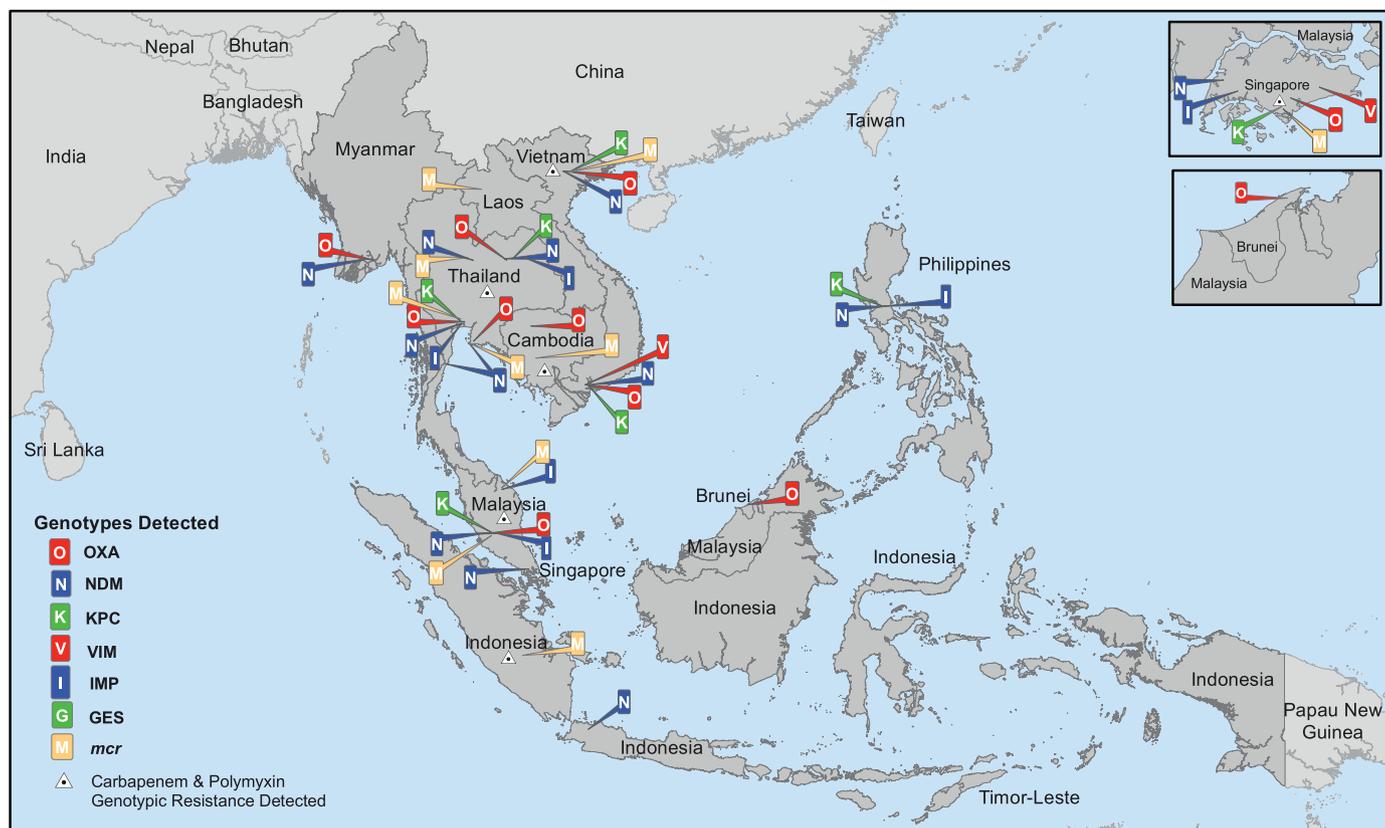


Fig. 3. Carbapenem and polymyxin(s) resistance genotypes.

0.8%, was categorised as low. Whilst significant resistance was documented in Thailand (mean 2.9% of 1396 isolates), the estimated median resistance across all studies of representative isolates was 0% and therefore Thailand was categorised in the low category. As noted, resistance to polymyxin(s) was not detected in Myanmar (categorised as 'Resistance not detected'). Sufficient isolates to support resistance estimates were not available from Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia or Singapore. However, both phenotypic resistance and the *mcr-1* genotype were identified and these countries were classified as 'Insufficient isolates – Resistance detected'. Polymyxin resistance data for *E. coli* are mapped at the national level in Fig. 4a.

