

Systematic Review

Prolonged versus Intermittent Infusion of Antibiotics in Acute and Severe Infections: A Meta-analysis

Jieyu Luo, MD^{1*}; Jinli Liao, MD^{1*}; Ruibin Cai, MD¹; Jingjing Liu, MD²; Zhenhua Huang, MD¹; Yunjiu Cheng, MD^{3*}; Zhen Yang, MD^{1*}; Zhihao Liu, MD^{1*}

¹Division of Emergency Medicine, Department of General Internal Medicine, Department of Emergency Intensive Care Unit, The First Affiliated Hospital of Sun Yat-sen University, No.58, Zhongshan 2nd Road, Guangzhou, 510080, China

²Department of MRI, The First Affiliated Hospital of Zhengzhou University, No.1, Jianshedong Road, Zhengzhou, 450052, China

³Department of Cardiology, The First Affiliated Hospital of Sun Yat-sen University, No.58, Zhongshan 2nd Road, Guangzhou, 510080, China

Abstract

Background: Acute and severe infections are an absolute indication for the use of intravenous broad-spectrum antibiotics. However, previous studies have found inconsistent clinical advantages of prolonged (extended [≥ 3 -hour infusion] or continuous [24-hour fixed rate infusion]) over intermittent (6, or 8, or 12 interval hours infusion) infusion. The clinical superiority between prolonged and intermittent infusion in treating acute and severe infections thus continues to be elusive. We conducted a meta-analysis to summarize all published randomized controlled trials (RCTs), prospective and retrospective observational studies to determine whether prolonged infusion, compared to intermittent infusion, is correlated with lower mortality and better clinical outcome.

Methods: We performed a literature search using MEDLINE (source PubMed, January 1, 1966 to August 31, 2018) and EMBASE (January 1, 1980 to August 31, 2018) with no restrictions to collect RCTs and observational studies comparing prolonged infusion with intermittent infusion of the same intravenous administered antibiotics among adult hospitalized patients. A total of 43 studies including 30 RCTs, 5 prospective observational studies and 8 retrospective observational studies were identified.

Results: In comparison with intermittent infusion, prolonged infusion of antibiotics was associated with a reduction in all-cause mortality (pooled relative risk [RR] = 0.77, 95% confidence interval [CI] = 0.66–0.89) and improvement in clinical cure (RR = 1.11, 95% CI = 1.04–1.19), which was also observed in subgroups such as non-RCTs (mortality, RR = 0.63, 95% CI = 0.48–0.81; clinical cure RR = 1.33, 95% CI = 1.13–1.57) or studies with patients and APACHE II scores ≥ 15 (mortality, RR = 0.74, 95% CI 0.63–0.89; clinical cure RR = 1.19, 95% CI = 1.07–1.32). Moreover, in RCTs, mortality (RR = 0.86, 95% CI 0.72–1.03) between the two dosing strategies was not remarkably changed but clinical cure (RR = 1.07, 95% CI = 1.01–1.13) showed a significant advantage for prolonged infusion. Additionally, no significant differences in mortality between the two dosing strategies was found (RR = 0.87, 95% CI = 0.70–1.09) but a distinct improvement in clinical cure was observed (RR = 1.14, 95% CI = 1.02–1.28) in the prolonged infusion group for septic patients. Among two infusion modes, statistically significant severe adverse events were not reported (RR=0.83, 95% CI = 0.62–1.13).

Conclusion: Better outcomes in hospitalized patients, especially in those who were critical ill, were reported in prolonged infusion of intravenous antibiotics compared with traditional intermittent infusion.

Keywords: Antibiotics, Infections, Intermittent infusion, Prolonged infusion, Traditional infusion

Cite this article as: Luo J, Liao J, Cai R, Liu J, Huang Z, Cheng Y, et al. Prolonged versus intermittent infusion of antibiotics in acute and severe infections: a meta-analysis. Arch Iran Med. 2019;22(10):612–626.

Received: October 4, 2018, Accepted: June 23, 2019, ePublished: October 1, 2019

Introduction

Intravenous broad-spectrum antibiotics are comprehensively employed to treat acute and severe hospital- and community-acquired bacterial infections. However, the occurrence and spread of multiple-drug resistant infections caused by gram-negative and gram-positive bacteria have grown beyond control.¹⁻⁵ Despite deep global concern and advanced pharmaceutical technology, very few new antibiotics have been developed in the past several decades to solve the problem of antibiotics-resistant infection. Consequently, two dosing strategies including prolonged (continuous or extended) and intermittent intravenous antibiotic infusions have been mutually compared to

improve clinical efficacy.

