

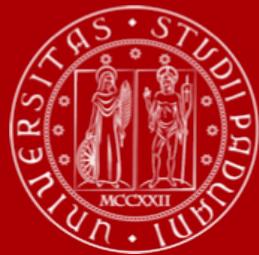
Principles of Antibiotic Therapy

Part 1

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Objectives

- Understand characteristics that impact underlying the selection of appropriate antimicrobial therapy
- Recognize common laboratory methods for bacterial pathogen identification and susceptibility testing
- Critically assess MIC testing methods and how results are reported through susceptibility breakpoints
- Identify common patient-specific factors that affect antibiotic selection
- Develop strategies for optimizing dosing and monitoring clinical response to antimicrobial therapy

These lessons will focus on antibacterials, but many concepts also apply to antiviral and antifungal medications. We will emphasize the differences in subsequent lectures



Outline

- How do you choose the correct antimicrobial for your patient?
- Patient factors that influence antibiotic selection
- Antimicrobial susceptibility testing and interpretation



Antimicrobial pharmacology is unique in medicine



Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC)

- Antimicrobials are dosed on their ability to **target a pathogen**, not human receptors
- Antibiotic doses are administered in **grams per day** not mg or μg - *wide safety margin is important*
- Antibiotics must penetrate and be active in multiple body sites
- Antibiotic efficacy can decrease over time in individual patients or subsequent patients treated in the future
- We routinely alter doses based on MIC results and pharmacokinetics



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“Antibiotic-like” therapy is not new...



Chinese
Moldy tofu applied to skin infections



Egypt
moldy bread (Aish baladi) to treat skin lesions



Greece (Hippocrates)
Wine, myrrh, inorganic salts in treatment of wounds



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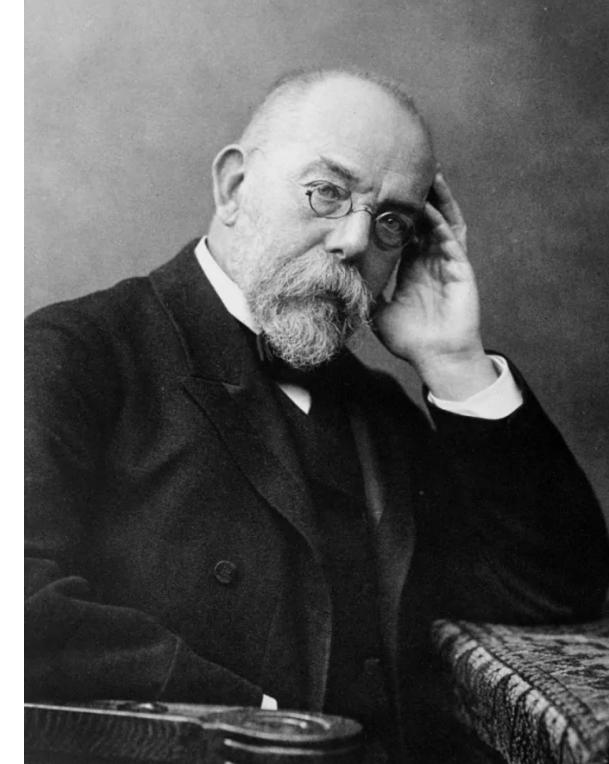
19th Century: Germ theory of disease



Antony van Leeuwenhoek (1632-1723)



Louis Pasteur (1822-1895)



Robert Koch (1843-1910)



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Arsphenamine (arsenic derivative) - Salvarsan 1909

The first treatment for syphilis (*Treponema pallidum*)



Paul Ehrlich (1854-1917) and
Sahachiro Hata (1873-1938)

"Magic bullet"- chemotherapy



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Arsphenamine - Salvarsan 1909

Side effects attributed to Salvarsan, including rashes, liver damage, and risks of life and limb, were thought to be caused by improper handling and administration of the relatively insoluble compound.

"The step from the laboratory to the patient's bedside ... is extraordinarily arduous and fraught with danger."

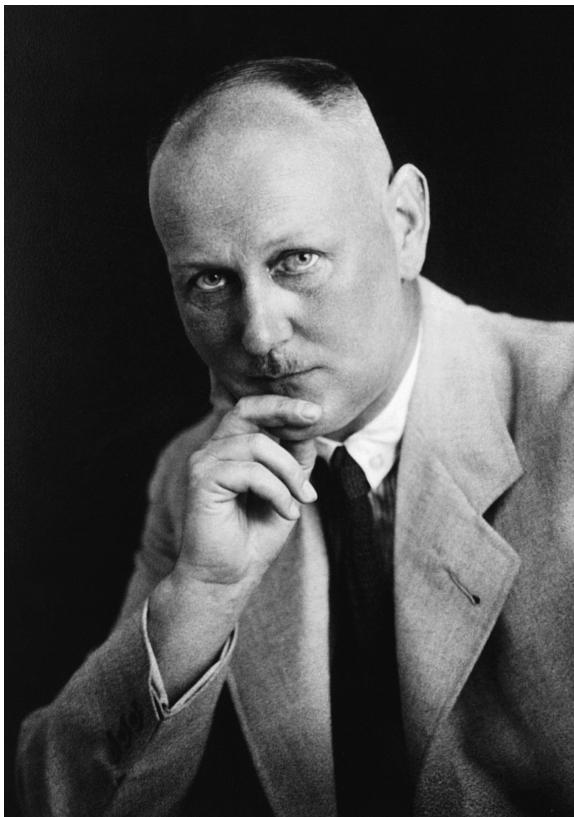
-Paul Erlich



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Prontosil

First sulfa antibiotic (1932)



Gerhard Domagk
IG Farben
(Bayer Pharmaceuticals)



Prontosil metabolized to sulfanilamide *in vivo*

Among the early patients was Domagk's own 6 year old daughter, Hildegard, who had contracted a severe streptococcal cellulitis/sepsis from an accident with a sewing needle.

Utterly desperate when the doctor recommended amputation to save his daughter's life, Domagk treated Hildegard with Prontosil.

Hildegard recovered, but suffered a permanent reddish discoloration of her skin owing to the drug.



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Penicillins: Modern antibiotic era

BRITISH JOURNAL OF EXPERIMENTAL PATHOLOGY, VOL. X, No. 3.



FIG. 1.—Photograph of a culture-plate showing the dissolution of staphylococcal colonies in the neighbourhood of a penicillium colony.



Sir Alexander Fleming
(1881-1955)

Ernst Boris Chain
(1906-1979)

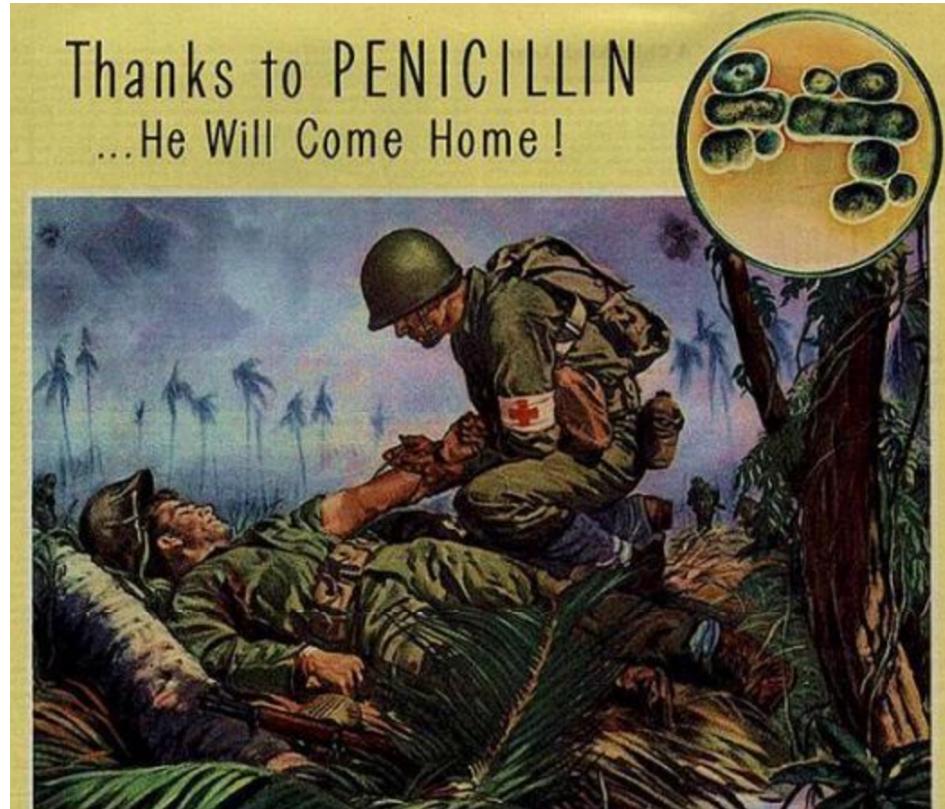
Sir Howard Walter Florey
(1898-1968)

1930s-40s

Fermentation of penicillins



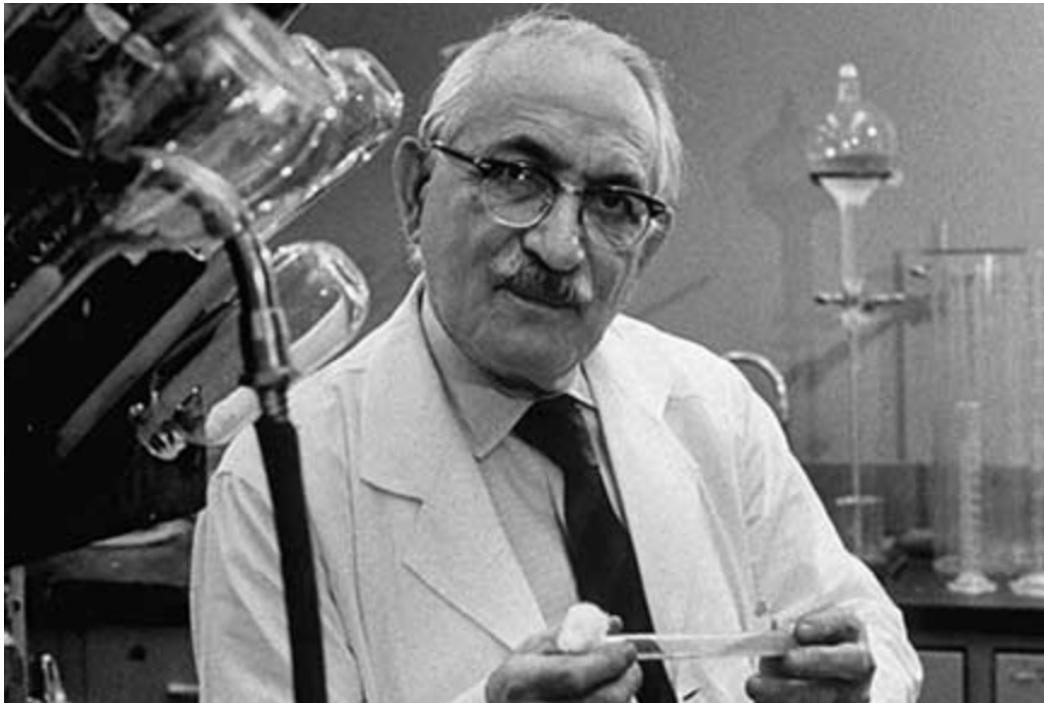
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In June of 1943 Mary Hunt, a lab assistant working in Peoria, Illinois, found a cantaloupe at a local market covered in mold with a “pretty, golden look.”

This mold turned out to be a highly productive strain of *Penicillium chrysogenum* and its discovery marked a turning point in the quest to mass produce penicillin.

Who coined the term “antibiotic”?

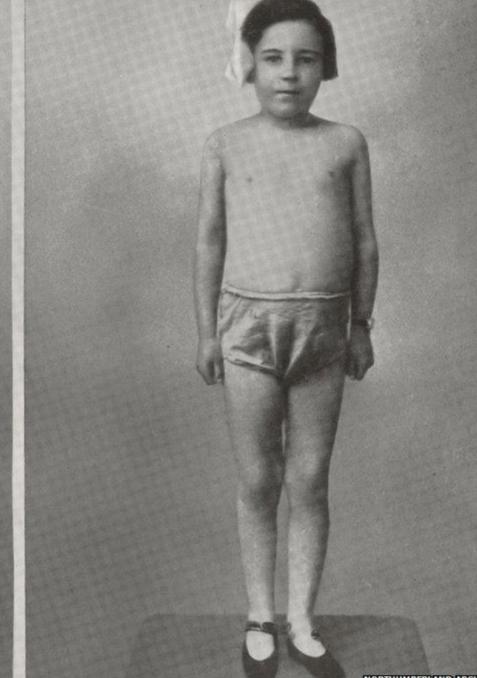


Selman Waksman 1945 (streptomycin)
Photo: Rutgers University



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TB sanatorium and streptomycin treatment



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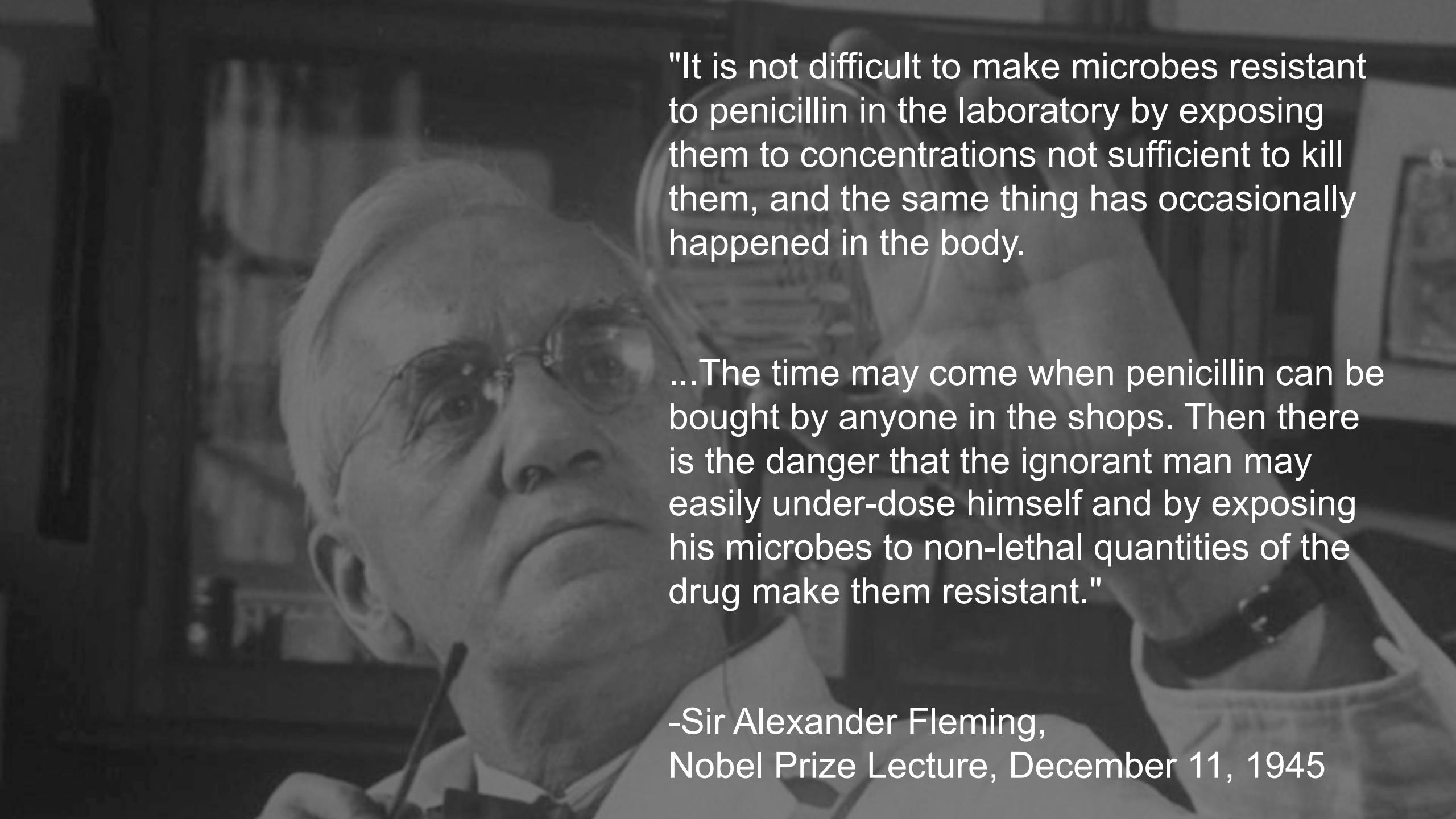
Nystatin- First Antifungal (1950)



Elizabeth Hazen (left) and Rachel Brown, 1955.
Photo: Smithsonian Collection



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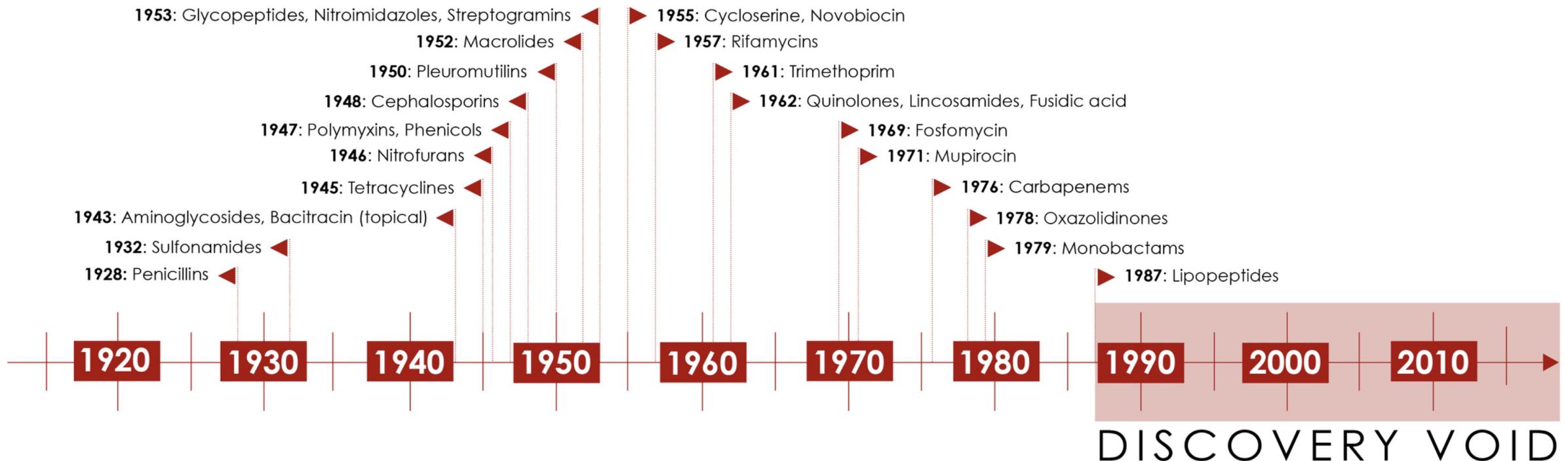


"It is not difficult to make microbes resistant to penicillin in the laboratory by exposing them to concentrations not sufficient to kill them, and the same thing has occasionally happened in the body.

...The time may come when penicillin can be bought by anyone in the shops. Then there is the danger that the ignorant man may easily under-dose himself and by exposing his microbes to non-lethal quantities of the drug make them resistant."

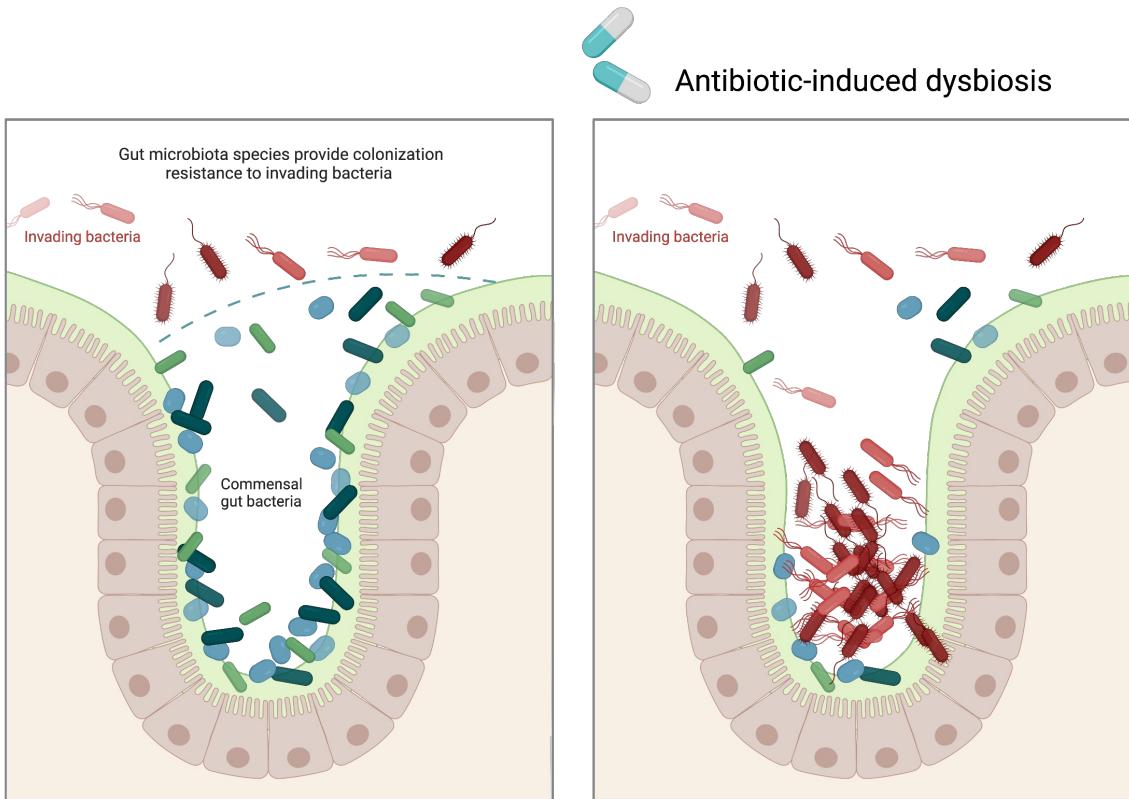
-Sir Alexander Fleming,
Nobel Prize Lecture, December 11, 1945

Antibiotic timeline

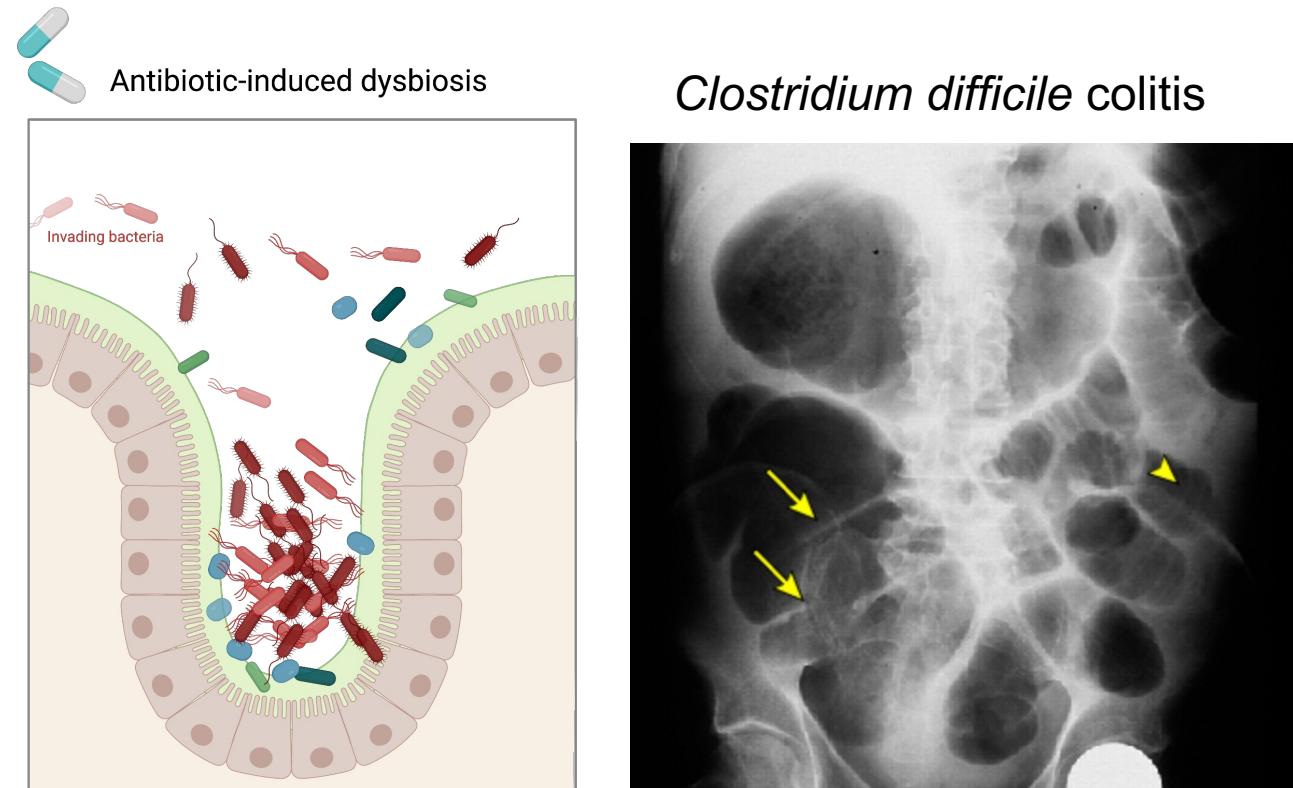


Source: www.react.org

Antibiotics: "Collateral damage"



Disruption of the gut microbiome,
Superinfections with resistant pathogens



Plain film of the abdomen from a patient with toxic megacolon associated with *Clostridioides* (formerly *Clostridium*) difficile infection. The large and small intestines are grossly dilated. Dilatation of the small bowel, which has the thin transverse folds of the valvulae conniventes (arrowhead), is seen best in the left lower quadrant. Large bowel dilatation occupies most of the right lower quadrant and has characteristic thick haustral markings that do not extend across the entire lumen (arrows).

4C's of *C. difficile*

- Clindamycin
- Cephalosporins
- Co-amoxicillin-clavulanate
- Ciprofloxacin



Outline

- How do you choose the correct antimicrobial for your patient?
- Antimicrobial susceptibility testing and interpretation
- Patient factors that influence antibiotic selection
- Antibiotic dosing and monitoring



Initial questions

- Does the patient have an infection?
- Does the patient need urgent treatment?
- What is the likely source?
- **What are the likely causative organisms?**
- Does the patient need an antibiotic?



A previously healthy, non-immunocompromised patient develops cellulitis of the arm after a minor skin abrasion



skin feels warm, red, swollen and painful.



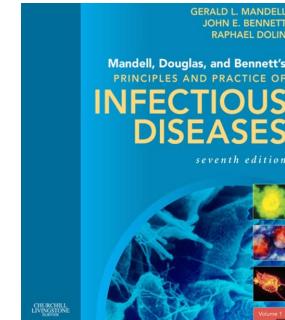
Treatment of uncomplicated cellulitis

X

Q

websites (e.g., Up to Date)

Most common causes:
Streptococcus pyogenes
Other beta-hemolytic streptococci
Possibly Staphylococcus aureus



textbooks

IDSA GUIDELINE

Practice Guidelines for the Diagnosis and Management of Skin and Soft Tissue Infections: 2014 Update by the Infectious Diseases Society of America

Dennis L. Stevens,¹ Alan L. Bisno,² Henry F. Chambers,³ E. Patchen Dellinger,⁴ Ellie J. C. Goldstein,⁵ Sherwood L. Gorbach,⁶ Jan V. Hirschmann,⁷ Sheldon L. Kaplan,⁸ Jose G. Montoya,⁹ and James C. Wade¹⁰

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Angie, School of Medicine, and R. M. Adan Research Laboratory, Santa Monica, California; ⁶Department of Community Health, Tufts University, Boston,

Massachusetts; ⁷Medical Service, Puget Sound Veterans Affairs Medical Center, Seattle, Washington; ⁸Department of Pediatrics, Baylor College of

Medicine, Houston, Texas; ⁹Department of Medicine, Stanford University, California; and ¹⁰Gesinger Health System, Geisinger Cancer Institute, Danville,

Pennsylvania

A panel of national experts was convened by the Infectious Diseases Society of America (IDSA) to update the 2005 guidelines for the treatment of skin and soft tissue infections (SSTIs). The panel's recommendations were developed to be concordant with the recently published IDSA guidelines for the treatment of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* infections. The focus of this guideline is the diagnosis and appropriate treatment of diverse SSTIs ranging from minor superficial infections to life-threatening infections such as necrotizing fasciitis. In addition, because of an increasing number of immunocompromised hosts worldwide, the guideline addresses the wide array of SSTIs that occur in this population. These guidelines emphasize the importance of clinical skills in promptly diagnosing SSTIs, identifying the pathogen, and administering effective treatments in a timely fashion.

Guidelines, literature review



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Don't use ChatGPT (Artificial intelligence)

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Infectious Diseases

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ChatGPT and antimicrobial advice: the end of the consulting infection doctor?

Alex Howard  • William Hope • Alessandro Gerada

Published: February 20, 2023 • DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099\(23\)00113-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(23)00113-5)

 PlumX Metrics

Generative artificial intelligence (AI) models have proliferated in the past 2 years. ChatGPT—a

We conclude that the largest barriers to the implementation of ChatGPT in clinical practice are deficits in situational awareness, inference, and consistency. **These shortcomings could endanger patient safety.** ChatGPT appears to have access to sufficient training data, despite it not having access to specific medical databases. **Despite no specific clinical advice training, ChatGPT provides compelling responses to most prompts.**

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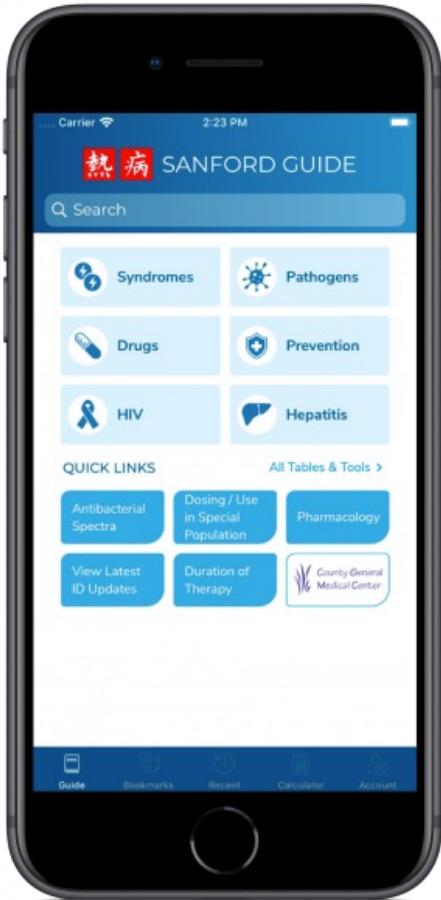
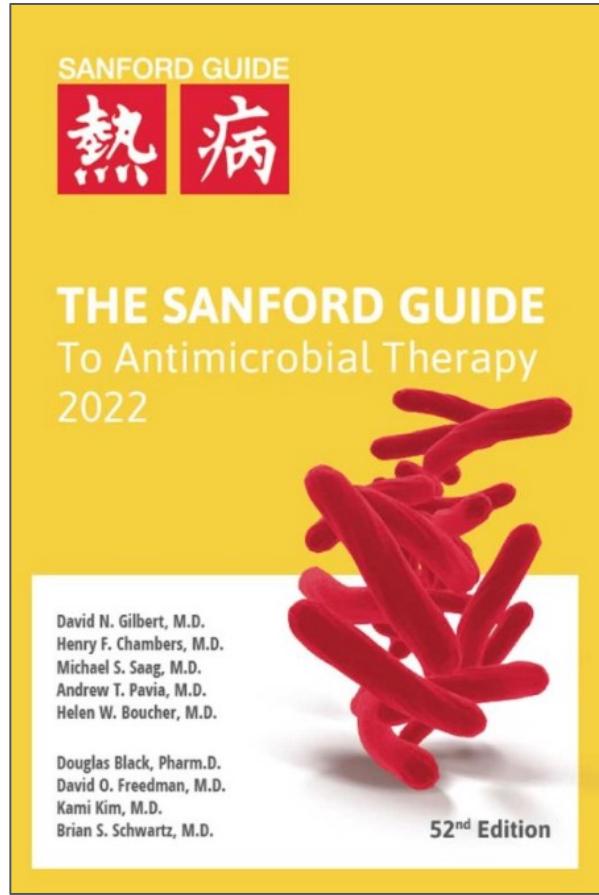
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Most popular antibiotic reference



Clinical Setting

- Treatment of uncomplicated cellulitis, erysipelas in extremities, non-diabetic; acute bacterial skin and skin structure infection (ABSSSI)
- Acute onset of rapidly spreading red edematous, tender plaque-like area of skin usually on the lower leg. Almost always unilateral. Often febrile.
- May be associated with lymphangitis or lymphadenitis.
- Portal of entry is frequently fungal infection between the toes (Tinea pedis).
- If facial skin is involved, see [Facial erysipelas](#).
- Usually, can clinically distinguish between red indurated demarcated inflamed skin of erysipelas (*S. pyogenes*) from the abscess of *Staph. aureus*. Dual infection is rare. Bedside ultrasound may be helpful in detection of deep *S. aureus* abscess(es). MRSA can mimic erysipelas; look for loculated purulence.
- Practice Guideline: [Clin Infect Dis 59:147, 2014](#).
- In 216 patients with extremity non-purulent cellulitis (erysipelas), the etiology was identified as a beta-hemolytic streptococcus (Group A, C, or G) in the vast majority: [Open Forum Infect Dis 3:Nov 25, 2015, DOI: 10.1093/ofid/ofv181](#).

Beware of stasis dermatitis; often misdiagnosed as erysipelas. See Comments.

Etiologies

- *Streptococcus pyogenes* (Groups A, B, C, G)
- *Staphylococcus aureus* (rare)

Primary Regimens

- Elevate the involved leg
- Inpatient parenteral therapy:
 - [Penicillin G](#) 1 to 2 million units IV q6h
 - If history of penicillin skin rash and nothing to suggest IgE-mediated allergic reaction:
 - [Cefazolin](#) 1 gm IV q8h or [Ceftriaxone](#) 2 gm IV once daily
 - If history/evidence of past IgE-mediated allergic reaction (anaphylaxis), then may be forced to use:
 - [Vancomycin](#) 15-20 mg/kg IV q8-12h to achieve preferred target AUC₂₄ 400-600 µg/mL x hr (see [vancomycin AUC dosing calculator](#)); alternative is trough of 15-20 µg/mL
 - [Linezolid](#) 600 mg IV/po bid
 - Treat IV until afebrile; then outpatient [Penicillin V-K](#) 500 mg po qid ac and hs for a total of 10 days of therapy.
- Outpatient therapy for less-ill patients:
 - [Penicillin V-K](#) 500 mg po qid or [Amoxicillin](#) 500 mg po q8h OR
 - If history of penicillin skin rash and nothing to suggest an IgE-mediated reaction (anaphylaxis, angioneurotic edema):
 - [Cephalexin](#) 500 mg po qid for 10 days
 - If documented past history of IgE-mediated allergic reaction to beta-lactam antibiotics:
 - [Azithromycin](#) 500 mg po x 1 dose then 250 mg po qd x 4 days OR
 - [Linezolid](#) 600 mg po bid x 10 days or [Tedizolid](#) 200 mg po once daily x 6 days OR
 - [Delafloxacin](#) 450 mg po every 12 hr x 5-14 days OR
 - [Omadacycline](#)
 - 200 mg IV (over 60 min) loading dose and then 100 mg (over 30 min) q24 h OR
 - 100 mg IV over 30 min BID on day one and then 100 mg iv over 30 min q24h OR
 - 450 mg PO q24h on days 1 and 2 and then 300 mg PO q24h
 - Do not use an older tetracycline for reason of resistance and/or clinical failures.
- If clinically unclear whether infection is due to *S. pyogenes* or *Staph. aureus*, get cultures and start empiric therapy: [Amoxicillin](#) or [Penicillin V-K](#) or [Cephalexin](#) for *S. pyogenes* and [TMP/SMX](#) for *Staph. aureus* (MRSA). See Comment re TMP-SMX.

Alternative Regimens

- Acute bacterial skin and skin structure infections, moderately ill in-patient or out-patient who refuses hospitalization or is unlikely to comply with a multidose oral regimen, there are two very long acting vancomycin like drugs:
 - [Dalbavancin](#) 1 gm IV x 1 then 0.5 gm IV one week later (both by 30 min infusion) or 1.5 gm IV x 1
 - [Oritavancin](#) 1200 mg IV over 3 hrs
- For suspected *Staph. aureus* (fluctuation or positive gram stain):
 - MSSA (outpatient): [Dicloxacillin](#) 500 mg po qid

Pneumonia, Hospital-Acquired

by Henry F. Chambers, M.D. last updated Jun 2, 2022 8:32 PM © Antimicrobial Therapy, Inc.

Empiric therapy for hospital-acquired pneumonia (HAP)

Clinical Setting

- Empiric therapy for hospital-acquired pneumonia.
- Pneumonia with onset 48 hours after hospital admission.
- Recommendations based on 2016 IDSA treatment guidelines ([Clin Infect Dis 63:e61, 2016](#)).
- Often associated with patients on mechanical ventilation (see [ventilator-associated pneumonia](#) for specific treatment recommendations).

Etiologies

- Early-onset: <5 days in the hospital, no other risk factors for multidrug-resistant (MDR) organisms
 - *Strep. pneumoniae*
 - *Staph. aureus*
 - *H. influenzae*
 - Enteric gram-negative bacilli
- Late-onset: ≥5 days in the hospital, risk factors for MDR organisms present
 - *Staph. aureus* (often MRSA)
 - Gram-negative entericsm often MDR. The following (ESKAPE) pathogens were etiology in nearly 80% of patients: [Curr Opin Pulm Med 20:252, 2014](#).
 - *Escherichia coli*
 - *Serratia marcescens*
 - *Klebsiella pneumoniae*
 - *Acinetobacter baumannii*
 - *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*
 - *Enterobacter sp.*
 - Possible role of viruses
 - In non-ventilated hospital acquired pneumonia, film array multiplex PCR detected respiratory virus (rhinovirus, influenza, parainfluenza most often) in 22.4 %. Unclear whether this is true for ventilator-associated pneumonia.
 - In study of patients with ventilator-associated pneumonia, 22.5% had respiratory virus (RSV or parainfluenza) in the airway: [Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2012;186:325](#).

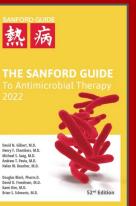
Primary Regimens

Initial questions, cont.

- Does the patient have an infection (differential diagnosis)?
- What is the likely source?
- What are the likely causative organisms?
- Does the patient need an antibiotic?
- Does the patient need urgent treatment?
- Is the antibiotic active against common microorganisms?
- Will the antibiotic achieve therapeutic concentrations at the site of infection?
- Does the patient need bactericidal antibiotics?*

* Concept of bactericidal versus bacteristatic has been questioned, but generally favors use of beta-lactam based regimens



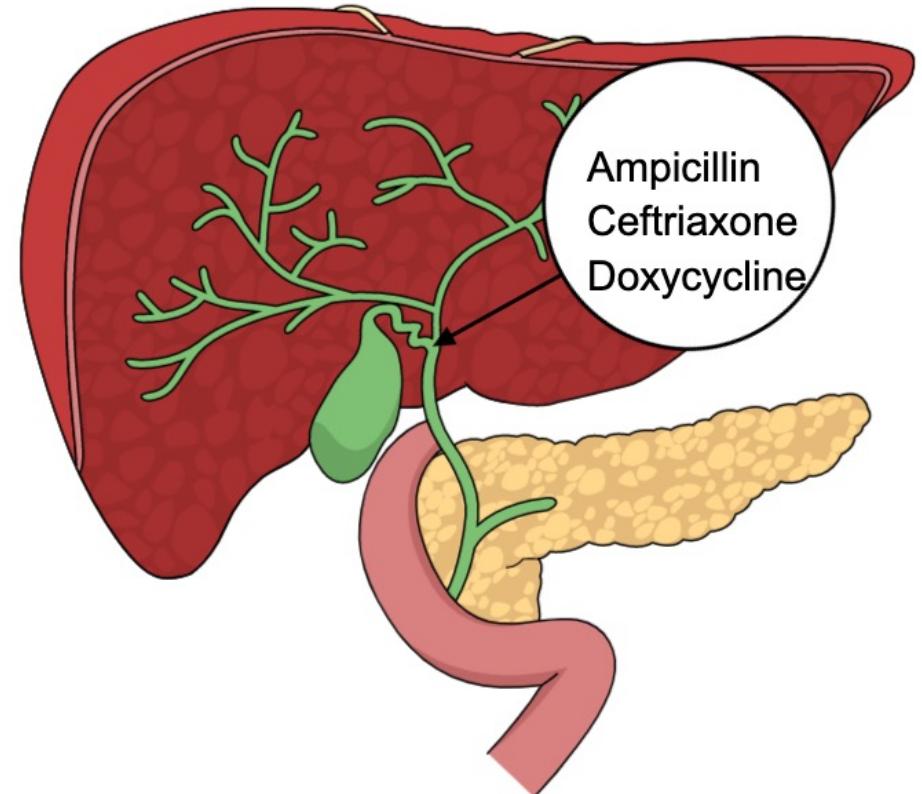


Sanford guide spectrum tables

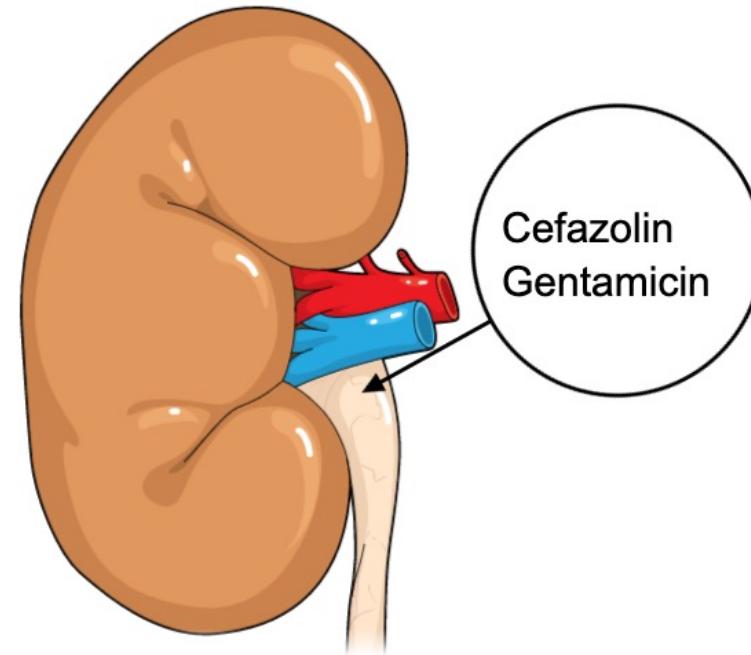
Antibacterial Agents: Spectra of Activity

by Editorial Board last updated Mar 26, 2021 1:50 PM © Antimicrobial Therapy, Inc.

Where are antibiotic concentrated or excreted?

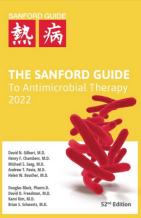


Cholangitis



Urinary tract infections





Sanford Guide

Example pharmacology summaries

Gentamicin

Dosing Data

Pharmaceutical Preparations: Injection, 0.1% cream, 0.1% ointment, 0.3% ointment, 0.3% eye drops

Pharmacologic Parameters

| | |
|------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| PK/PD Index: | 24-hr AUC/MIC |
| Peak Serum Conc ($\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) ² : | 4-6 (1.7 mg/kg IV, SD) |
| Peak Urine Conc ($\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$): | No data |
| Protein Binding (%): | 0-10 |
| Volume of Distribution (V_d) ³ | 0.26 L/kg |
| Avg Serum $T_{1/2}$ (hr) ⁴ : | 2-3 |
| Elimination: | Renal |
| Bile Penetration (%) ⁵ | 10-60 |
| CSF/blood (%) ⁶ | 0-30 |
| Therapeutic Levels in CSF ⁷ | No |
| AUC ($\mu\text{g}^*\text{hr}/\text{mL}$) ⁸ | 70-100 (7 mg/kg, 0-inf) |

2: SD = after a single dose, SS = at steady state

3: V/F = $V_d/\text{oral bioavailability}$; $V_{ss} = V_d$ at steady state; $V_{ss}/F = V_d$ at steady state/oral bioavailability

4: Assumes CrCl >80 mL/min

5: (Peak concentration in bile/peak concentration in serum) $\times 100$. If blank, no data.

6: CSF concentrations with inflammation.

7: Judgment based on drug dose and organism susceptibility. CSF concentration ideally $\geq 10 \times \text{MIC}$.

Ceftriaxone

Dosing Data

Pharmaceutical Preparations: Injection

Pharmacologic Parameters

| | |
|------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| PK/PD Index: | T>MIC |
| Peak Serum Conc ($\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) ² : | 150 (1 gm IV, SD) |
| Peak Urine Conc ($\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$): | No data |
| Protein Binding (%): | 85-95 |
| Volume of Distribution (V_d) ³ | 5.8-13.5 L |
| Avg Serum $T_{1/2}$ (hr) ⁴ : | 8 |
| Elimination: | Renal, biliary |
| Bile Penetration (%) ⁵ | 200-500 |
| CSF/blood (%) ⁶ | 8-16 |
| Therapeutic Levels in CSF ⁷ | Yes |
| AUC ($\mu\text{g}^*\text{hr}/\text{mL}$) ⁸ | 1006 (1 gm IV, 0-inf) |

2: SD = after a single dose, SS = at steady state

3: V/F = $V_d/\text{oral bioavailability}$; $V_{ss} = V_d$ at steady state; $V_{ss}/F = V_d$ at steady state/oral bioavailability

4: Assumes CrCl >80 mL/min

5: (Peak concentration in bile/peak concentration in serum) $\times 100$. If blank, no data.