3.3.2. Polymyxin resistance among *Klebsiella* isolates

At least some relevant data on *Klebsiella* isolates were available from 10 of 11 nations (except Timor-Leste). Phenotypic resistance to polymyxin(s) was reported from seven nations (Cambodia, Laos, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam), and genotypic resistance from five of the seven (those other than Cambodia and Philippines). Reports from three nations (Brunei, Indonesia and Myanmar) did not identify resistance but included few isolates (five, one and seven, respectively). Polymyxin resistance proportions for *Klebsiella* were estimated for three nations. Laos and Vietnam were categorised as high with median resistance proportions of 5.8% and 6.4%, respectively. In Thailand, whilst 4.6% of 920 isolates were resistant, median resistance across all representative studies was 0.66% and therefore Thailand was classified in the low category. The remaining countries did not have sufficient isolates to support resistance estimates and were classified as 'Insufficient isolates – Resistance detected' (Cambodia, Malaysia, Philippines and Singapore) or 'Insufficient isolates – Resistance not detected' (Brunei, Indonesia and Myanmar). The polymyxin resistance data for *Klebsiella* are mapped at the national level in Fig. 4b.

3.3.3. Polymyxin resistance genotypes

mcr-1 was the most common polymyxin genotype detected both among *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* isolates. Polymyxin resistance genotypes were reported among *E. coli* isolates from seven countries, including Cambodia (*mcr-1*), Indonesia (*mcr-1*), Laos (*mcr-1*), Malaysia (*mcr-1*), Singapore (*mcr-1*), Thailand (*mcr-1*, -2 and -3) and Vietnam (*mcr-1*). Among *Klebsiella* isolates, polymyxin resistance genotypes were reported from five countries, including Laos (*mcr-1*), Malaysia (*mcr-1*), Singapore (*mcr-1*), Thailand (*mcr-1* and -3) and Vietnam (*mcr-3*). Chromosomal mutations in *mgrB* were reported with colistin resistance among *Klebsiella* isolates from three countries (Laos, Thailand and Vietnam). All genotypes identified in Southeast Asia are listed in Table 5 by nation and are mapped in Fig. 3.

3.3.4. Documented geographic overlap of carbapenem and polymyxin resistance

Geographic overlap of phenotypic carbapenem and polymyxin resistance among *E. coli* or *Klebsiella* was documented in eight nations (all except Laos, Myanmar and Timor-Leste). Overlapping genotypic resistance was documented in six of the same eight nations (Cambodia, Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam), with specific overlaps between NDM carbapenemases and *mcr* in five (Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam).

4. Discussion

Whilst nations in Southeast Asia are developing capacity to detect and respond to AMR threats, major gaps remain in the data required to guide public health and medicine. Building on approaches developed to address similar gaps in Africa [46], we found, analysed and mapped diverse data on resistance to carbapenems and polymyxin(s) in Southeast Asia. The findings doc-