Antibiotics are mainly categorized as either time-dependent or concentration-dependent antibiotics based on the pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic parameters related to antibacterial efficacy. Beta-lactams, carbapenem, clindamycin, and linezolid are time-dependent antibiotics which mean that they have antimicrobial efficacy only at serum concentration above the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC).⁶⁻⁸ Aminoglycosides, fluoroquinolones, and metronidazole are concentration-dependent antibiotics indicated that their antimicrobial efficacy depends on the peak plasma drug concentration over the MIC.^{9,10}

*Corresponding Authors: Zhihao Liu, MD; Zhen Yang, MD; and Yunjiu Cheng, MD; The First Affiliated Hospital of Sun Yat-Sen University, No.58, Zhongshan 2nd Road, Guangzhou, China. Tel: +86-18898423696; Email: liuzhiyu1012@hotmail.com, yangzhen10710710@163.com, cheng831011@sina.com, liuzhiyu1012@hotmail.com

#These authors contributed equally to this work.

Archive of SID

Since they are known for being short-lived, several time-dependent antibiotics are given with the concern that serum drug concentration will decrease below the MIC before the next infusion. To achieve optimal efficacy in time-dependent antibiotics such as β -lactam and vancomycin, extended (≥ 3 -hour infusion) or continuous (24-hour fixed rate infusion) prolonged infusion are administered aiming to extend serum drug concentration above MIC. Several studies have showed that the prolonged infusion mode of β -lactam maximally maintains serum drug concentration above MIC to potentially improve clinical outcomes.¹¹⁻¹⁴ In contrast, less attention has been given to the issue that alternative dosing strategies can be used to maximize bacterial killing in concentration-dependent antibiotics such as fluoroquinolones, azithromycin, or glycopeptides. Whether prolonged infusion in concentration-dependent antibiotics causes post-antibiotic effects and leads to better clinical outcomes, remains uncertain.

Previous studies have had some limitations in evaluating the clinical outcomes in prolonged and intermittent infusions, such as small sample size, clinical heterogeneity in participants and infections, study design, and single antibiotics or diseases.^{13,15-21} The purpose of this analysis was to address the issue of which dosing strategy, prolonged or intermittent infusion, leads to better results for patients with acute and severe infections. Comparisons between prolonged and intermittent infusions in time- and concentration-dependent antibiotics were performed for all-cause mortality, clinical cure, side effects, nephrological damages, severe infections with Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation (APACHE II) (one of ICU scoring system) score ≥ 15 , and septic infections.

Materials and Methods

Search Strategy

This meta-analysis followed the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses guidelines.²² Relevant studies were identified via the electronic databases MEDLINE (source PubMed, January 1, 1966 to August 31, 2018) and EMBASE (January 1, 1980 to August 31, 2018) using the following key words in combination both as MeSH terms and text words; 'continuous', 'prolonged', 'extended', 'intermittent', 'bolus', 'administration', 'infusion', 'interval', 'dosing', 'bolus', 'discontinuous'; with 'antibiotics', 'anti-microbial', 'anti-bacterial', 'beta-lactam', 'anti-microbial', 'penicillin', 'carbapenem', 'clindamycin', 'linezolid', 'carbapenem', 'aminoglycosides', 'fluoroquinolones', 'metronidazole'. We searched articles published in any language and scrutinized references from these articles to identify other relevant studies. A further citation search of each article was conducted.

Relevant Articles Selection

To minimize differences between studies, we imposed the following methodological restrictions for the following

inclusion criteria; 1) Studies that contained the minimum necessary information to assess the clinical efficacy and outcomes of these two types of antibiotics infusion. 2) Studies investigating treatment of acute and severe infections in adult hospitalized patients admitted to the ICU and non-ICU. 3) Studies comparing prolonged (continuous or extended) infusion of antibiotics with intermittent infusion of same antibiotics. Both randomized controlled trials (RCTs) and prospective/retrospective observational studies were included. In the case of multiple publications, the most up-to-date or comprehensive information was used.