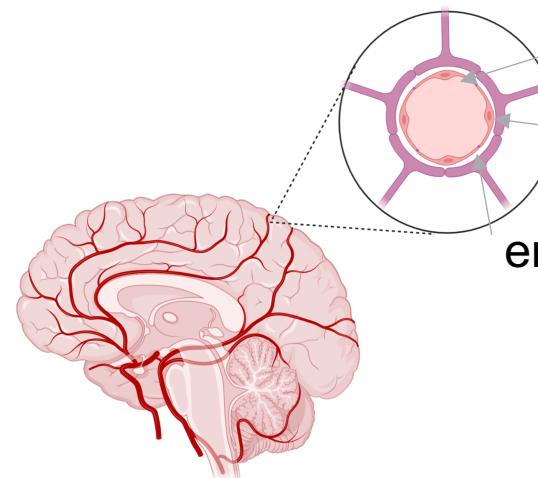
6: CSF concentrations with inflammation.

7: Judgment based on drug dose and organism susceptibility. CSF concentration ideally $\geq 10 \times \text{MIC}$.

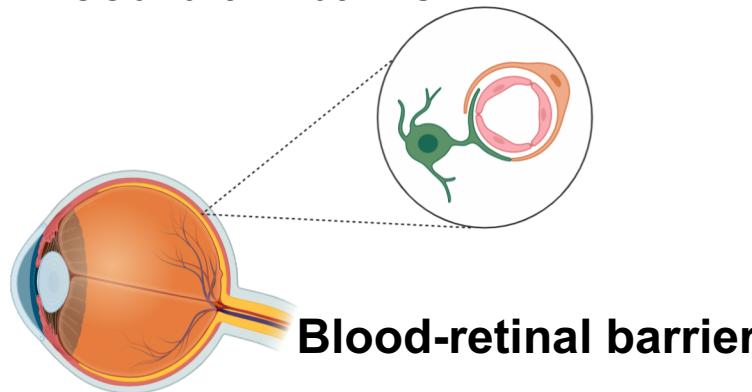


Antimicrobial penetration at the site of infection

Anatomically privileged sites

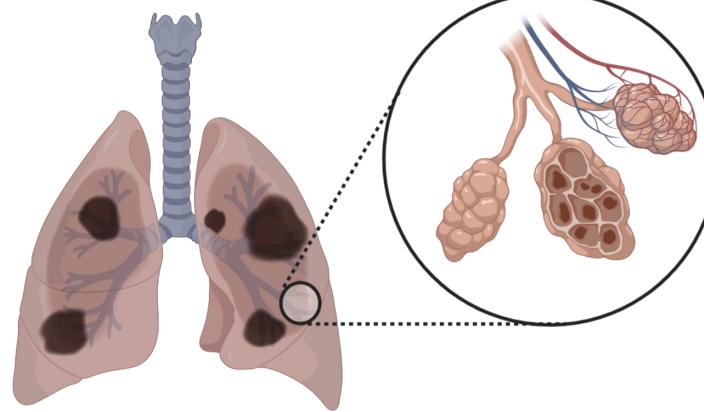


Blood-brain barrier



Blood-retinal barrier

Inflammation, abscess, necrosis



Antibiotic penetration influenced by:

- Serum drug concentrations
- Physiochemical properties of drugs
- Alterations in anatomic permeability (e.g., inflammation)
- Physiological barriers (e.g., blood-eye, blood brain barrier)
- Drug inactivation due to local pH, anaerobic conditions or enzyme activity



Daptomycin activity in community-acquired pneumonia

Table 4. Clinical cure rates by pooled study population.

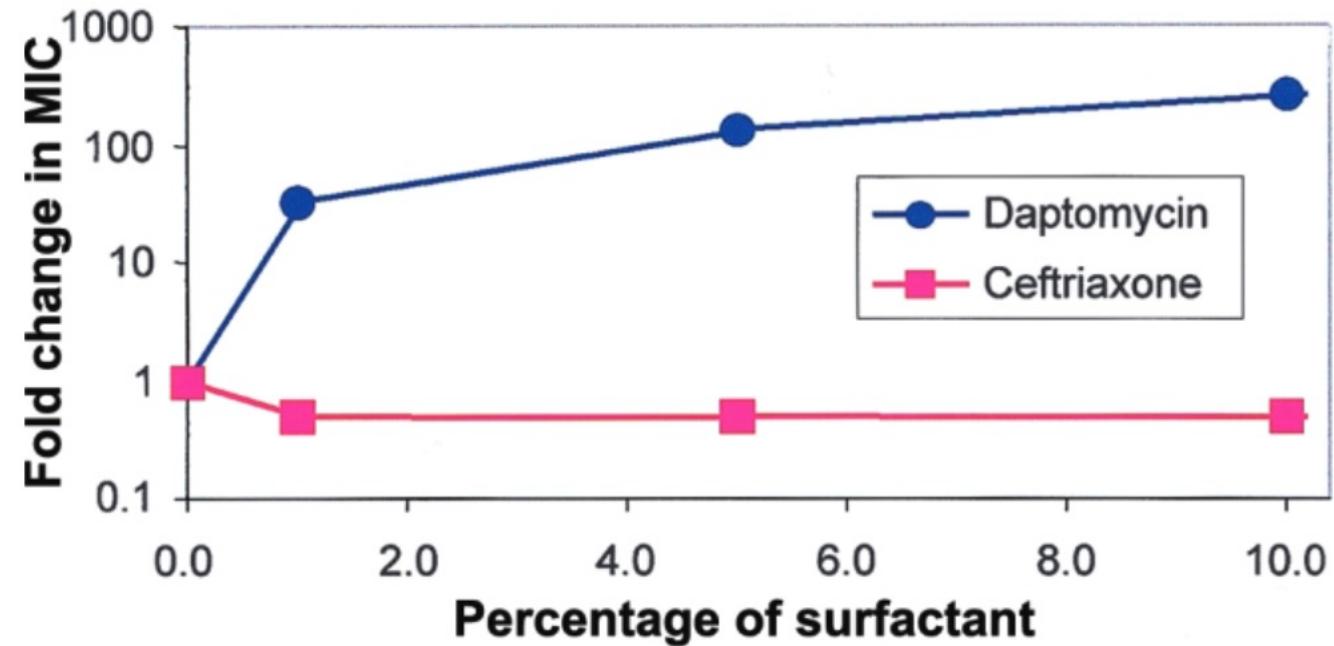
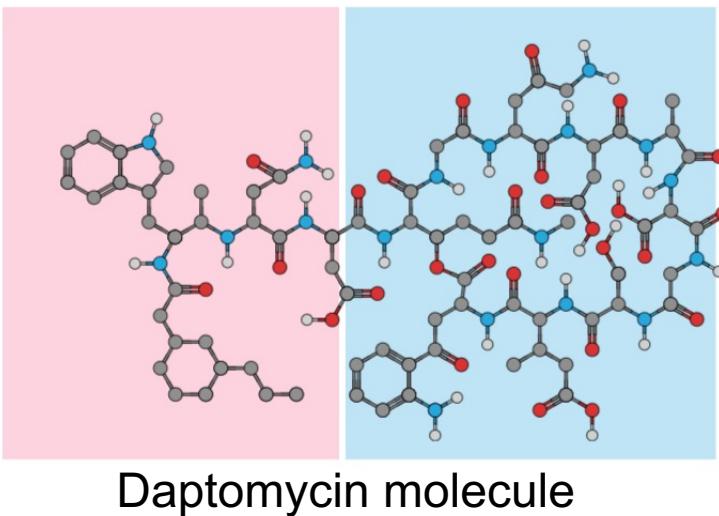
| Population | Daptomycin arm | | Ceftriaxone arm | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------------------|--------------|---------------------------------------------|--------------|---------------------|
| | No. of patients cured/total no. of patients | Cure rate, % | No. of patients cured/total no. of patients | Cure rate, % | 95% CI ^a |
| Intent-to-treat | 293/413 | 70.9 | 326/421 | 77.4 | -12.4% to -0.6% |
| Modified intent-to-treat | 98/132 | 74.2 | 92/116 | 79.3 | -15.6% to 5.4% |
| Clinically evaluable | 293/369 | 79.4 | 326/371 | 87.9 | -13.8% to -3.2% |

^a For the difference in cure rates.

Daptomycin is inhibited by pulmonary surfactant

Lipophilic tail

Hydrophilic core

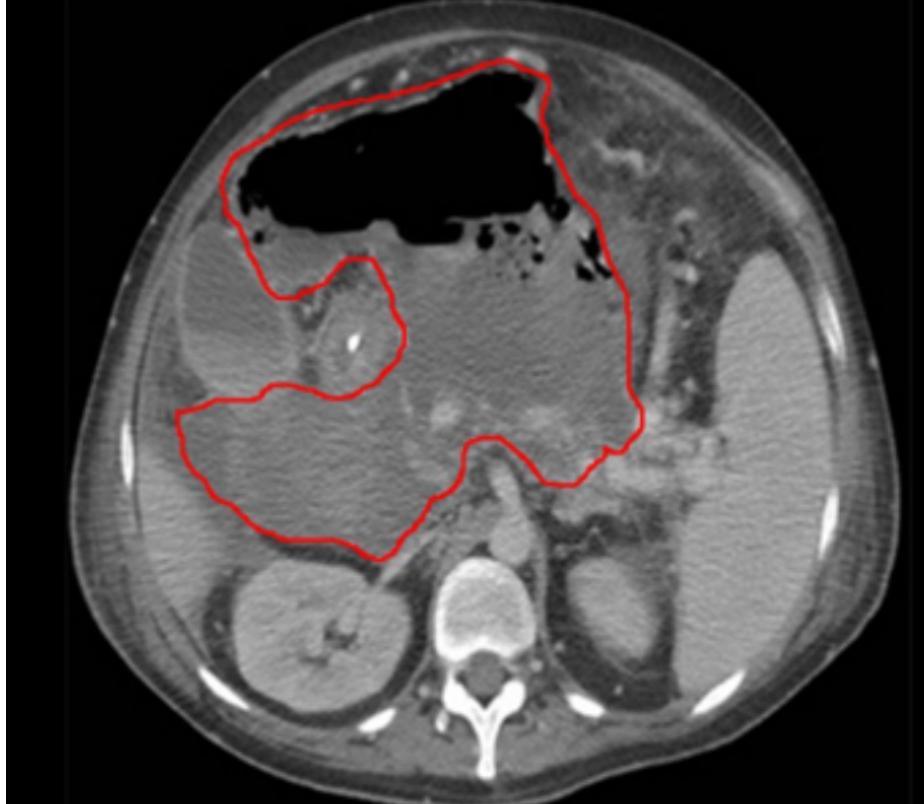


Silverman JA et al. J Infect Dis 2005; 191:2149–2152.



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Abscess



Post-operative intraabdominal abscess
Image: *BMJ*

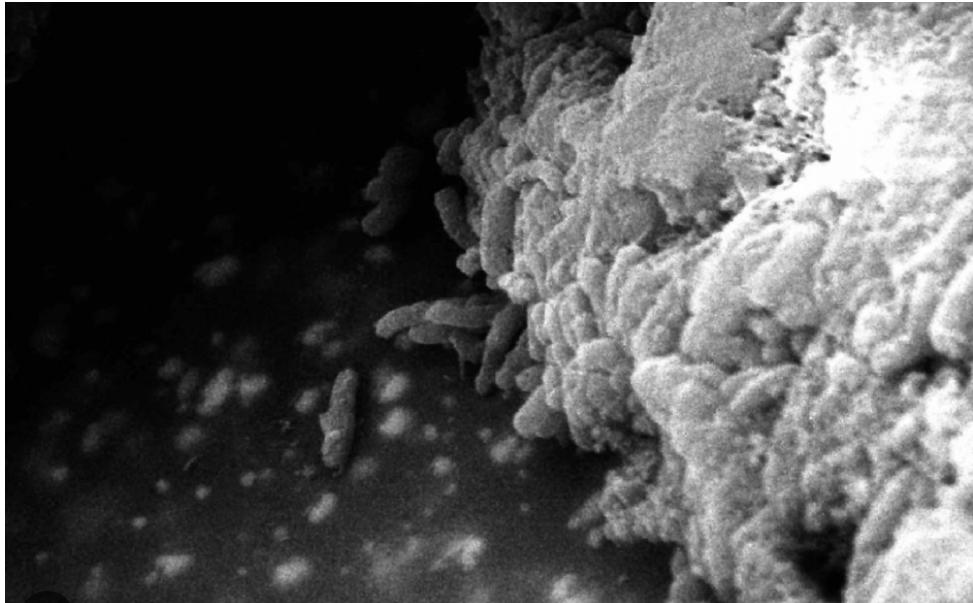
- **Aminoglycosides**
 - Bind and are inactivated by purulent material
 - Decrease aminoglycoside uptake into facultative aerobic bacteria
 - Decreased at low pH
- **Penicillins and tetracyclines are bound by hemoglobin, less effective with hematoma formation**
- **Emphasizes importance of source control** (abscess drainage, removal of prosthetic materia)



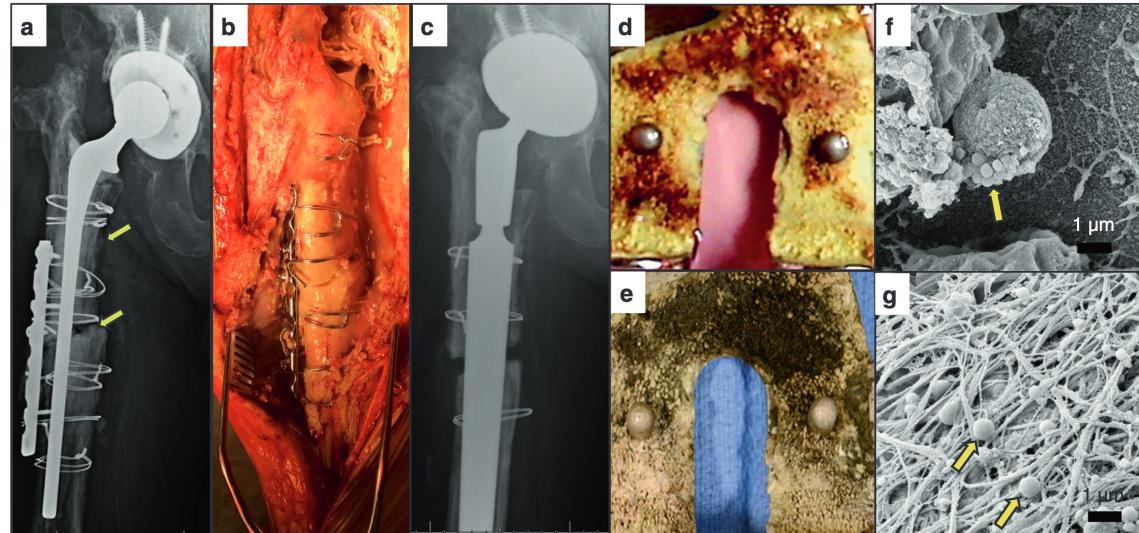
Foreign bodies and biofilm

Common source control problems

SEM of urinary catheters



Prosthetic joints and implant infections



Masters EA. Bone Res 2019; 7:20.

Subpopulation of bacteria in a biofilm are in a dormant metabolic state and not inhibited by antimicrobials:
can disperse and cause recurrent infections/bacteremia



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Initial questions

- Does the patient have an infection (differential diagnosis)?
- What is the likely source?
- What are the likely causative organisms?
- Does the patient need an antibiotic?
- Does the patient need urgent treatment?
- Is the antibiotic active against common microorganisms
- Will the antibiotic achieve therapeutic concentrations at the site of infection?
- **Which route of administration- IV or oral?**



Oral antibiotics, coverage and bioavailability

(% oral bioavailability)

| Staphylococcus (MRSA) | Enterococcus | Streptococcus | Enterobacteriales | Pseudomonas |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|
| Linezolid (100%) | Linezolid (100%) | GAS/GBS | Ciprofloxacin (70%) | Ciprofloxacin (70%) |
| TMP/SMX (90-100%) | Ampicillin (50%) | Penicillin VK (50%) | Levofloxacin (99%) | Levofloxacin (99%) |
| Doxycycline (95%) | Nitrofurantoin [urine] (80%) | Amoxicillin (85%) | Moxifloxacin (90%) | Delafloxacin (60%) |
| Delafloxacin (90%) | Amox/Clav (85%) | Cephalexin (90%) | Amox/Clax (85%) | |
| | | Levofloxacin (99%) | Cefixime (40-50%) | |
| | | Clindamycin (90%) | Cefuroxime (70%) | |
| | | Linezolid (100%) | Cephalexin (90%) | |
| | | | TMP/SMX (90-100%) | |
| Staphylococcus (MSSA) | | S. pneumoniae | | |
| Cephalexin (90%) | | Amoxicillin (85%) | | |
| Dicloxacillin (50-75%) | | Doxycycline (95%) | | |
| | | Azithromycin (30-50%) | | |
| | | Levofloxacin (99%) | | |

Source: Sanford's Guide; GAS- group A. streptococcus; GAB-Group B streptococcus; MRSA- methicillin-resistant; MSSA- Methicillin-sensitive *S. aureus*

Some Antibiotic bioavailability is affected by food, gastric acidity and chelating agents (drug interactions)



When is switch to oral therapy from IV safe?

| If YES to all, consider oral therapy... | If YES to any, continue IV... |
|------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Is patient able to swallow and tolerate oral fluids? | Does the patient have problems swallowing |
| Is patient's fever < 38°C for 24-48 hours | Does the patient have continuing sepsis? |
| Respiratory rate < 20 bpm | Does the patient have an infection that indicates need for IV antibiotics? -Meningitis -Infective endocarditis* -Encephalitis -Osteomyelitis* -Febrile neutropenia |
| Heart rate < 100 bpm 12 hours | |
| Is patients C-reactive protein (CRP) decreasing | |
| Are oral formulations available? | |

*Oral regimens increasingly studied for these indications



Other patient specific factors to consider...

- History of previous adverse reactions or allergies to antimicrobial agents...*we will discuss in detail in future lecture*
- Patient age
- Renal and hepatic function ...*will discuss in part 2.*
- Genetic or metabolic abnormalities (e.g., G6PD deficiency)
- Metabolic disorders (diabetes) – sulfonamides, fluoroquinolones, dextrose in IV fluids
- Drug interactions



Sanford's drug interactions

Doxycycline

Interaction with Other Drugs

Al, Bi, Fe, Mg (e.g. antacids)

Effect: ↓doxycycline absorption

Suggested Management: Avoid co-administration

Barbiturates

Effect: ↓doxycycline

Suggested Management: Avoid co-administration

Carbamazepine

Effect: ↓doxycycline

Suggested Management: Avoid co-administration

Digoxin

Effect: ↑digoxin

Suggested Management: Monitor, adjust dosage

Phenytoin

Effect: ↓doxycycline

Suggested Management: Avoid co-administration

Rifampin

Effect: ↓doxycycline

Suggested Management: Adjust dosage or avoid

Sucralfate

Effect: ↓doxycycline absorption

Suggested Management: Avoid co-administration

Warfarin

Effect: ↑INR

Suggested Management: Monitor INR, adjust dosage



Lexicomp- Up to Date Drug Interactions



Contents Calculators Drug I

Lexic

Add items to yo

Enter item

1 Result

View interaction detail by clicking on link(s)



Doxycycline (Tetracyclines)
Multivitamins/Minerals (with ADEK, Folate,

DISCLAIMER: Readers are advised that decisions regarding drug changing medical practices.



Multivita
Iron)

Display compl
item by clickin

Title Tetracyclines / Multivitamins/Minerals (with ADEK, Folate, Iron)

Print

Dependencies

- Route: This interaction only applies to use of oral tetracyclines.

Risk Rating D: Consider therapy modification

Summary Multivitamins/Minerals (with ADEK, Folate, Iron) may decrease the serum concentration of Tetracyclines. **Severity** Major **Reliability Rating** Fair

Patient Management In general, the coadministration of oral polyvalent cations (ie, calcium, magnesium, zinc, iron) and oral tetracycline derivatives should be avoided. Interactions may be minimized by administering the polyvalent cation-containing multivitamin at least 2 hours before or 4 hours after the dose of the oral tetracycline derivative. Even with dose separation, therapy may still be compromised. Monitor for decreased therapeutic effect of oral tetracycline derivatives.

Tetracyclines Interacting Members Demeclocycline, Doxycycline, Lymecycline, Minocycline (Systemic), Omadacycline, Oxytetracycline, Sarecycline, Tetracycline (Systemic)
Exceptions (agents listed are discussed in separate interaction monograph[s] or are non-interacting) Eravacycline, Tigecycline

Discussion Several studies have shown that the absorption/bioavailability of tetracycline, minocycline, doxycycline, and oxytetracycline were significantly reduced by the concurrent use of the polyvalent cations calcium, magnesium, or iron.^{1,2,3,4,5,6,7} Similarly, serum concentrations and AUC of the tetracyclines have been shown to be reduced by as much as 40-50% with concurrent ingestion of magnesium and zinc salts.^{8,9,10,11}

This interaction is likely the result of formation of a non-absorbable cation-tetracycline complex in the GI tract.¹² Separating the doses of the cation and the tetracycline by 2-4 hours appears to have a minimizing effect on the interaction.^{3,4} However, even with the recommended dose separation, use of such a combination may still result in significant decreases in tetracycline derivative absorption.⁴

Footnotes

1. Tetracycline [prescribing information]. Sellersville, PA: Teva Pharmaceuticals USA; June 2009.
2. Minocin (minocycline) [prescribing information]. Cranford, NJ: Triax Pharmaceuticals, LLC; August 2010.
3. Vibramycin (doxycycline) [prescribing information]. New York, NY: Pfizer Inc; April 2007.
4. Jung H, Peregrina AA, Rodriguez JM, et al. The influence of coffee with milk and tea with milk on the bioavailability of tetracycline. *Biopharm Drug Dispos.* 1997;18(5):459-463. [\[PubMed 9210983\]](#)
5. Garty M, Hurwitz A. Effect of cimetidine and antacids on gastrointestinal absorption of tetracycline. *Clin Pharmacol Ther.* 1980;28(2):203-207. [\[PubMed 7398187\]](#)
6. Leyden JJ. Absorption of minocycline hydrochloride and tetracycline hydrochloride. Effects of food, milk and iron. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 1985;12:308-312. [\[PubMed 3838321\]](#)
7. Neuvonen PJ, Gothni G, Hackman R, et al. Interference of iron with the absorption of tetracyclines in man. *Br Med J.* 1970;4:532. [\[PubMed 5483323\]](#)
8. Healy DP, Dansereau RJ, Dunn AB, et al. Reduced tetracycline bioavailability caused by magnesium aluminum silicate in liquid formulations of bismuth subsalicylate. *Ann Pharmacother.* 1997;31(12):1460-1464. [\[PubMed 9416381\]](#)
9. Penttila O, Hurme H, Neuvonen PJ. Effect of zinc sulphate on the absorption of tetracycline and doxycycline in man. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol.* 1975;9:131. [\[PubMed 786686\]](#)
10. Andersson KE, Bratt L, Dencker H, et al. Inhibition of tetracycline absorption by zinc. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol.* 1976;10:59.

Other common patient-specific factors, cont.

- QTc interval prolongation (*Torsades des pointes*)
 - Macrolides, fluoroquinolones, azole antifungals, etc.
- Pregnancy



A sample is sent for culture...



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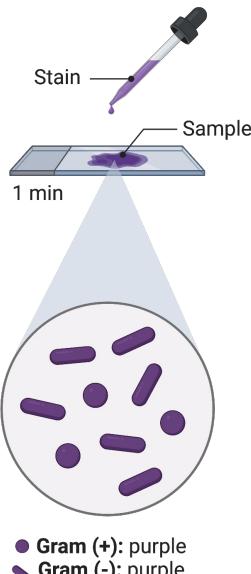
Gram stain

Most useful test for selecting antimicrobial spectrum

Step 1

Crystal violet

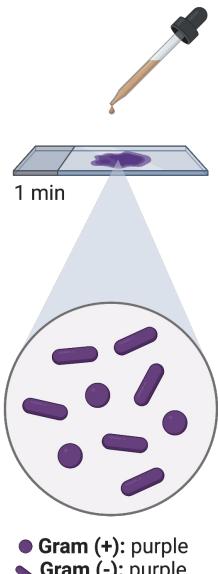
Primary stain added to specimen smear.



Step 2

Iodine

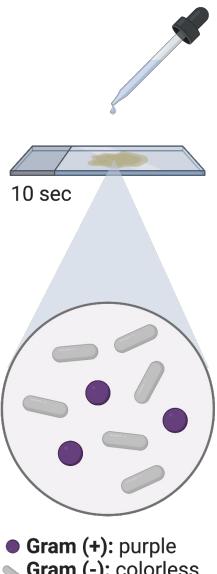
Mordant makes dye less soluble so it adheres to cell walls.



Step 3

Alcohol

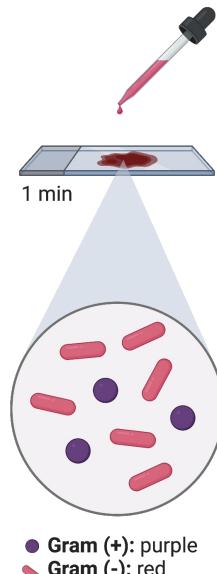
Decolorizer washes away stain from gram (-) cell walls.



Step 4

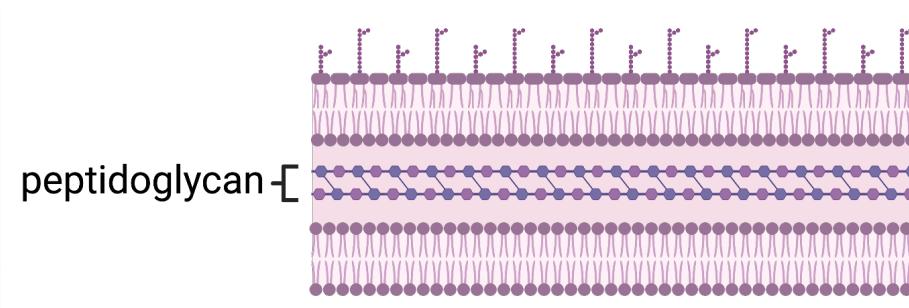
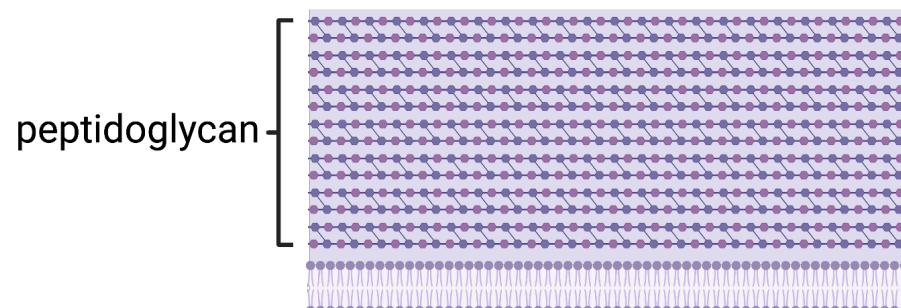
Safranin

Counterstain allows dye adherence to gram (-) cell walls.



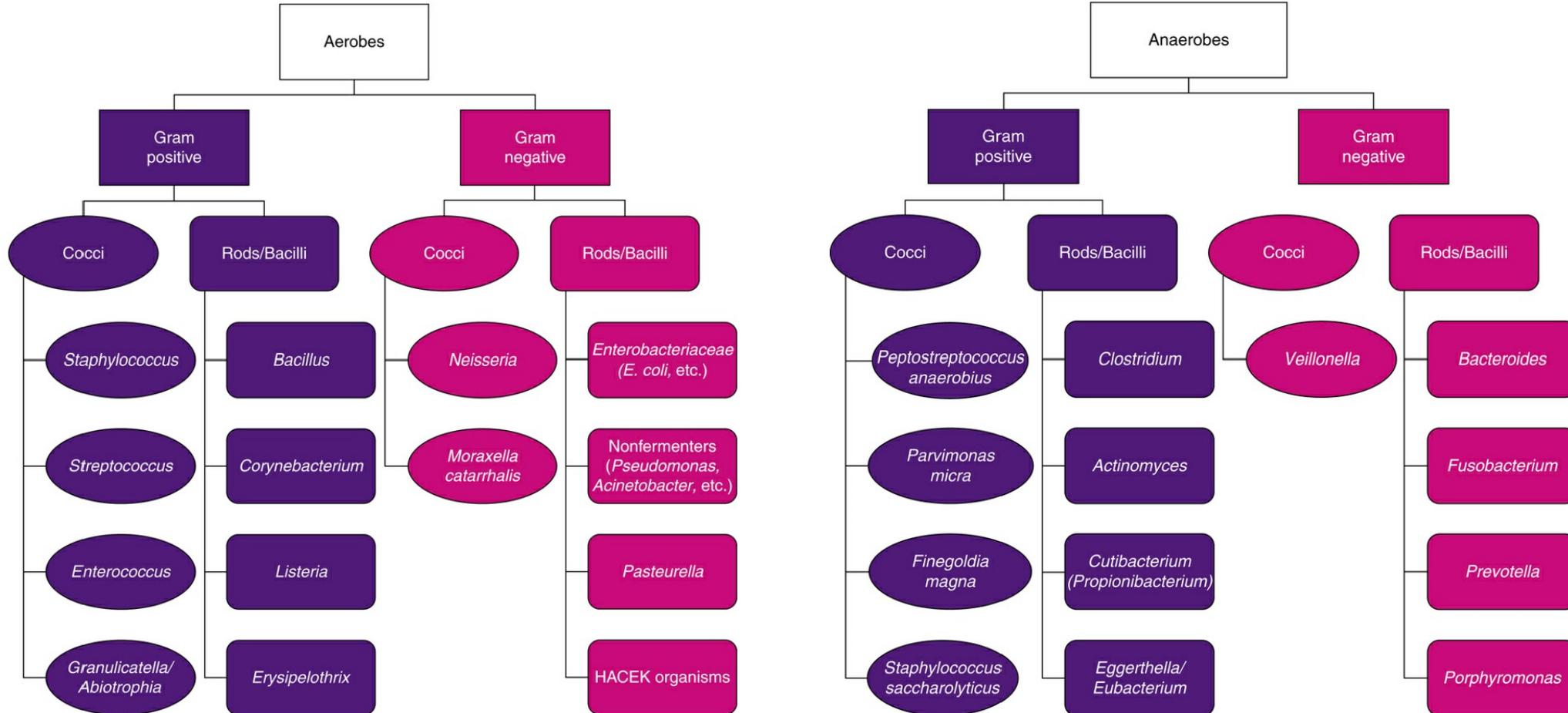
Gram positive

Gram negative



Gram stain + morphology

Typically performed for body fluids that are normally sterile

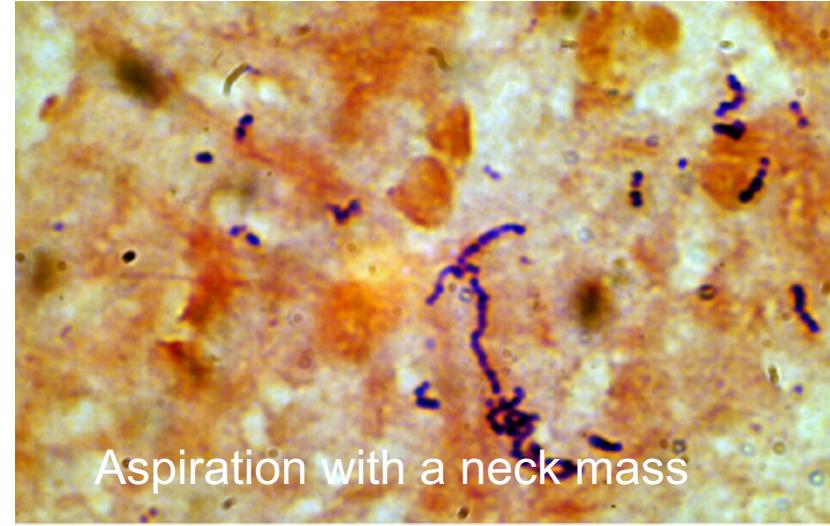
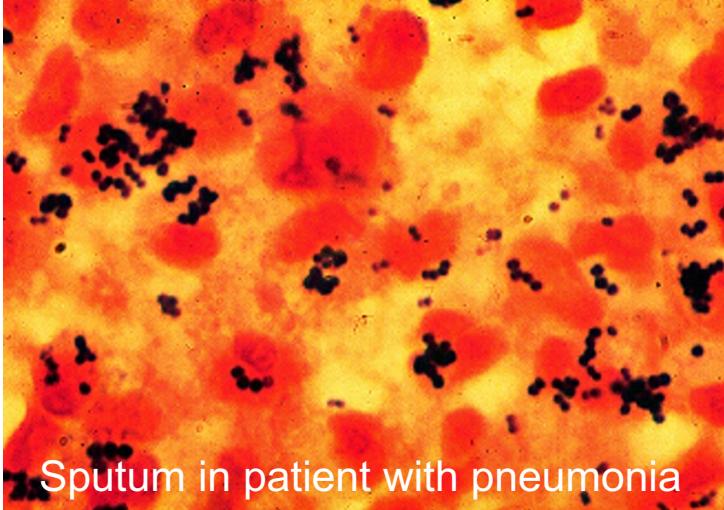


Figures: Spec A, Escota G, Chrisler and Davies, *Comprehensive Review of Infectious Diseases* 2020

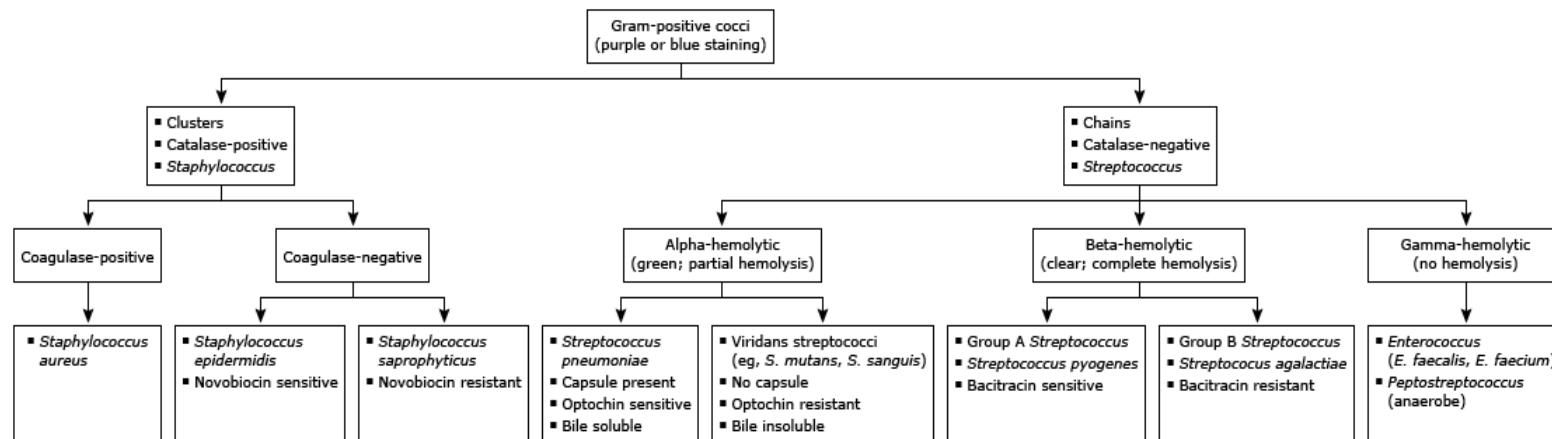
Not some organisms cannot be visualized by Gram stain because they lack cell wall (*Mycoplasma spp*) or cell wall does not retain stain (eg, *Chlamydia spp*)



Gram stain + morphology+ bacterial characteristics



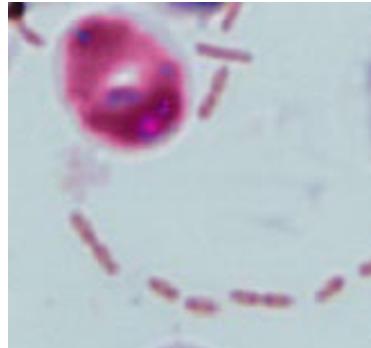
Classification of gram-positive cocci by laboratory features



Biochemical methods

simple spot methods (e.g, catalase, oxidase, coagulase)

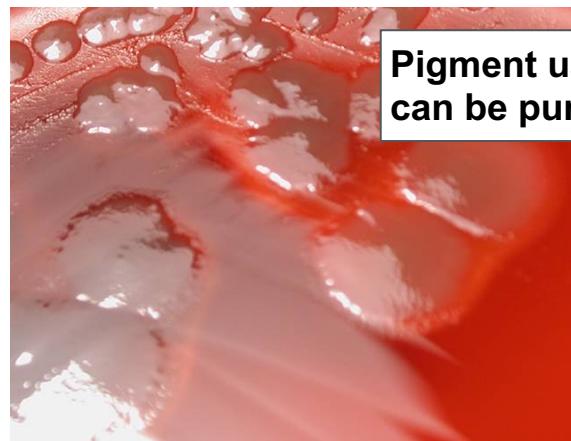
Pseudomonas aeruginosa



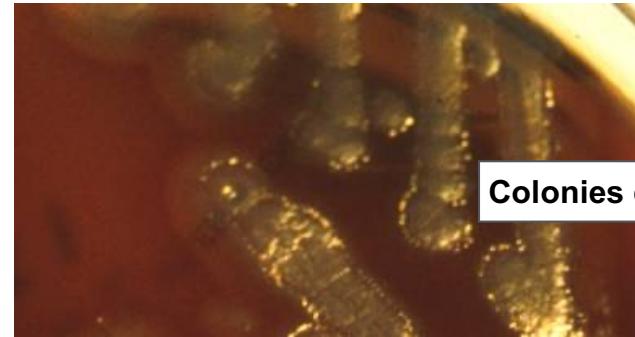
Gram – rods (In blood culture) longer & thinner than enteric rods



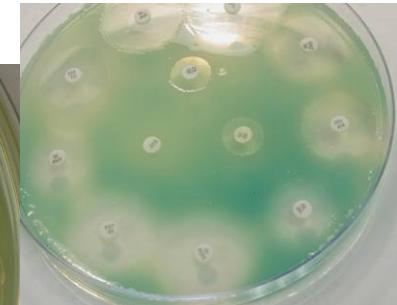
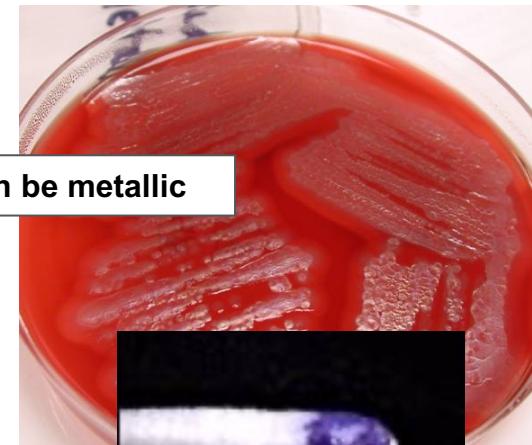
- Rough colonies on BAP
- Non-lactose fermenters on MacConkey
- Usually beta hemolytic
- Grape-like smell
- Oxidase positive



Pigment usually green but can be purple or blue

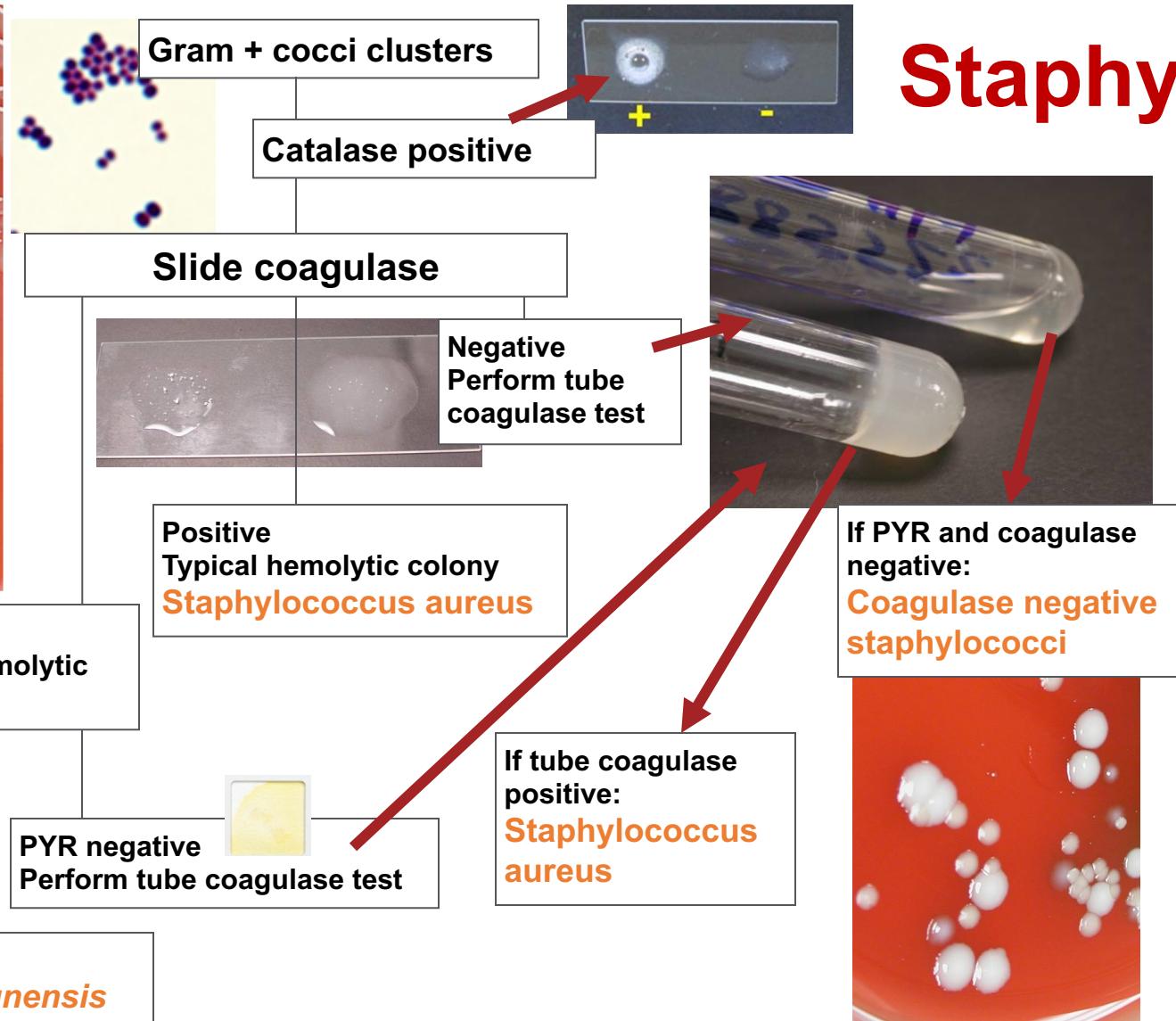
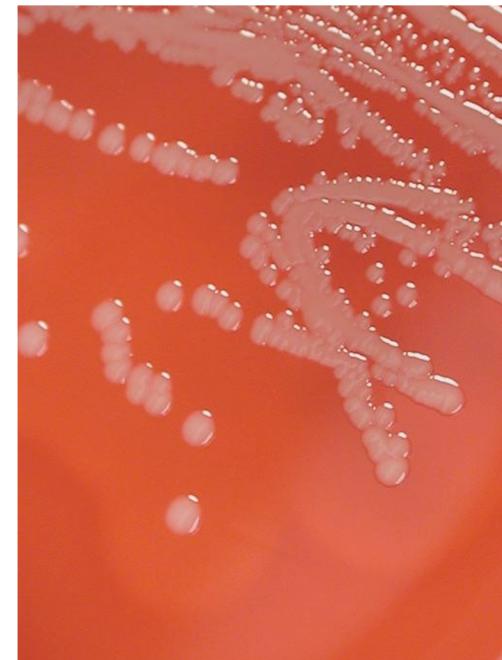


Colonies can be metallic



Biochemical methods

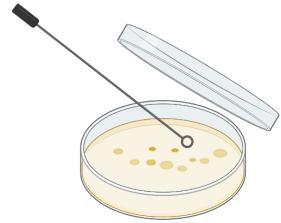
simple spot methods (e.g., catalase, oxidase, coagulase)



Slide: Ellen Jo Baron 2007



Evolution of bacterial identification

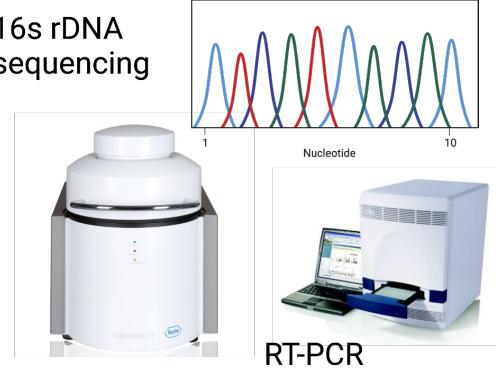


Bacterial identification

Matrix-Assisted
Laser
Desorption/
Ionization –
Time of Flight
(MALDI-TOF)

