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On behalf of the DALI study authors
(Appendix).

Take home message: PK/PD target attainment during therapy with β -lactam antibiotics is overall inadequate with intermittent infusion and increased creatinine clearance as independent risk factors for target non-attainment.

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Risk factors for target non-attainment during empirical treatment with β -lactam antibiotics in critically ill patients

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Abstract Purpose: Risk factors for β -lactam antibiotic underdosing in critically ill patients have not been described in large-scale studies. The objective of this study was to describe pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic (PK/PD) target non-attainment envisioning empirical dosing in critically ill patients and considering a worst-case scenario as well as to identify patient characteristics that are associated with target non-attainment. **Methods:** This analysis uses data from the DALI study, a prospective, multi-centre pharmacokinetic point-prevalence study. For this analysis, we assumed that these were the concentrations that would be reached during empirical dosing, and calculated target attainment using a hypothetical target minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC), namely the susceptibility breakpoint of the least susceptible organism for which that antibiotic is commonly used. PK/PD targets were free drug concentration maintained above the MIC of the suspected pathogen for at least 50 % and 100 % of the dosing interval respectively (50 % and 100 % $f T_{>MIC}$). Multivariable analysis was performed to identify factors associated with inadequate antibiotic exposure. **Results:** A total of 343 critically ill patients receiving eight different β -lactam antibiotics were included. The median (interquartile

range) age was 60 (47–73) years, APACHE II score was 18 (13–24). In the hypothetical situation of empirical dosing, antibiotic concentrations remained below the MIC during 50 % and 100 % of the dosing interval in 66 (19.2 %) and 142 (41.4 %) patients respectively. The use of intermittent infusion was significantly associated with increased risk of non-attainment for both targets; creatinine clearance was independently associated with not reaching the 100 % $f T_{>MIC}$ target. **Conclusions:** This

study found that—in empirical dosing and considering a worst-case scenario—19 % and 41 % of the patients would not achieve antibiotic concentrations above the MIC during 50 % and 100 % of the dosing interval. The use of intermittent infusion (compared to extended and continuous infusion) was the main determinant of non-attainment for both targets; increasing creatinine clearance was also associated with not attaining concentrations above the MIC for the whole dosing interval. In the light of

this study from 68 ICUs across ten countries, we believe current empiric dosing recommendations for ICU patients are inadequate to effectively cover a broad range of susceptible organisms and need to be reconsidered.

Keywords β -Lactam antibiotics · Pharmacokinetics · Pharmacodynamics · Critical care

Introduction

β -Lactam antibiotics (penicillins, cephalosporins and carbapenems) are frequently used to treat severe infection, as they have demonstrated efficacy against most pathogens causing community-acquired and nosocomial disease. These antibiotics display time-dependent activity, with maintenance of unbound (or free) concentrations above the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC)—or $f T_{>MIC}$ —associated with improved efficacy. In vivo experiments have shown that depending on the β -lactam class the minimum time during which concentration should be above the MIC should be 40–70 % of the dosing interval, although clinical data suggests that higher and more prolonged exposures may be necessary to treat severe infection [1–3].

Empirical antibiotic choice and dosing should take into account not only the suspected microorganisms but also bacterial susceptibility to the antibiotic administered [4]. Just as the spectrum of empiric antibiotics is often broad, antibiotics should reach sufficient concentrations to inhibit all microorganisms that are presumed susceptible to the drug. The MIC of a microorganism is an important parameter in this respect but is usually not known when antibiotic therapy is initiated. Therefore it is logical to use susceptibility breakpoints for specific antibiotic/microorganism combinations as a target during the first days of therapy until other data to guide concentration targets becomes available. This implies that higher concentrations should be aimed for in this stage where data regarding susceptibility of the pathogen are lacking.

In recent years, many single-centre studies in specific critically ill patient populations have highlighted the variability of β -lactam antibiotic concentrations [5–9]. Changes in volume of distribution and protein binding as well as clearance of the antibiotic are frequent, predisposing to subtherapeutic or toxic concentrations when standard doses are applied [10].

Although individual factors contributing to antibiotic underexposure have been studied in some detail [7, 11, 12], it remains unclear which patients are at risk of underdosing, especially in the crucial phase of the first 48 h. Furthermore, the clinical factors associated with insufficient β -lactam concentrations have not been studied on a large scale. Utilising the Defining Antibiotic Levels in Intensive care unit patients (DALI) study database [13], the goals of this analysis were (a) to describe the frequency of β -lactam PK/PD target non-attainment in an empirical setting aiming for adequate coverage of likely pathogens and therefore a broad range of MICs and (b) to identify patient characteristics associated with target non-attainment in this hypothetical situation and therefore suboptimal β -lactam exposure for empiric therapy.