Data Extraction and Quality Assessment

Articles were reviewed and cross-checked independently. Standardized data extraction forms were completed for all included studies. The following data were extracted from each study, if available; study design, country, number of patients, gender, age, ethnicity, comorbidities, severity of illness, ICU or non-ICU patient, infection type, causative pathogen, type of antibiotic, dosing mode, administration duration, all-cause mortality, clinical cure, adverse effects, nephrological damage, and APACHE scores ICU patients. If applicable, we used the most comprehensively adjusted risk estimates. RCTs were appraised for methodological quality using the modified Jadad scale.^{29,23} The nine-star Newcastle–Ottawa Scale (NOS), was used to assess the quality of non-randomized observational studies.²⁴

Definitions and Outcomes

In our review, prolonged infusion was defined as administration of either continuous or extended infusion of antibiotics in all related publications. A continuous intravenous infusion is the infusion of a fixed rate drug over 24 hours and an extended infusion is an intermittent infusion with duration of more than 3 hours. An intermittent infusion is considered to be an infusion that lasts between 20 and 60 minutes each time.

The main outcomes of this review, to evaluate the effects of antibiotics on acute and severe infections, were all-cause mortality and clinical cure in patients. In this review, the heterogeneity of study population, infection sites, signs or symptoms of infections, and clinical (fever, vital signs, etc) and paraclinical (leukocyte counts, bacterial culture results, sputum production, etc) findings were considered to analyze the clinical cure. The secondary outcome of the analysis was the occurrence of antibiotics-related adverse effects and nephrotoxicity. Adverse effects included *Clostridium difficile* colitis, renal failure, confusion, tachycardia, tonic-clonic seizure, allergic reaction, phlebitis, thrombocytopenia, and red man syndrome. Nephrotoxicity was defined as a serum creatinine level that increased >0.5 mg/dL or $>50\%$ from the baseline value, as a 50% reduction in the calculated creatinine clearance in comparison to the baseline value, or as a need for renal

Archive of SID

replacement therapy. In the subgroup analysis, the patients with APACHE II scores ≥ 15 or septic infection were evaluated and analyzed.

Data Analysis and Statistical Methods

This meta-analysis was performed using RevMan v.5.3 software (The Nordic Cochrane Centre, The Cochrane Collaboration, Copenhagen, Denmark). The heterogeneity between trials was appraised by χ^2 statistics. A P value of <0.01 was indicated statistical significance in the presence of heterogeneity. The I^2 statistic was used to characterize the extent of the inconsistencies. $I^2 > 50\%$ was indicated as considerable heterogeneity.²⁵ All reported outcomes were dichotomous. Pooled relative risks (RRs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for mortality and clinical cure were calculated by using the Mantel-Haenszel fixed-or random-effects model based on the heterogeneity observed in the included studies. Outcome analyses were further stratified according to the following; A) RCTs or non-RCTs, B) studies performed in critically ill patients with APECHE II ≥ 15 , C) studies conducted in patients with septic infection. A P -value of <0.05 was considered as statistically significant. Publication bias was evaluated visually using funnel plots of mortality and clinical cure.

Results

Study Selection and Characteristics

We identified potentially relevant published articles from a review of MEDLINE, and EMBASE. After removing duplicates, titles and abstracts were reviewed by three independent members of our study team. A total of 43 studies.²⁶⁻⁶⁷ with 3,610 patients were identified as eligible for our meta-analysis study including 30 RCTs, 5 prospective comparative studies and 8 retrospective studies that were published between 1977 and August 2018. The selection process is depicted in Figure 1.

The characteristics of the eligible studies are presented in Table 1. Overall, in 28 of the 43 studies (65%), the patients were admitted to the intensive care unit for treatment. A mean/median APACHE II score of ≥ 15 was observed in 14 studies (33%). Infections and organism types were varied, for instance there were gram-positive infections in 4 studies (9%) and gram-negative infections in 19 studies (44%).

Table 2 describes the β -lactam antibiotic, dose and infusion schedule for each study. β -lactam antibiotics were used in 32 of the 43 studies included ceftazidime (7 studies), cefamandole (1 study), piperacillin/tazobactam (11 studies), meropenem (5 studies), temocillin (1 study), oxacillin (1 study), cefoperazone (1 study), ceftriaxone (1 study), imipenem (1 study), cefotaxime (1 study), piperacillin (1 studies), cefepime (1 study). Aminoglycosides included sisomicin (1 study), tobramycin (1 study), and gentamicin (1 study). Vancomycin and oxazolidinone (linezolid) were used in 3 studies and 1 study,

respectively. Two studies contained patients administered with piperacillin/tazobactam, meropenem or ticarcillin/clavulanic acid. One study involved patients administered with piperacillin/tazobactam, meropenem or cefepime and another study enrolled the patients treated with piperacillin or meropenem. In all these studies, both study arms were shown to have comparable numbers for each group. Antibiotics were administered in the intervention arm via extended and continuous infusion in 6 and 36 studies, respectively as well as via extended and continuous infusion in 1 study. The 26 studies used equivalent total daily doses of antibiotics in both study arms.