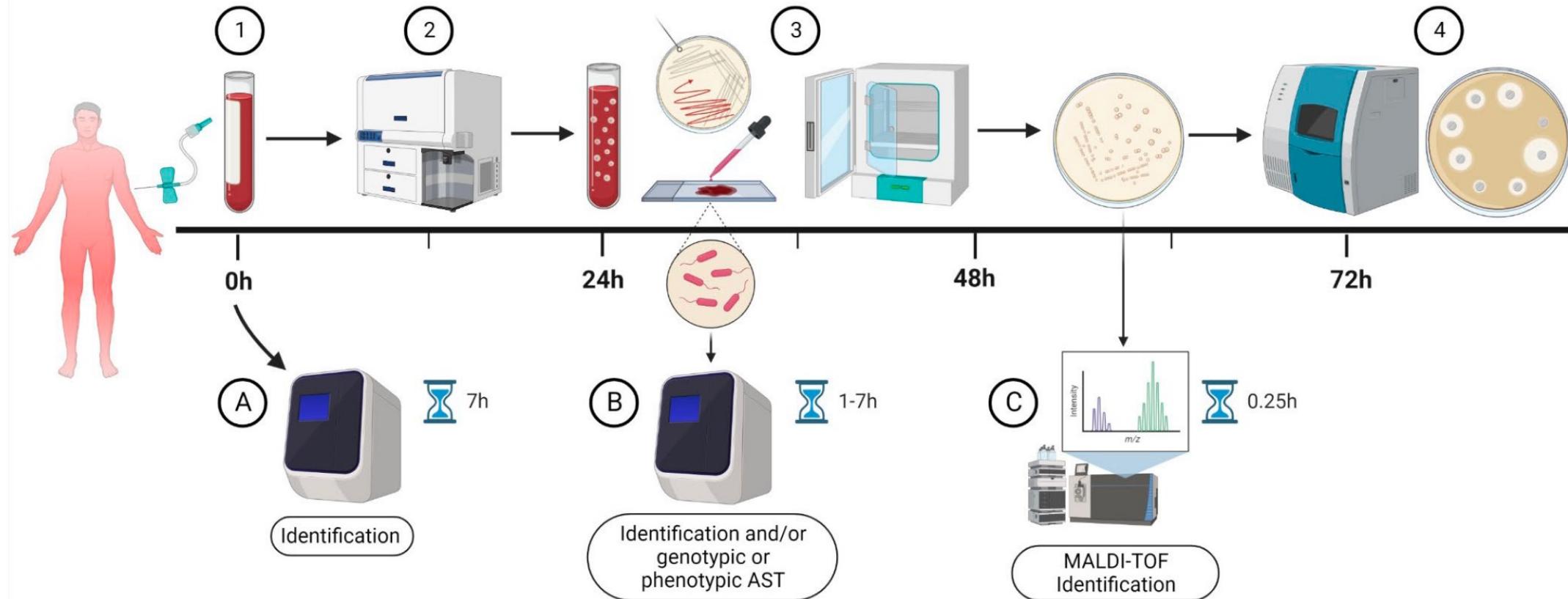


16s rDNA sequencing



Molecular tests

Timeline towards positive identification





Susceptibility of the infecting organism (MIC testing)

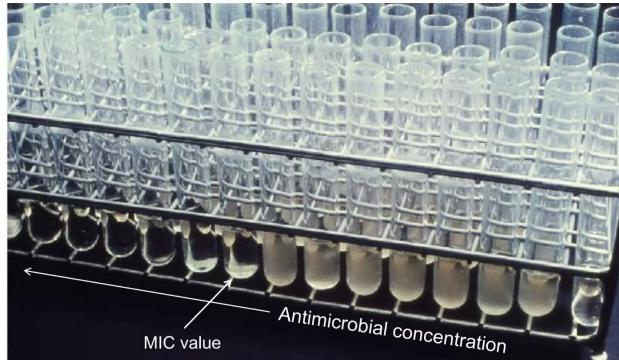
Consideration of patient-specific factors for antibiotic therapy

Probability of infection (differential dx)
and identification of the infecting organism
...or a statistically reasonable guess

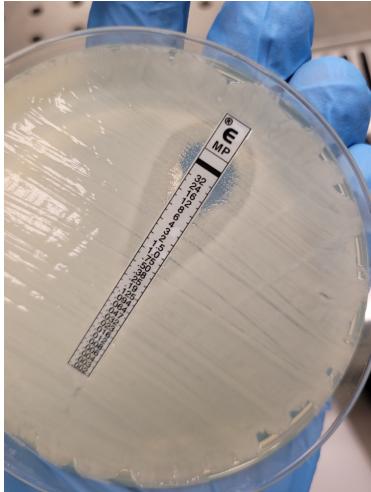
Mean inhibitory concentration (MIC)



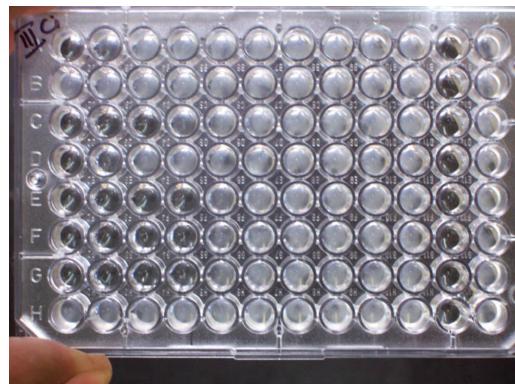
Disk diffusion (Kirby-Bauer)



Macrodilution

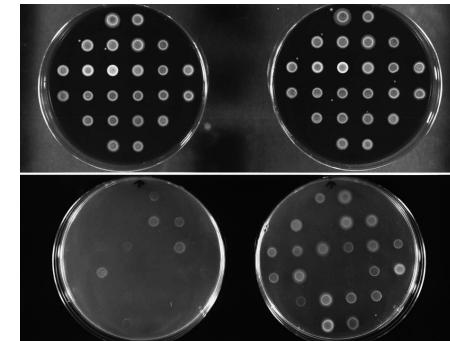


Gradient strips

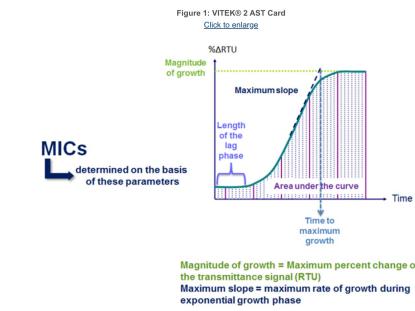
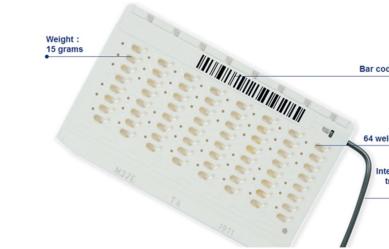


Microdilution

Example 1:
E. cloacae, MRP MIC = 0.094 µg/mL,
reported as 0.12 µg/mL



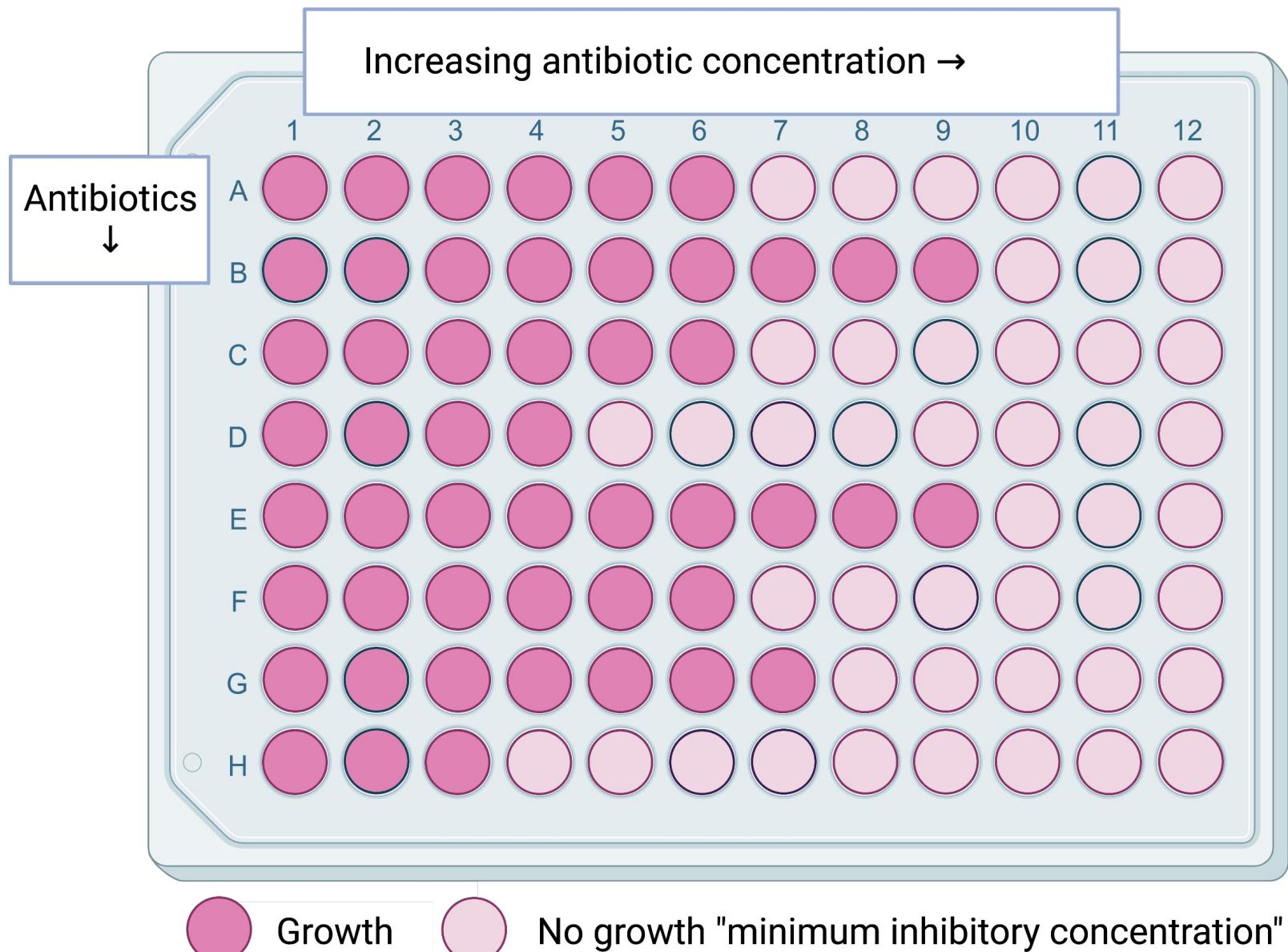
Agar dilution (anaerobes)

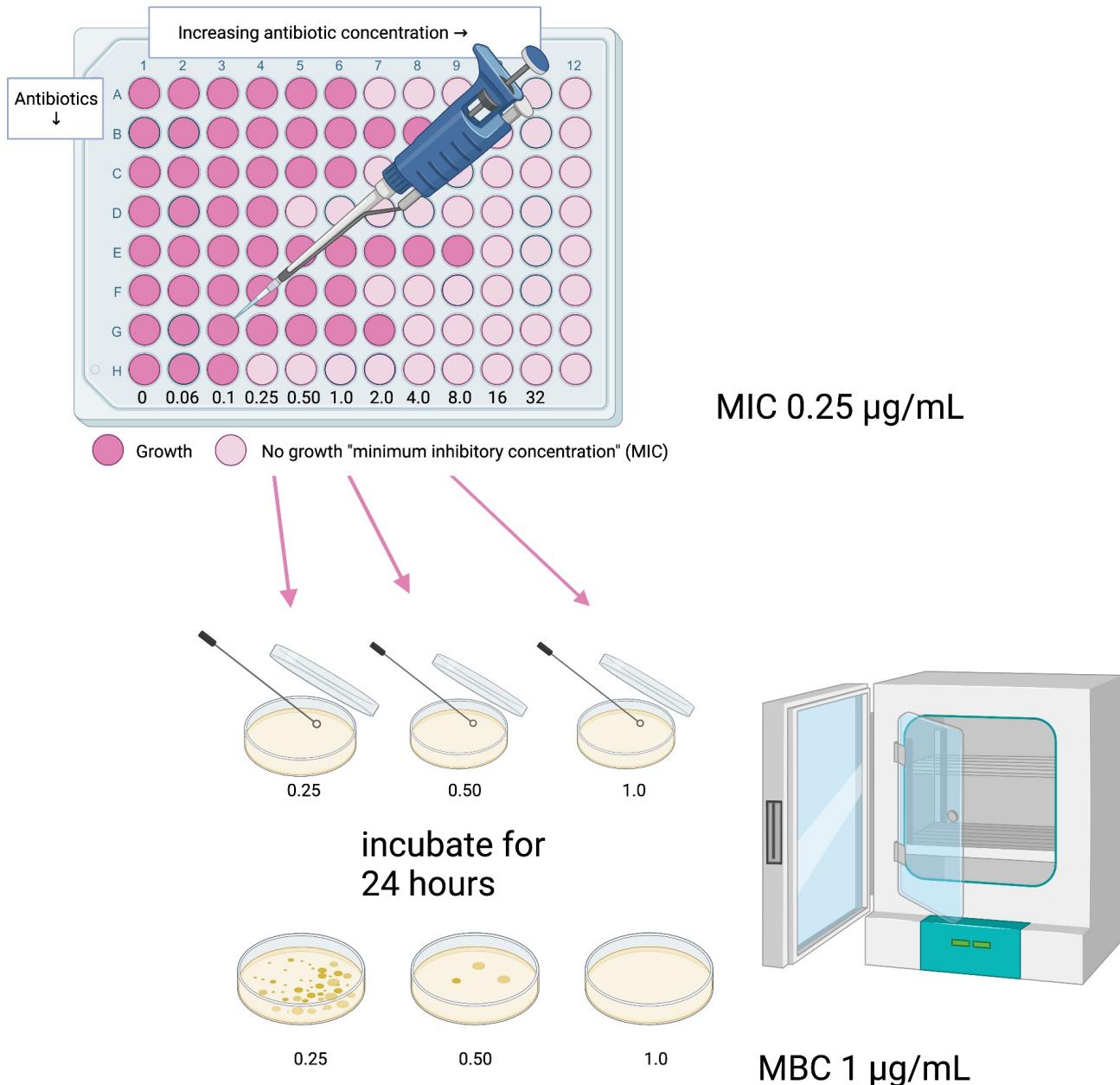


Automated testing
(i.e. VITEK 2)



MIC

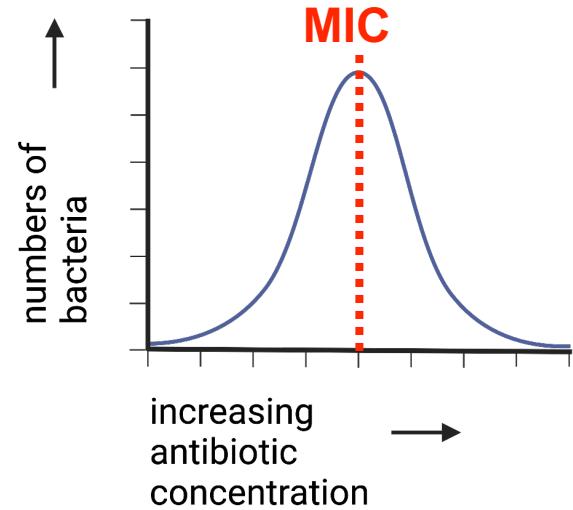




32-fold MBC > MIC =
“Tolerance”

Important things to remember about MICs

- An estimation of antibiotic potency
- Does not reflect *in vivo* conditions
 - Standardized inoculum 5×10^4 for testing generally lower than infection
 - Synthetic growth medium
 - No host immune cells, antibodies, protein, complement
 - Static, not dynamic drug concentrations
- Due to testing variabilities, the inherent error of MIC testing is ± 1 dilution
 - i.e. a reported MIC of 2 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ may actually be 1 or 4 $\mu\text{g/mL}$



So why do we still use MICs,is there something better?

MIC are still used because they are:

Simple

Reproducible with standardized methods

Can be easily related to pharmacokinetic data ($\mu\text{g/mL}$)

Withstood the *test of time*

Antimicrobial susceptibility interpretation

Breakpoints reported for MICs (S, I, R)

- **Susceptible (S)**
 - Isolate will be inhibited by typically achievable concentrations of antimicrobial agent when the dosage recommended for the site of infection is used
 - Clinical efficacy is likely
- **Susceptible dose-dependent (S-DD)**
 - Susceptibility is dependent on the dosing regimen used
 - In order to achieve higher drug exposures, higher or more frequent dosing is needed
- **Intermediate (I)**
 - Implies response rate may be lower- MIC is near resistance breakpoint
 - Isolate may be treatable in some body sites where drug exposure is higher
- **Area of technical uncertainty (ATU)**
 - Uncertainty in interpretation- further testing with other methods are needed to confirm susceptibility
- **Resistant (R)**
 - Isolate will not be inhibited by typically achievable concentration of antibiotic with recommended doses at the site of infection
 - Clinical efficacy is uncertain or less likely
- **Nonsusceptible (NS)**
 - Category used for isolates for which only susceptible breakpoint is designated because resistance is rare



william wright @wfwrightID · Feb 8
#IDTwitter #SIDPharm #Microbiology

...

#AMRounds @Bornmann_CR @liunezolid called about this laboratory confirmed isolate (AMR step 1) associated with a clinically confirmed infection regarding the mechanism of resistance.

Susceptibility

Klebsiella pneumoniae complex (1)
SUSCEPTIBILITY/INTERP

| | | |
|-------------------------------|----------------|---|
| Amikacin | <=8 ug/mL | S |
| Amoxicillin-Clavulanate | 8/4 ug/mL | S |
| Ampicillin | >16 ug/mL | R |
| Ampicillin-Sulbactam | >16/8 ug/mL | R |
| Aztreonam | <=2 ug/mL | S |
| Cefazolin | >16 ug/mL | R |
| Cefepime | <=1 ug/mL | S |
| Cefoxitin | <=4 ug/mL | S |
| Ceftazidime | <=2 ug/mL | S |
| Ceftriaxone | <=1 ug/mL | S |
| Cefuroxime | <=4 ug/mL | S |
| Ciprofloxacin | <=0.25 ug/mL | S |
| Ertapenem | <=0.25 ug/mL | S |
| Gentamicin | <=2 ug/mL | S |
| Meropenem | <=0.5 ug/mL | S |
| Nitrofurantoin | 64 ug/mL | I |
| Piperacillin-Tazobactam | >64/4 ug/mL | R |
| Tetracycline | >8 ug/mL | R |
| Tobramycin | <=2 ug/mL | S |
| Trimethoprim-Sulfamethoxazole | <=0.5/9.5 u... | S |

We will go into more detail in subsequent lecture regarding resistance mechanisms



william wright @wfwrightID · Feb 8

...

Replies to @wfwrightID

Your answer to our proposed mechanism of resistance would be:

- TEM-1 over-expression 24.5%
- SHV-1 over-expression 31.3%
- IRT type beta-lactamase** 37%
- Other (please reply) 7.2%

208 votes · Final results

Who sets breakpoints?

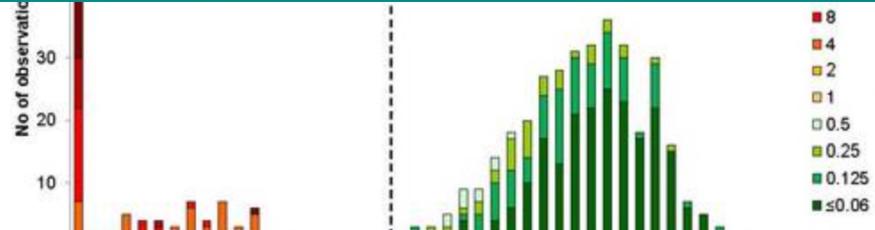


EUROPEAN COMMITTEE
ON ANTIMICROBIAL
SUSCEPTIBILITY TESTING

European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases

Clinical breakpoints and dosing of antibiotics

- Organization
- Consultations
- EUCAST News
- New definitions of S, I and R
- Clinical breakpoints and dosing
 - About "Clinical breakpoints".
 - Rationale documents



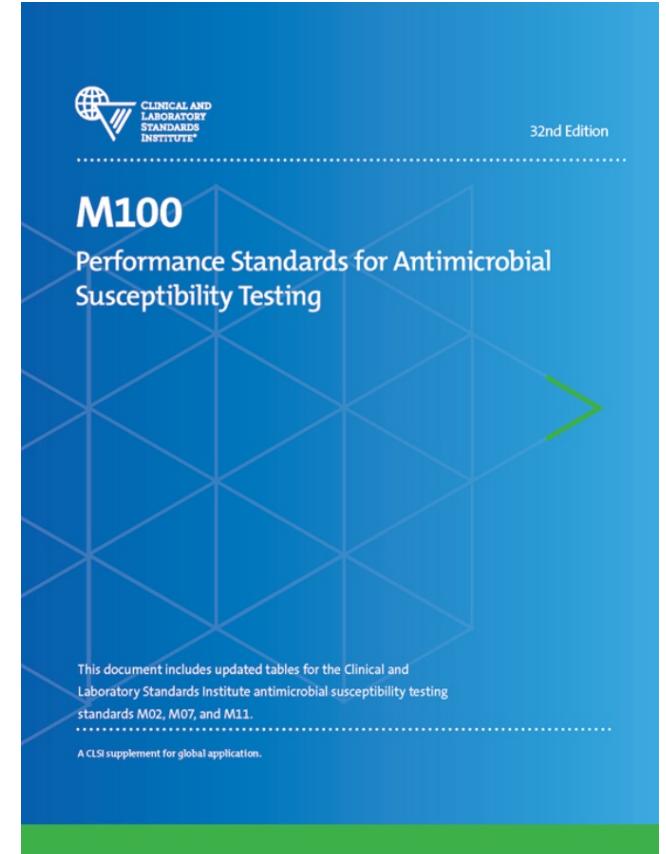
Clinical breakpoints - breakpoints and guidance

January 2, 2023



U.S. FOOD & DRUG
ADMINISTRATION

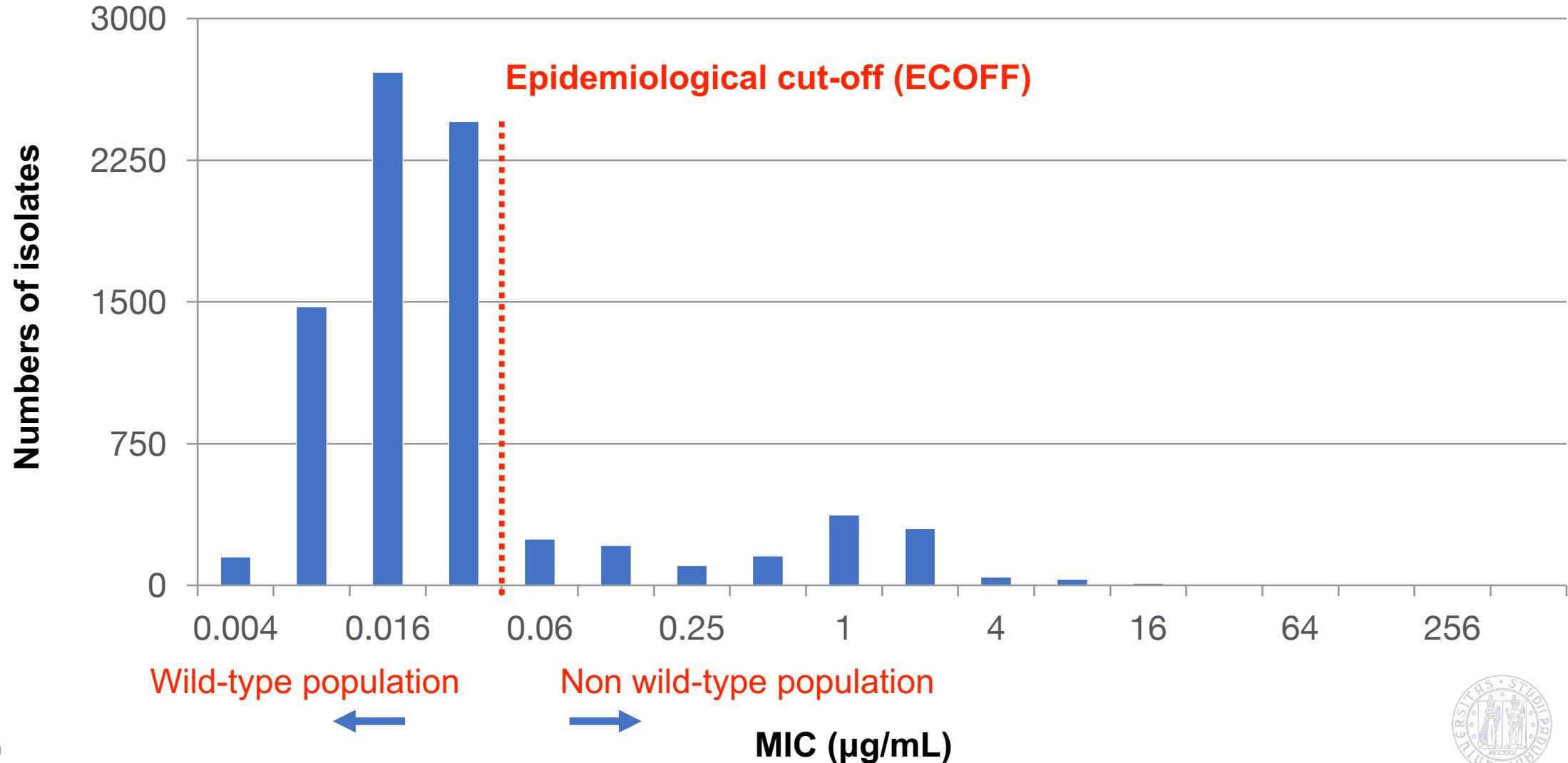
*FDA in United States, but generally follows
CLSI breakpoints*



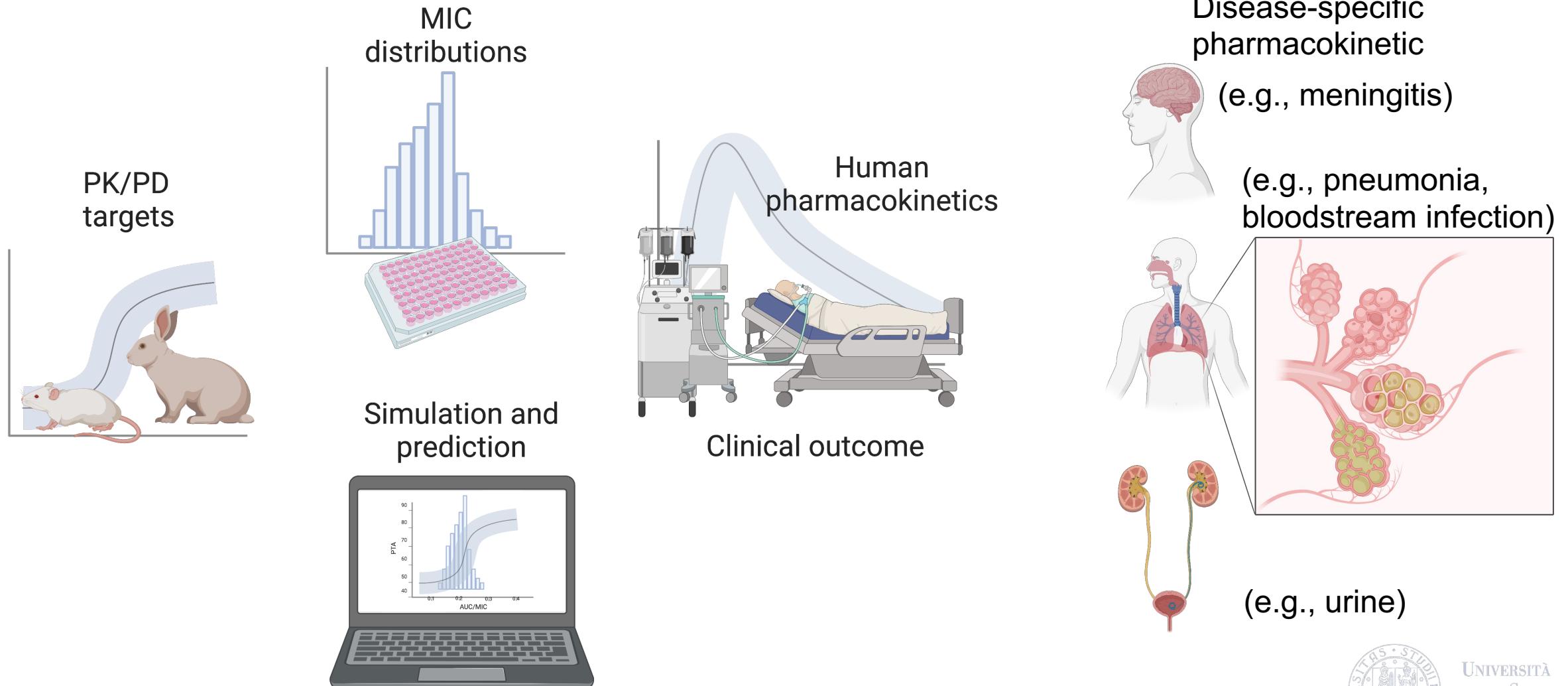
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What information is used to set breakpoints?

MIC distributions from testing large numbers of isolates



What other data is used to set breakpoints?



Antibiotic breakpoints

Establishing clinical correlation-general rule of thumb

90/60 rule

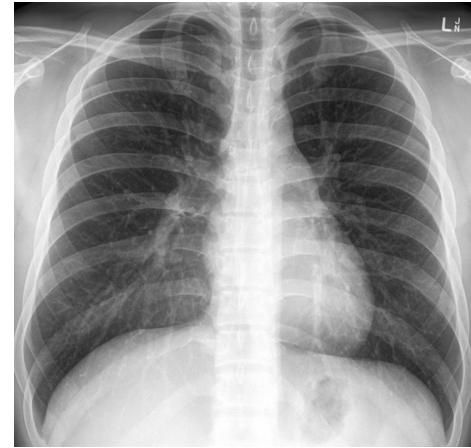
“Susceptible” $\geq 90\%$ clinical response

“Resistant” $\leq 60\%$ clinical response

Susceptibility report/ antibiograms

Sputum culture: *P. aeruginosa*

| Antibiotic | Interpretation |
|-------------------------|----------------|
| Aztreonam | S |
| Ceftriaxone | R |
| Cefepime | S |
| Ciprofloxacin | I |
| Gentamicin | S |
| Meropenem | S |
| Piperacillin/tazobactam | S |



Cumulative susceptibility reports/ institutional antibiograms

% Susceptible of tested isolates

| Drug | Acinetobact. | E. coli | E. cloacae | K. pneumoniae | P. aeruginosa |
|-------------|---------------------|----------------|-------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Amikacin | 89 | 99 | 99 | 99 | 92 |
| Aztreonam | | 92 | 84 | 95 | 56 |
| Cefepime | 61 | 94 | 97 | 95 | 57 |
| Ceftazidime | | 95 | 86 | 95 | 78 |
| Imipenem | 92 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 78 |
| Meropenem | | 100 | 97 | 100 | 78 |
| Pip/Tazo | | 94 | 76 | 91 | 85 |
| Ciproflox | 79 | 55 | 93 | 95 | 65 |
| Levoflox | | 54 | 94 | 95 | 65 |



What about combination antimicrobial therapy?

Combination antimicrobial therapy

- **Most infections in patients with “normal” host defenses can be treated with a single antimicrobial agent**
 - Provided highly effective monotherapy is used-i.e. β -lactams
- **Combinations may provide broader-spectrum of coverage or pharmacokinetic advantages in select situations**
- **Combination therapy standard of care for some bacterial infections**
 - e.g., tuberculosis, enterococcal endocarditis
- **Combination therapy may be desirable for more resistant pathogens where single high-potency antibiotic with ideal pharmacokinetics are lacking (e.g., *Acinetobacter* spp.)**



Antimicrobial interactions

| | Combined Antimicrobial Effects | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Interaction model | Less than expected sum effects | Same as expected sum effects | More than expected sum effects |
| Loewe additivity (similar modes of action or pathways) | Antagonism | Additive | Synergy |
| Bliss independence (independent modes of action or pathways) | Antagonism | Indifferent | Synergy |

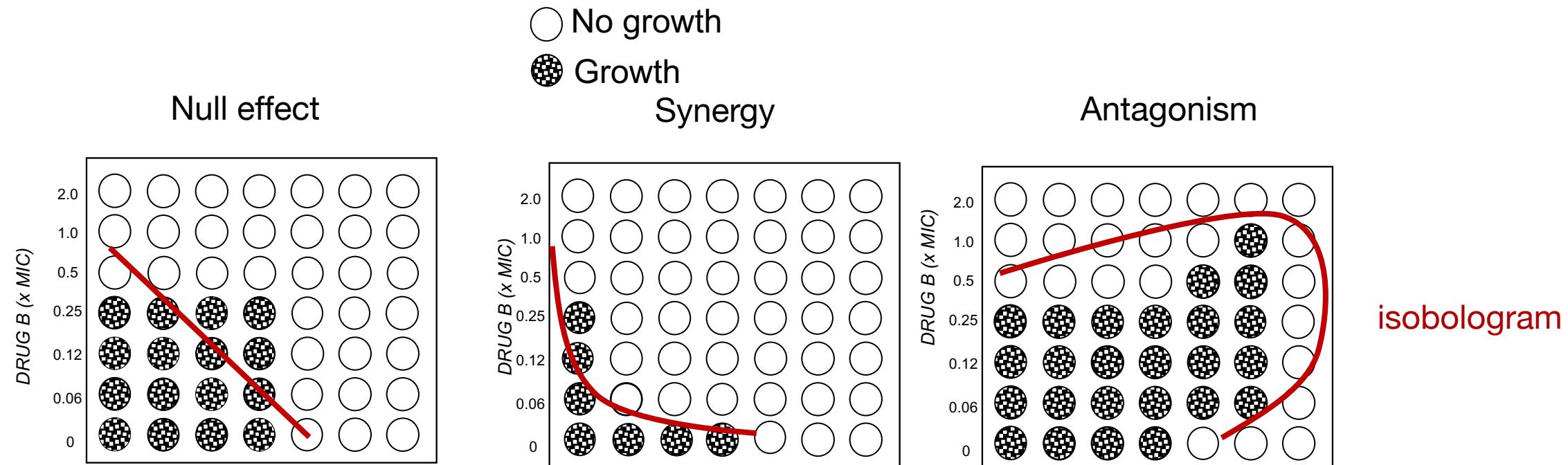
Greco WR et al. *Pharmacol Rev* 1995;47:331



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How can combination therapy be tested in the laboratory?

Checkerboard test



$$\frac{MIC_a + MIC_b}{MIC_a} = FIC_a$$

$$\frac{MIC_b + MIC_a}{b} = FIC_b$$

$$FIC_a + FIC_b = FIC \text{ Index (FICI)}$$

FICI < 0.5 = Synergy

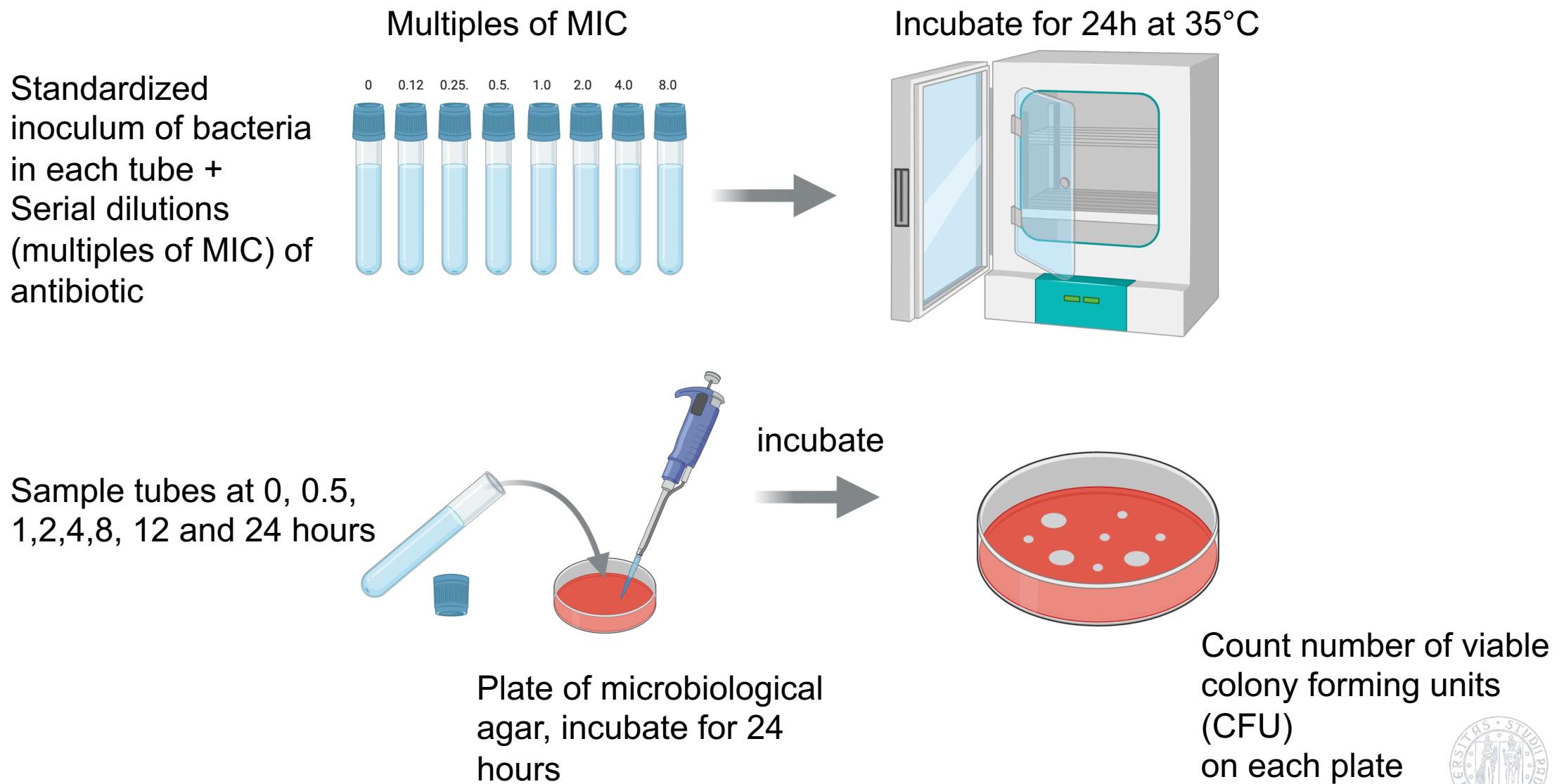
FICI 0.5-4 = Additive or null interaction (Loewe)

FICI > 4 Antagonism



Synergy testing

time-kill curves



Synergy testing time-kill curves

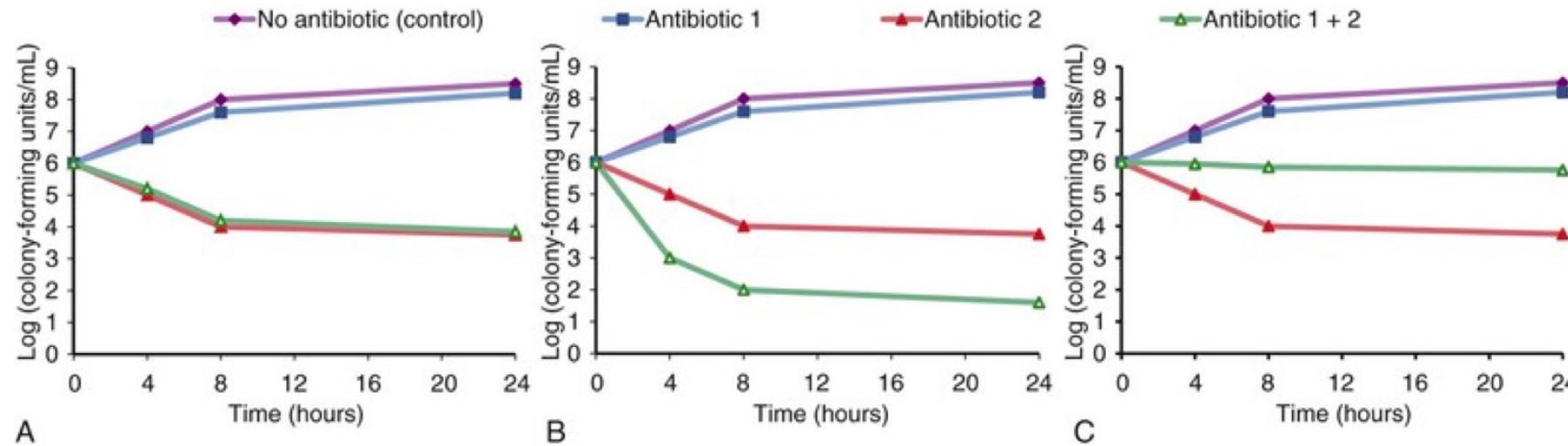
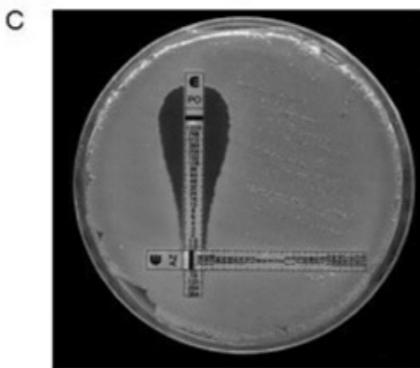
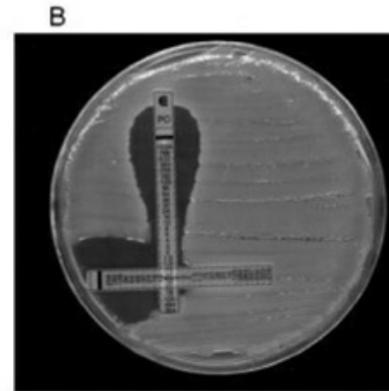
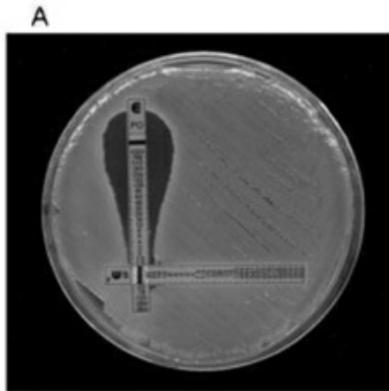
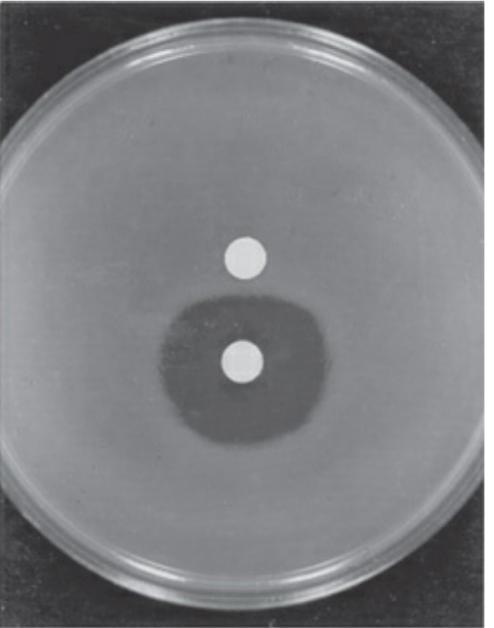
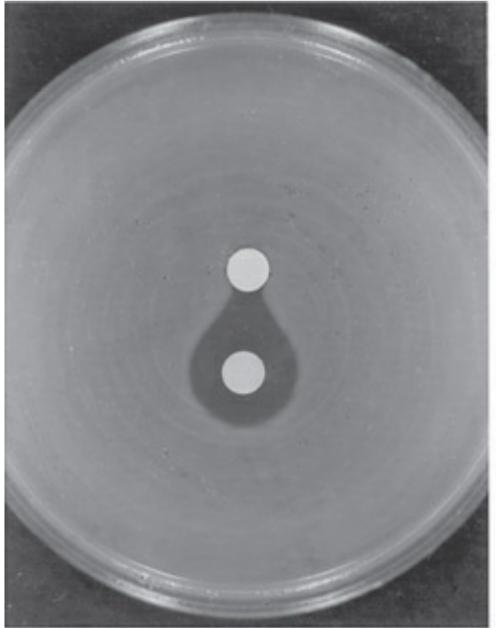


FIGURE 17-1 Antibacterial effects of antibiotic combinations. **A**, The combination of antibiotics 1 and 2 is indifferent (killing by antibiotic 2 is unchanged when antibiotic 1 is added). **B**, The combination of antibiotics 1 and 2 results in synergy (killing by antibiotic 2 is significantly enhanced when antibiotic 1 is added at a subinhibitory concentration). **C**, The combination of antibiotics 1 and 2 is antagonistic (killing by antibiotic 2 is diminished in the presence of antibiotic 1).

Synergy testing

agar based methods



Amsterdam, Daniel. Antibiotics in Laboratory Medicine .
6th Edition. Wolters Kluwer Health.



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Monitoring of antimicrobial therapy

Susceptibility of the infecting organism
(MIC testing)

Consideration of patient-specific
factors for antibiotic therapy

Probability of infection (differential dx)
and identification of the infecting organism
...or a statistically reasonable guess

Monitoring antimicrobial therapy

- Is the patient improving?
- Can the antibiotics be converted from IV to oral?
- Can the antibiotics be narrowed to a specific pathogen?
 - After culture and sensitivity (MIC) results are returned
- Should therapeutic drug monitoring (TDM) be performed?
- Is kidney and liver function stable?
- Is the patient experiencing side effects from the antibiotic?