Methods

The DALI study was a prospective, multi-centre pharmacokinetic point-prevalence study. The detailed protocol has been published previously [14]. Patients without protocol violations were included in this analysis if they received one of the following antibiotics: amoxicillin (co-administered with clavulanate), ampicillin, cefazolin, cefepime, ceftriaxone, doripenem, meropenem and piperacillin (co-administered with tazobactam) and if data on the method of administration were available (intermittent, extended or continuous infusion). Antibiotic dosing was decided by the clinician in charge of treating the patient. Each patient had two blood samples drawn for each β -lactam antibiotic (mid-dose and trough concentration; for details regarding sampling and bioanalysis we refer to previous publications [13, 14]).

The goal of the current analysis was to calculate target non-attainment, not for the actual infection and pathogens the patients were treated for, but envisioning an empirical situation where the least susceptible organism potentially

causing the infection is targeted. For this analysis, we assumed that the concentrations obtained in the DALI study were also the concentrations that would be reached during empirical dosing, and calculated target non-attainment using a hypothetical target MIC, namely the susceptibility breakpoint of the least susceptible organism for which that antibiotic is commonly used based on the European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST) MIC₉₀ data (http://www.eucast.org/clinical_breakpoints) (e.g. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* MIC is 16 mg/L for piperacillin/tazobactam). Again, the breakpoints were chosen for a 'worst-case' scenario in terms of bacterial susceptibility, which reflects the context of empiric therapy.

A comparison between patients, on the basis of attaining these targets, was then undertaken and we tried to identify factors independently associated with target non-attainment. We sought to further explore these relationships for specific scenarios with the richest data. For antibiotics that were administered to more than 50 patients, individual analyses were performed in order to identify factors associated with target non-attainment. Also for the major infection sites a separate analysis was performed.

Data collection

Data collection was performed by trained staff at each participating centre and entered onto a case report form (CRF). Various demographic and clinical data were collected including age, gender, height, weight, fluid balance and measures of organ function and levels of patient sickness severity, as described by the admission acute physiology and chronic health evaluation (APACHE II) score [15], and sepsis organ failure assessment (SOFA) score [16] on the day of sampling. Mortality at 30 days was also collected.

Creatinine clearance (CL_{CR}) was calculated using the Cockcroft-Gault formula for all patients except those receiving renal replacement therapy (RRT). Antibiotic dosing data including the dose and frequency of administration, the time of dosing and sampling and the day of antibiotic therapy were collected.

In order to assess the effect of dosing, we calculated the ratio between the dose administered and dosages commonly used in ICU patients, daily dose in ICU (DD_{ICU}: amoxicillin, 4 g; ampicillin, 6 g; piperacillin, 2 g; cefepime, 4 g; cefazolin, 3 g; ceftriaxone, 2 g; meropenem, 3 g and doripenem, 1.5 g).

PK/PD targets

PK/PD targets associated with maximal β -lactam activity in preclinical and some clinical studies were selected as

surrogate markers of the appropriateness of dosing. For this analysis, the following PK/PD targets were evaluated:

- 50 % $f T_{>MIC}$: free drug concentration maintained above the MIC of the suspected pathogen for at least 50 % of the dosing interval. This was considered as the most conservative PK/PD target.
- 100 % $f T_{>MIC}$: free drug concentration maintained above the MIC of the suspected pathogen throughout the entire dosing interval.

Ethical approval

Ethical approval to participate in this study was obtained at all participating centres and informed consent obtained from each patient or their legally authorised representative. The lead site was The University of Queensland, Australia with ethical approval granted by the Medical Research Ethics Committee (no. 2011000283, May 2011).

Statistical analysis

Data are expressed as median values with interquartile ranges (IQR) for continuous variables, numbers and percentages for categorical variables. Univariate comparisons employed a Mann-Whitney *U* test, Chi square test or Fisher's exact test, where analysis assumptions were met. In order to identify important covariates associated with target non-attainment for the two targets mentioned above, a multivariate logistic regression model (single step, forced entry) was constructed using variables for which the *p* value was less than 0.2 in univariate analysis. Goodness of fit was assessed by the Hosmer-Lemeshow statistic. All statistical analyses were performed using the statistical software package IBM-SPSS statistics 20.0 (IBM Corp, New York USA). A two-sided *p* value less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

Patients in the DALI study

In 68 ICUs across ten countries, 384 patients receiving β -lactam antibiotics were identified. Forty-one patients were excluded because of protocol violations, or incomplete data sets, leaving 343 evaluable critically ill patients for this analysis [13].