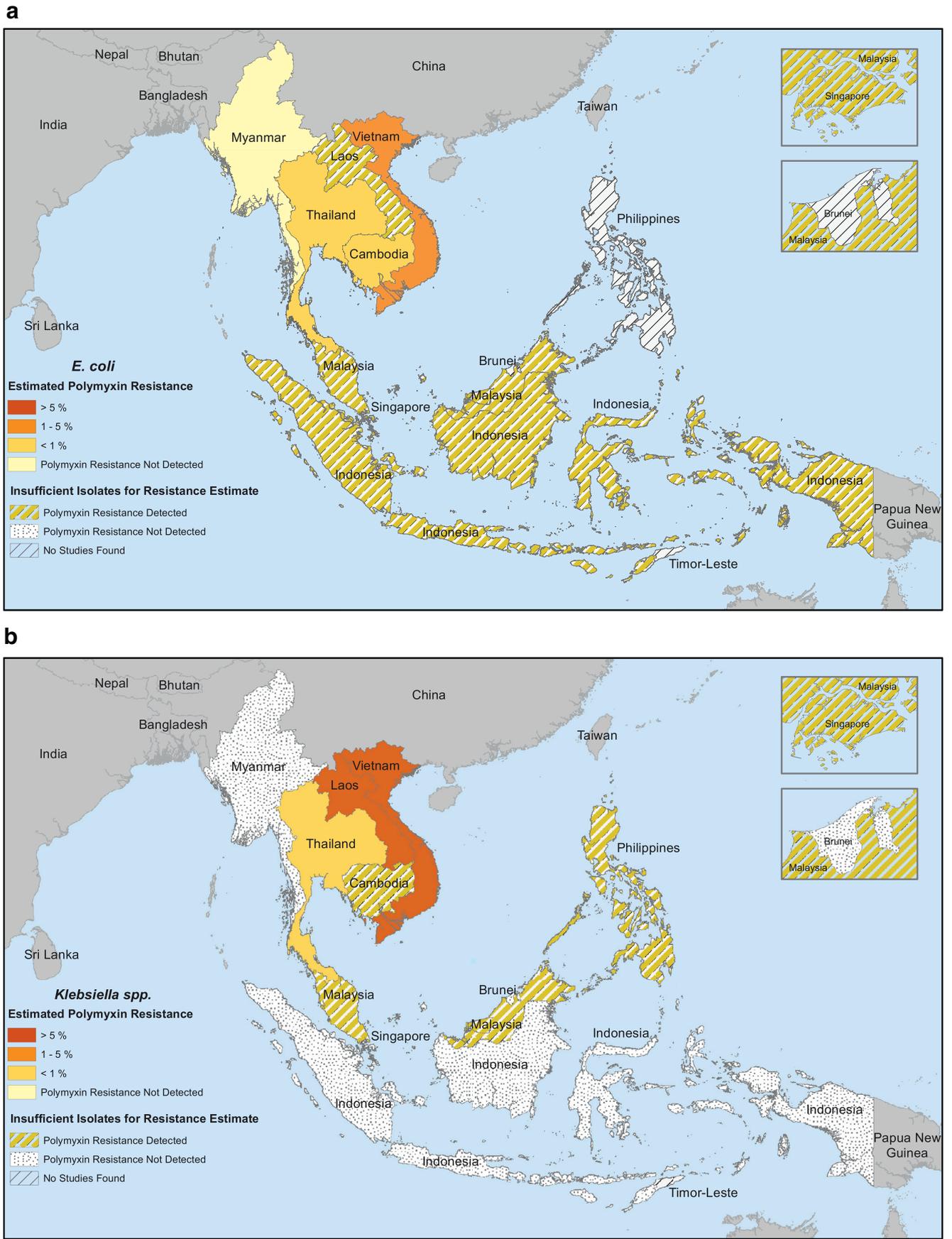


Fig. 4. Estimated median national polymyxin(s) resistance proportions for (a) *Escherichia coli* and (b) *Klebsiella spp.* For nations with ≥ 100 isolates from qualifying studies (see Methods), median proportions across studies were calculated. Where there were < 100 isolates, data were deemed insufficient to estimate proportions and resistance is represented as either detected or not.

Table 5
Polymyxin (colistin and polymyxin B) resistance (R) and resistance-related genotypes in *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella* spp. isolates.