Therapeutic drug monitoring (TDM)

General recommendations

- **Standard of care:**
 - **To reduce risk of nephrotoxicity, ensure efficacy:**
 - Aminoglycosides (gentamicin, tobramycin, amikacin)
 - Glycopeptides (vancomycin, teicoplanin)
- **Emerging recommendations:**
 - **Ensure efficacy, reduce risk of toxicity in critically-ill patients**
 - Beta-lactams, linezolid

This will be addressed in more detail subsequent lectures

Monitoring antimicrobial therapy

- Is the patient improving?
- Can the antibiotics be converted from IV to oral?
- Can the antibiotics be narrowed to a specific pathogen?
 - After culture and sensitivity results are returned
- Should therapeutic drug monitoring (TDM) be performed?
- Is kidney and liver function stable?
- **Is the patient experiencing side effects from the antibiotic?**



Common antibiotic adverse effects

| Subjective | Objective |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• GI disturbance• Flushing• Rash• Pain at cannulation site• Altered mood• Headache• Joint pain• Muscle pain• Taste disturbance• Numbness and tingling | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Fever• Renal injury• Hyperkalemia• Cholestasis• Hepatitis• Neutropenia• Thrombocytopenia• Prolonged QT interval• Ototoxicity |



Common reasons for antibiotic failure

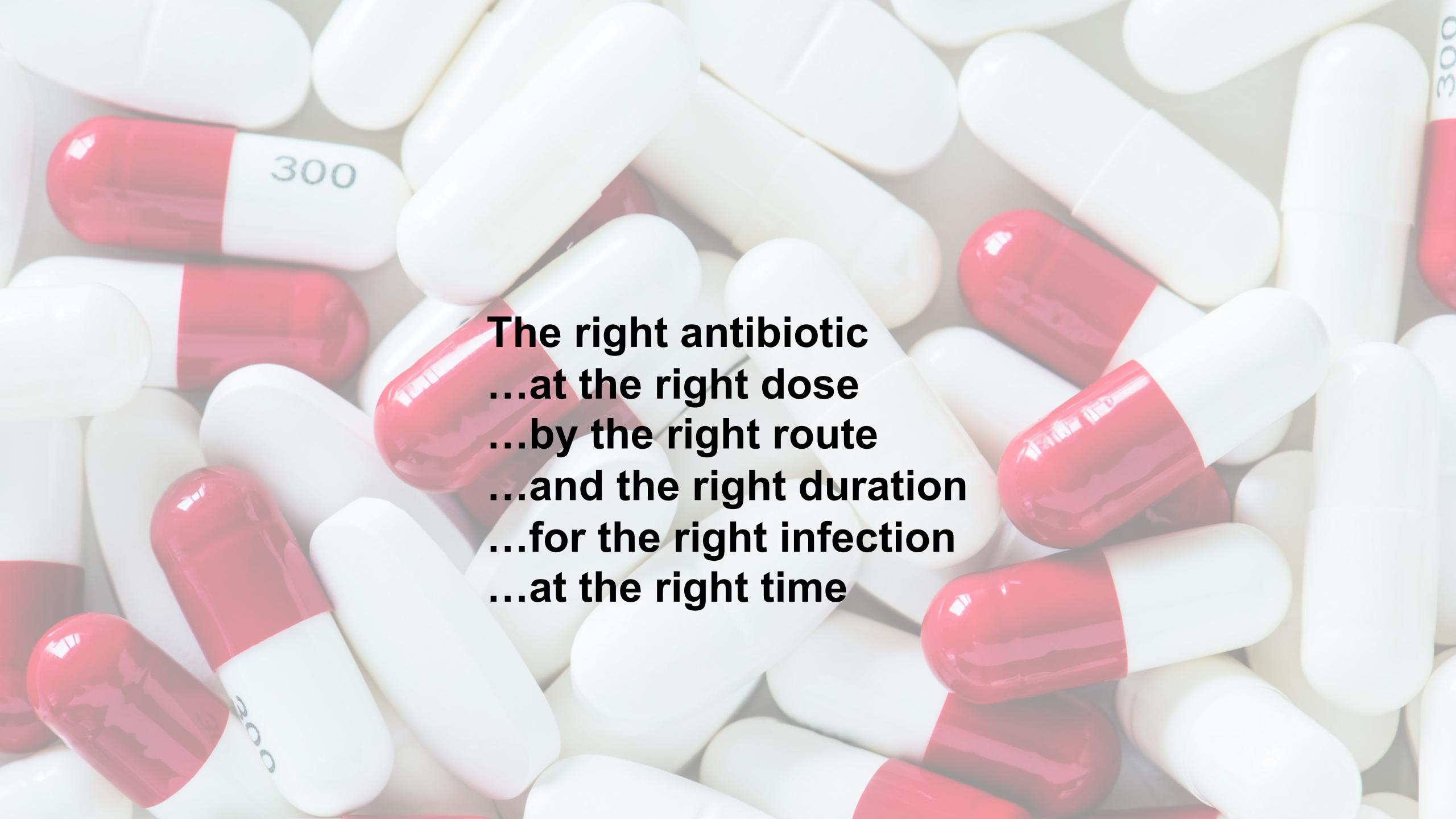
- Too short of duration (compliance)?
- Incorrect diagnosis?
- Incorrect antibiotic dose for diagnosis and pathogen
- Lack of source control (e.g., drainage of abscess)
- Emergence of resistance
- Patient has new (super)infection



Summary

- Antibiotic therapy is often started empirically based on knowledge of which organisms typically cause infection against which the treatment will be directed
- The choice of therapy must consider site of infection, patient allergy history, age, organ function, and other patient-specific factors to minimize adverse effects
- Once the pathogen is identified and susceptibility is known, therapy should be tailored to the narrowest required spectrum and shortest duration of therapy administered by mouth when feasible





**The right antibiotic
...at the right dose
...by the right route
...and the right duration
...for the right infection
...at the right time**

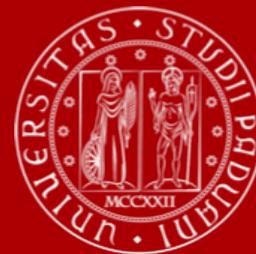
Principles of Antibiotic Therapy

Part 2. Antibiotic PK and Dosing Optimization

Russell E. Lewis

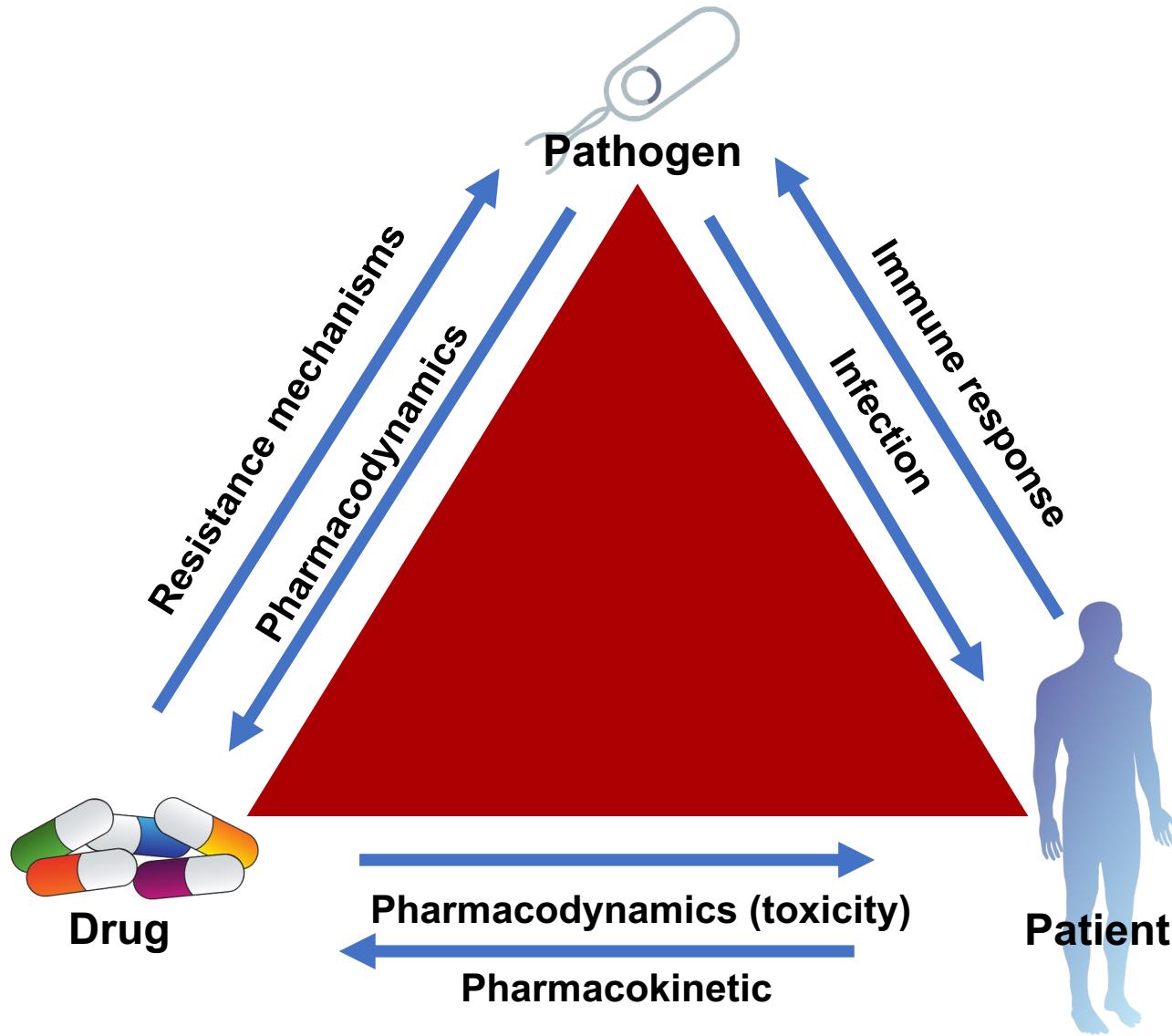
Associate Professor of Medicine, Infectious Diseases (MED/17)

Dipartimento di Medicina Molecolare (DMM)

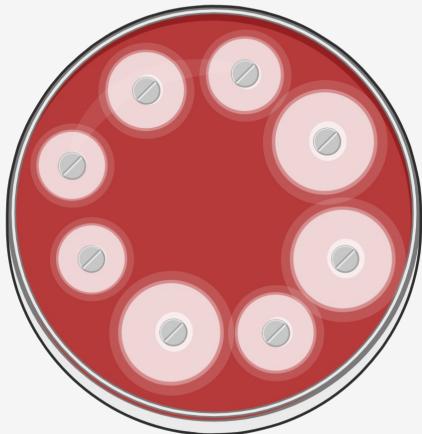
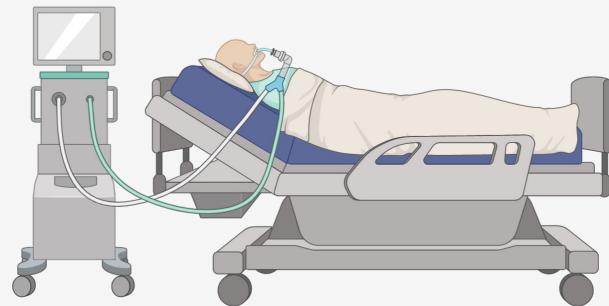


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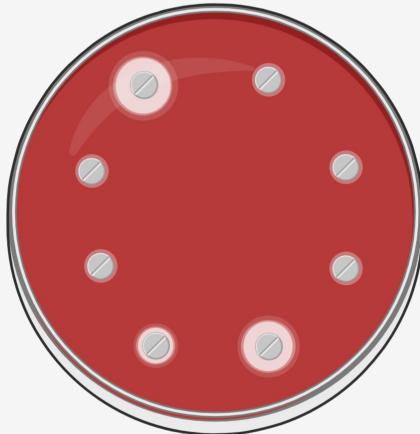
Pharmacology of antimicrobial therapy



Altered pharmacokinetics and antibiotic resistance travel together

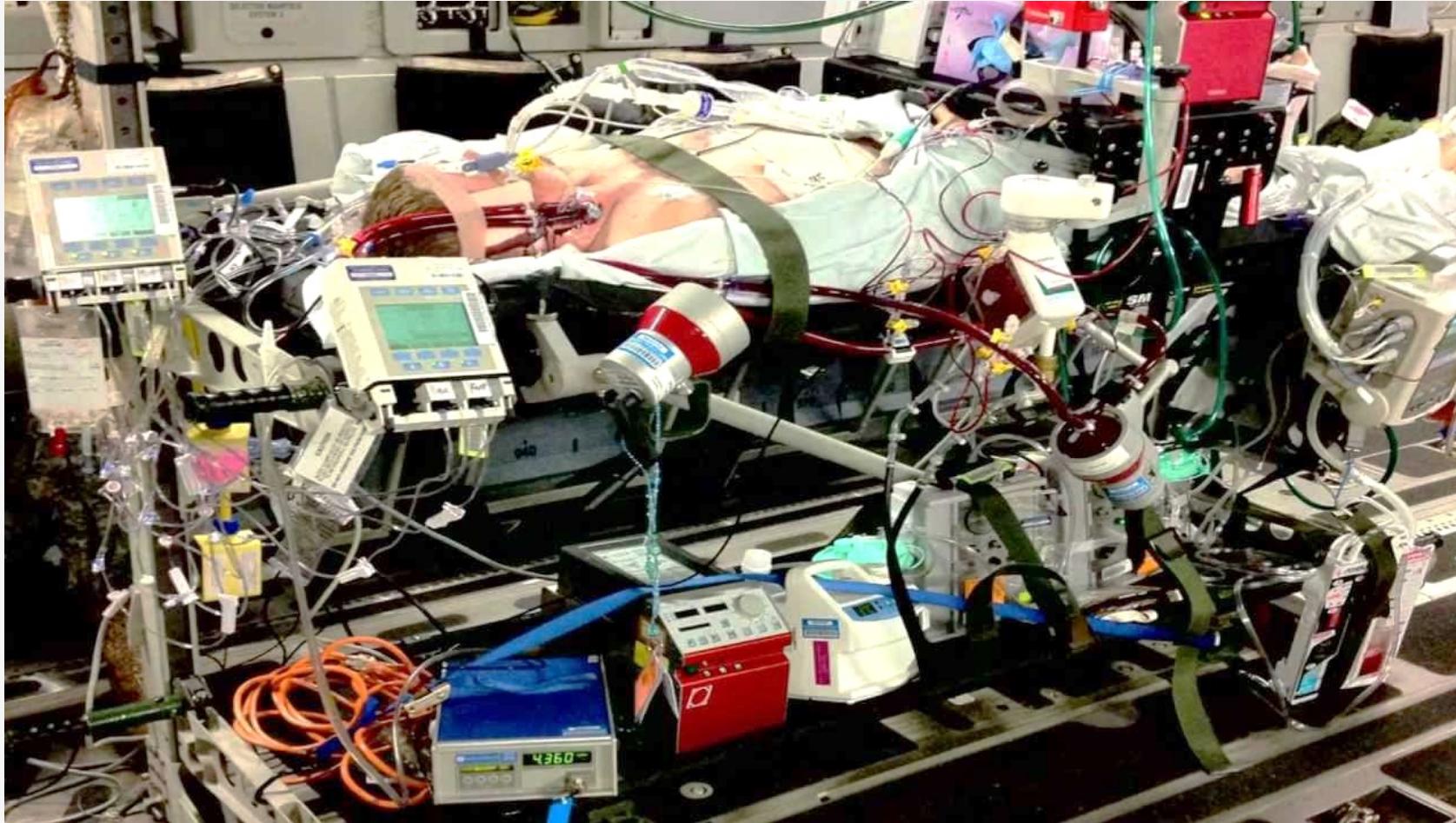


Less severely ill,
highly susceptible bacteria

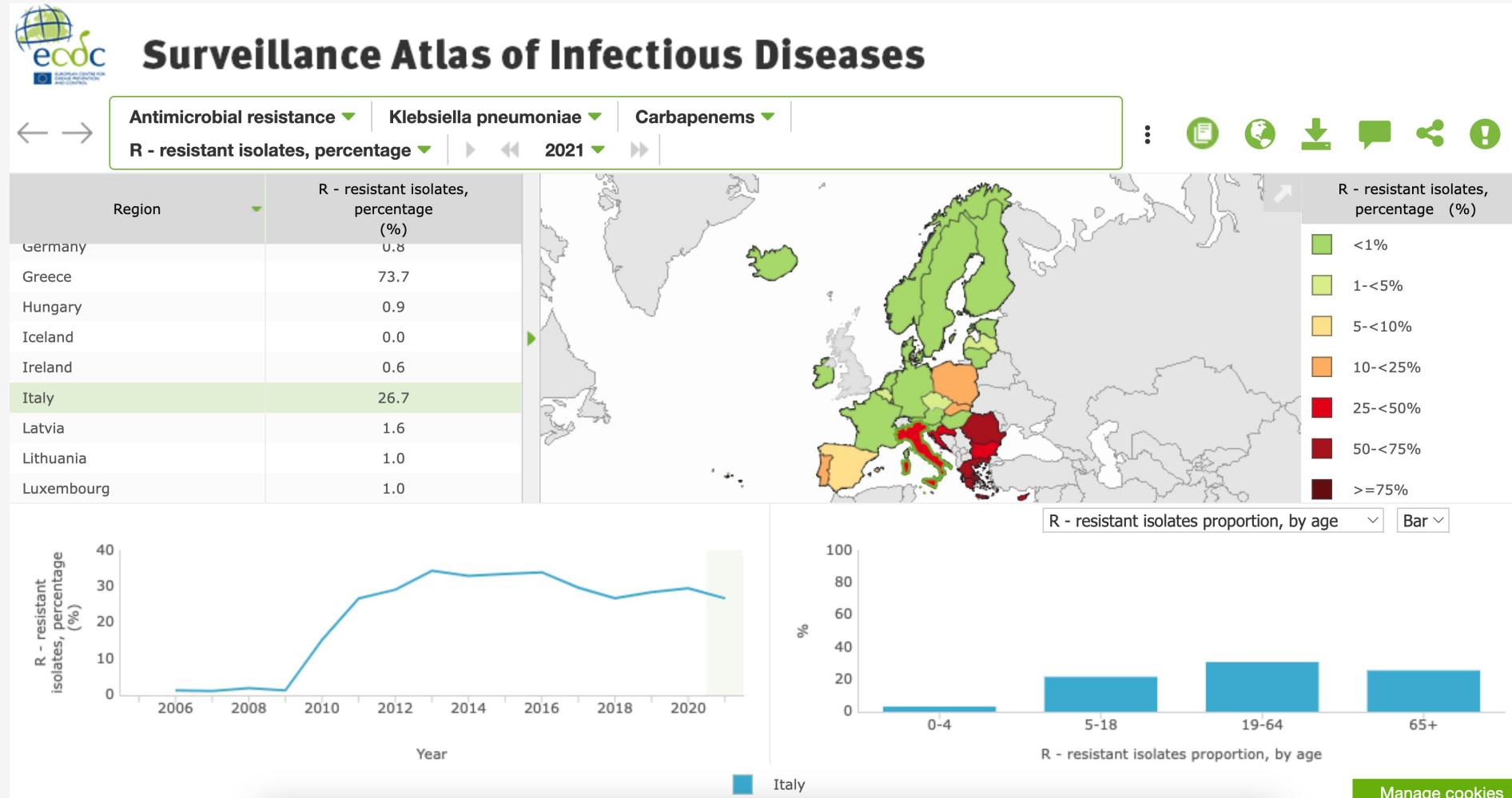


More severely ill,
multi-drug resistant bacteria

Different antibiotic dosing strategies will be needed depending on the MIC and the patient



As a physician in Italy, you will frequently encounter multi-drug resistant bacteria



Source: EARS-NET: <http://atlas.ecdc.europa.eu/public/index.aspx>

Why knowledge of antimicrobial PK/PD is important

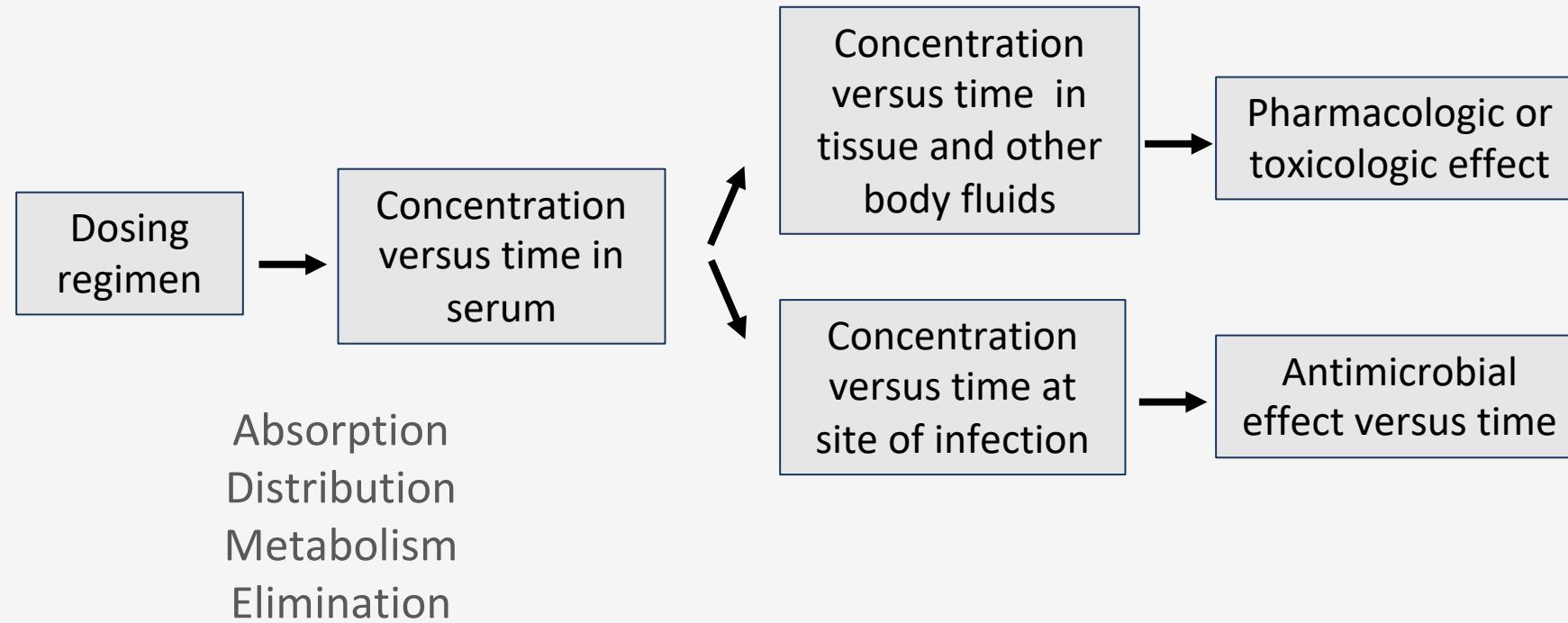
- Antimicrobial resistance
- Registration trials for antibiotics generally exclude very sick patients with infections caused by resistant pathogens → dosages in drug labeling rarely correct for critically-ill patients
- Pharmacokinetic variability can be extreme from one patient to the next-no “one size fits all” dosing

Antibiotic dosing and selection are variables that you can directly control to improve patient outcomes

Outline

- Why knowledge of PK/PD principles is essential for antibiotic dosing
- Core PK/PD concepts for antibiotics
- Practical application of PK/PD dosing principles for antibiotics

Pharmacology of antimicrobials



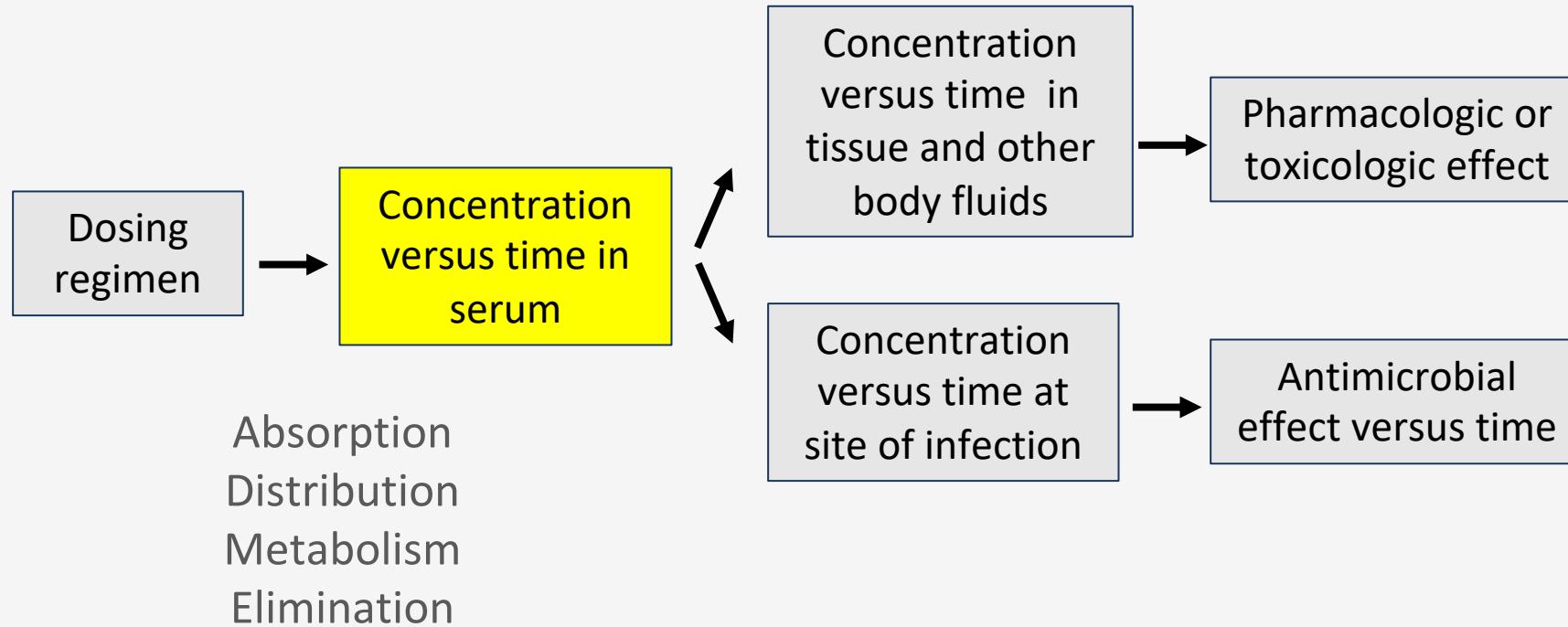
Pharmacokinetics
“PK”

What the body does to drug

Pharmacodynamics
“PD”

*What the drug does to the body
(and bacteria)*

Pharmacology of antimicrobials



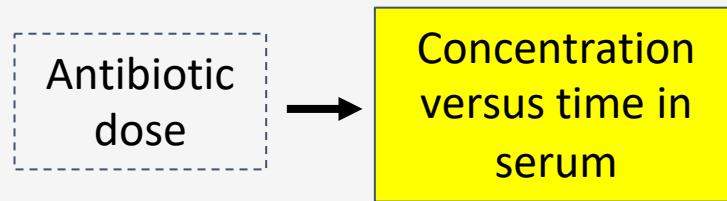
Pharmacokinetics “PK”

What the body does to drug

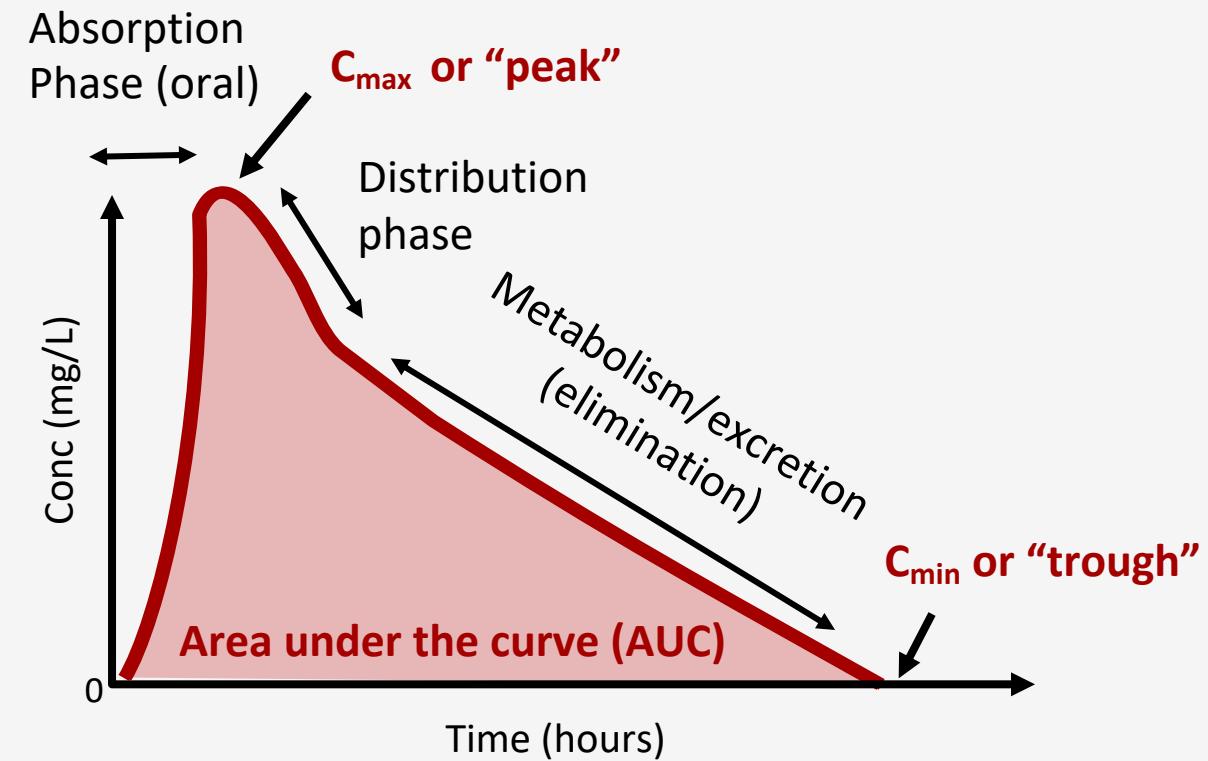
Pharmacodynamics “PD”

*What the drug does to the body
(and bacteria)*

Antibiotics pharmacokinetics are described by concentration-time curves in serum

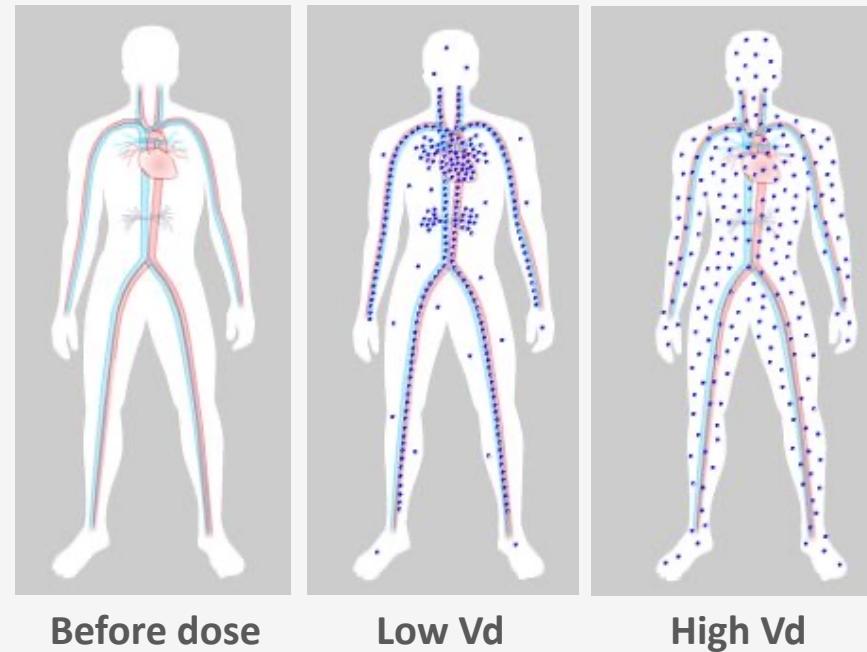


Absorption
Distribution
Metabolism
Elimination



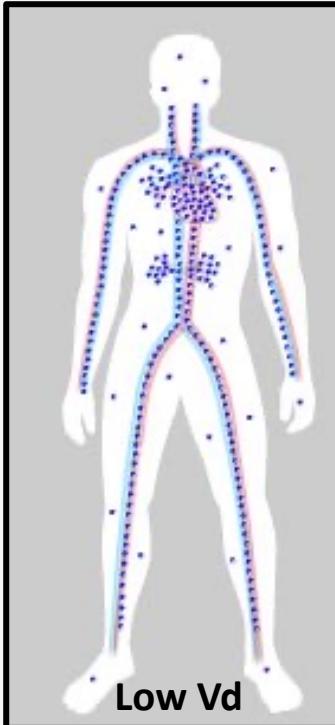
Key PK variable #1 –Volume of distribution (Vd)

- The volume which appears to hold the drug if it was present in the body at the same concentration found in plasma
 - It is estimated, not directly measured
 - Reported in liters (L) or liters per kilogram (L/kg)
 - Average plasma volume in adults is approximately 3 L

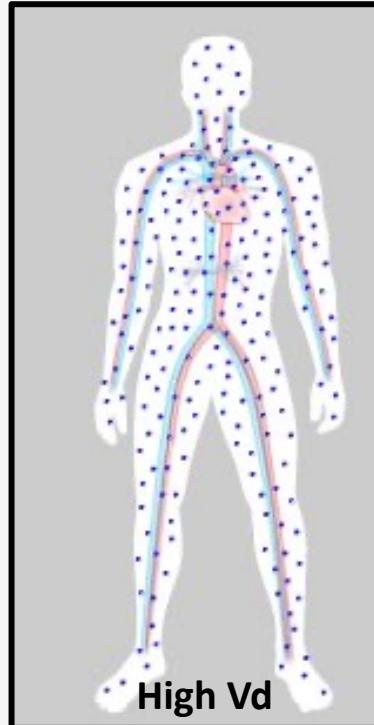


Key PK variable #1 –Volume of distribution (Vd)

- Volume of distributed is affected by the physiochemical properties of the drug
- **Factors that favor low Vd:** high water solubility, high protein binding, decreased tissue binding → converse is also true



Hydrophilic

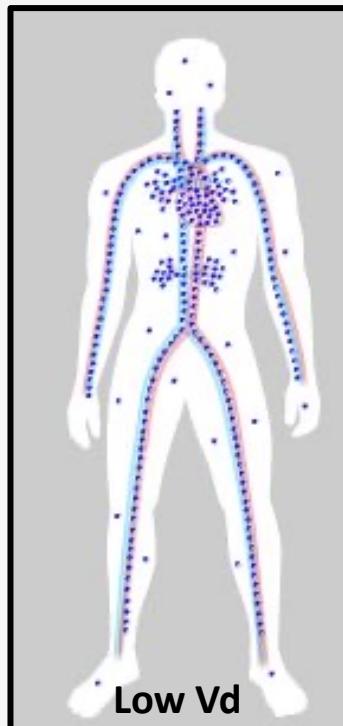


Lipophilic



Key PK variable #1 –Volume of distribution (Vd)

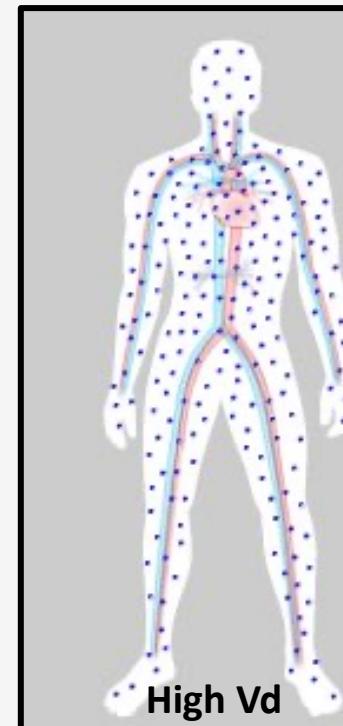
Provides information on how much antibiotic is distributed in tissues vs. plasma → some clinical relevance



Example: 12-20 L

Drug concentrated in intravascular space (bloodstream) and extracellular water
(hydrophilic drugs like beta-lactams, aminoglycosides)

Bloodstream > tissue sites

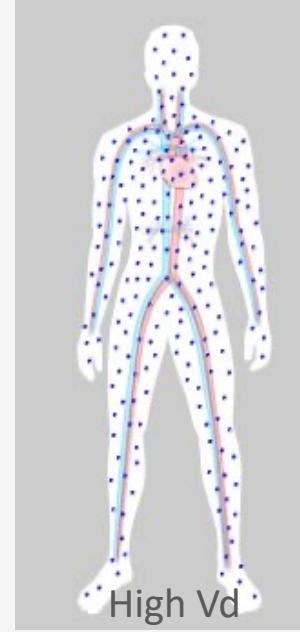
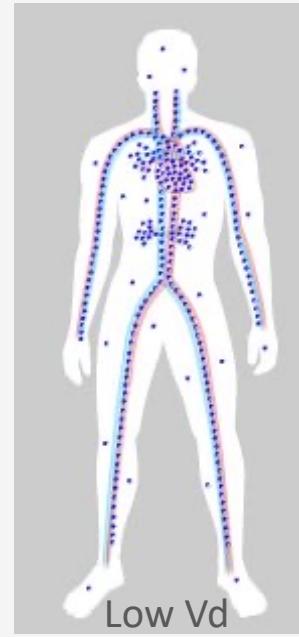


Example: >500 L

Drug concentrated in tissues, fat
(lipophilic antibiotics like rifampicin, macrolides, fluoroquinolones)

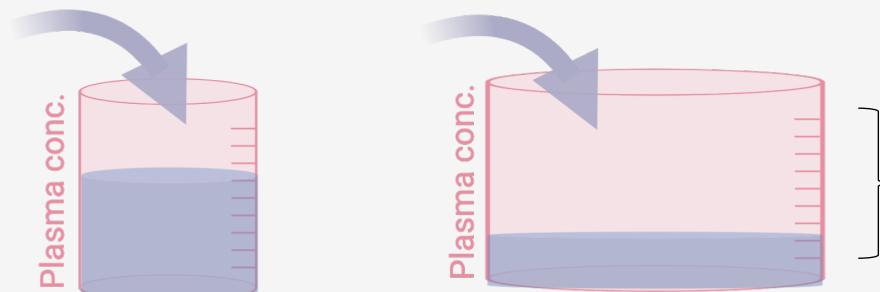
Tissue > bloodstream

Another way to think of volume of distribution



Same amount of drug “poured in” body, but **different drugs** and **different patients** have different beaker sizes

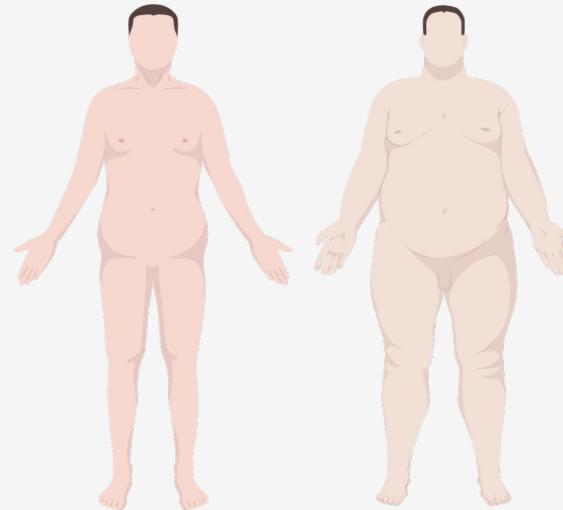
Fixed antibiotic dose
(i.e. 100 mg in 50 mL)



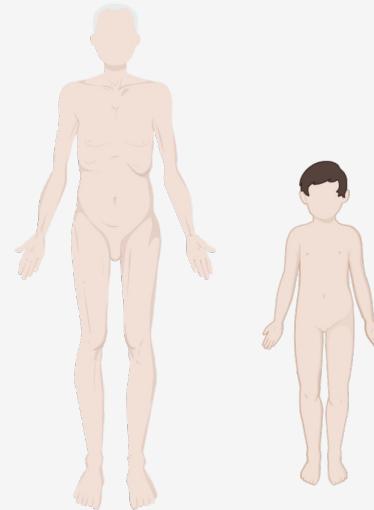
Apparent plasma concentrations

Examples of factors that affect volume of distribution (Vd)

Body mass



Age, Sex



Pregnancy

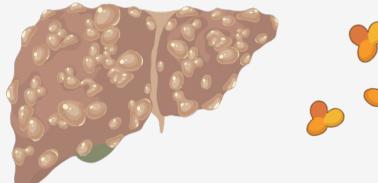


Kidney disease
(e.g., uremia)



uremia decreases drug tissue binding, ↓ Vd

Liver disease
(e.g., cirrhosis)



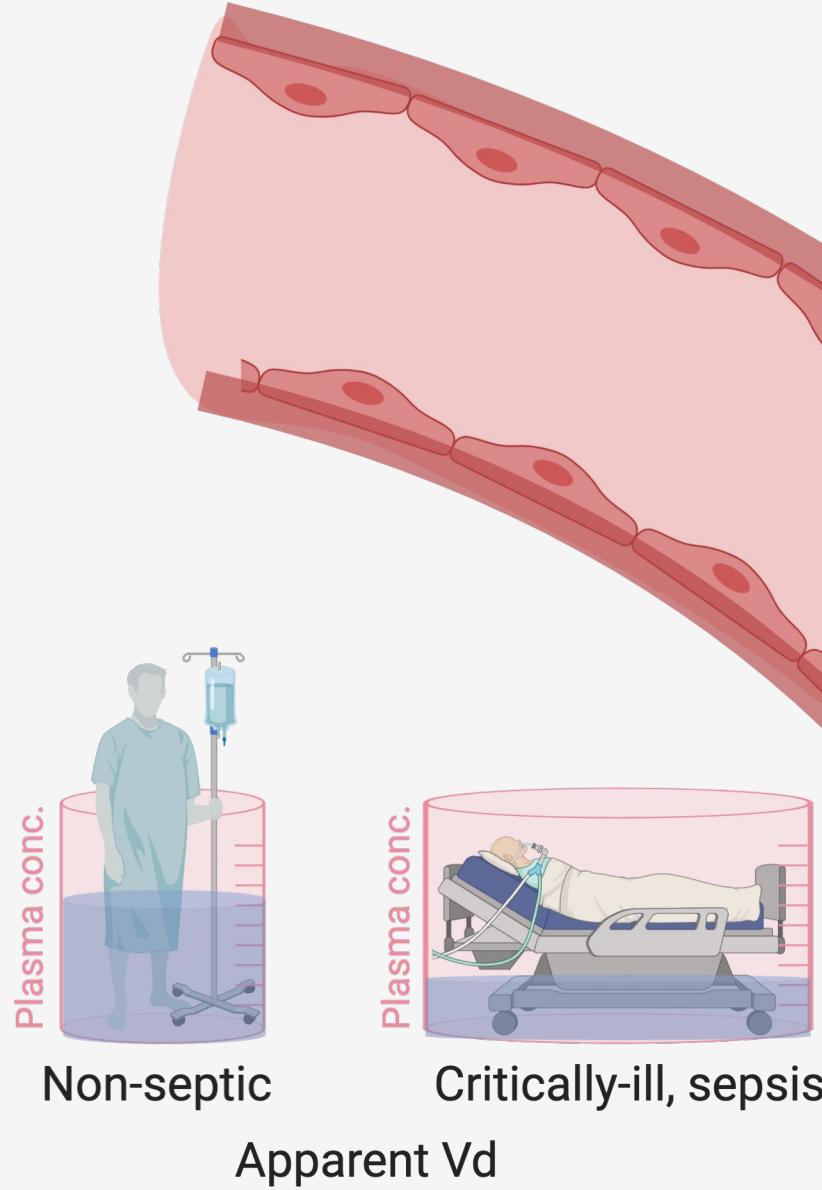
decreased protein production and binding to drugs, ↑ Vd

Drug interactions



displaced protein binding of drug, ↑ Vd

Sepsis alters the volume of distribution of antibiotics



Release of inflammatory mediators causes damage to the vascular endothelium, resulting in expansion of extravascular space (increased volume of distribution)

Key PK variable #2- Clearance

- **Drug elimination from the body**
 - Described by volume of blood removed of drug unit per time
- **Unit of measure mL/min or L/hr**
- **Clearance is affected by**
 - Patient's disease, organ function genetics, interactions with other drugs...etc.

Changes in clearance between different patients: (*inter-individual variability, IIV*)

Changes in clearance over time in the same patient: (*intra-individual variability*)

Key PK variable #2- Clearance

- **Total body clearance:**
– $CL_{renal} + CL_{hepatic} + CL_{other}$
- Formulas for calculating antibiotic clearance can be found in the medical literature or some drug references
- May be needed in patients with complex pharmacokinetics

Example: Meropenem dosing in a critically-ill patient

 National Library of Medicine
National Center for Biotechnology Information

Clinical pharmacokinetics of 3-h extended infusion of **meropenem** in adult patients with severe **sepsis** and septic shock: implications for empirical therapy against Gram-negative bacteria.

Kothekar AT, Divatia JV, Myatra SN, Patil A, Nookala Krishnamurthy M, Maheshwarappa HM, Siddiqui SS, Gurjar M, Biswas S, Gota V.

Ann Intensive Care. 2020 Jan 10;10(1):4. doi: 10.1186/s13613-019-0622-8.

PMID: 31925610 [Free PMC article.](#)

We aimed to determine whether a 3-h extended infusion (EI) of **meropenem** achieves fT > MIC > 40 on the first and third days of therapy in patients with severe **sepsis** or septic shock. ...METHODS: Arterial blood samples of 25 adults with severe **sepsis** or s ...