The median patient age was 60 (47–73) years and APACHE II score 18 (13–24) (Table 2). Twenty-three per cent of patients underwent surgery in the 24 h preceding antibiotic sampling and about one tenth of all patients were treated concomitantly with RRT.

The distribution of antibiotic use is summarized in Table 1. In the majority of the patients (75.5 %), antibiotics were used for treatment of infection. In patients treated for infection, the lung was the most frequent source (36.2 %), followed by the abdomen (15.7 %). Other sources of infection included the bloodstream (7.6 %), urinary tract (5.2 %), central nervous system (3.3 %), and skin and soft tissues (2 %). In 29.4 % of the patients, no source of infection was identified on the day of sampling.

Extended or continuous infusion was used in 25 % of patients. Additional patient characteristics are displayed in Table 2.

Target non-attainment: all patients

Considering the MIC of the least susceptible microorganism as the target MIC, PK/PD targets of 50 % $f T_{>MIC}$ and 100 % $f T_{>MIC}$ were not reached by 66 (19.2 %) and 142 (41.4 %) patients respectively. The characteristics of these patients are presented in Table 2.

A multivariate analysis was undertaken to examine for factors associated with PK/PD target non-attainment. The use of intermittent infusion (compared to extended or continuous infusion) significantly increased the probability of target non-attainment for both 50 % $f T_{>MIC}$ and 100 % $f T_{>MIC}$; furthermore, increasing CL_{CR} was associated with not attaining the 100 % $f T_{>MIC}$ target (Table 3). It should be noted that patients receiving RRT ($n = 33$) were excluded from the latter analysis, as no accurate CL_{CR} values were available.

Target non-attainment: intermittent infusion patients only

As the infusion duration was identified as such an important variable for both 50 % and 100 % $f T_{>MIC}$, and as the majority of the patients were treated with intermittent infusion, a separate multivariate analysis was conducted in patients who received intermittent dosing

only. In this instance, for 50 % $f T_{>MIC}$, only the indication for drug administration was identified as a significant covariate; patients who received antibiotics as prophylaxis were 2.19 times more likely not to achieve that target (Fig. 1a). In respect to 100 % $f T_{>MIC}$, increasing CL_{CR} , recent surgery, and sampling within the first few days of therapy were significant predictors of target non-attainment (Fig. 1a).

Target non-attainment: individual antibiotics and major sites of infection

Target non-attainment for piperacillin ($n = 107$), meropenem ($n = 78$) and amoxicillin ($n = 71$) and respiratory tract plus abdominal infections is summarized in Fig. 2.

Factors associated with 100 % $f T_{>MIC}$ target non-attainment for the individual antibiotics included CL_{CR} for all antibiotics [piperacillin OR 1.022 (95 % CI 1.006–1.039), meropenem OR 1.014 (95 % CI 1.001–1.027), amoxicillin OR 1.032 (95 % CI 1.004–1.064)], and the use of extended or continuous infusion for piperacillin OR 0.10 (95 % CI 0.02–0.51).

In patients with abdominal infections no factors associated with target non-attainment could be identified, whereas in patients with respiratory tract infections, again CL_{CR} [OR 1.010 (95 % CI 1.001–1.019)] and the use of extended or continuous infusion [OR 0.273 (95 % CI 0.093–0.805)] were associated with increased target non-attainment.

Discussion

This analysis demonstrates that based on the data from a large group of critically ill patients receiving β -lactam antibiotics, approximately 20 % of patients fail to attain even the most conservative drug exposure targets (antibiotic concentrations above the MIC during 50 % of the dosing interval) during empirical treatment when aiming at adequate concentrations irrespective of the degree of susceptibility. Utilising a higher target (antibiotic concentrations above the MIC throughout the dosing interval), twice this number of patients (>40 %) manifest insufficient drug exposures.