Nation	No. of reports	Specimens in all reports	Any R	Findings in reports from all study years meeting criteria for generalisability								Genes identified	
				Reports meeting criteria	Specimens meeting criteria	Specimens range	Resistant specimens	Resistant specimens (%)	Resistant range (%)	Median R (%)	Resistance estimate category		
Brunei													
<i>E. coli</i>	0	– ^a	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	No studies found	
<i>Klebsiella</i>	1	5	N	0	0	–	–	–	–	–	N/A ^b	Insufficient isolates – Resistance not detected	
Cambodia													
<i>E. coli</i>	3	199	Y	1	130	–	1	0.8	–	–	0.8	Low (<1%)	<i>mcr-1</i>
<i>Klebsiella</i>	2	49	Y	2	49	17–32	1	2.0	0	3.1	N/A ^b	Insufficient isolates – Resistance detected	
Indonesia													
<i>E. coli</i>	1	1	Y	0	0	–	–	–	–	–	–	Insufficient isolates – Resistance detected ^c	<i>mcr-1</i>
<i>Klebsiella</i>	1	1	N	0	0	–	0	0	–	–	N/A ^b	Insufficient isolates – Resistance not detected	
Laos													
<i>E. coli</i>	2	12	Y	0	0	–	–	–	–	–	–	Insufficient isolates – Resistance detected ^c	<i>mcr-1</i>
<i>Klebsiella</i>	2	194	Y	1	190	–	11	5.8	–	–	5.8	High (>5%)	<i>mcr-1</i> , <i>mgrB</i> mutation
Malaysia													
<i>E. coli</i>	3	30	Y	1	24	–	1	4.2	–	–	N/A ^b	Insufficient isolates – Resistance detected	<i>mcr-1</i>
<i>Klebsiella</i>	6	86	Y	2	69	17–52	12	17.4	0–23.1	–	N/A ^b	Insufficient isolates – Resistance detected ^c	<i>mcr-1</i>
Myanmar													
<i>E. coli</i>	2	240	N	2	240	20–220	0	0	0	0	0	Resistance not detected	
<i>Klebsiella</i>	1	7	N	0	0	–	0	0	–	–	N/A ^b	Insufficient isolates – Resistance not detected	
Philippines													
<i>E. coli</i>	0	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	No studies found	
<i>Klebsiella</i>	1	4	Y	0	0	–	–	–	–	–	–	Insufficient isolates – Resistance detected	
Singapore													
<i>E. coli</i>	9	37	Y	1	13	–	0	0	0	–	N/A ^b	Insufficient isolates – Resistance detected ^c	<i>mcr-1</i>
<i>Klebsiella</i>	10	92	Y	3	38	11–16	1	2.6	0–6	–	N/A ^b	Insufficient isolates – Resistance detected ^c	<i>mcr-1</i>
Thailand													
<i>E. coli</i>	25	1737	Y	10	1396	12–543	41	2.9	0–8.8	–	0	Low (<1%)	<i>mcr-1</i> , -2, -3
<i>Klebsiella</i>	16	1154	Y	6	920	16–317	42	4.6	0–7.6	–	0.66	Low (<1%)	<i>mcr-1</i> , -3, <i>mgrB</i> mutation
Timor-Leste													
<i>E. coli</i>	0	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	No studies found	
<i>Klebsiella</i>	0	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	No studies found	
Vietnam													
<i>E. coli</i>	6	1395	Y	1	1370	–	49	3.6	–	–	3.6	Moderate (1–5%)	<i>mcr-1</i>
<i>Klebsiella</i>	5	407	Y	1	345	–	22	6.4	–	–	6.4	High (>5%)	<i>mcr-3</i> , <i>mgrB</i> mutation

^a – Data not available.^b Insufficient isolates (<100) for polymyxin resistance estimate.^c Genotypic resistance only.

ument carbapenem-resistant *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp. in most Southeast Asian nations; 8/11 for *E. coli* and 9/11 for *Klebsiella*. Furthermore, through analysis of data from nations with ≥ 100 generalisable samples collected in more recent studies, we estimated and mapped median national carbapenem resistance proportions for *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp. Estimated resistance for *Klebsiella* was high (>5%) in four nations (Indonesia, Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam), moderate (1–5%) in two (Malaysia and Singapore) and low (<1%) in two (Cambodia and Brunei). In contrast, for *E. coli* estimated resistance was high in two (Indonesia and Myanmar) of

eight nations with sufficient isolates tested and was low in the remaining six (Cambodia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam). These findings extend and update both the WHO's published reports [5,7,28] and available reviews [32,36].

The most commonly detected carbapenemase genotypes were NDM MBLs (with NDM-1 predominant), which were reported in *E. coli* from six nations and *Klebsiella* spp. from seven nations. Given that South Asia was an early site for reports of the *bla*_{NDM-1} gene [32], it is possible that geographic proximity has played a role in its extensive spread in the region. OXA genotypes were reported

in *E. coli* from five nations and *Klebsiella* spp. from six nations. KPC-, IMP- and VIM-related genotypes, whilst less common, were also reported. Jean et al. [60] have previously reported NDM- and IMP-carrying Enterobacteriaceae predominantly from Vietnam and the Philippines, with OXA also present in the region. The data assembled here extend those findings and demonstrate that NDM and OXA carbapenemases are widespread, with multiple other carbapenemase families present.