[Cite](#) [Share](#) [Paperpile](#)

Table 3 Pharmacokinetic parameters after 3-h extended infusion (EI) of 1000 mg meropenem 8 h for first and third days

| Pharmacokinetic parameters | Day 1 (first dose) (n=24 ^a) | Day 3 (seventh dose) (n=23 ^b) | Change ^c from day 1 to day 3 (%) | P ^d |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------|----------------|
| C _{max} (μg/mL) | 15.36±1.11 | 14.14±2.02 | -7.1 | NS |
| AUC (μg·h/mL) | 57.92±5.98 | 43.82±7.33 | -24.3 | NS |
| T _{1/2} (h) | 1.31±0.24 | 0.6±0.23 | -54.2 | 0.04 |
| Ke (1/h) | 0.53±0.10 | 1.15±0.44 | +116.1 | NS |
| Vd (L) | 32.61±4.3 | 19.83±6.13 | -39.2 | NS |
| Cl (L/h) | 17.26±1.78 | 22.86±3.82 | +32.4 | NS |

All values shown as mean±SE

C_{max} maximum plasma concentration, NS not significant, AUC area under concentration-time curve, T_{1/2} half-life, Ke elimination rate constant, Vd apparent volume of distribution, Cl total body clearance

P<0.05 statistically significant

^a One patient was withdrawn from the analysis as the blood samples were hemolyzed

^b One patient expired before collection of day three samples

^c (+) indicates increase and (-) indicates decrease from day 1 to day 3

^d Paired data of 23 patients between day 1 and day 3 compared using paired t-test

Meropenem pharmacokinetics
(Lexi-COMP database drug reference)

Volume of distribution= 15-20 liters
Clearance= 10-13 L/h

40% ↓ change in Vd in first 3 days
32% ↑ change in Cl in first 3 days

*note: sometimes clearance may be presented as a formula when closely related to renal function or parameters:

e.g., Clearance=0.078 x Creatinine clearance + 2.85

Integrating volume of distribution (Vd) and clearance (CL)

- **V_d and CL are both physiologically-based**
 - A change in patient fluid status or distribution can affect volume of distribution (Vd)
 - A change in patient kidney or liver function affects drug clearance (CL)
- ***However, these parameters do not directly interact with each other***
 - A change in volume of distribution does not change clearance and vice versa

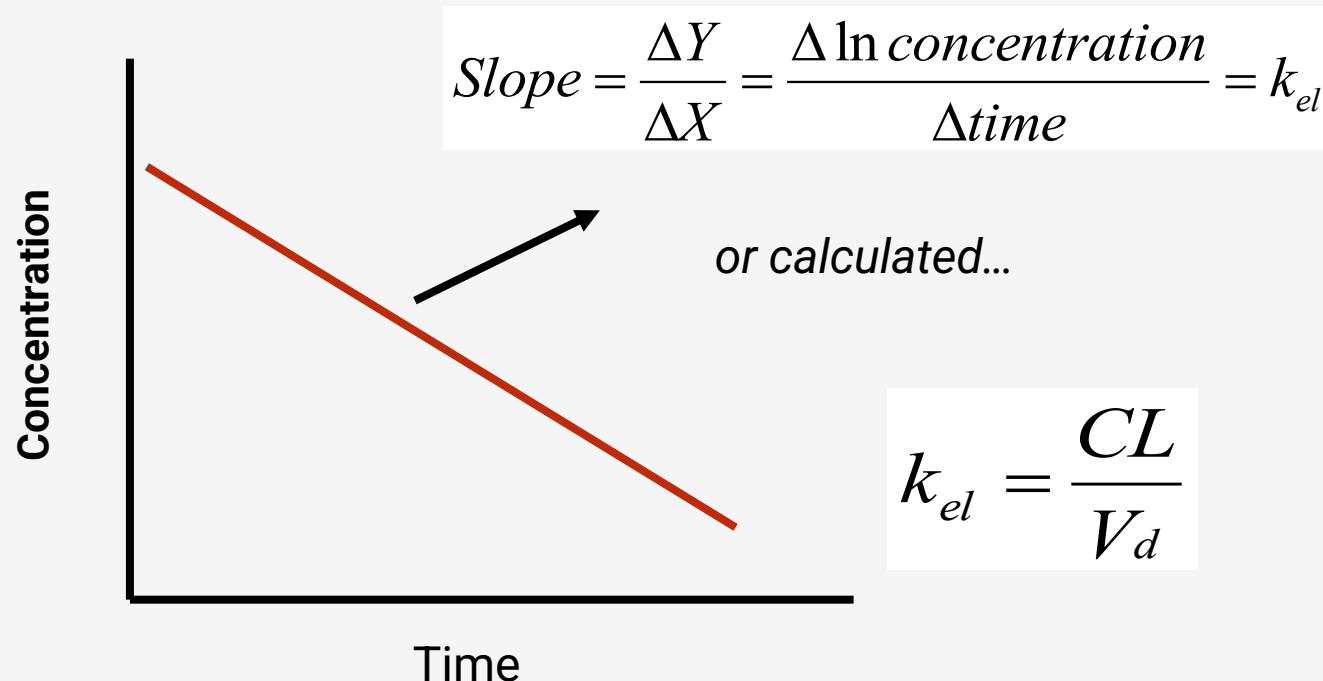
Why is this distinction clinically important?

- **Volume of distribution**
 - Useful for calculating in *initial doses* of antibiotic regimens (loading dose)
- **Clearance**
 - Useful for calculating *maintenance doses* of antibiotic regimens
 - CL is **NOT USED** to determine how much of an initial dose (or loading dose) of an antibiotic to give to a patient

Key PK parameter #3- Elimination rate constant (k_{el})

What is k_{el} ?

- Rate drug is removed per unit of time
- Calculated parameter: Unit of measure = reciprocal time (hr⁻¹)



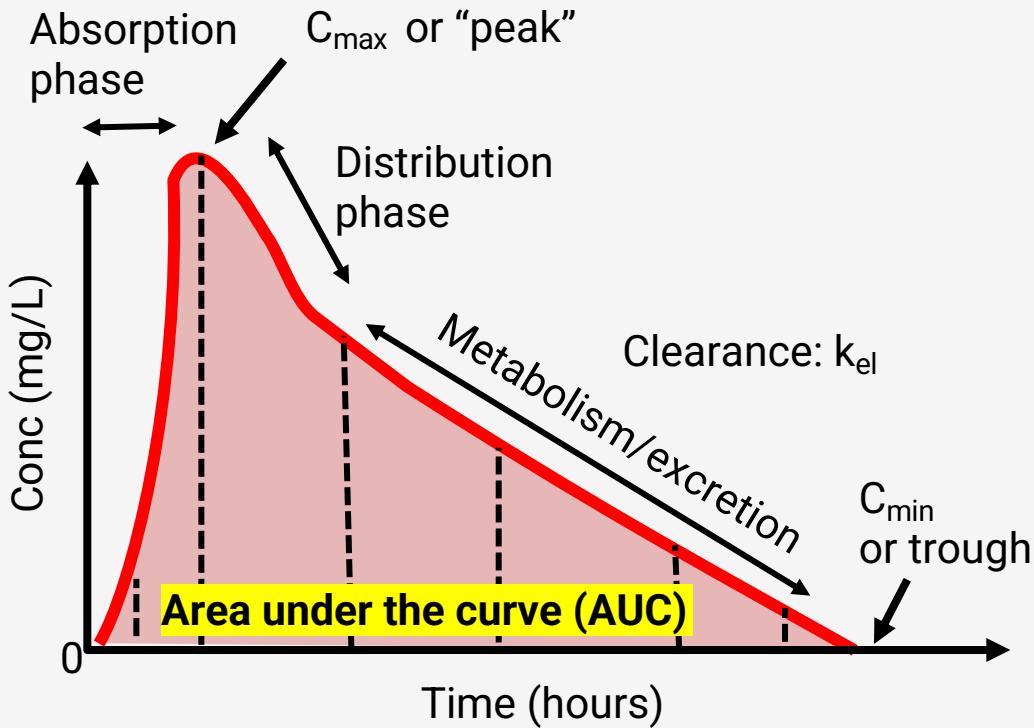
Key PK parameter #4- Half-life

- Time it takes for the plasma concentration or amount in the body to be reduced by 50%
- Calculated parameter
 - Function of clearance and volume of distribution
 - Unit of measure = time (hours, minutes, days)

$$t_{1/2} = \frac{0.693 \times V_d}{CL}$$

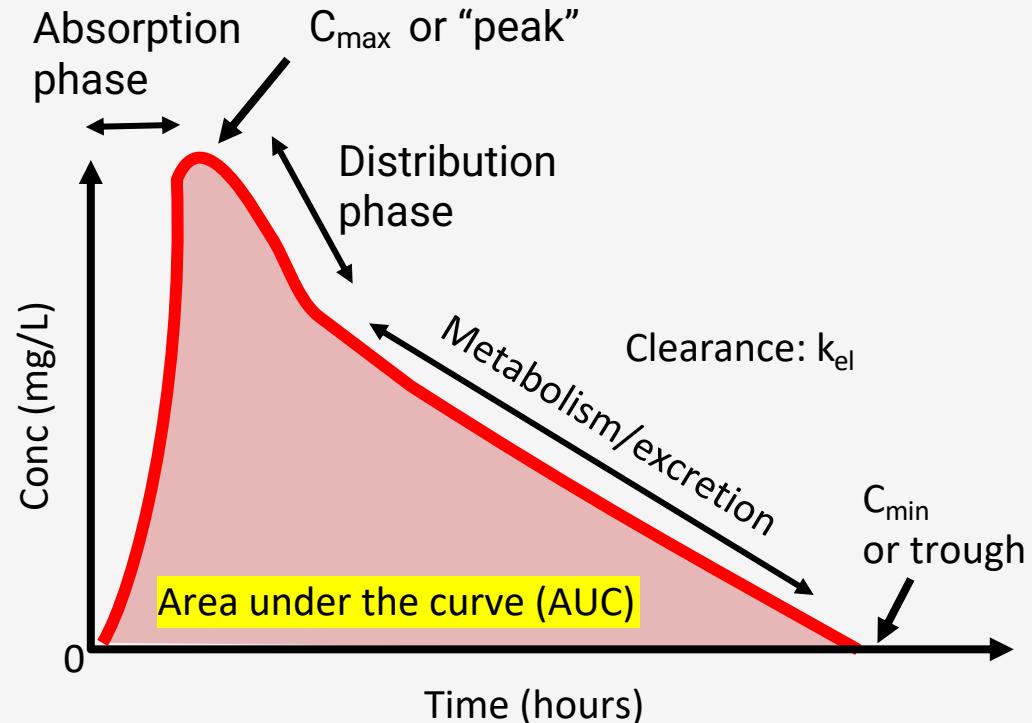
$$t_{1/2} = \frac{0.693}{k_{el}}$$

Key PK parameter #5- Area under the curve



- Total drug exposure over time, expressed as $\text{mg}\cdot\text{h/L}$
- Dependent on the **dose administered** and **rate of elimination**
- Calculated by adding up or integrating the amounts of drug eliminated in discreet time intervals, from zero (time of the administration of the drug) to a defined time-e.g., 24 hours

Simplification of the AUC

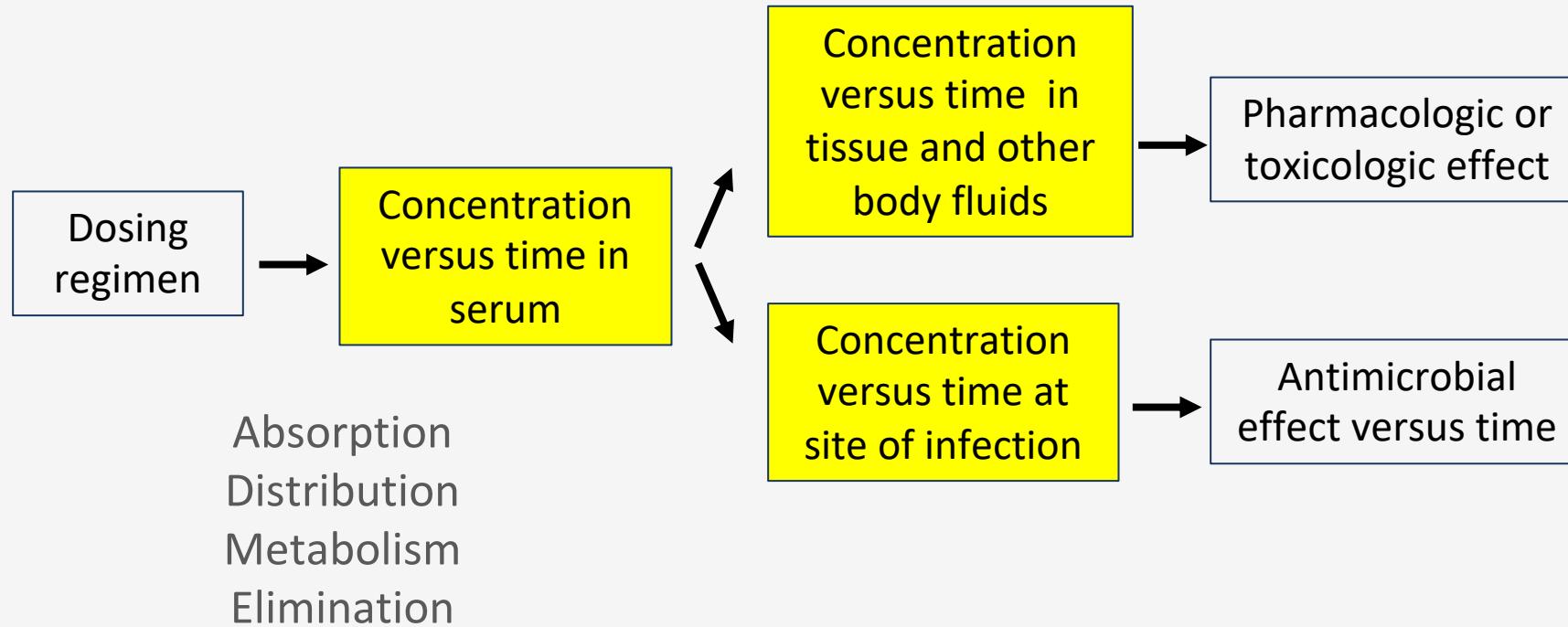


When expressed as for a given dosing interval (i.e. every 24 hours), we can simplistically consider it to represent average concentration

e.g., an antibiotic has an AUC_{0-24h} 48 mg*h/L

$$\frac{48 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{hours/liter}}{24 \text{ hours}} = 2 \text{ mg/L average of 24 hours}$$

Pharmacology of antimicrobials



Pharmacokinetics “PK”

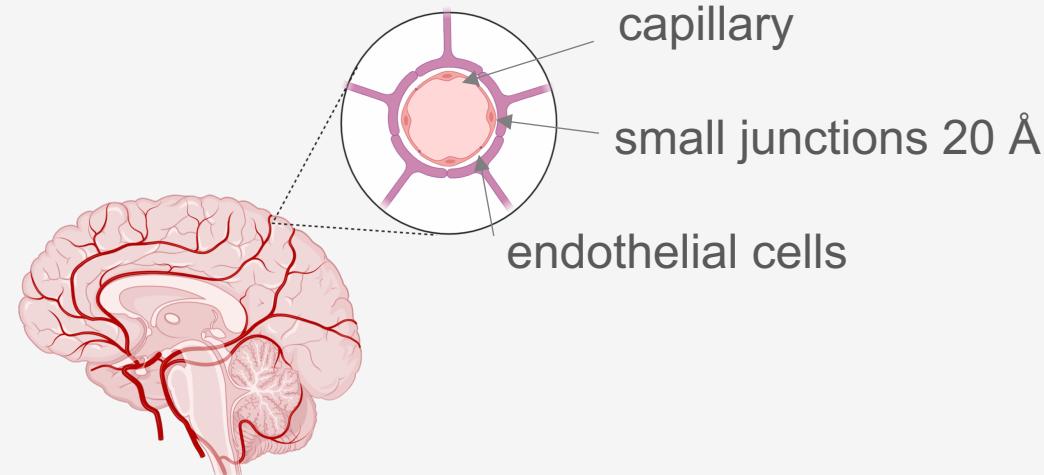
What the body does to drug

Pharmacodynamics “PD”

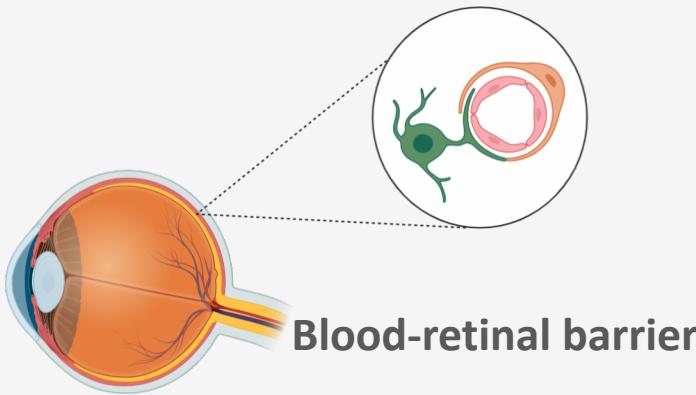
*What the drug does to the body
(and bacteria)*

Antibiotic penetration at the site of infection

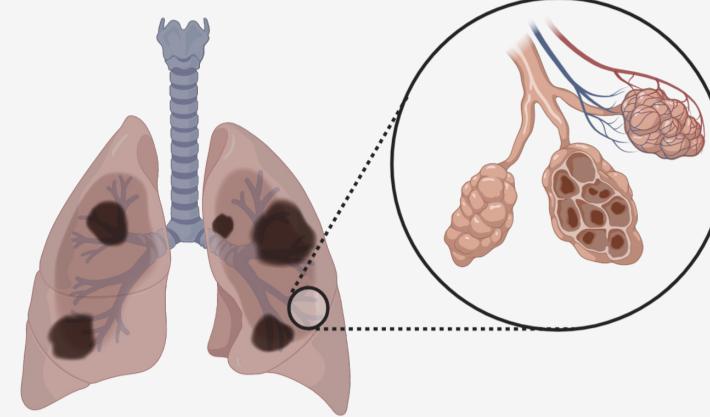
Anatomically-privileged sites



Blood-brain barrier



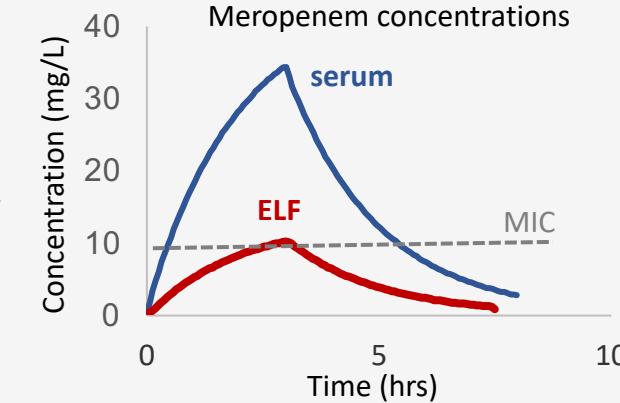
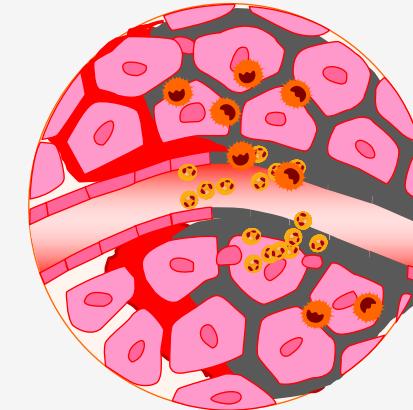
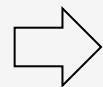
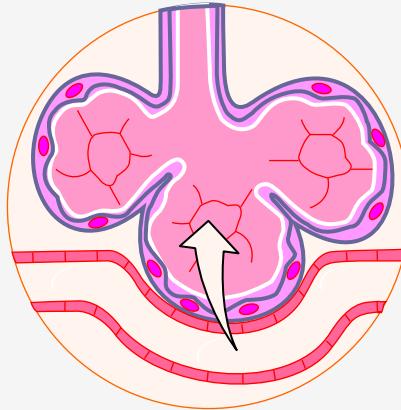
Inflammation, abscess, necrosis



Antibiotic penetration influenced by:

- Serum drug concentrations
- Physiochemical properties of drugs
- Alterations in anatomic permeability (e.g., inflammation)
- Physiological barriers (e.g., blood-eye, blood brain barrier)
- Drug inactivation due to local pH, anaerobic conditions or enzyme activity

Antibiotic penetration-ventilator associated pneumonia

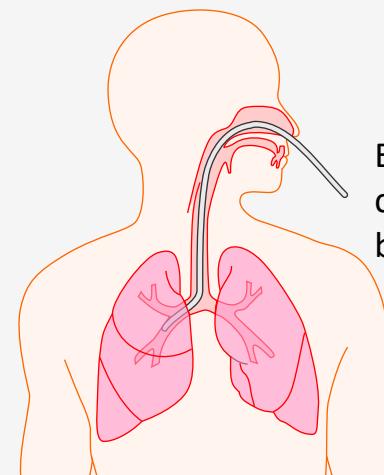


Antibiotic penetration through
alveolar capillary barrier
(*zona occludens*) by free,
non-protein bound drug.

Must cross a transit area cleared
by lymphatics

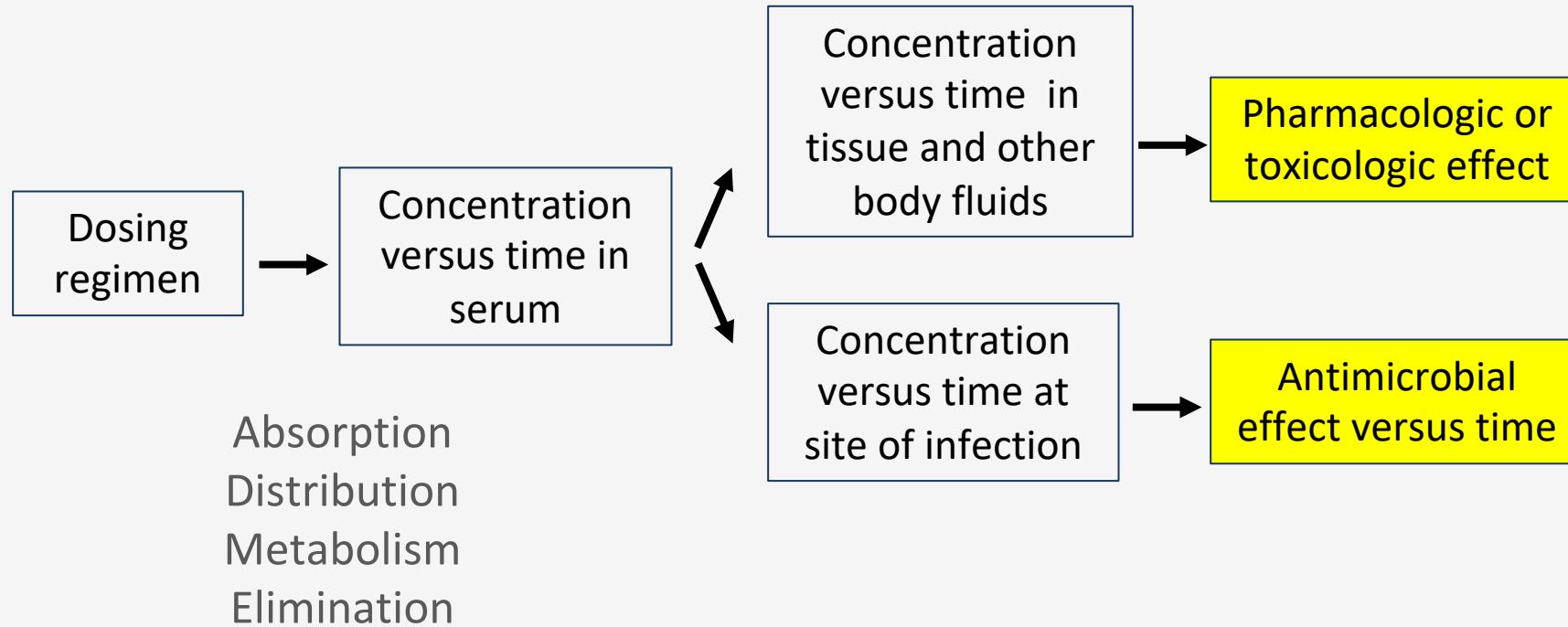
Enhanced by drug lipophilicity;

Penetration is reduced
in infection,
inflammation, necrosis,
underlying lung
disease,
increased lymphatic
clearance



Epithelial lining fluid (ELF)
concentrations sampled by
bronchoscopy

Pharmacology of antimicrobials



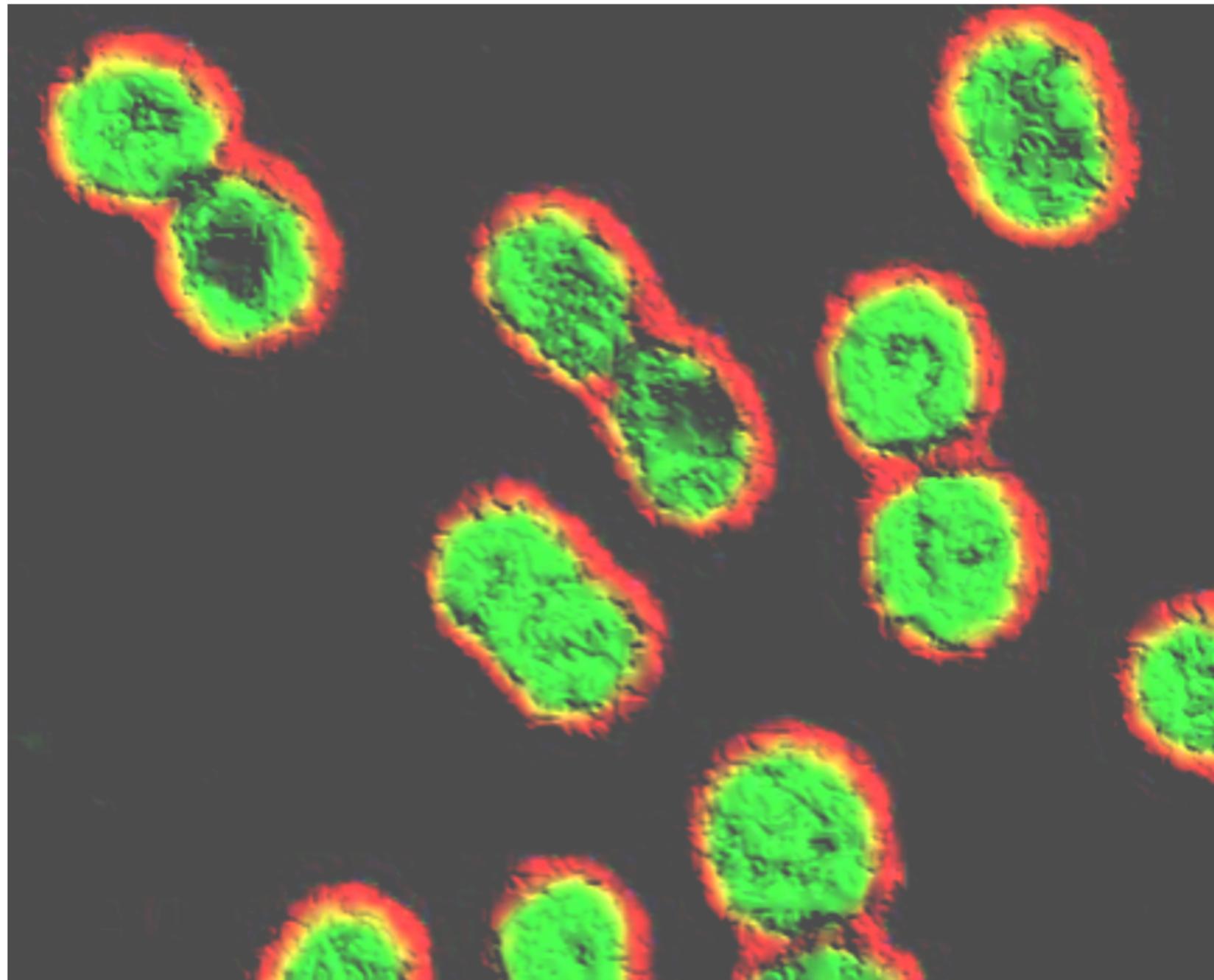
Pharmacokinetics
“PK”

What the body does to drug

Pharmacodynamics
“PD”

*What the drug does to the body
(and bacteria)*

Laws of antimicrobial pharmacodynamics

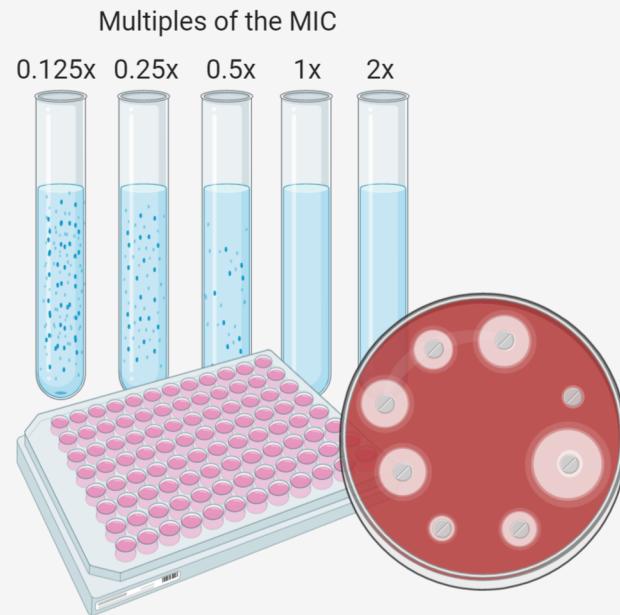


Laws of antimicrobial pharmacodynamics

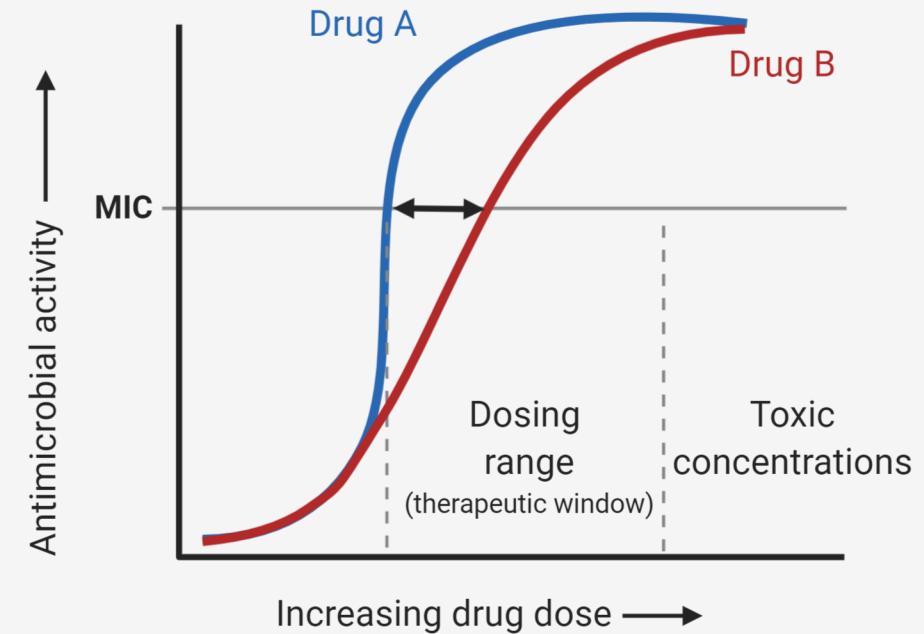
- The **shape** of the antibiotic concentration versus antimicrobial effect curve is important for dosing

How does PD analysis differ from susceptibility testing?

Mean inhibitory concentrations (MIC)



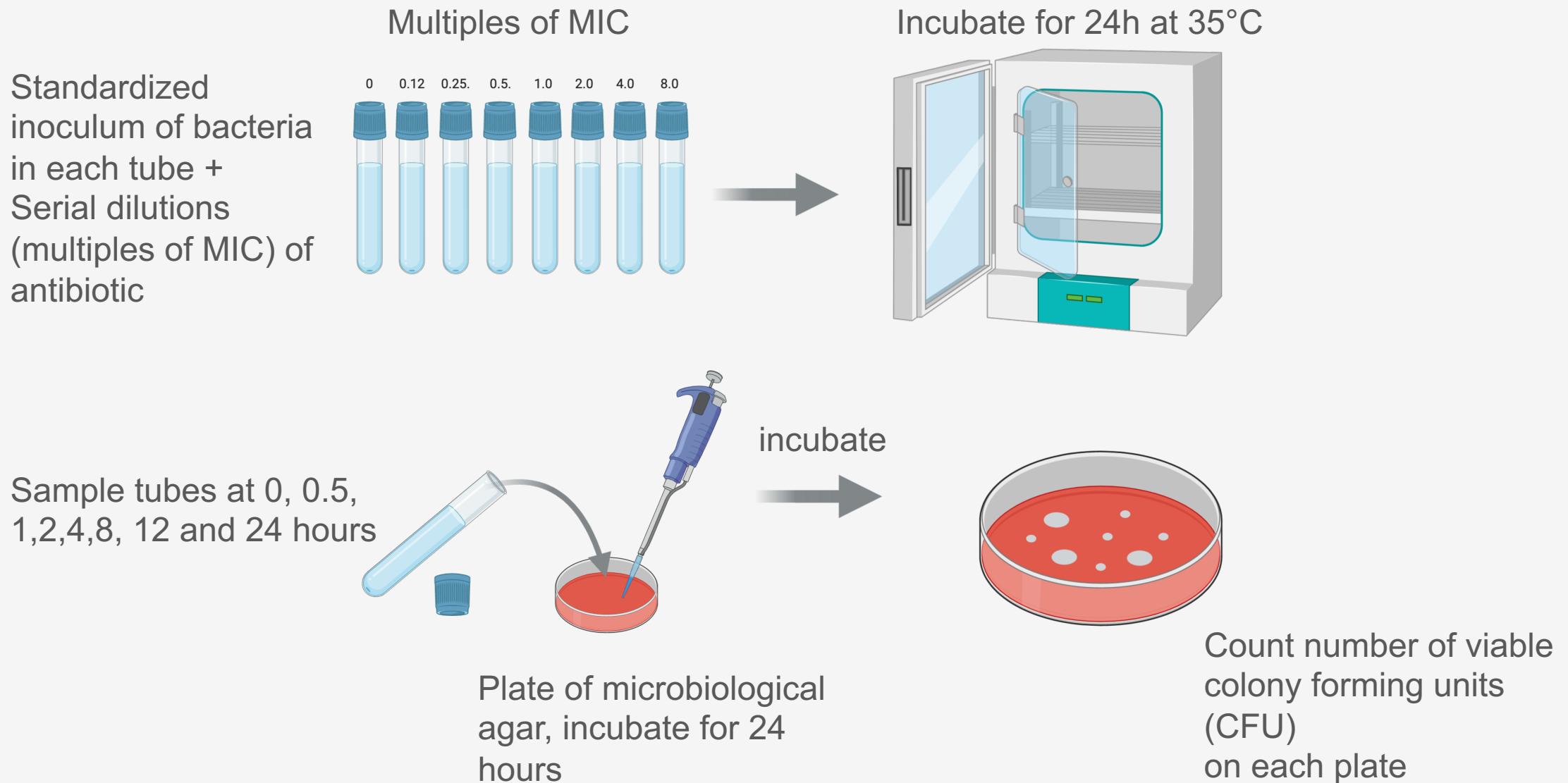
Pharmacodynamics



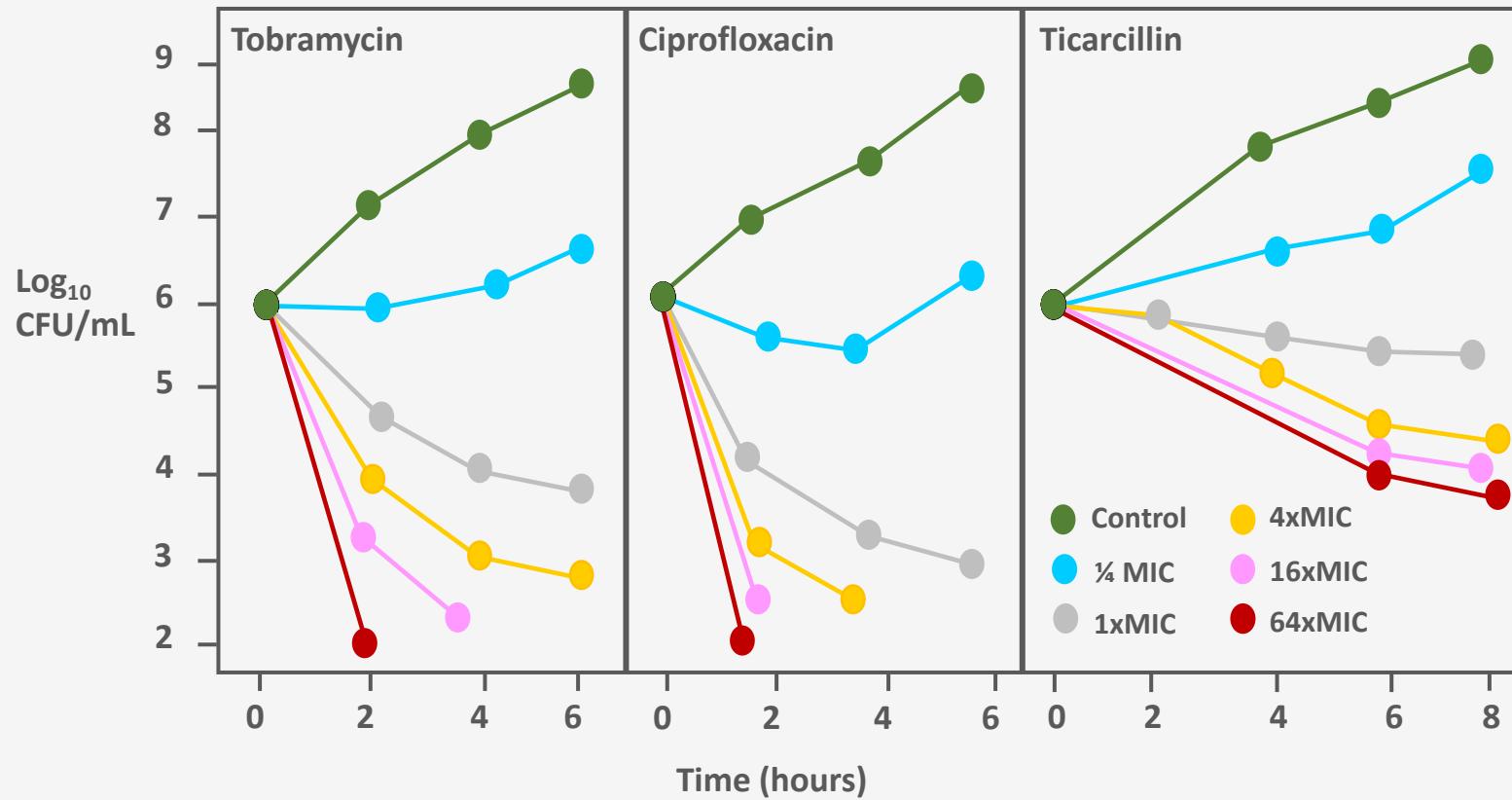
- Good indicators of potency
- Tell us nothing about time course of antibiotic activity
- Nothing about dose-response relationship

- How does the **rate and extent** of bacterial killing by an antibiotic change at concentrations near and above the MIC?
- The shape of the curve affects drug dosing strategies

How to define the shape of the concentration-effect curve

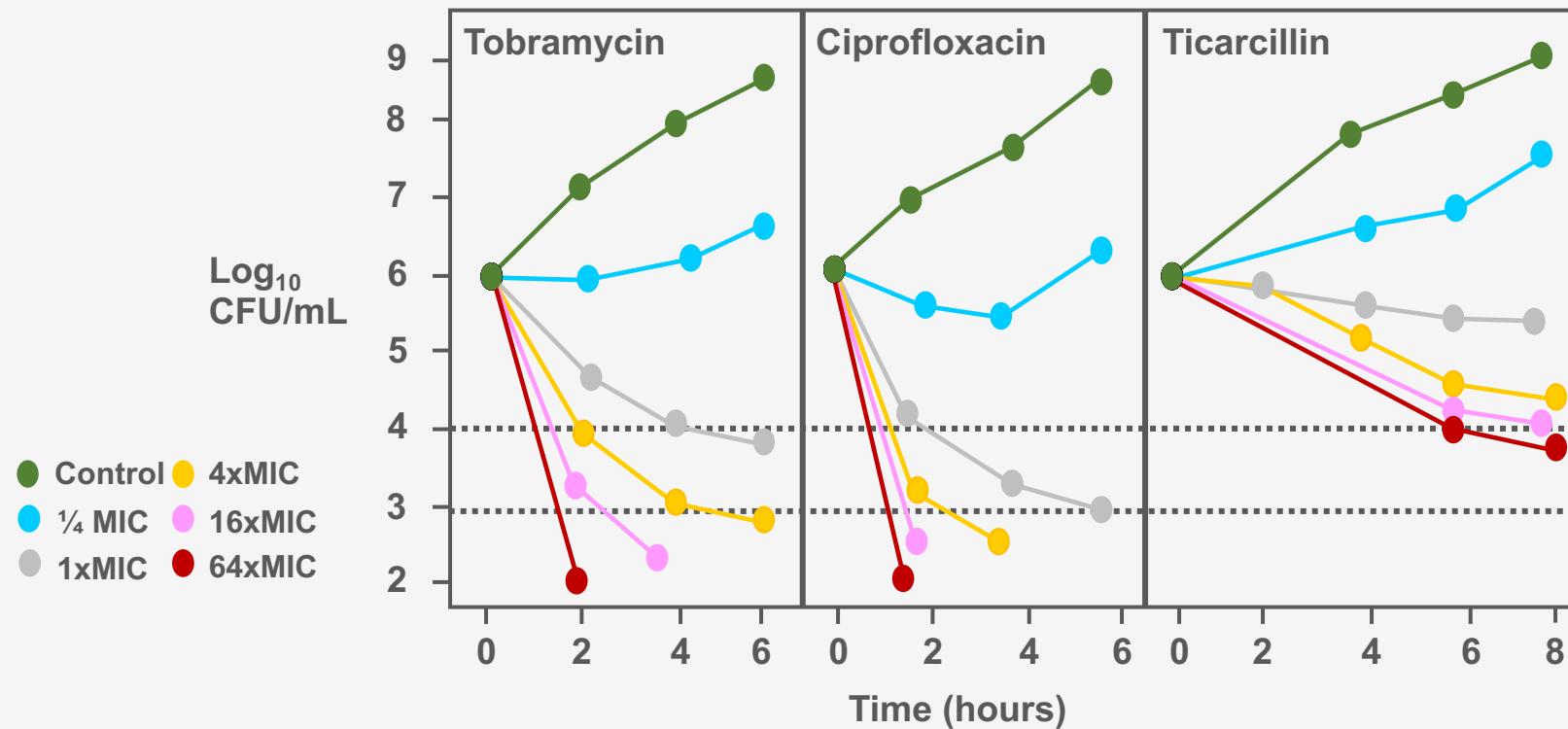


In vitro antibiotic time-kill curves

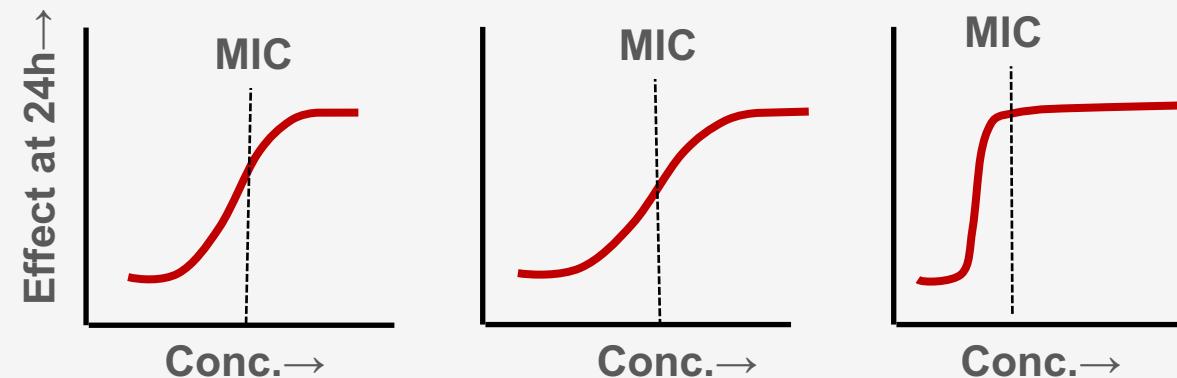


Key questions:

- Did the rate and extent of killing increase at higher MIC multiples?
- What is the multiple of MIC where killing was maximized?
- Did the antibiotic achieve bacteriostatic ($2-\log_{10}$) or bactericidal ($3-\log_{10}$) reductions in CFU?