Given that this study included data from 68 ICUs across ten countries, the generalizability of this data is broad. Our findings raise crucial questions as to the validity of current empirical β -lactam dosing strategies, with the critical care environment significantly altering the 'normal' PK/PD profile. As illustrated by the distribution of doses employed, most clinicians are utilising these agents in agreement with current recommendations,

Table 1 Antibiotics used in the 343 patients

Antibiotic	N (%)	Median 24 h dose administered (IQR) (g)
Piperacillin	107 (31.2)	12 (12–16)
Meropenem	78 (22.7)	3 (3–6)
Amoxicillin	71 (20.7)	4 (3–6)
Ceftriaxone	31 (9.6)	2 (2–4)
Ampicillin	18 (5.2)	12 (6–12)
Cefepime	13 (3.8)	6 (3–6)
Doripenem	13 (3.8)	2 (1.5–3)
Cefazolin	10 (2.9)	4 (3–6)

Table 2 Patient characteristics: all patients, and according to PK/PD target attainment

	All patients (n = 343)	Patients not reaching 50 % T > MIC (n = 66)	Patients reaching 50 % T > MIC (n = 277)	p	Patients not reaching 100 % T > MIC (n = 142)	Patients reaching 100 % T > MIC (n = 201)	p
Age (years)	60 (47–73)	52 (39–65)	63 (49–75)	<0.001	55 (40–66)	64 (51–76)	<0.001
Male gender	218 (63.6 %)	27 (40.1 %)	97 (35.0 %)	0.382	86 (60.6 %)	132 (65.7 %)	0.376
Body mass index (kg/m ²)	25.9 (23.4–29.1)	25.2 (23.1–28.0)	26.0 (23.4–29.3)	0.249	25.3 (23.7–29.0)	25.9 (23.3–29.4)	0.945
APACHE II score at admission	18 (13–24)	15 (8–21)	19 (14–25)	0.001	16 (10–23)	19 (15–25)	<0.001
SOFA on day of sampling	5 (2–8)	3 (1–6)	6 (3–9)	<0.001	3 (2–6.5)	6 (3–9)	<0.001
Cockcroft-Gault CL _{CR} (mL/min)	91 (54–141)	119 (84–164)	82 (48–124)	<0.001	118 (86–169)	70 (42–108)	<0.001
Interval between start AB and sampling (days)	2 (1–5)	2 (1–4)	3 (1–5)	0.141	2 (0.75–5)	2.5 (1–5)	0.327
Antibiotic dose administered (daily dose in mg/kg)							
Piperacillin	184 (139–226)	171 (117–224)	185 (140–227)	0.376	173 (139–215)	195 (139–229)	0.180
Meropenem	43 (29–61)	45 (43–48)	42 (29–63)	0.211	45 (42–60)	40 (28–61)	0.851
Amoxicillin	60 (44–75)	56 (43–73)	62 (45–75)	0.897	58 (46–72)	71 (40–82)	0.589
Ratio of administered dose to DD _{ICU}	1.00 (1.00–1.50)	1.00 (0.94–1.50)	1.00 (1.00–1.50)	0.957	1.17 (1.00–1.50)	1.00 (1.00–1.33)	0.182
Trauma as admission diagnosis	44 (12.8 %)	12 (18.2 %)	32 (11.6 %)	0.119	32 (22.5 %)	12 (5.9 %)	<0.001
Surgery in the 24 h prior to antibiotic dose sampled	78 (22.7 %)	19 (28.8 %)	59 (21.3 %)	0.197	41 (28.9 %)	37 (18.4 %)	0.024
RRT	33 (9.6 %)	1 (1.5 %)	32 (11.6 %)	0.013	2 (1.4 %)	31 (15.4 %)	<0.001
AB administered using extended or continuous infusion	86 (25.1 %)	7 (10.6 %)	79 (28.5 %)	0.03	18 (12.7 %)	68 (33.8 %)	<0.001
AB for treatment of infection	259 (75.5 %)	38 (57.6 %)	221 (79.8 %)	<0.001	97 (68.3 %)	162 (80.6 %)	0.016

MIC minimal inhibitory concentration, APACHE acute physiology and chronic health evaluation, CL_{CR} creatinine clearance, SOFA sequential organ failure assessment, AB antibiotic, DD_{ICU} daily dose in intensive care unit patients, RRT renal replacement therapy

Table 3 Multivariate analysis, with PK/PD target non-attainment as the dependent variable