Reports evaluating resistance to polymyxin(s), for which susceptibility is not routinely tested, were more limited. However, we were able to capture data regarding 10 of 11 nations (all except Timor-Leste) documenting resistance to polymyxin(s) among *E. coli* and/or *Klebsiella* spp. in 8/11 (73%) nations. Due to the scarcity of data, we could only estimate median resistance across studies for five countries with ≥ 100 generalisable isolates tested. Among *E. coli*, Vietnam had moderate estimated median resistance (1–5%), whilst in Cambodia and Thailand resistance was estimated as low (<1%), and no resistant isolates were reported from Myanmar. For *Klebsiella*, Laos and Vietnam had high estimated median resistance (>5%), whilst estimated median resistance in Thailand was low (<1%). In addition to documenting the geographic spread of colistin resistance, our analysis assembles genotypic data identifying plasmid-mediated *mcr* genes, most often *mcr-1*, among *E. coli* in seven Southeast Asian nations and *Klebsiella* in five nations, in contrast to a 2017 review [24] that identified *mcr-1* in *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* from five and one nation, respectively. Studies captured in our analyses also documented *mgrB* chromosomal mutations among *Klebsiella* isolates in three nations.

Resistance to polymyxin(s) is especially worrisome when present in areas with substantial existing carbapenem resistance. Co-carriage of *mcr* with plasmid-derived carbapenemases, particularly MBLs predominant in Southeast Asia, could result in essentially pandrug-resistant organisms with dire consequences [61]. Thus, it is concerning that we could identify, even in the face of limited available data, overlapping carbapenem and polymyxin resistance in eight nations, including overlapping *bla*_{NDM} and *mcr* in five (Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam) all with substantial carbapenem resistance.

Whilst these findings improve our understanding of carbapenem and polymyxin resistance among Enterobacteriaceae in Southeast Asia, there are limitations that merit emphasis. First, whilst mostly derived from and reflective of acute-care populations, the data originate from diverse sources employing a variety of study designs and laboratory methods. These heterogeneities have been addressed, in part, through pre-defined inclusion criteria, data elements and data extraction. Several known factors may contribute to potential overestimation of resistance, including that laboratories performing testing are likely to support higher complexity care and to be located in urban areas or regional hubs. In addition, there is inherent bias towards reporting positive results. To help address reporting bias, we used search strategies enhanced for finding negative data, including not requiring either that carbapenems or polymyxin(s) be the focus of studies or that resistance be reported.

Conversely, some factors may contribute to potential underestimation of resistance. These include lags in reporting such that samples were typically collected 1–2 years or more prior to publication. It is reassuring that three-quarters of the data were from studies published after 2010 and approximately one-half from after 2014. In an effort to better reflect contemporary rates, we estimated carbapenem resistance using only reports including sample dates from 2010–2017. However, one must use caution and not project findings beyond the specific settings and time periods reflected by the database. The few nations where CRE and/or polymyxin-resistant Enterobacteriaceae were not detected should not be assumed to be free of resistance. Most such countries had

a low number of isolates studied, suggesting that resistance may be undetected due to limited power. Furthermore, increasing resistance in the last several years may imply that, as additional contemporary data become available, carbapenem or colistin resistance could be detected.

Despite such caveats, we believe that the carbapenem resistance estimates calculated are reasonably reflective of those found in healthcare settings during the period 2010–2017, as further supported by the overall general correlation of the estimates with available surveillance data. Similarly, abbreviated data reported for Vietnam from 2016 [49] show rates of polymyxin resistance for *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* similar to those in our report. An exception to these correlations was that for the Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam there was lower overall carbapenem resistance estimated among *E. coli* in our analysis compared with surveillance reports. The reason(s) for this discrepancy is not clear, particularly given general concordance for *Klebsiella*, but may include differences in populations and, most likely, the relative paucity in our database of samples from 2014 and later for these nations. It is also possible that changes in thresholds for interpretation of susceptibility testing could account for a portion of recent reported increases in resistance [62].

The intrinsic limitations of the available data do not alter the fundamental findings presented, namely the widespread presence of CRE and polymyxin-resistant Enterobacteriaceae, and corresponding transferrable resistance genotypes, across most of Southeast Asia, including the documented overlap of transferrable genotypes in six nations, five with both *bla*_{NDM} and *mcr* genes. These circumstances create conditions that increase the future risk of carbapenem and polymyxin resistance, both individually and in combination. The study also highlights major remaining gaps in data from many nations, both historical and contemporary, and strongly supports the need for sufficiently resourced and robust national AMR surveillance.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

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Ethical approval

Not required.

Supplementary materials

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2019.07.019.

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