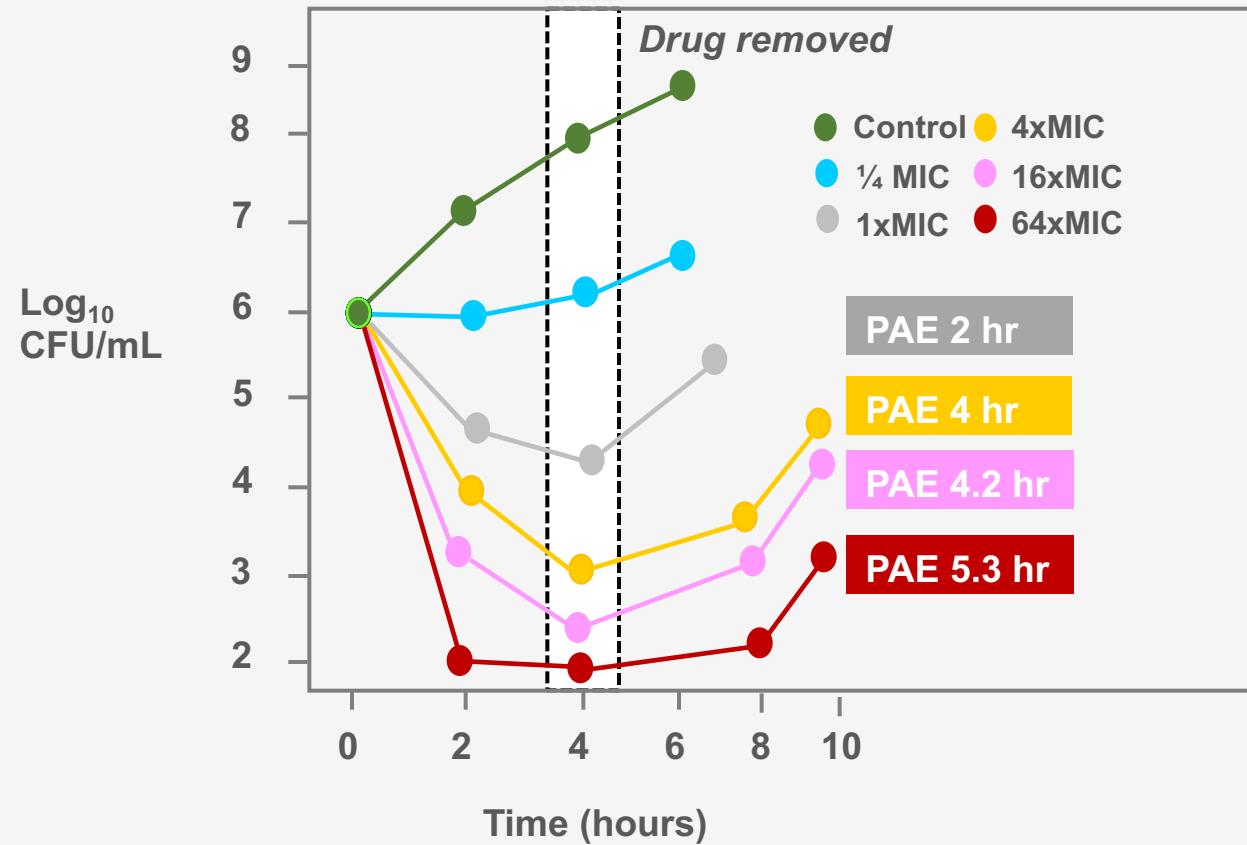


Sigmoid
dose-response
curves



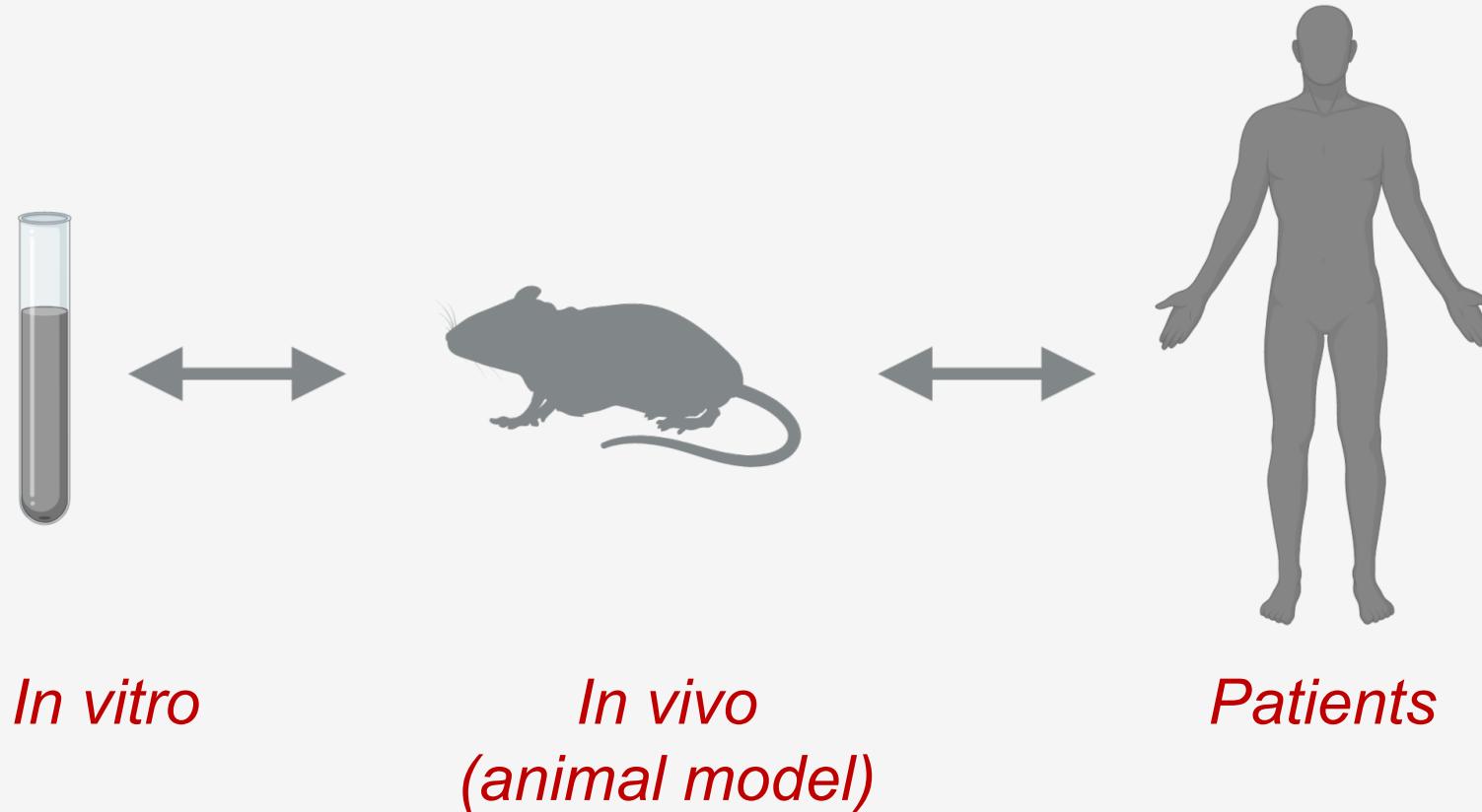
Post-antibiotic effect (PAE)

Persistent antibiotic effect after drug removal

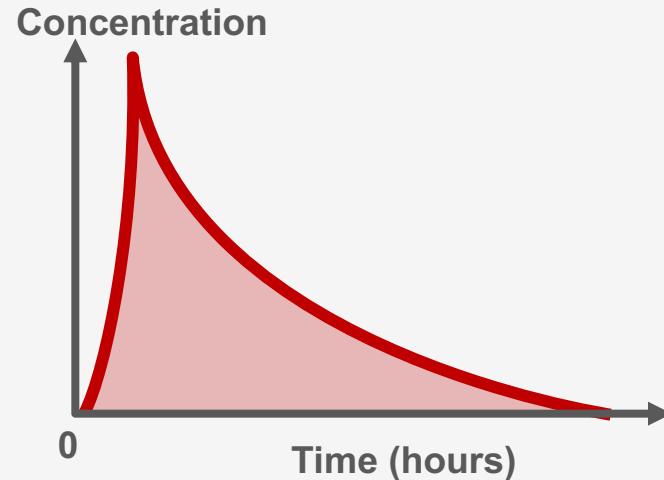


Generally reported
as time to $1-\log_{10}$
increase after drug removal

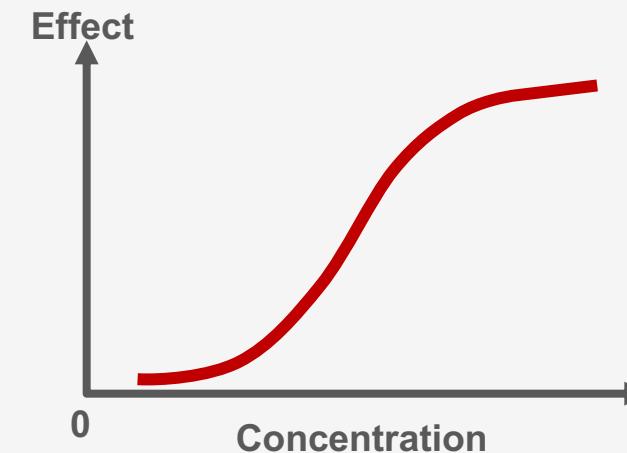
How do you translate these results to patients?



Pharmacokinetics (PK) concentration vs. time



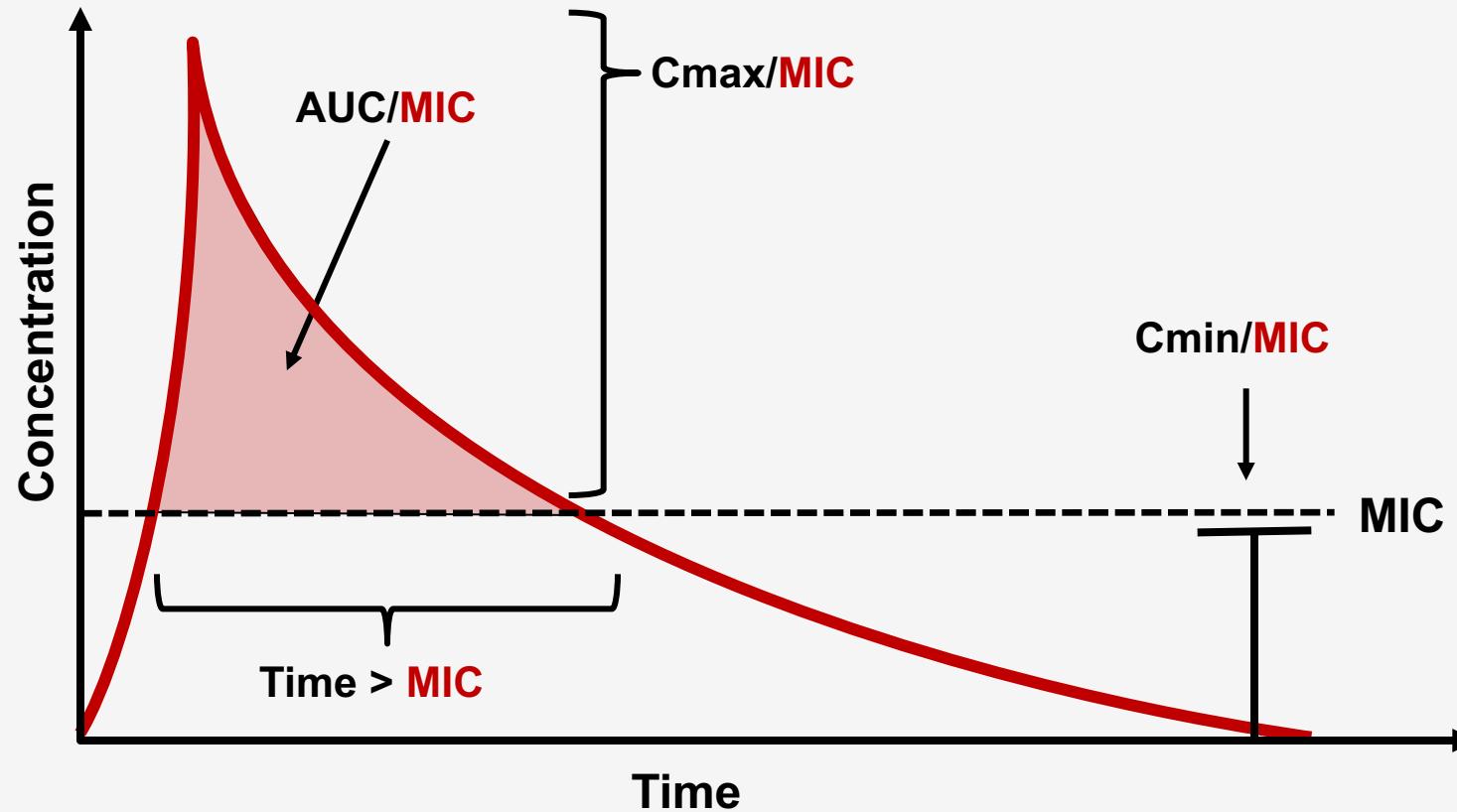
Pharmacodynamics (PD) concentration vs. effect



**PK:PD
effect vs. time**



Common PK/PD Indices

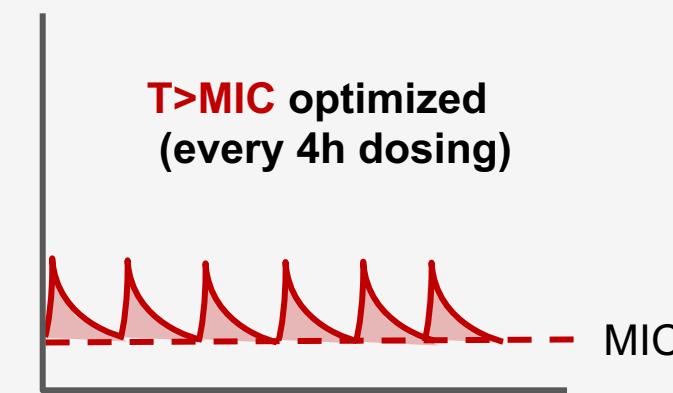
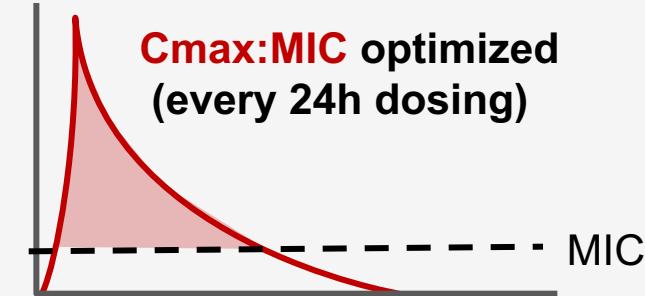
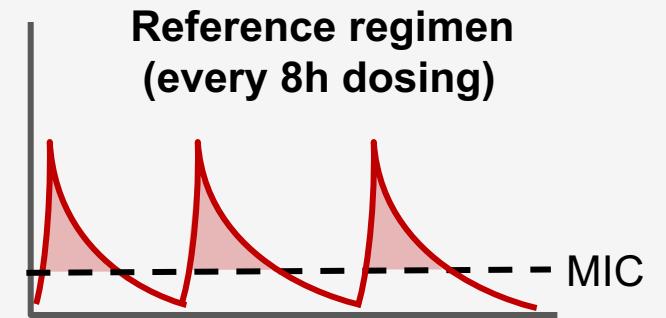
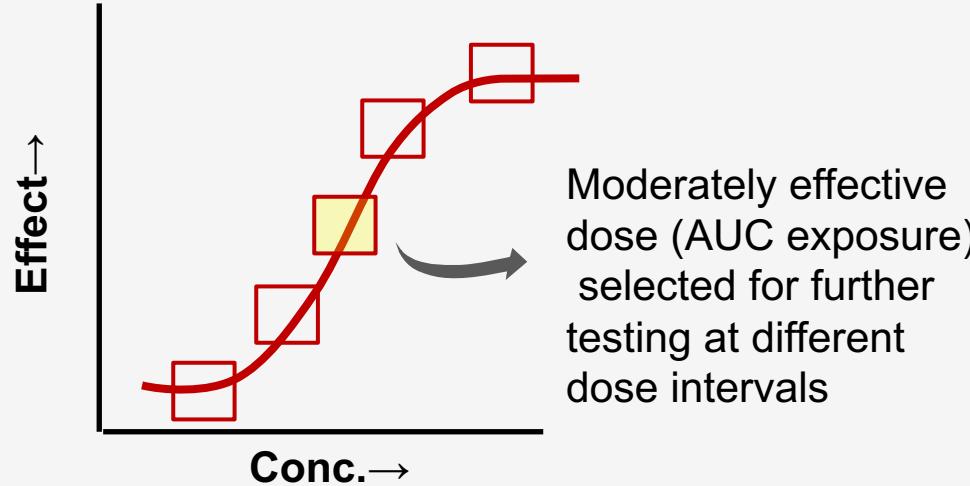


AUC = Area under the concentration–time curve; MIC = Minimum Inhibitory Concentration; C_{max} = Maximum or peak plasma concentration; C_{min} = Minimum or trough plasma concentration

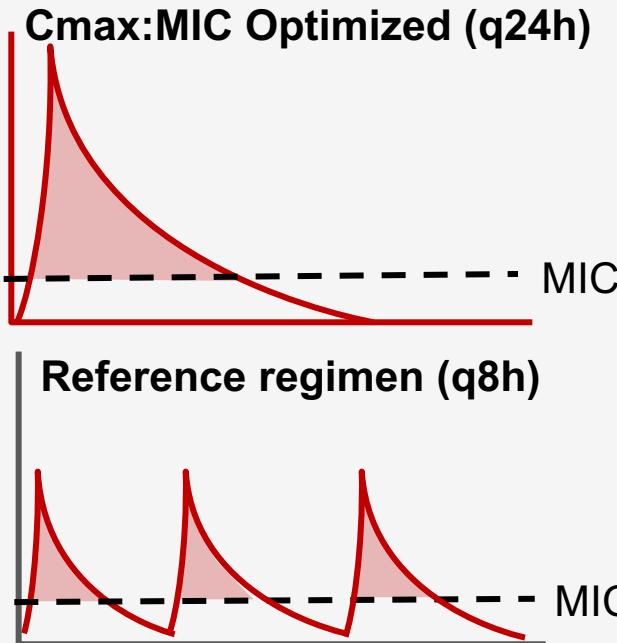
Dose fractionization study

All dosing regimens have the same AUC

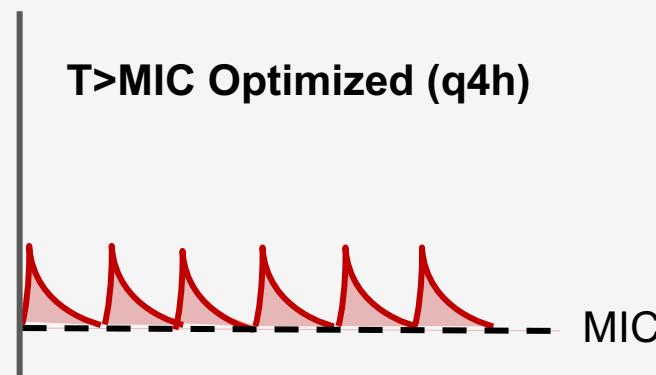
Test a range of doses
to define (or confirm)
shape of dose-response
curve



Dose fractionization study interpretation



| Efficacy Observation | Dosing parameter important to optimize |
|----------------------|----------------------------------------|
| q24h > q8h > q4h | C _{max} /MIC |
| q24h = q8h = q4h | AUC/MIC |
| q24h < q8h < q4h | %time > MIC |

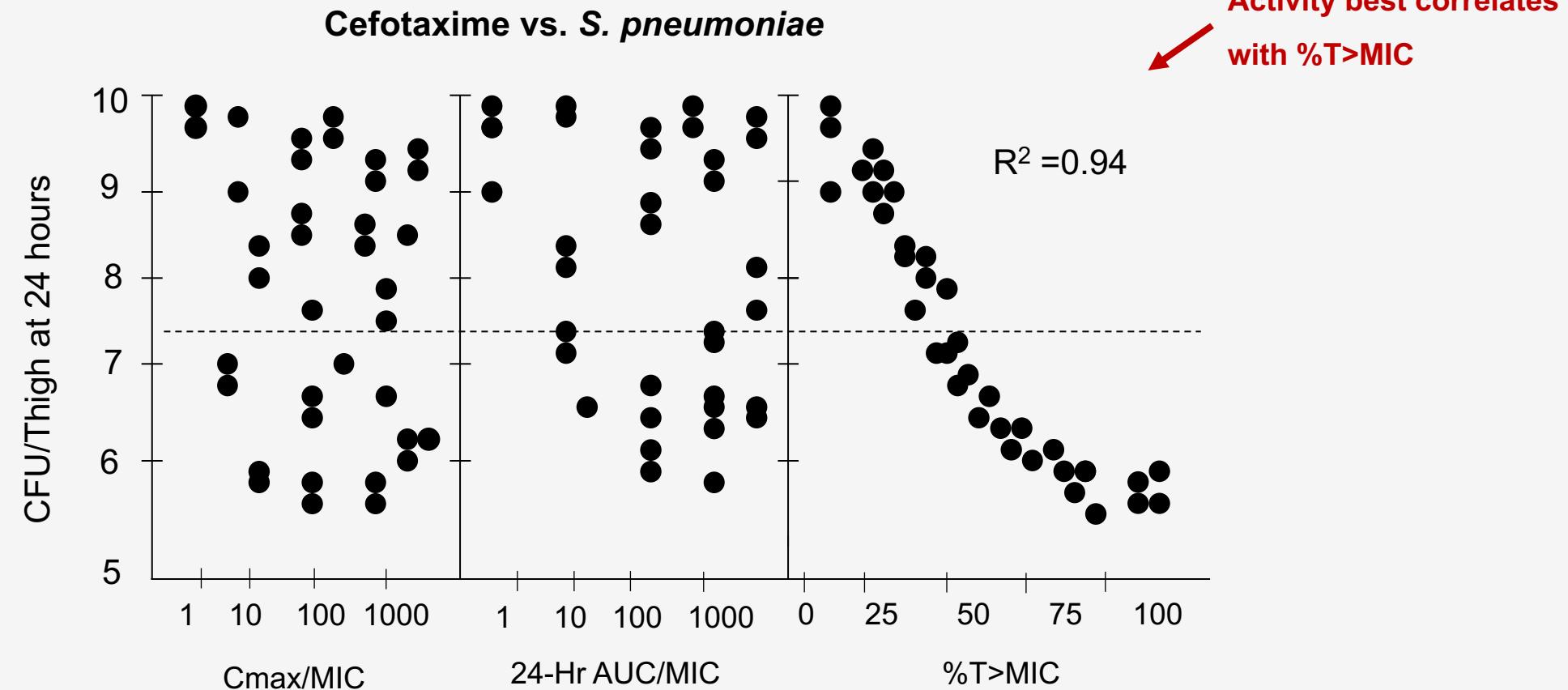


These experiments tell us what component of the dosing strategy drives antibiotic effect

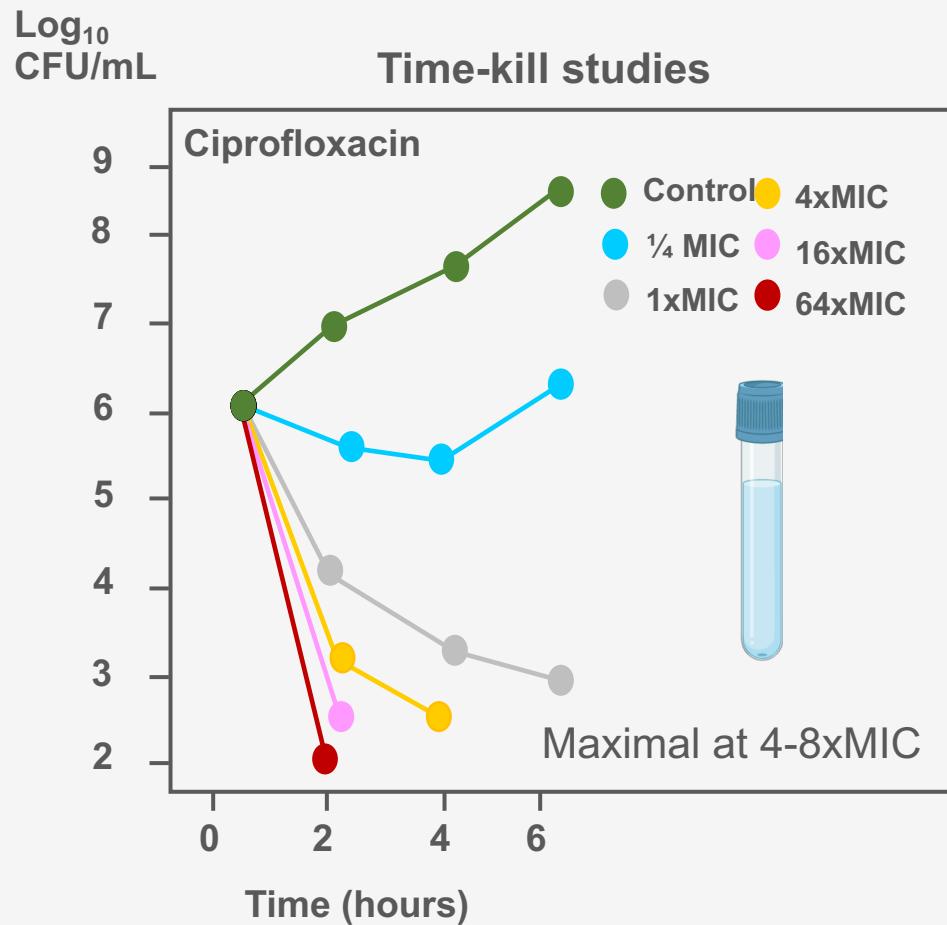
Example of dose-fractionization study results



Neutropenic murine thigh infection model;
Dose-fractionated study

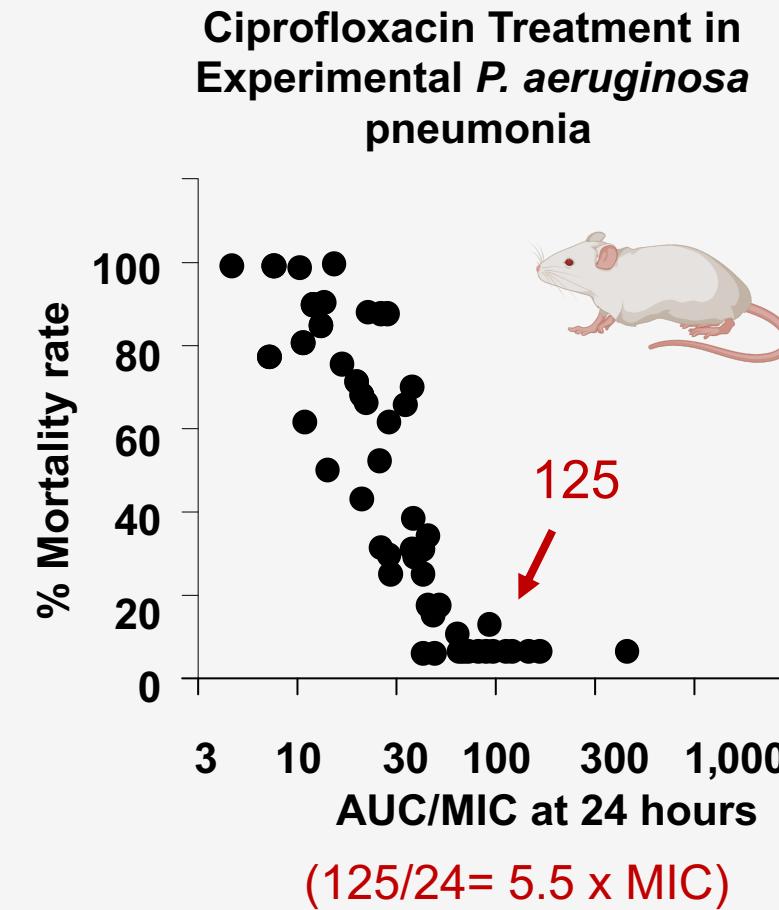
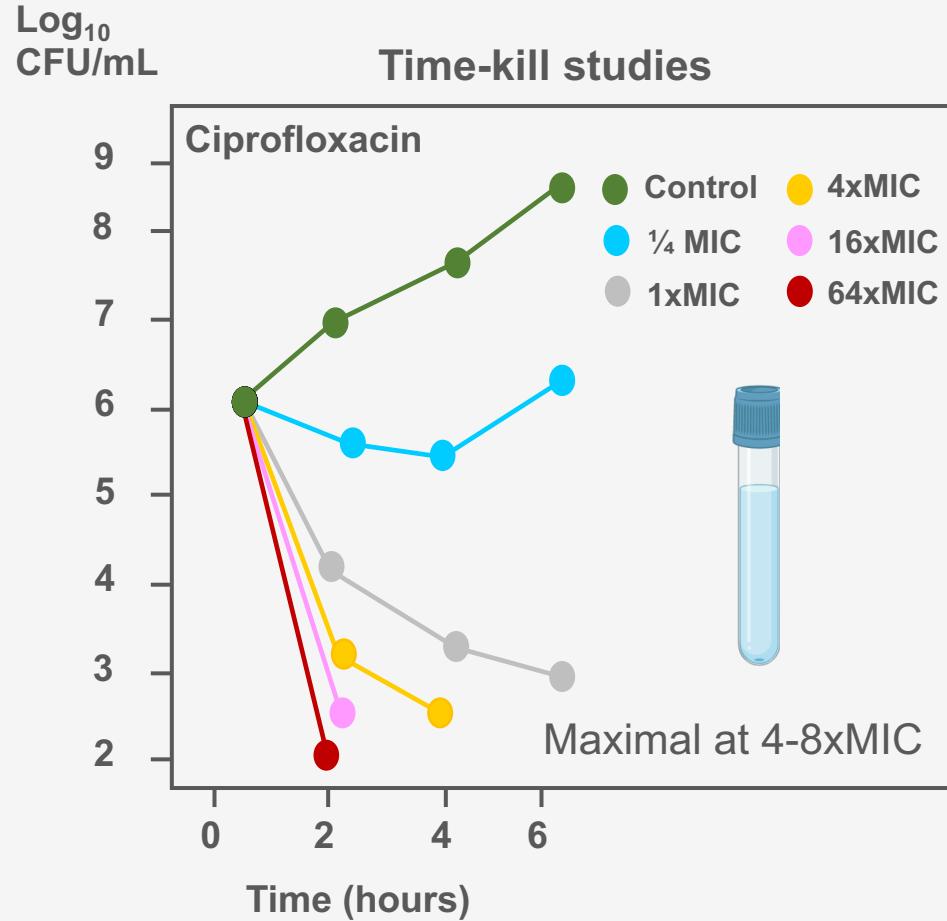


Example of in vitro/in vivo PK/PD correlation

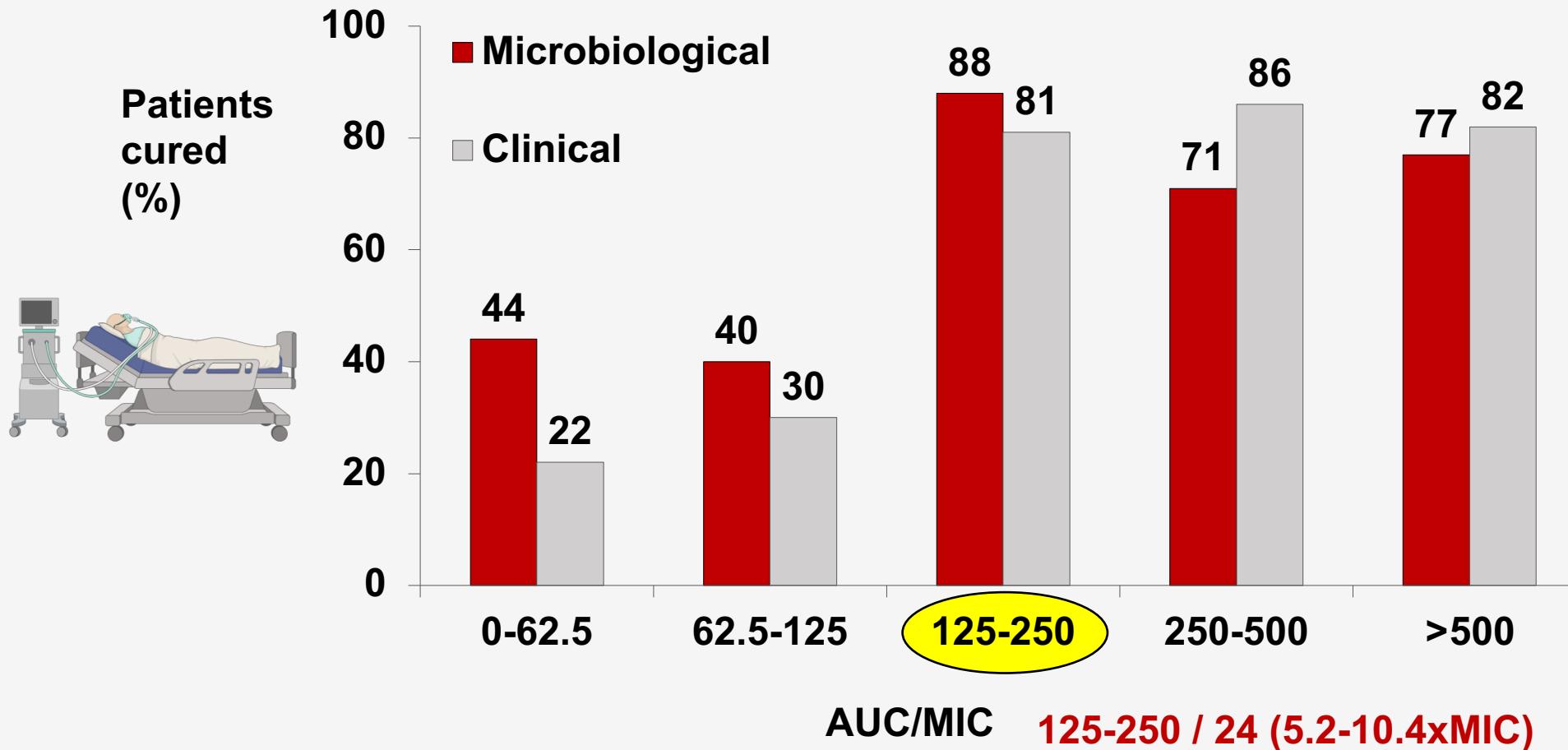


- Remember and AUC_{0-24h} is approximately equivalent to the average concentration over 24 hours
- So if we see maximal killing at 4-8xMIC in the test tube, We might predict that an **AUC/MIC of 96-196 in animals** would be associated with maximal ciprofloxacin efficacy

Example of in vitro/in vivo PK/PD correlation



Ciprofloxacin for nosocomial pneumonia: Correlation between drug exposure and clinical outcome



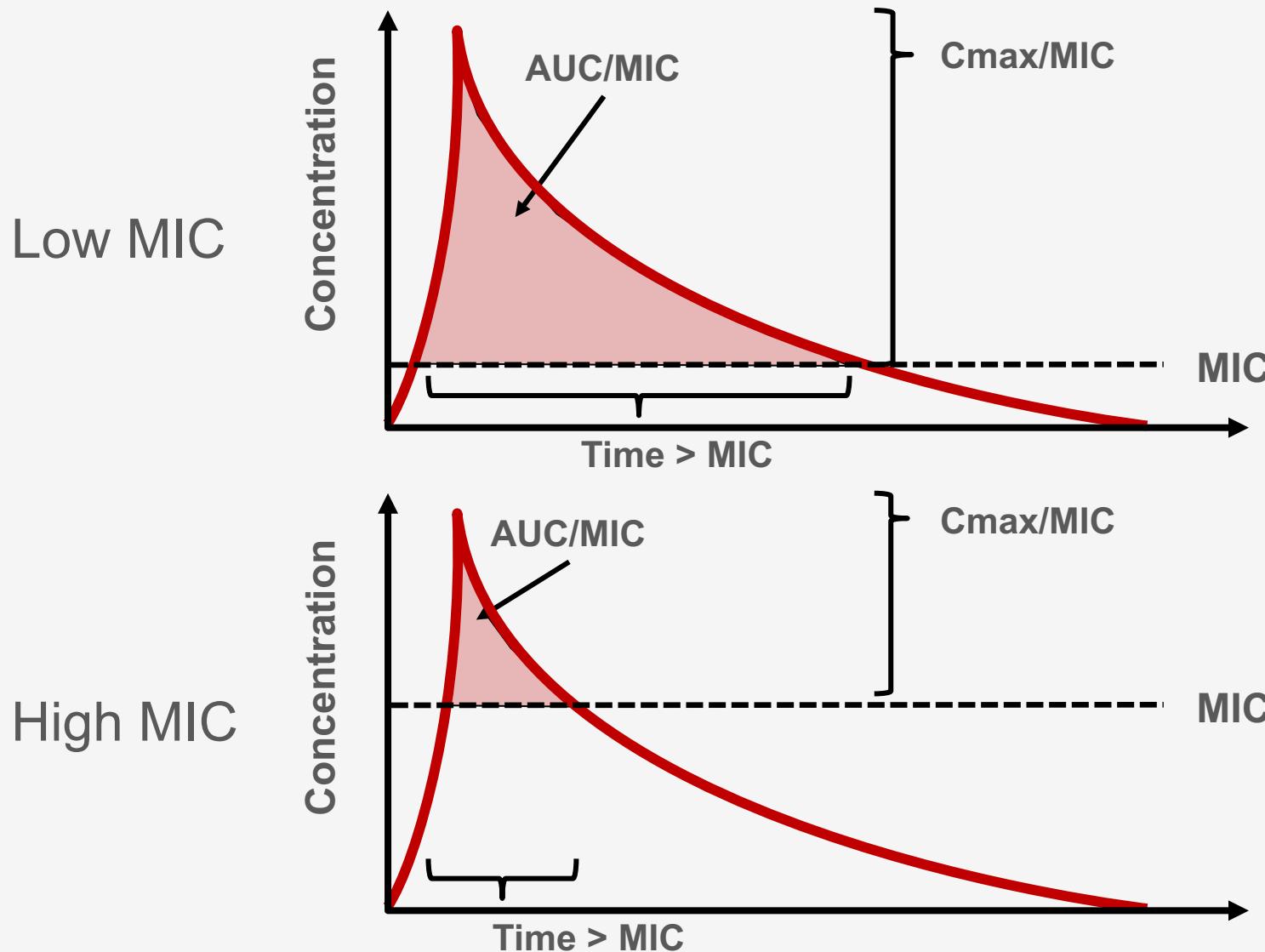
Pharmacodynamic parameters predictive of outcomes in animals and humans

| | C_{max}/MIC | AUC/MIC | T>MIC |
|----------------------|---------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Examples | Aminoglycosides Fluoroquinolones Polymyxins | Azithromycin Fluoroquinolones Ketolides Linezolid Daptomycin Vancomycin Tigecycline | Penicillins Cephalosporins Carbapenems Monobactams Macrolides |
| | Also predicted by AUC:MIC | | |
| Organism kill | Concentration-dependent | Concentration and time dependent | Time-dependent |
| Dosing goal | Maximize exposure | Maximize exposure | Optimize duration of exposure |

Laws of antimicrobial pharmacodynamics

- The shape of the antibiotic concentration versus antimicrobial effect curve is important for dosing
- Only free-drug (non-protein bound fraction) is microbiologically active
- A higher MIC will diminish the effect of a fixed dose

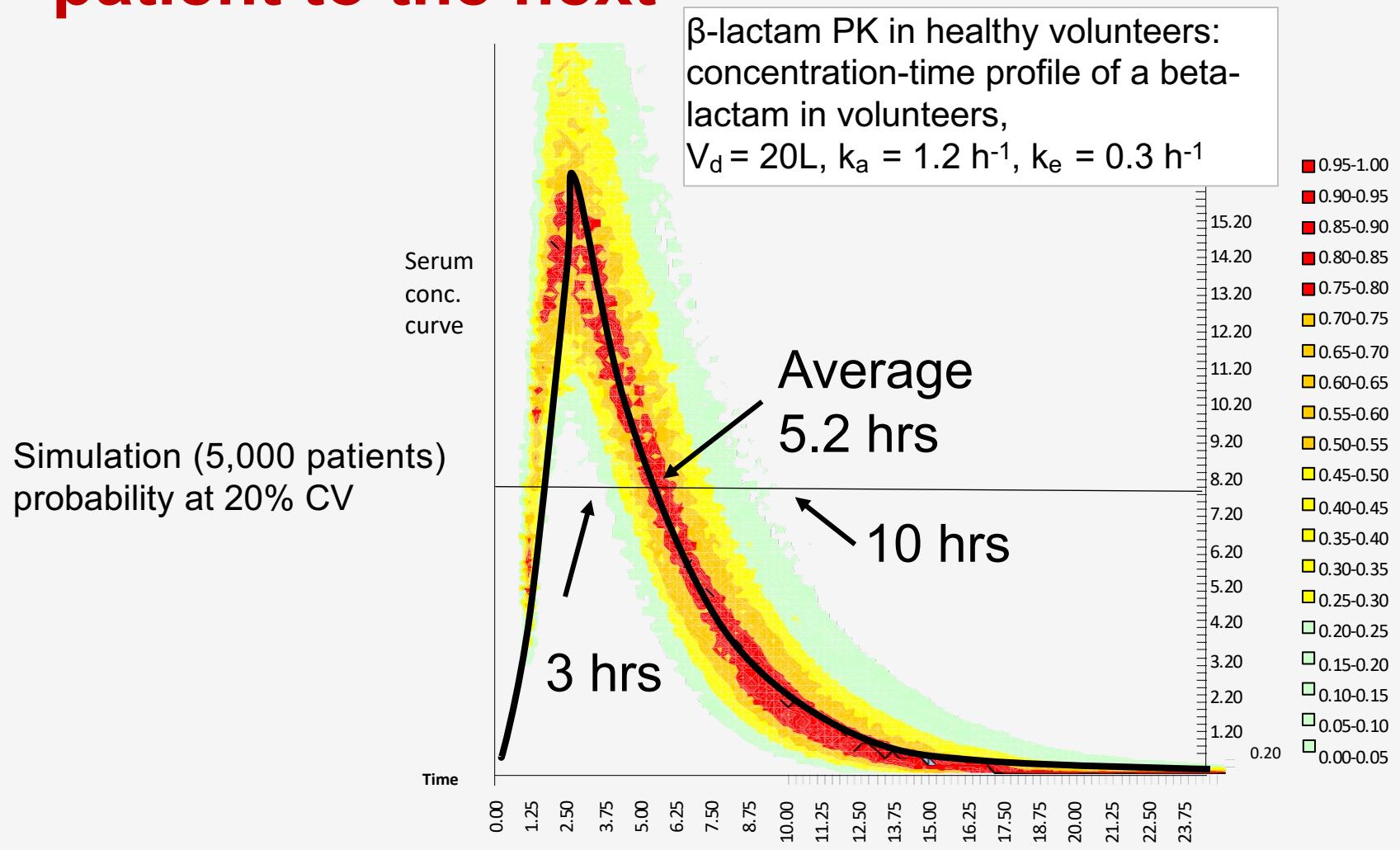
Effect of increasing MIC



Laws of antimicrobial pharmacodynamics

- The shape of the antibiotic concentration versus antimicrobial effect curve is important for dosing
- Only free-drug (non-protein bound fraction) is microbiologically active
- A higher MIC will diminish the effect of a fixed dose
- Administering a fixed dose of drug to many patients (even on a mg/kg basis) results in wide variability in exposure

Pharmacokinetics vary from one patient to the next



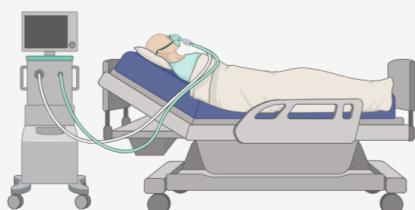
Which patients are studied in clinical trials?



Healthy volunteers (Phase I studies; 10-20% CV in PK parameters)



Patients with non-life threatening infections, e.g., skin and soft tissue infection, urinary tract infection (phase II/III studies; normally 15-30% CV in PK parameters)



Critically-ill ICU patients (phase IV; 80-200% CV in PK parameters)

CV-Coefficient of variation
(variability in relation to population mean)

Factors reducing antibiotic clearance

- Renal function impairment

- Cockcroft-Gault formula (other formulas MDRD...etc.)

$$CrCl_{estimated} = \frac{(140 - age) \times weight(kg)}{72 \times (Serum\ creatinine)} \times 0.85(\text{if female})$$

- Use ideal body weight if actual body weight > 20% higher than IBW, or if patient has severe edema/ascites
 - Overestimates renal function in patients with low body weight /muscle mass
 - Less accurate in patients with fluctuating renal function
 - Dialysis (drug-specific dosing guidance)

- Liver dysfunction

- Only very general dosing recommendations (i.e. based on Child-Pugh scores)

Be careful about prematurely reducing antibiotic doses in patients with acute renal impairment!

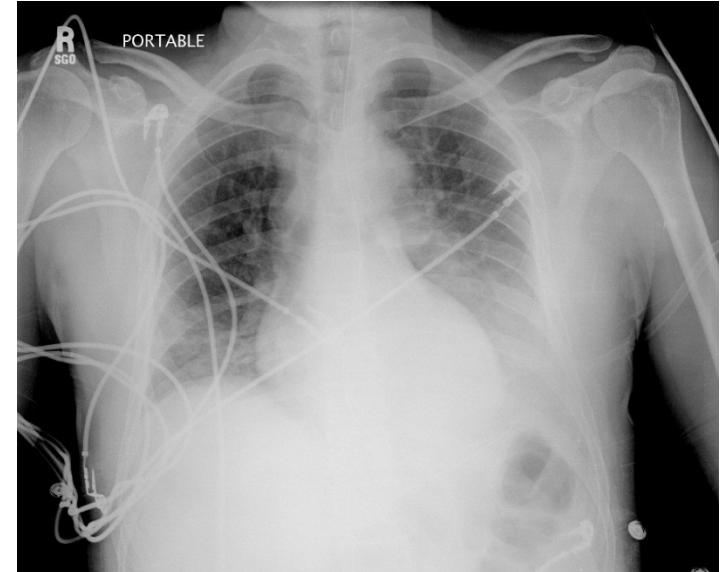
- Antibiotic renal dose adjustments in drug labeling are based on patients with *chronic kidney disease*
- Renal impairment is acute, not chronic, in up to 50% of patients with infection and frequently resolves within the first 48 hours
- Creatine-based equations for estimates of CrCl are based on steady-state conditions, and not as accurate in acute kidney injury
 - Decreases in SeCr are delayed with respect to injury resolution
 - **Renal dose reduction in the first 48 hours of therapy may unnecessarily result in underdosing of antibiotics, especially for “safe” antibiotics**

Augmented renal clearance (CrCL > 130 mL/min)

- **Common causes:**
 - “hyperdynamic state” with Gram-negative sepsis, vasoactive medications to support blood pressure
 - large-volume fluid resuscitation
- **Most common populations with augmented clearance:**
 - younger patients (i.e. trauma)
 - Severe burn patients
 - pregnant patients
 - septic patients without renal dysfunction
- **Often leads to inadequate antibiotic exposures**

Patient Case #1

- You have a 45-year-old patient in the ICU with suspected ventilator-associated pneumonia. He is currently receiving piperacillin-tazobactam 3.75 gram every 6 hours. You are asked by the unit director to write new antibiotic orders for meropenem + gentamicin
 - Bronchial aspirate culture: *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*
 - Meropenem MIC= 1 mcg/mL (S)
 - Gentamicin MIC=1 mcg/mL (S)



Patient case cont.