	<i>p</i> value	Odds ratio	95 % CI	
			Lower	Upper
Factors associated with not reaching concentrations above the MIC during at least 50 % of the dosing interval				
Age (per year)	0.151	0.983	0.960	1.006
Interval between start AB and sampling (per day)	0.086	0.905	0.807	1.014
APACHE II score on admission (per point)	0.879	0.996	0.952	1.043
SOFA on the day of AB sampling (per point)	0.069	0.908	0.818	1.008
Cockroft-Gault CL _{CR} (per mL/min)	0.173	1.004	0.998	1.010
Trauma as an admission diagnosis	0.947	0.968	0.368	2.543
Surgery in the previous 24 h	0.681	0.828	0.337	2.034
Extended/continuous infusion (vs. intermittent)	0.027	0.340	0.131	0.882
Prophylaxis indication	0.067	2.088	0.949	4.595
Hosmer–Lemeshow goodness of fit, <i>p</i> = 0.928				
Factors associated with not reaching concentrations above the MIC during 100 % of the dosing interval				
Age (per year)	0.656	0.995	0.975	1.016
Interval between start AB and sampling (per day)	0.101	0.932	0.856	1.014
APACHE II score on admission (per point)	0.425	1.015	0.978	1.054
SOFA on the day of AB sampling (per point)	0.733	0.986	0.909	1.069
Cockroft-Gault CL _{CR} (per mL/min)	0.000	1.012	1.006	1.019
Ratio antibiotic dose to DD _{ICU}	0.338	0.977	0.991	1.003
Trauma as an admission diagnosis	0.056	2.596	0.977	6.899
Surgery in the previous 24 h	0.068	2.105	0.946	4.682
Extended/continuous infusion (vs. intermittent)	0.000	0.252	0.118	0.538
Prophylaxis indication	0.834	0.926	0.452	1.898
Hosmer–Lemeshow goodness of fit, <i>p</i> = 0.225				

AB antibiotic, APACHE acute physiology and chronic health evaluation, CL_{CR} creatinine clearance, SOFA sequential organ failure assessment

albeit guidelines that are derived from non-critically ill patients, which often fail to consider the unique physiology encountered within the ICU [17, 18]. As such, ‘one size fits all’, is unlikely to be an effective approach to β -lactam antibiotic dosing in this setting.

In the overall study population, use of intermittent infusion was the most significant factor associated with target non-attainment, both for 50 % and 100 % $fT_{>MIC}$. The type of infusion was such a significant covariate in the model that it eliminated the effects of other variables. When considering only patients receiving intermittent administration only, other factors, such as recent surgery and the interval between the start of the antibiotic and the sampling date, became statistically significant as determinants of target non-attainment. Specifically in these patients, the use of extended or continuous infusion could be used to increase antibiotic exposure.

Extended or continuous infusion has been demonstrated to increase target attainment in other studies, most of which involved dosing simulations [19–21]. This study confirms the important PK/PD effect of these infusion strategies, as illustrated by the striking influence in our multivariate model. In this respect, empiric extended or continuous infusion appears to be a very attractive means to counter the PK/PD variability observed in critically ill patients, although important clinical questions remain. Simulation data indeed demonstrate that extended and continuous infusion results in increased target attainment,

while recent publications also describe improved clinical outcomes. Dulhunty et al. reported that, compared to intermittent dosing, continuous infusion resulted in statistically significant higher plasma concentrations of meropenem on day 3 of therapy, but this was not statistically significant for piperacillin [22]. They also found increased clinical cure rates in patients treated with continuous infusion [22]. Systematic reviews, however, could not unequivocally demonstrate any clinical superiority of extended or continuous infusion strategies although these analyses have also included non-critically ill patients which may have obscured any therapeutic advantages [23–25]. Although we did not have data on the use of a loading dose at the start of therapy when extended infusion was used, this is a logical and necessary component and may also have contributed to improved target attainment.

Kidney function appears to be an equally important determinant, if maintaining adequate concentrations throughout the dosing interval is considered necessary. CL_{CR} influenced the probability of achieving 100 % $fT_{>MIC}$, with higher values reducing this likelihood. This was remarkably consistent across the most frequently used antibiotics as well as in the group of patients with respiratory tract infections. β -Lactam antibiotics are cleared renally from the circulation, with markedly higher clearances—as might be observed in patients with augmented renal clearance (ARC)—being associated with

Fig. 1 Multivariable analysis with target non-attainment as the dependent variable in patients treated with intermittent infusion. **a** Odds ratio (with 95 % confidence interval) of factors associated with not reaching concentrations above the MIC during at least 50 % of the dosing interval (Hosmer–Lemeshow goodness of fit, $p = 0.542$). **b** Odds ratio (with 95 % confidence interval) of factors with not reaching concentrations above the MIC during 100 % of the dosing interval (Hosmer–Lemeshow goodness of fit, $p = 0.272$)

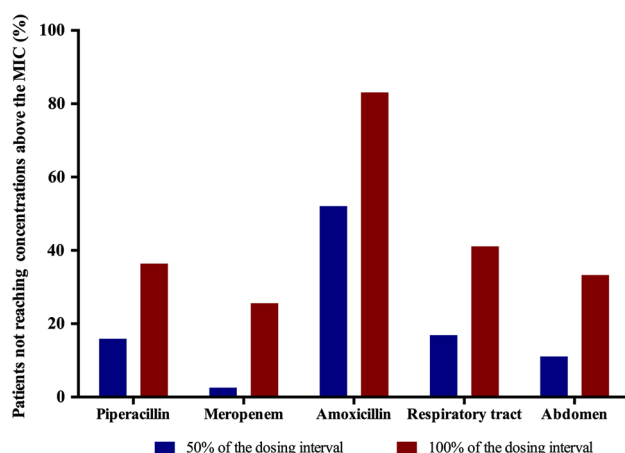
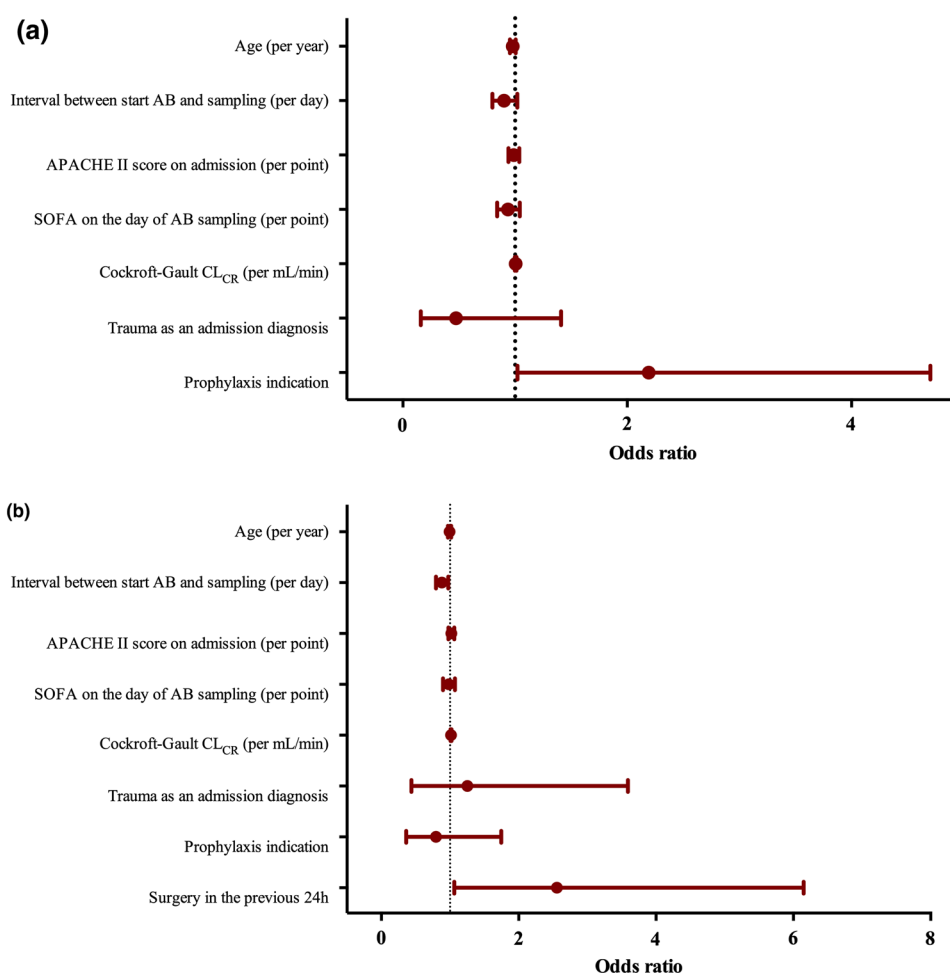


Fig. 2 Target non-attainment according to antibiotic administered most frequently (>50 patients) and major sites of infection

lower antibiotic exposure [5]. Of note, this was an **important** covariate in both the overall population, and in patients treated with intermittent administration only.