- The patient weighs 70 kg, 180 cm, SeCr 0.9 mg/dL
- You use the Cockcroft-Gault formula to calculate that the patient has an estimated GFR (CrCL_{est}) of 103 mL/min

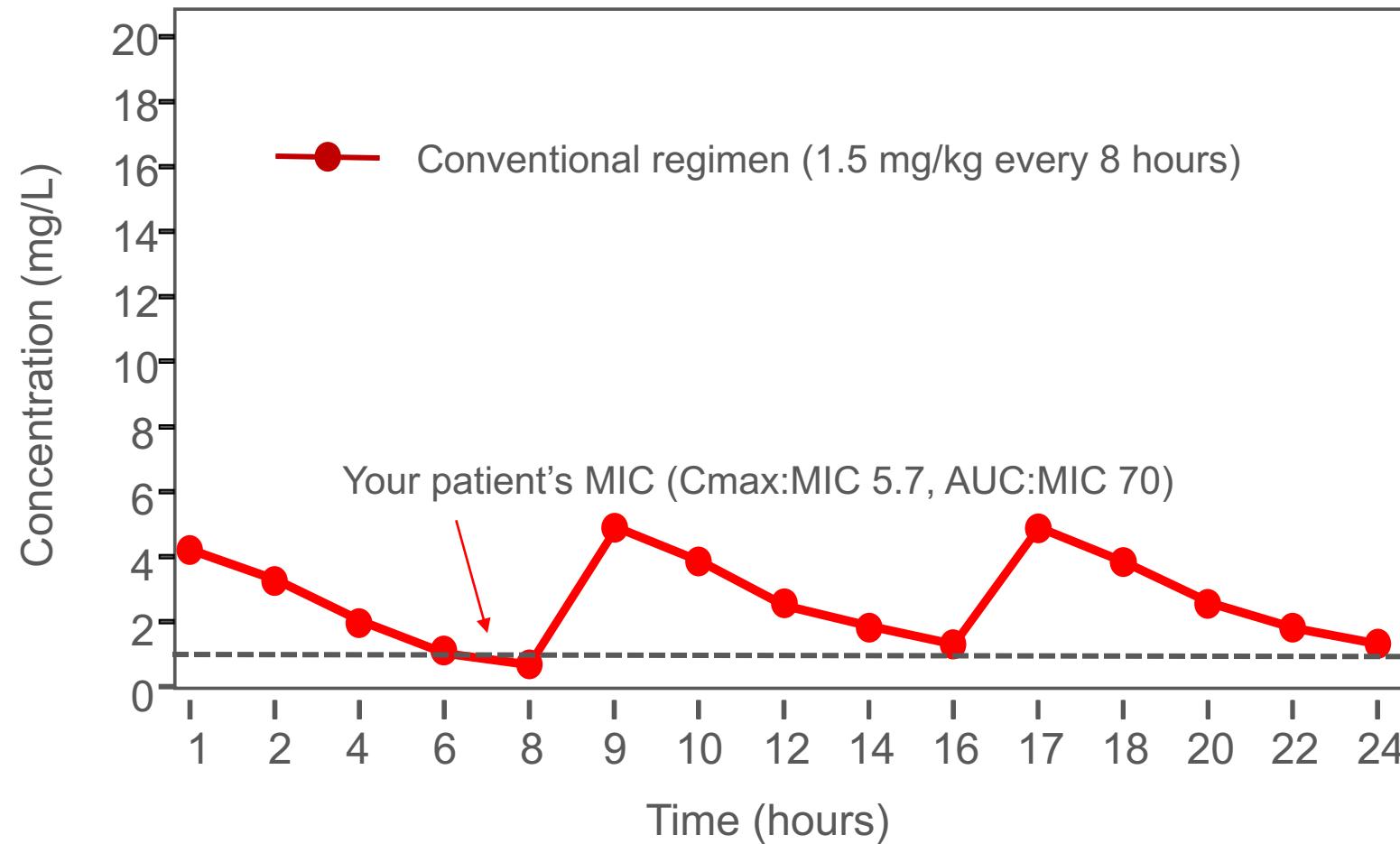
$$\frac{(140 - 45 \text{ years}) \times 70 \text{ kg}}{72 \times 0.9 \text{ mg / dL}} = 103 \text{ mL / min}$$

- Based on the drug reference on your cellphone, you see the standard doses are:
 - Meropenem 1 gram every 8 hours *adjusted for renal function*
 - Gentamicin 1.5 mg/kg every 8 hours *adjusted for renal function*

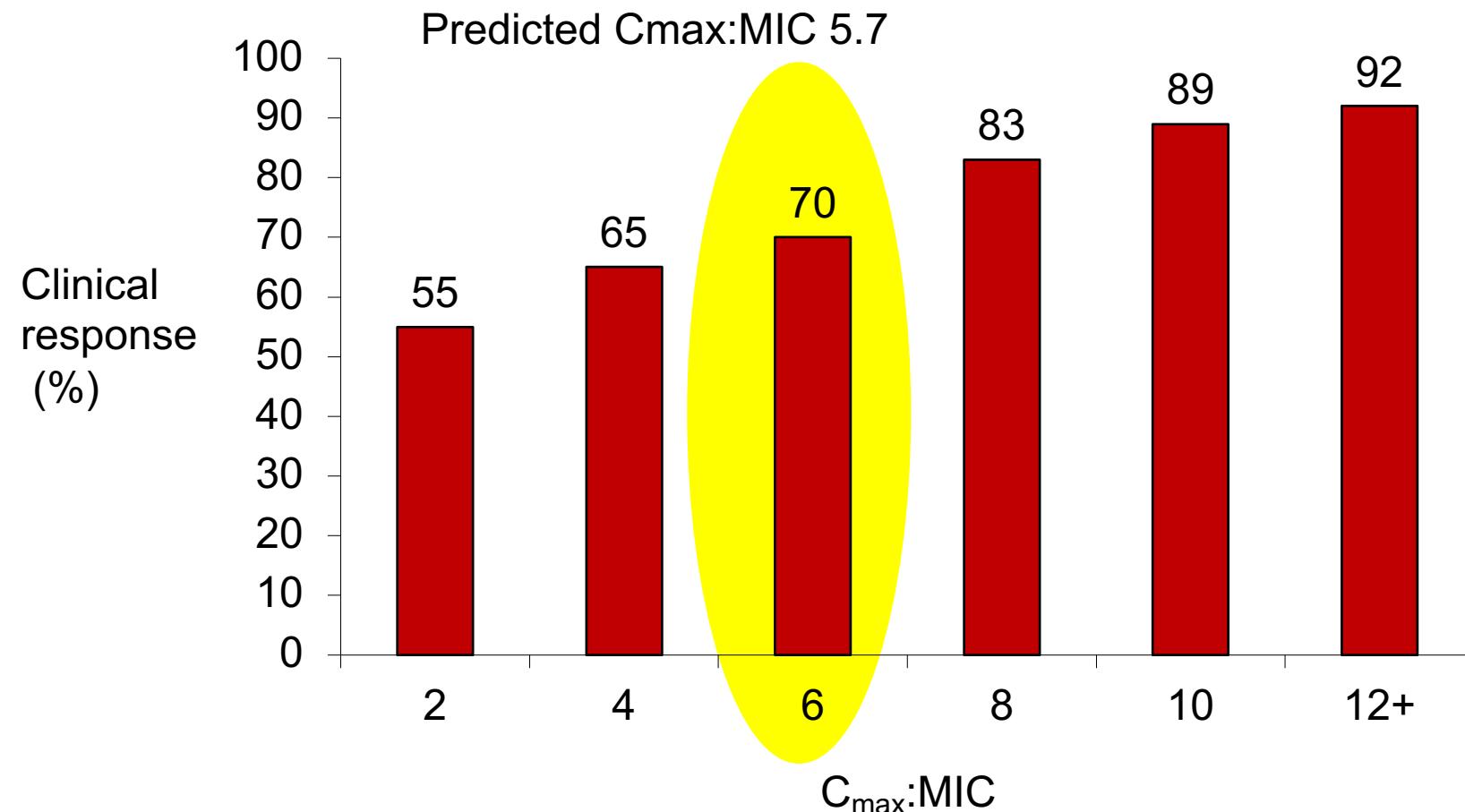
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| Organism kill | Concentration-dependent | Concentration and time dependent | Time-dependent |
| Dosing goal | Maximize exposure | Maximize exposure | Optimize duration of exposure |

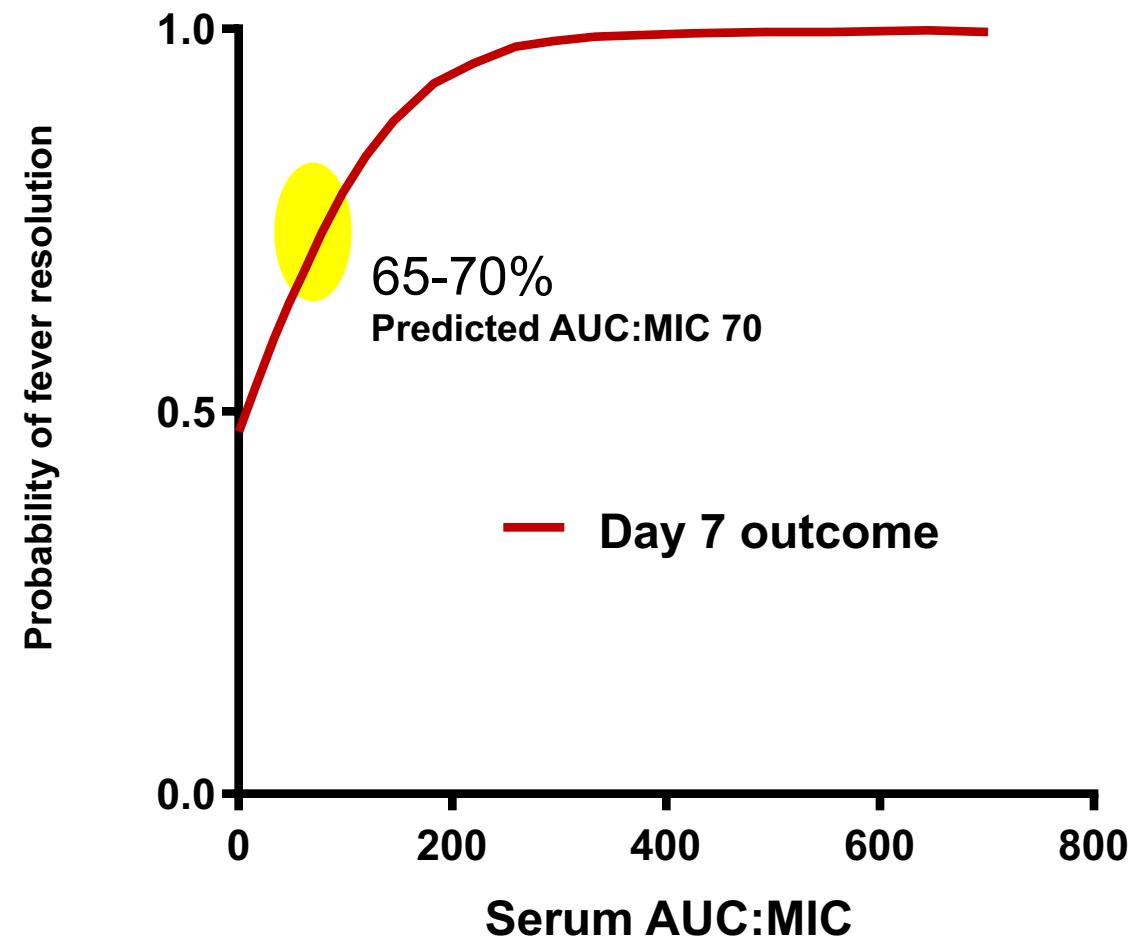
Your Patient's Predicted Gentamicin Regimen



Aminoglycosides: Relationship between C_{\max}/MIC ratio and clinical response in patients



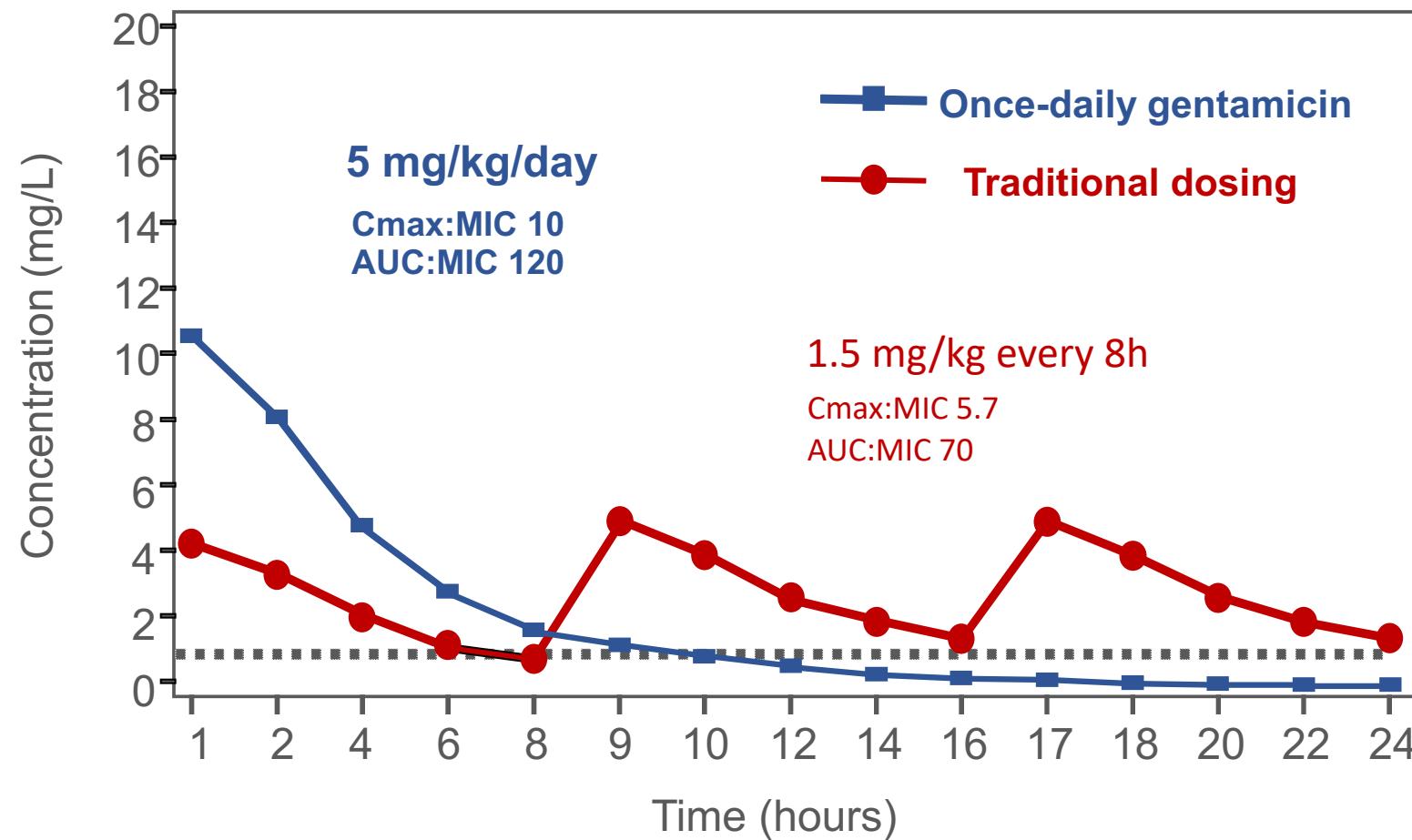
Relationship of gentamicin exposures and treatment response (multiple daily dosing)



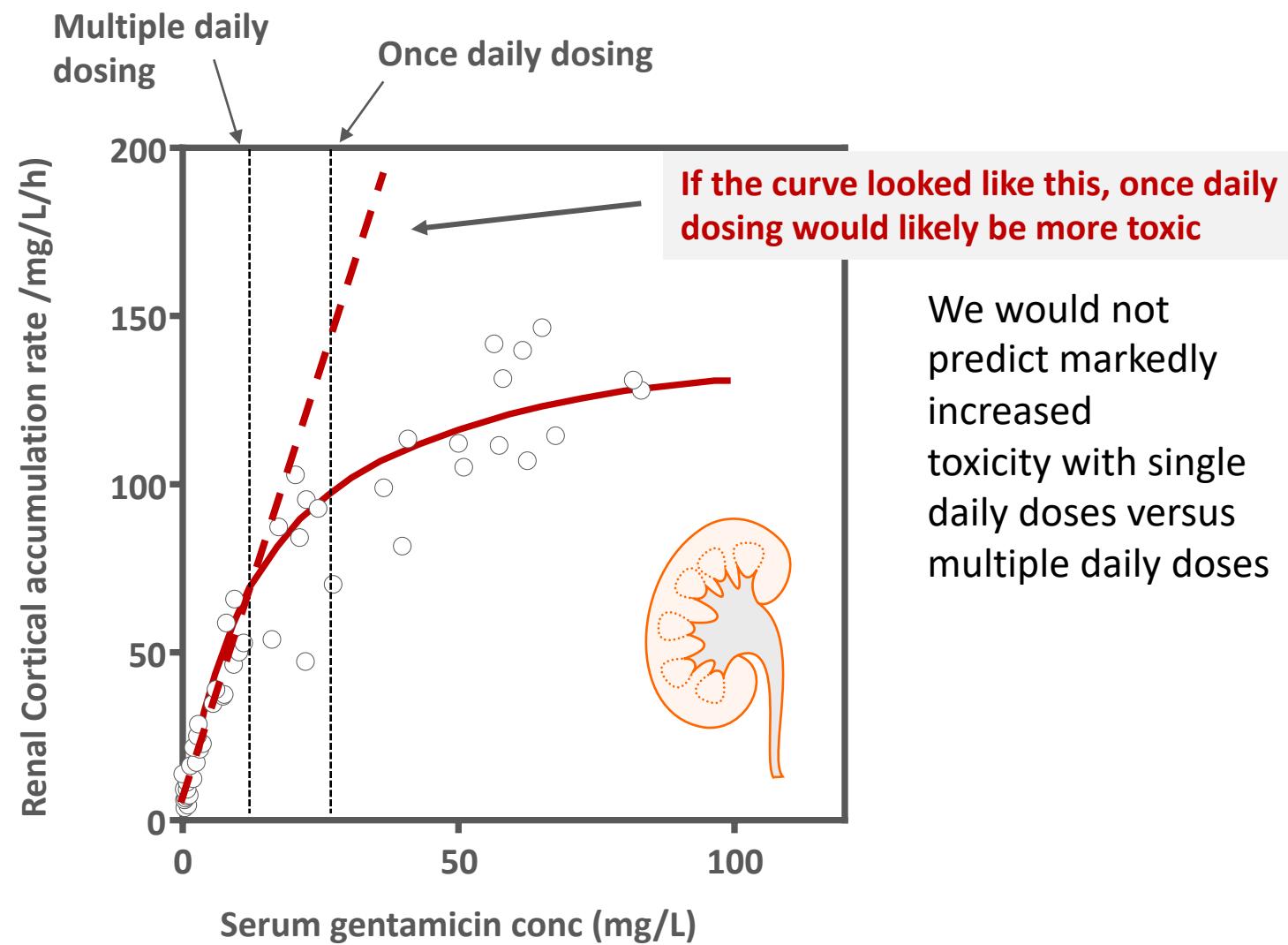
What can be done to improve gentamicin PK/PD?

- Aminoglycosides have concentration-dependent PD characteristics
 - Goal: Cmax:MIC > 10 or AUC/MIC > 150
- Can we administer the same daily dose as a single daily dose to improve the Cmax:MIC ratio?
- Is there a concern for increased risk of nephrotoxicity or ototoxicity with a higher dose?

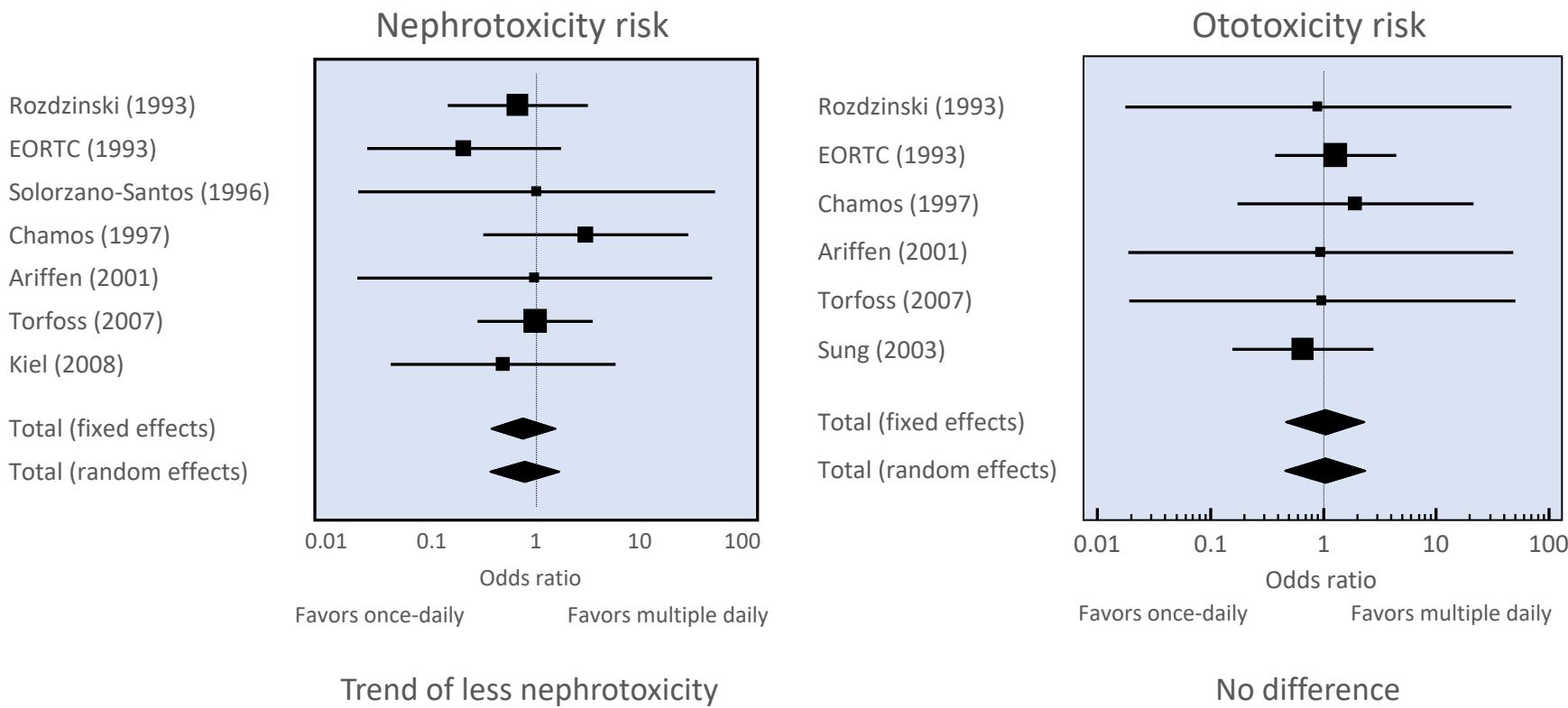
Once-Daily gentamicin vs. traditional (q8h) Regimen



Renal cortex uptake of gentamycin is saturable



Once versus multiple daily dosing of aminoglycosides for patients: a systematic review and meta-analysis

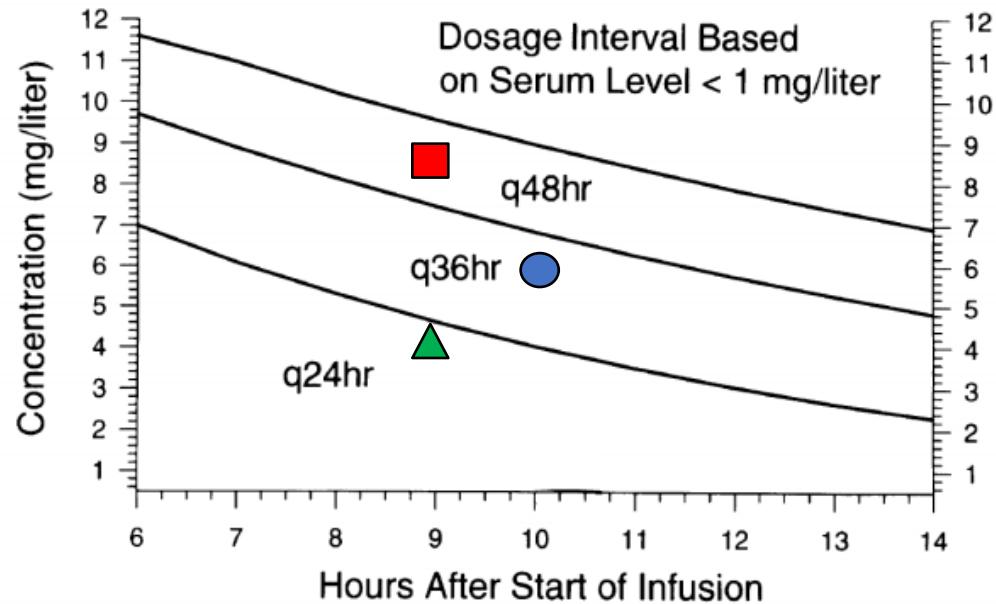


Aminoglycosides

- Administration approximately the same daily dose of aminoglycosides once daily instead of multiple daily doses increases Cmax:MIC 5-fold, without increasing nephrotoxicity or ototoxicity
- Although superiority is not proven in all treatment populations, infrequent (once-daily) aminoglycoside dosing is considered as efficacious as traditional dosing with possibly less toxicity

Monitoring aminoglycoside regimens (duration of therapy > 3 days)

Urban & Craig nomogram



- ▲ Sample 1= 4 mcg/mL at 9 hours
- Sample 2= 6.8 mcg/mL at 10 hours
- Sample 3= 8.7 mcg/mL at 9 hours

Alternative dosing nomograms have been proposed using similar principles

Example Software for PK/PD Optimization of Antibiotic Dosing



for Gentamicin

Version: 0.95.5 beta / Built 20170531

Disclaimer:

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[When using TDMx, you automatically agree with this disclaimer and](#)

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Dr. Sebastian G. Wicha

c/o University of Hamburg, Germany

- Uses population PK models specific for drug/disease state
- Incorporates expected variability in pharmacokinetic estimates and allows dosing simulations for individual patient (monte-Carlo Simulation)
- Can adjust models based on results from TDM (Bayesian Dose Adaptation)
- Tells you not just what is possible PK/PD for your dosing, but what is probable based on your patient's characteristics
- Allows you to explore “what if” dosing scenarios using prior knowledge of pharmacokinetic studies

Model recommended a 3 mg/kg dose when dosed at q8h interval (9 mg/kg over 24h), but there are problems....

PK/PD target(Cmax/MIC)

PK/Tox target(Cmin) [mg/L]

Date/time for next dose

Infusion duration [h]

Minimum dose [mg/kg]

Feasible dosing intervals [h]

Algorithm

Median (recommended)

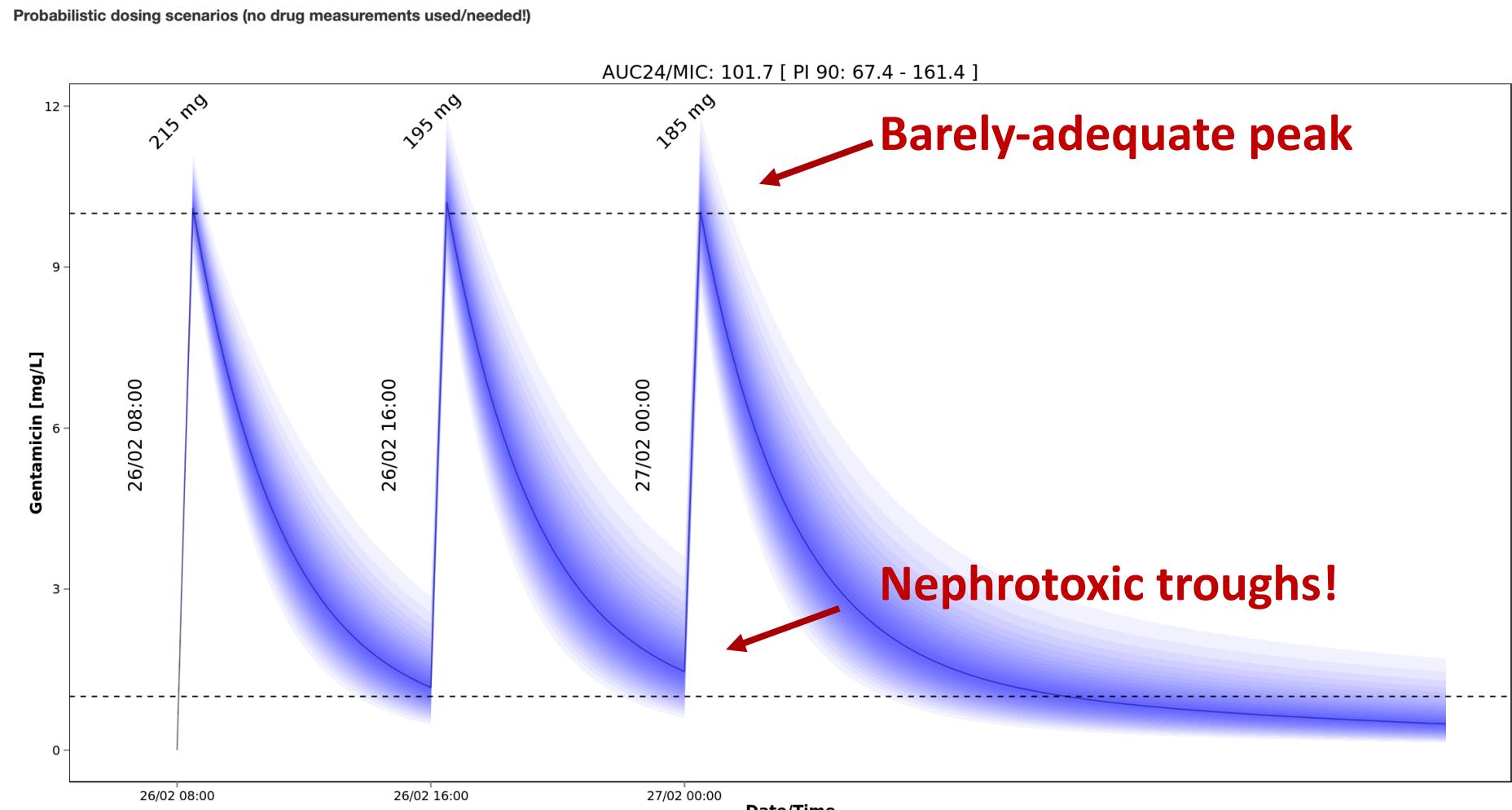
Format/Unit

Time [dd/mm/yyyy/hh:mm]

Cmax/MIC [-]

Cmin [mg/L]

Infusion duration [h]



No suitable doses found - consider modifying the target settings or provide more dosing intervals for evaluation!

PK/PD target(Cmax/MIC)

10

PK/Tox target(Cmin) [mg/L]

1

Date/time for next dose

26/02/2023/08:00

Infusion duration [h]

0.5

Minimum dose [mg/kg]

5

Feasible dosing intervals [h]

q24

Algorithm

Median (recommended) ▾

Format/Unit

Time [dd/mm/yyyy/hh:mm]

Cmax/MIC [-]

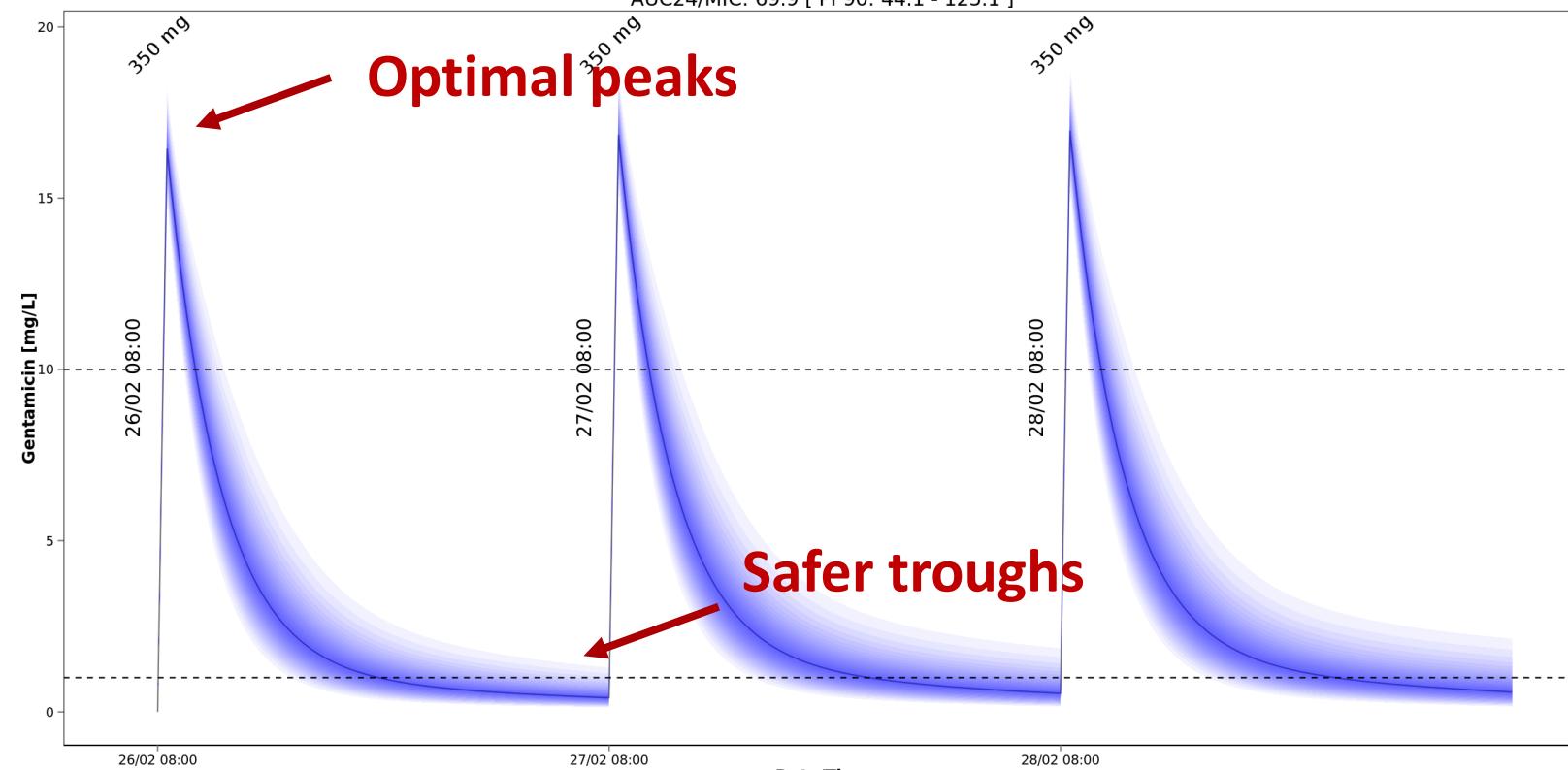
Cmin [mg/L]

Infusion duration [h]

Probabilistic dosing scenarios (no drug measurements used/needed!)

5 mg/kg daily

AUC24/MIC: 69.9 [PI 90: 44.1 - 125.1]



Dosing interval: q 24 h / Target concentrations reached!

Demographics

Age [yrs.] Weight [kg] Height [cm]

35 70 170

Sex

male

Dose [mg] | Infusion dur. [h]

| Time | Dose | Duration |
|------------------|------|----------|
| 25/02/2023/08:00 | 350 | 0.5 |
| 26/02/2023/08:00 | 350 | 0.5 |
| 27/02/2023/08:00 | 350 | 0.5 |

+ -

Dosing interval (for next dose) [h]

24

Laboratory

Serum creatinine [mg/dL]

| Time | cCreatinine |
|------------------|-------------|
| 25/02/2023/13:00 | 0.9 |

+ -

MIC [mg/L]

1

Measured gentamicin [mg/L]

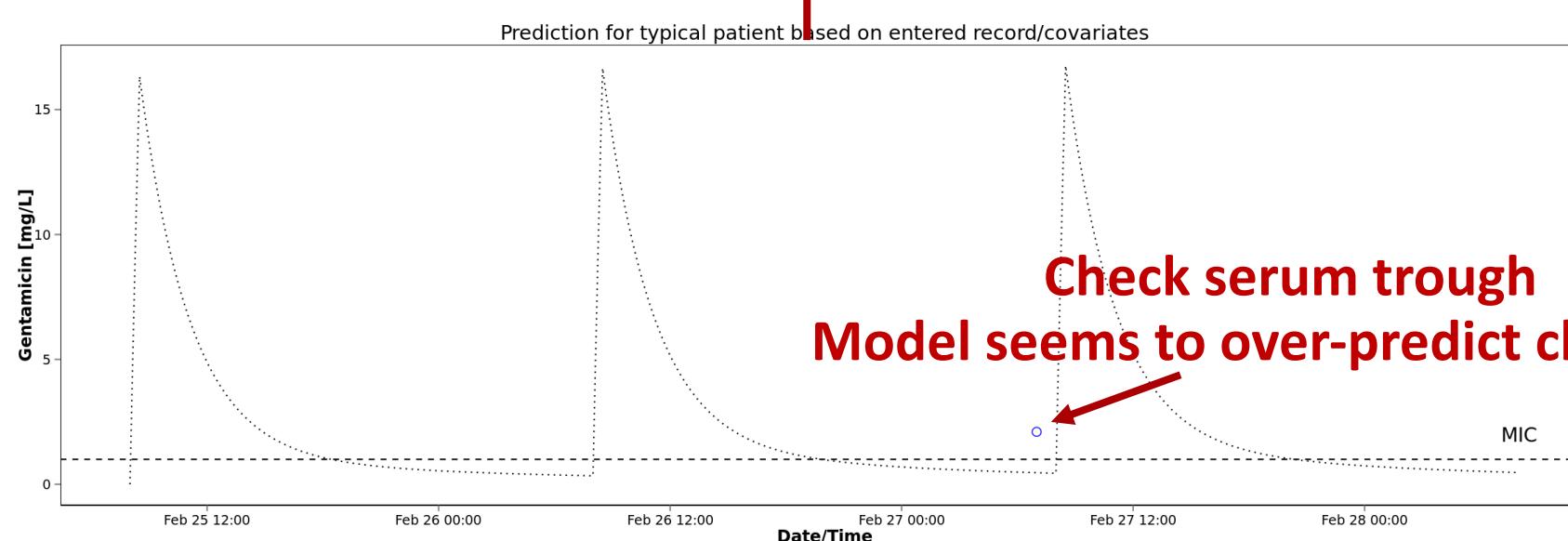
| Time | cGentamicin |
|------------------|-------------|
| 27/02/2023/07:00 | 2.1 |

+ -

Time [dd/mm/yyyy/hh:mm]

Dose [mg]

Infusion duration [h]



Bayesian dosing uses data from TDM to adjust model;
Providing more accurate individual predictions for the patient

PK/PD target(Cmax/MIC)

10

PK/Tox target(Cmin) [mg/L]

1

Date/time for next dose

26/02/2023/08:00

Infusion duration [h]

0.50

Minimum dose [mg/kg]

5

Feasible dosing intervals [h]

q24

Format/Unit

Time [dd/mm/yyyy/hh:mm]

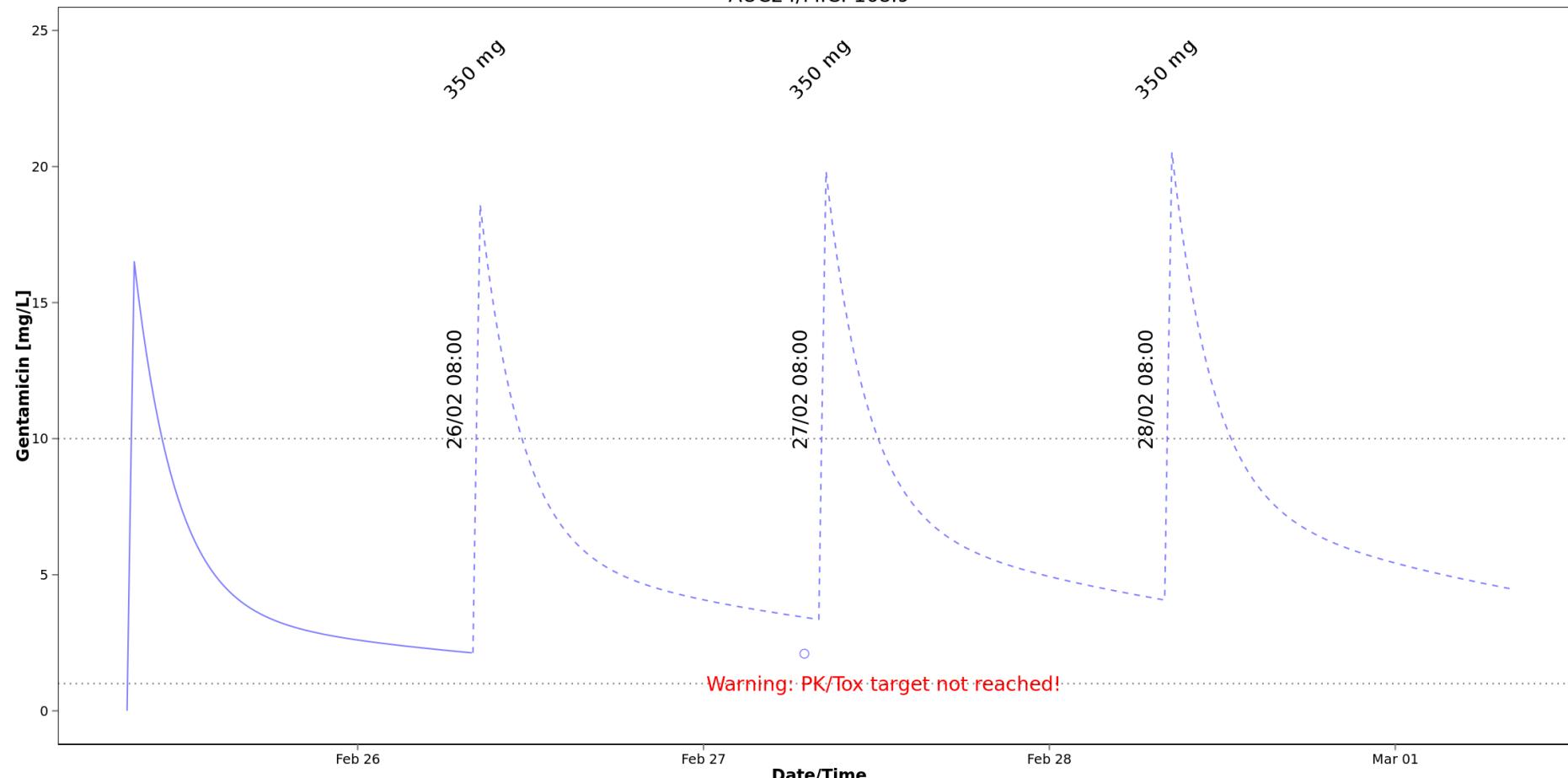
Cmax/MIC [-]

Cmin [mg/L]

Infusion duration [h]

Prediction of next dose based on individual patient (using Bayesian estimates)

AUC24/MIC: 168.9



No suitable doses found - consider modifying the target settings or provide more dosing intervals for evaluation!