ARC is a frequent finding in the ICU [26, 27], and has been linked to specific patient populations such as burns or trauma [28, 29]. A recent study highlighted **young age** and **trauma** as **independent risk** factors as well as a **SOFA** score of **4 or less** [30]. In our study, CL_{CR} did not influence mid-dose target attainment, which is not necessarily a contradictory finding, because elimination of the drug will probably exert a more profound effect on the PK profile in the elimination phase of the dosing interval which is typically in the second half.

Although this study confirms the influence of dosing strategies and renal elimination on β -lactam antibiotic PK/PD target non-attainment, other factors were also identified. These include recent surgery and the interval between starting the antibiotic and sampling. There are a number of reasons why recent surgery affects antibiotic concentrations: intraoperative blood and fluid loss, perioperative fluid loading, systemic inflammation as a result of the surgical trauma, and increased circulating antidiuretic hormone levels [31].

The observation that the interval between starting antibiotic therapy and sampling influences antibiotic

concentrations in those patients receiving intermittent dosing is interesting. It follows that patients may be more likely to be underdosed at the beginning of treatment, with subsequent accumulation leading to higher concentrations—and potentially toxicity—in the steady state phase. Taccone et al. found that early concentrations of β -lactam antibiotics were often insufficient, although higher targets were used in that study [32]. This suggests a potential role for ‘front loading’ in the early days of treatment, with subsequent dose adaptation—likely downward—at a later stage [33]. The exact reason for this remains unclear, but changes in the volume of distribution of β -lactam antibiotics will certainly play a role. Furthermore, the observed increases in antibiotic concentrations may reflect an improvement in pathophysiology of the patient, with lower clearances when the infection is resolving [34]. Front loading may be clinically highly valuable as the bacterial inoculum is likely highest on day 1 of therapy and optimised drug dosing is likely to have a greater impact on patient outcome at this time.

In this study we evaluated two different PK/PD targets—50 % and 100 % $f T_{>MIC}$, and employed ‘worst-case’ MIC values, based on EUCAST cut-off levels, that represent only part of the epidemiological spectrum. Whereas the first target has been universally accepted on the basis of convincing animal data, the higher 100 % $f T_{>MIC}$ remains controversial. Data, however, are accumulating that greater β -lactam drug exposure is associated with improved outcomes in critically ill patients [1, 3, 13, 19].

We wish to declare the following limitations of this work. Despite sampling times being standardised across the study population, the dose, dosing interval and infusion strategy were not, and although severity of illness and other variables were considered, we may still have missed important elements that determine antibiotic concentrations. Also a detailed analysis of other factors that could have influenced antibiotic concentrations such as the primary diagnosis, differences in individual organ dysfunction, fluid administration or albumin concentrations was not possible. We did not collect samples throughout the course of the disease, and the within-patient variability remains unexplored. Measures of renal function employed a commonly used estimate (Cockcroft-Gault formula), although its accuracy in the critically ill—particularly those with ARC—remains questionable. Finally, our primary interest was in β -lactam PK in this setting, although the role of the causative microorganism, and its susceptibility, is equally important when effects on bacteriological and clinical outcomes are considered.

Although only 20 % of patients did not achieve the most conservative PK/PD targets, improved methods to identify these patients are still required. Even in patients who receive continuous or extended infusion, target attainment may be inadequate [9] and further research is

needed to further improve antibiotic exposure in these patients—notably when less susceptible or borderline resistant microorganisms are involved. In these cases, it may be that dose adjustment based on therapeutic drug monitoring results is the only approach that will ensure a higher proportion of patients achieve target beta-lactam exposures [35–39].

In conclusion, when simulating an empirical setting where a broad range of pathogens at the susceptibility breakpoint is targeted, we found that target attainment using conventional β -lactam antibiotic dosing was generally inadequate, on the basis of data obtained in the DALI study. Although several factors play a role, use of intermittent infusion resulted in a 3- to 4-fold increase in the likelihood of not reaching the desired PK/PD targets. Renal clearance was another important determinant, with fewer patients reaching concentrations above the MIC during the whole dosing interval, when CL_{CR} was high. Recent surgery and the interval between starting drug administration and sampling are two additional clinical characteristics associated with low antibiotic concentrations, both of which mandate further investigation.

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