How is this patient different from the "mean population" patient for gentamicin?

| | Parameter | Unit | Description | Typical | Individual |
|---|------------------|-------------|--------------------------------------------------|----------------|-------------------|
| 1 | CL | [L/h] | Drug Clearance | 5.33 | 3.12 |
| 2 | V1 | [L] | Volume of Distribution | 19.60 | 19.70 |
| 3 | k12 | [/h] | Transfer rate constant to peripheral compartment | 0.09 | 0.16 |
| 4 | k21 | [/h] | Transfer rate constant to central compartment | 0.07 | 0.09 |
| 5 | AUC | [mg/L*h] | AUC (from first to last dose + dosing interval) | | 288.60 |
| 6 | AUC 24h | [mg/L*h] | (average) AUC24h | | 96.20 |
| 7 | PK/PD | [-] | (average) AUC24h / MIC | | 96.20 |

PK/PD target(Cmax/MIC)

10

PK/Tox target(Cmin) [mg/L]

1

Date/time for next dose

28/02/2023/08:00

Infusion duration [h]

0.50

Minimum dose [mg/kg]

5

Feasible dosing intervals [h]

q24 q36 q48

Format/Unit

Time [dd/mm/yyyy/hh:mm]

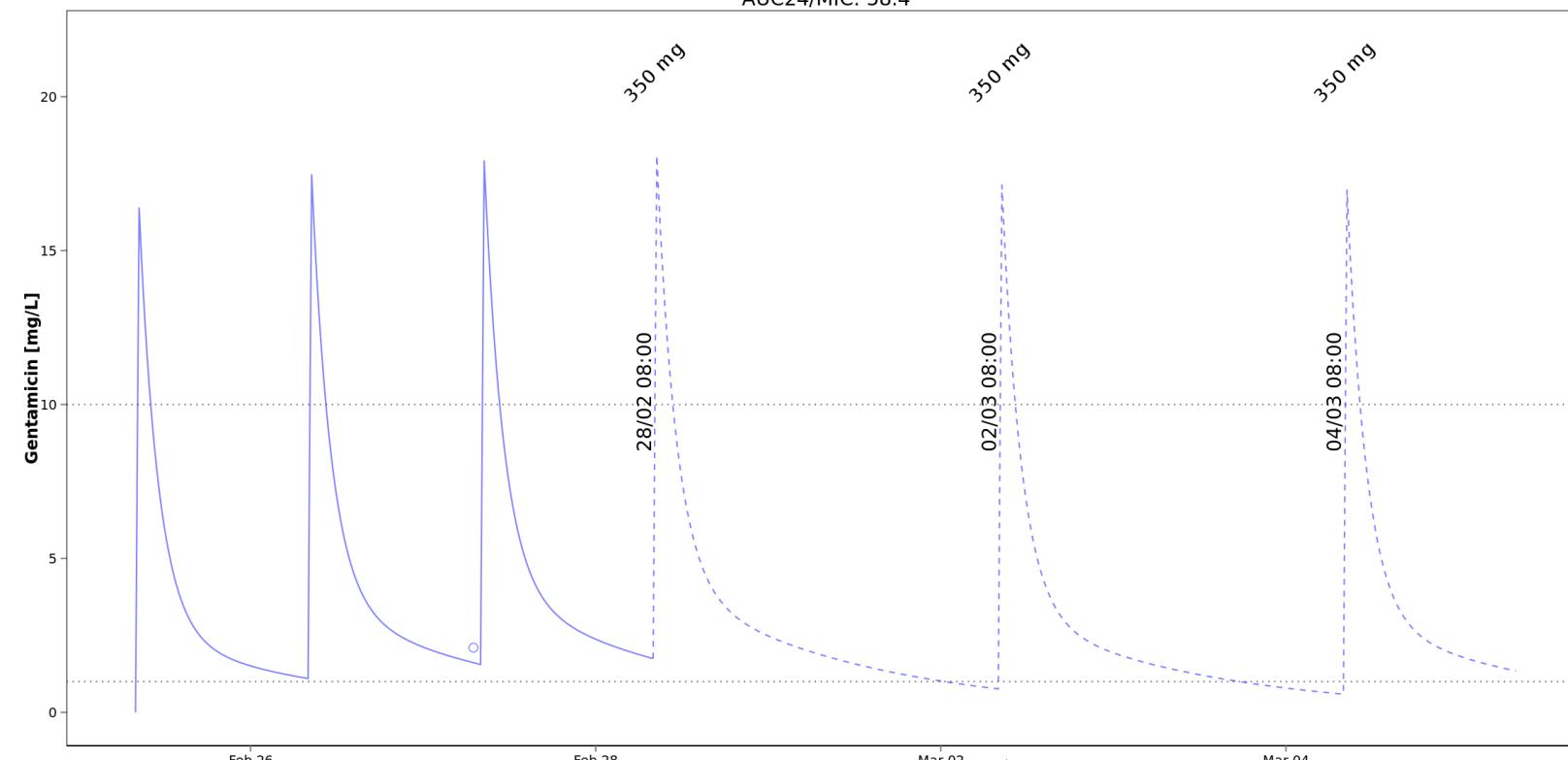
Cmax/MIC [-]

Cmin [mg/L]

Infusion duration [h]

Prediction of next dose based on individual patient (using Bayesian estimates)

AUC24/MIC: 58.4



Dosing interval: q 48 h / Target concentrations reached!

Maintain daily dose, extend interval to 48h

Software-assisted dosing

- Available on computer desktop, some applications coming to smartphone platforms
- Based on population PK models for specific patient types
 - *Pay attention to the patient population used to develop the model!*
- Best models can adjust PK estimates and dosing recommendations based on therapeutic drug monitoring results (Bayesian estimation)
- Models are only a general guide-recommendation must not be followed blindly!
- Dosing models may not be available for your specific patient situation
- Link to dosing models at www.padovaid.com

Case Cont.

- You change the patient's gentamicin dose to 350 mg every 24 hours and will monitor using the nomogram on the previous slide
- Unfortunately, the patient's fever persists, and your unit chief wants to add vancomycin to cover *S. aureus*
- You are told to use a dose that will immediately achieve and maintain a trough serum concentration of 20 to 30 mg/L.

Pharmacodynamic parameters predictive of outcomes in animals and humans

| | C_{max}/MIC | AUC/MIC | T>MIC |
|----------------------|---------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Examples | Aminoglycosides Fluoroquinolones Polymyxins | Azithromycin Fluoroquinolones Ketolides Linezolid Daptomycin Vancomycin Tigecycline | Penicillins Cephalosporins Carbapenems Monobactams Macrolides |
| | Also predicted by AUC:MIC | | |
| Organism kill | Concentration-dependent | Concentration and time dependent | Time-dependent |
| Dosing goal | Maximize exposure | Maximize exposure | Optimize duration of exposure |

Vancomycin pharmacodynamics

- **PK:PD Index associated with efficacy**
 - (Total drug) **AUC/MIC > 400**
- **Serum trough concentrations correlate with AUC**
 - In the past, monitoring of trough serum concentrations was recommended to ensure adequate dosing, reduce toxicity in critically-ill patients
 - Trough concentrations of 15-20 mg/L (roughly equivalent to AUC > 400) were recommended during the treatment of infections caused by methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* with MIC up to 1 mg/L
 - However, nephrotoxicity risk increases when troughs > 30 mg/L
 - **How can you dose to a trough of 15-20 but reduce the risk of nephrotoxicity?**

How to calculate a vancomycin dose (manually)

- Target concentration (CP)= 20 mg/L
- Age: 45 years, CrCL=103 mL/min, 70 kg
- Vd: 0.75 L/kg (from med. literature)
- CL_{vancomycin}: 0.65 xCrCL_{est} (Cockcroft Gault)

$$CP(\text{mg/L}) = \frac{\text{Loading dose}(\text{mg/kg})}{Vd(\text{L/kg})}$$

$$\text{Loading dose}(\text{mg/kg}) = 20 \text{ mg/L} \times 0.75 \text{ L/kg}$$

$$\text{Loading dose}(\text{mg/kg}) = 15 \text{ mg/kg}$$

$$\text{Loading dose} = 1050 \text{ mg or } 1000 \text{ mg}$$

$$\text{Infusion rate}(\text{mg/min}) = CP_{\text{target}}(\text{mg/L}) \times [CL_{\text{vancomycin}}(\text{mL/min})]$$

$$\text{Infusion rate}(\text{mg/min}) = 20 \text{ mg/L} \times [0.65 \times CrCl(\text{mL/min})]$$

$$\text{Infusion rate}(\text{mg/min}) = 20 \text{ mg/L} \times [0.65 \times 103(\text{mL/min})]$$

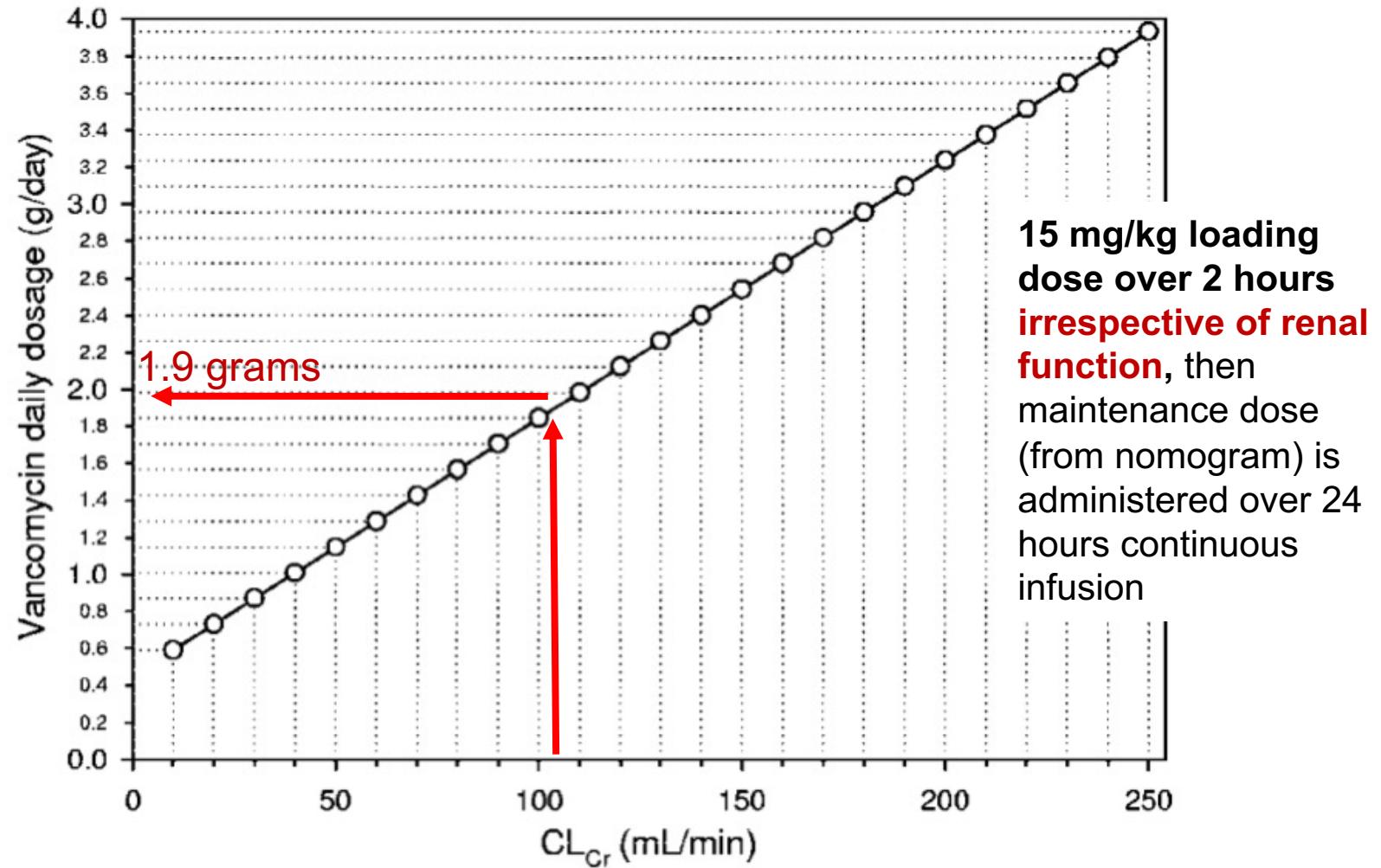
$$\text{Infusion rate}(\text{mg/min}) = 1.34 \text{ mg/min} = 80.3 \text{ mg/hr} = 1928 \text{ mg/day}$$

Nomogram for continuous infusion dosing of vancomycin to rapidly achieve and maintain a trough of 20 mg/L in critically-ill patients

Therapeutic drug monitoring to confirm near 20 mg/L

To estimate AUC:

$$20 \text{ mg/L} \times 24\text{h} = 480 \text{ mg/L}\cdot\text{h}$$



| Method | Pro | Con | Comments |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Trapezoidal equations (see vancomycin AUC dosing calculator) | Log-linear equations used to calculate true peak and trough based on measured peak and trough levels | Steady state must be achieved; 2 measurements required: peak and trough | Once AUC_{24} for particular dose and interval is determined, adjustment of dose and interval for subsequent doses is proportional ratio. See AUC Dosing Fundamentals and Calculations |
| Trough level | No calculation required | Poor proxy for AUC_{24} ; target may be achieved with trough < 15 | Preferred for meningitis, CNS infections; unstable renal function; diseases with target trough 10-15 |
| Bayesian | Calculation may be based on single level, including pre-steady state. Adaptive to physiologic changes | Software tends to be expensive | Can work with single level, but better results with peak and trough measurements |
| Continuous infusion | Simple calculation based on 1-2 random levels | Requires full-time use of dedicated IV line | $AUC_{24} = \text{steady state level} \times 24$ |

- **Treatment failure.**

- Regardless of MIC vs MRSA, if blood cultures remain positive for 2-3 days with clinical evidence of ongoing "sepsis", and no undrained abscesses, consider patient a Vancomycin treatment failure. In retrospective study of patients with MRSA bacteremia, correlation of Vancomycin treatment failure with Vancomycin trough levels < 15 µg/mL and MIC > 1 µg/mL ([Clin Infect Dis 52:975, 2011](#)).

Adult Dose

- **IV formulation - Intermittent dosing**

- Target AUC_{24} serum levels of 400-600 µg/mL x hr
 - Allow 24-48 hours to achieve steady state, then measure peak and trough serum levels
 - Use [vancomycin AUC dosing calculator](#) (for explanatory notes and formulas, see [AUC Dosing Fundamentals and Calculations](#)) to:
 - Calculate initial AUC_{24} based on measured peak and trough levels
 - Adjust dose or interval for subsequent doses

- Loading dose:
 - For serious infection, critical illness whether intermittent or continuous infusion
 - Shortens time to achieve steady state serum level
 - 20-30 mg/kg IV (based on actual body weight) infused at rate of 10-15 mg/min (maximum 3 gm)

- Maintenance dose
 - 15-20 mg/kg IV over 60 min q8-12h adjusted to achieve target AUC_{24} of 400-600 µg/mL x hr
 - Intermittent dosing: Start first maintenance dose at the end of the first dosing interval
 - Continuous infusion: Start maintenance dosing immediately after completion of infusion of the loading dose

- Morbid obesity
 - See "Other Adjustment" below

- **IV Formulation - Continuous infusion**

- Loading dose: 15-20 mg/kg (infusion rate 10-15 mg/min)
- Continuous infusion dose: 30-40 mg/kg (up to 60 mg/kg) over 24 hours daily
- Start continuous infusion immediately after completion of infusion of the loading dose
- Morbid obesity: inadequate data on continuous infusion in this population

- **IV Formulation - Intrathecal dosing**

- Adult: 10-20 mg/day
- Target CSF concentration is 10-20 µg/mL

"2100 mg (30 mg/kg) loading dose over 140 min; then 1050 mg (15 mg/kg) every 8 hours over 60 min. Check vancomycin peak and trough after 3rd dose."

Vancomycin AUC monitoring

Monitoring only based on troughs may result in overdosing for a proportion of patients

Vancomycin AUC Calculator

by Douglas Black, Pharm.D. last updated Mar 12, 2022 6:36 PM © Antimicrobial Therapy, Inc.

Vancomycin

Vancomycin AUC₂₄ Calculator

The critical assumption of these calculations is that the patient has achieved Vancomycin steady-state
Target AUC₂₄ is 400-600 µg/mL x hr

| | | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------|-------|
| Each Dose: | Norm: 500-2000 | mg |
| Dosing Interval: | 6 hours | ▼ |
| Duration of infusion: | 30 min | ▼ |
| Measured Vancomycin Peak Concentration: | Norm: 10-80 | µg/mL |
| Time from start of infusion to measurement of peak concentration: | T1 | hours |
| Measured Vancomycin Trough Concentration: | Norm: 0-60 | µg/mL |
| Time from start of infusion to measurement of trough concentration: | T2 | hours |

Calculate **Clear**

Fill in the above to calculate results.

Software recommended dosing

Patient ID

Patient Laboratory Dosing

Dose [mg] | Infusion dur. [h]

| Date/Time | Dose | Dur. | Nr. | Int. |
|------------------|---------|------|------|------|
| 26/02/2023:06:00 | 2100.00 | 2.50 | 1.00 | 8.00 |
| 26/02/2023:17:00 | 1050.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 8.00 |
| 27/02/2023:01:00 | 1050.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 8.00 |
| 27/02/2023:09:00 | 1050.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 8.00 |

+ -

Dose optimization

Target

AUC24h/MIC Trough

Target value

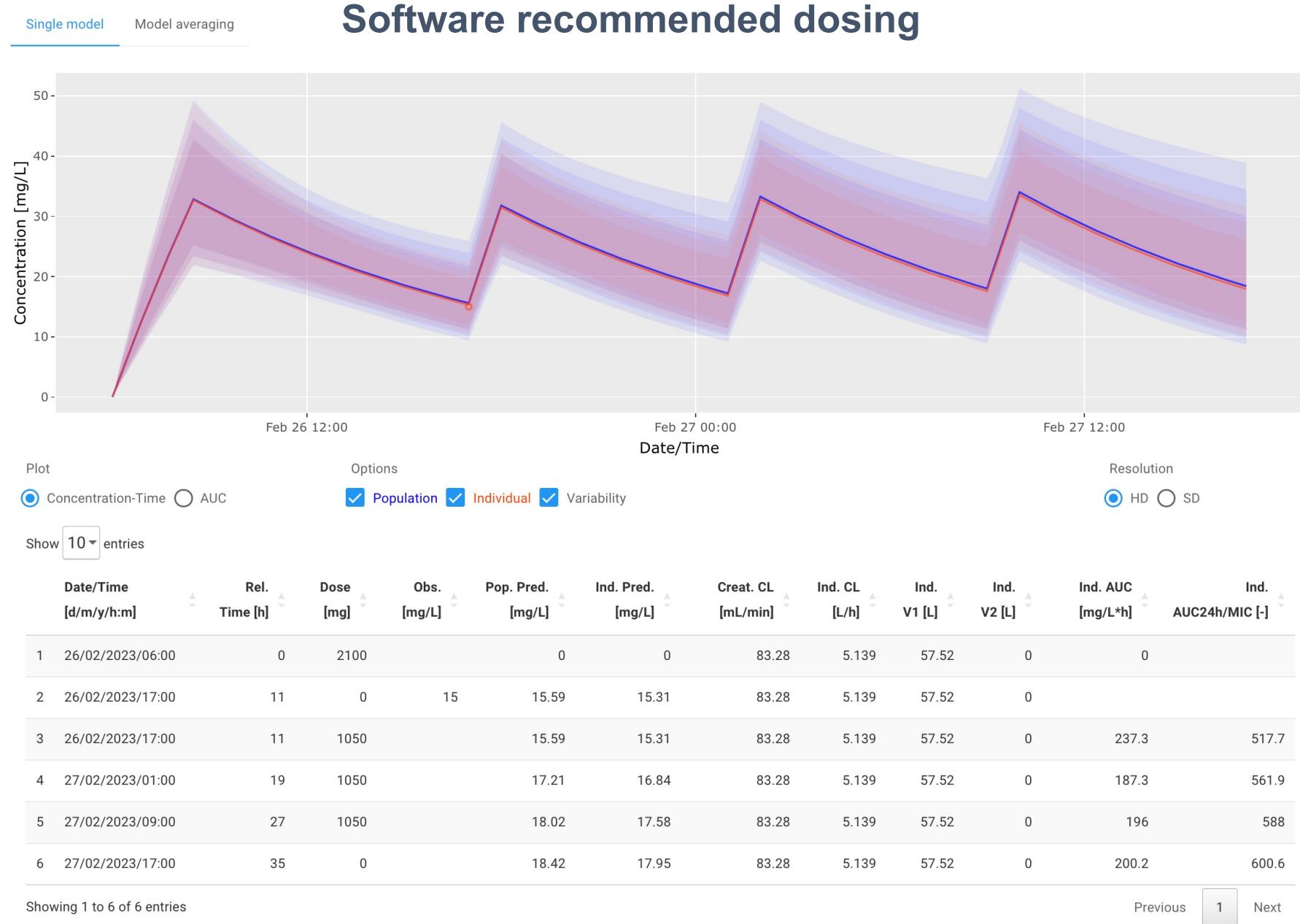
500

Optimization type

First dose Add dose

CALCULATE

SAVE INPUT DATA



Patient ID

Patient **Laboratory** **Dosing**

| | | |
|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Age [years] | Weight [kg] | Height [cm] |
| 45 | 70 | 180 |

Ethnicity
Caucasian

Sex
male

Hemodialysis
No

Diabetes
No

Furosemide co-administration
No

No SAPSII available

Population model
ICU patients (Revilla 2010)

AUTO-SELECT

SAVE INPUT DATA

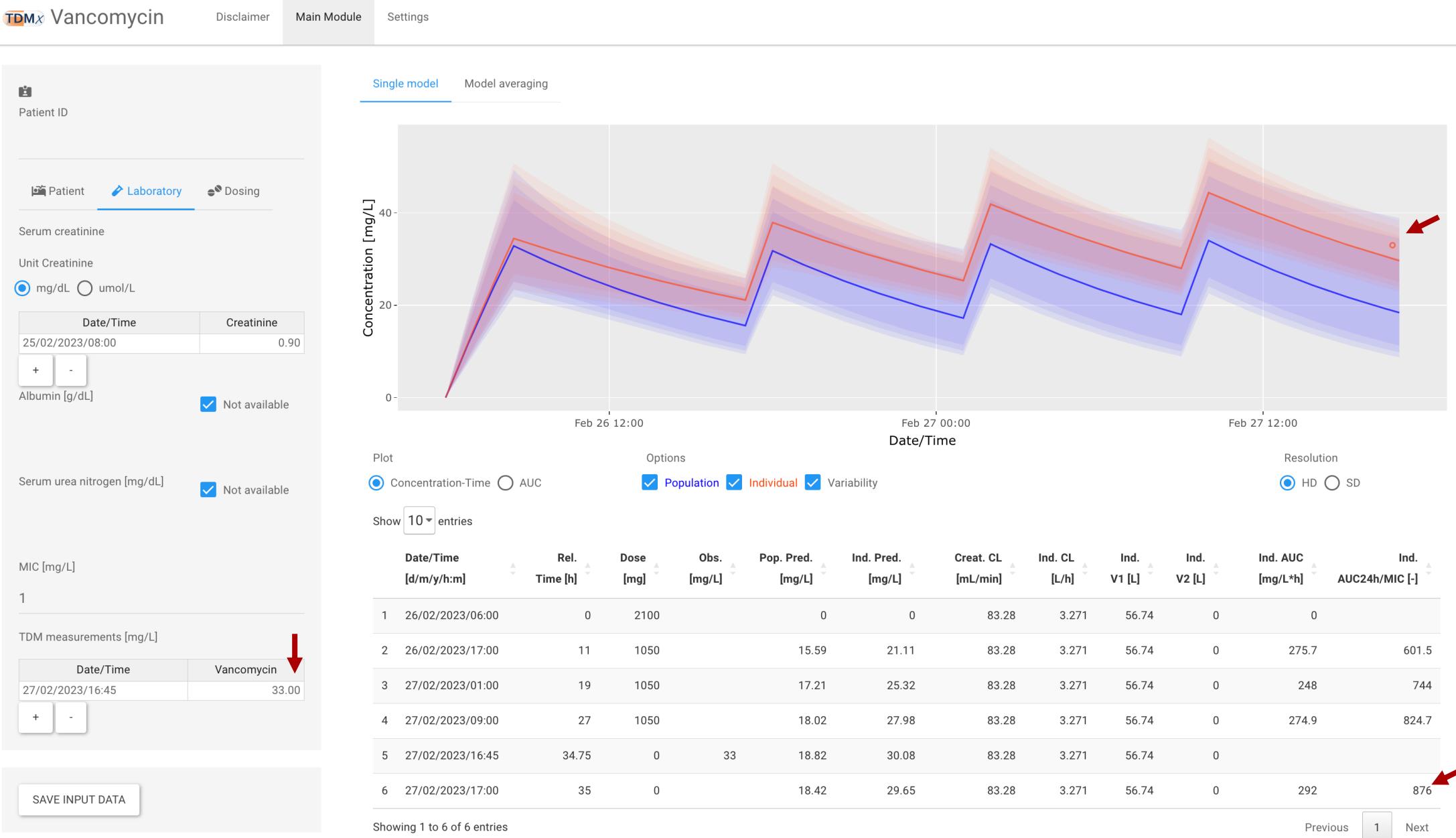
Which covariates

Which model?

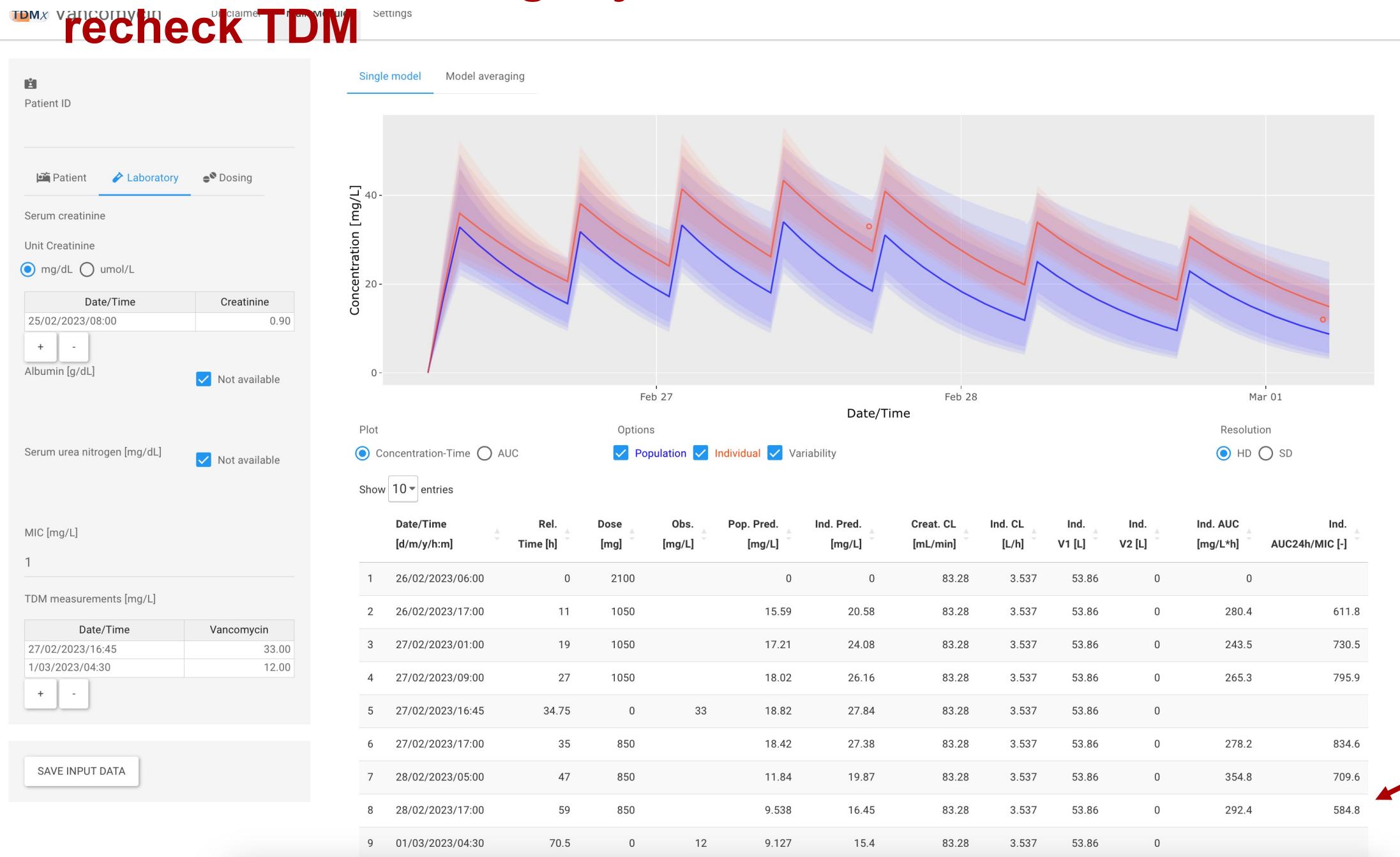
Furosemide co-administration
No

- hospitalized (Goti 2018)
- hospitalized (Thomson 2009)
- obese (Adane 2015)
- trauma (Medellin-Garibay 2016)
- ✓ ICU patients (Revilla 2010)**
- critically-ill (Roberts 2011)
- critically-ill (Mangin 2014)

Adding TDM results, we see we are overdosing patient...



Individualized dosing adjustment recommendations then recheck TDM



Case Cont.

- The next day, the patient had one episode of fever despite the addition of the vancomycin
- The patient's pneumonia is stable
- However, tracheal aspirate cultures from 2 days ago:
 - *P. aeruginosa*, meropenem MIC 4 mg/L (R)
 - Sensitive only to gentamicin, amikacin, ceftolozane/tazobactam and colistin
- The patient's renal function is also worsening
 - Serum creatinine 1.4 mg/dL (estimated CrCl 66 mL/min)
- Your chief does not want to start colistin, and the pharmacy says ceftolozane/tazobactam will not be available until next week
- The chief tells you to give "high-dose" PK/PD optimized meropenem

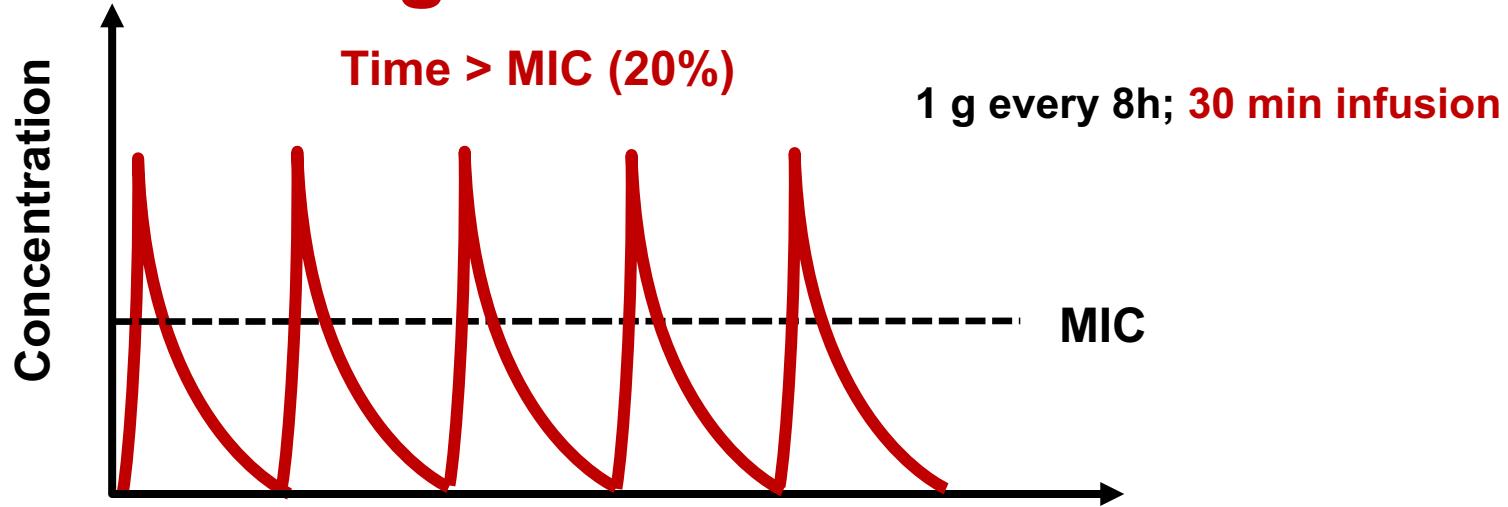
Pharmacodynamic parameters predictive of outcomes in animals and humans

| | C_{max}/MIC | AUC/MIC | T>MIC |
|----------------------|---------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Examples | Aminoglycosides Fluoroquinolones Polymyxins | Azithromycin Fluoroquinolones Ketolides Linezolid Daptomycin Vancomycin Tigecycline | Penicillins Cephalosporins Carbapenems Monobactams Macrolides |
| | Also predicted by AUC:MIC | | |
| Organism kill | Concentration-dependent | Concentration and time dependent | Time-dependent |
| Dosing goal | Maximize exposure | Maximize exposure | Optimize duration of exposure |

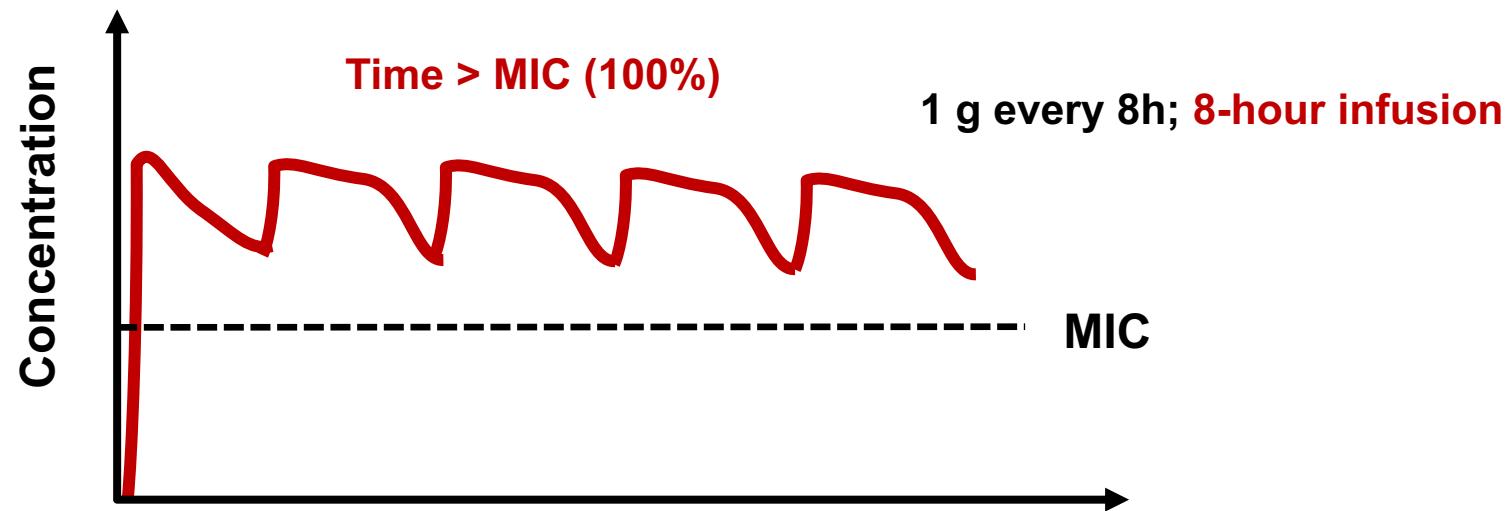
Beta-Lactams: Targeted PD Exposure

- The optimum level of exposure varies for different agents within the beta-lactam class
- Required %T>MIC for efficacy:
 - ~ 50%–70% for cephalosporins
 - ~ 50% for penicillins
 - ~ 40% for carbapenems
- Reason: Acetylation of target β -lactam binding proteins occurs at low multiples of MIC, and inhibition (and reversal) takes time
 - This time is shorter than the dosing interval but varies among different β -lactams
- In critically-ill patients, many advocate ~ 100% T> MIC or even 4xMIC

This is what is occurring...



We want this...



Example: Meropenem dosing for *P. aeruginosa* (MIC 4 mg/L)

- Patient already receiving meropenem 1 gram every 8h in 30 min infusions
- Target initial concentration (CP)= 16 mg/L (4xMIC)
- Age: 45 years, CrCL=66 mL/min, 70 kg
- Vd: 0.38 L/kg (from med. literature)
- CL_{meropenem}: [0.078x59]+2.85 mL/hr

Loading dose not needed in this case-already on meropenem!

$$CP(\text{mg/L}) = \frac{\text{Loading dose}(\text{mg/kg})}{Vd(\text{L/kg})}$$

$$\text{Loading dose}(\text{mg/kg}) = 16 \text{mg/L} \times 0.38 \text{L/kg}$$

$$\text{Loading dose}(\text{mg/kg}) = 6.08 \text{mg/kg} \approx 6 \text{mg/kg}$$

$$\text{Loading dose} = 420 \text{mg} \sim 500 \text{mg}$$

Example: Meropenem dosing for *P. aeruginosa* (MIC 4 mg/L)

- Target concentration (CP)= 16 mcg/mL
- Age: 45 years, CrCL=66 mL/min
- Vd: 0.38 L/kg (from med. literature)
- $CL_{meropenem} = [0.078 \times CrCL] + 2.85$ mL/hr

Maintenance dose:

$$Infusion\ rate(mg / hr) = CP_{target}(mg / L) \times [CL_{meropenem}(mL / hour)]$$

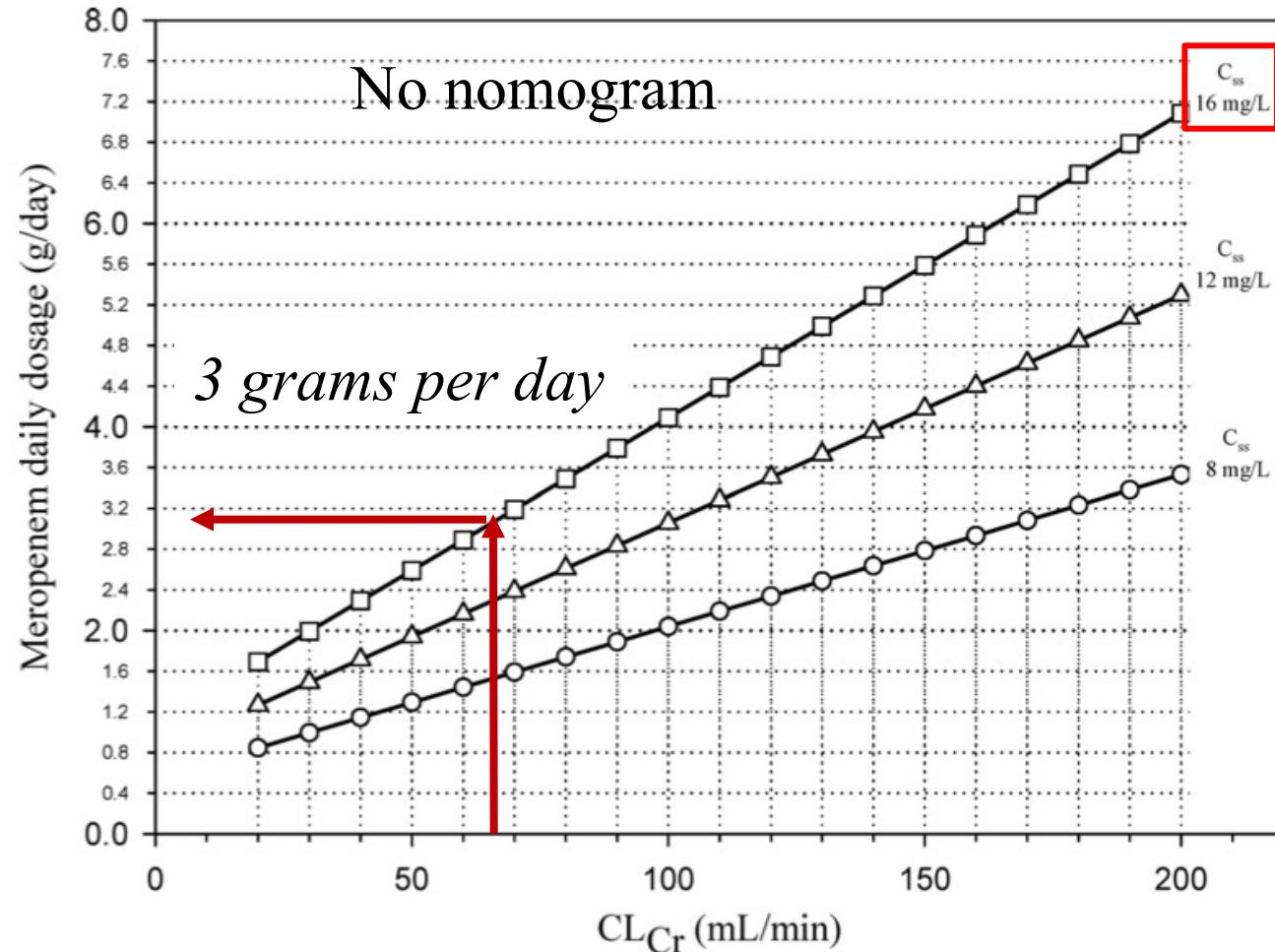
$$Infusion\ rate(mg / hr) = 16mg / L \times ([0.078 \times CrCl(ml / min)] + 2.85)$$

$$Infusion\ rate(mg / hr) = 16mg / L \times ([0.078 \times 66] + 2.85)$$

$$Infusion\ rate(mg / hr) = 127mg / hr = 3071mg / day \approx 3\text{ grams / day}$$

**1 gram could be infused over 8 hours 3x daily
(meropenem cannot be given over 24 hours infusion because of instability in IV bag)**

Dosing Nomogram for Obtaining Optimal Meropenem Concentrations



1-2 gram loading dose over 30 min.

Continuous infusion started immediately thereafter

Bags must be changed every 8 hours

Patient ID

Patient Laboratory Dosing

Serum creatinine

Unit Creatinine

mg/dL umol/L

| Date/Time | Creatinine |
|------------------|------------|
| 25/02/2023:08:00 | 1.40 |

+ -

Albumin [g/dL] Not available

MIC [mg/L]

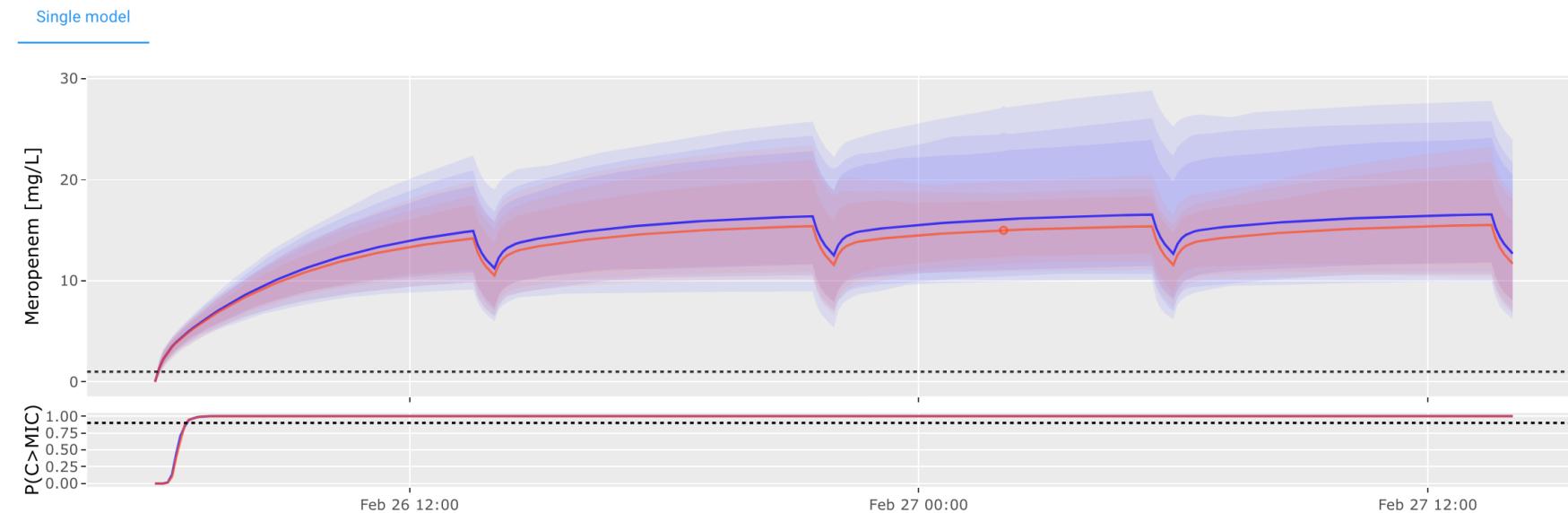
4

TDM measurements [mg/L]

| Date/Time | Meropenem |
|------------------|-----------|
| 27/02/2023:02:00 | 15.00 |

+ -

SAVE INPUT DATA



Plot Concentration-Time Display Options Population Individual Variability Resolution HD SD

Show 10 entries

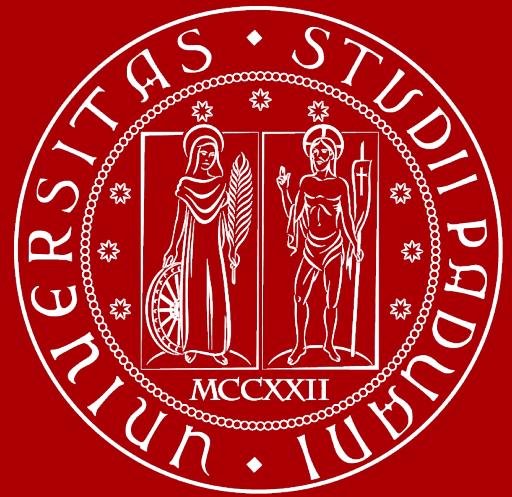
| | Date/Time [d/m/y:h:m] | Rel. Time [h] | Dose [mg] | Rate [mg/h] | Obs. [mg/L] | Pop. Pred. [mg/L] | Ind. Pred. [mg/L] | eGFR [mL/min] | Ind. CL [L/h] | Ind. V1 [L] | Ind. V2 [L] | Ind. T>MIC [%] |
|---|--------------------------|------------------|--------------|--------------------|----------------|----------------------|----------------------|------------------|------------------|----------------|----------------|-------------------|
| 1 | 26/02/2023:06:00 | 0 | 1000 | 133.33333333333333 | | 0 | 0 | 65.99 | 8.447 | 7.899 | 17.71 | |
| 2 | 26/02/2023:14:00 | 8 | 1000 | 133.33333333333333 | | 11.25 | 10.53 | 65.99 | 8.447 | 7.899 | 17.71 | 93.4 |
| 3 | 26/02/2023:22:00 | 16 | 1000 | 133.33333333333333 | | 12.52 | 11.58 | 65.99 | 8.447 | 7.899 | 17.71 | 100 |
| 4 | 27/02/2023:02:00 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 15 | 16.09 | 15 | 65.99 | 8.534 | 7.899 | 17.71 | |
| 5 | 27/02/2023:06:00 | 24 | 1000 | 133.33333333333333 | | 12.67 | 11.55 | 65.99 | 8.534 | 7.899 | 17.71 | 100 |
| 6 | 27/02/2023:14:00 | 32 | 0 | 0 | | 12.69 | 11.69 | 65.99 | 8.447 | 7.899 | 17.71 | 100 |

Showing 1 to 6 of 6 entries

Previous **1** Next

Case Cont.

- On the 5th day of therapy, the patient's oxygen status began to improve, and the patient began weening from the ventilator
- The patient had no episodes of over the last 24 hours
- SeCr decreased from 1.4 to 0.9 mg/dL
 - *Remember to adjust maintenance antibiotic doses!*
- The director of your unit thinks you are a genius!



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