All-Cause Mortality

A total of 32 studies reported all-cause mortality as an outcome. Among the 1436 patients enrolled in the prolonged infusion arm, there were 228 deaths compared to 295 deaths among the 1383 patients in the intermittent infusion arm, which indicated that there was a statistically significant mortality advantage to prolonged infusion (Figure 2A; RR = 0.77, 95% CI = 0.66–0.89). Stratification showed that a decreased mortality was associated with prolonged infusion in non-RCTs (Figure 2B; RR = 0.63, 95% CI = 0.48–0.81) but not in RCTs (RR = 0.86, 95% CI 0.72–1.03; Figure not shown). Subgroup analysis on time-dependent antibiotics and concentration-dependent antibiotics showed that prolonged infusion had a reduced mortality in the studies with time-dependent antibiotics and no significant difference was found between the two types of infusion in the studies with concentration-

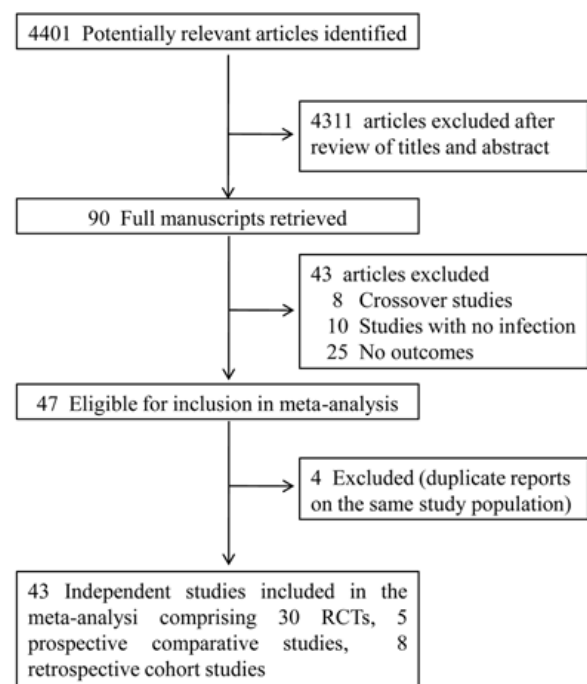


Figure 1. Flow Chart Depicting the Selection Process of Studies Included in the Meta-analysis.

Table 1. Characteristics of the Eligible Studies for Prolonged Infusion (PI) Versus Intermittent Infusion (II) of Antibiotics Included in the Meta-analysis

| Study | Study Design | Patient Population (Country) | Infection Type | Organism Isolated | Sample Size (Clinically Evaluable) | PI | | II | | Jadad or Newcastle-Ottawa scale |
|-----------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------|--|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| | | | | | | Mean/Median Age (y) | Mean/Median APECHE II Score | Mean/Median Age (y) | Mean/Median APECHE II Score | |
| Abdul-Aziz ²⁶ | RCT | ICU (Malaysia) | Sepsis | Various | 140 | 54 | 21 | 56 | 21 | 4 |
| Abdul-Aziz ²⁷ | Prospective study | ICU (Australia) | Various | Various | 182 | 56 | 20 | 64 | 18 | 5 |
| Adembri ²⁸ | RCT | ICU (Italy) | Sepsis | Gram-positive | 18 | 57 | N/S | 64 | N/S | 3 |
| Angus ²⁹ | RCT | N/S (Thailand) | Septicaemic melioidosis | Burkholderia pseudomallei | 21 | 48 | 15 | 43 | 21 | 1 |
| Bodley ³⁰ | RCT | Non-ICU; cancer patients (USA) | Various | Various | 204 | N/S | N/S | N/S | N/S | 3 |
| Buck ³¹ | RCT | Non-ICU (Germany) | Various | N/S | 24 | 61 | N/S | 60 | N/S | 2 |
| Buijk ³² | Prospective study | Surgical ICU (The Netherlands) | IAI | Gram-negative | 18 | 62 | 16 | 64 | 14 | 7 |
| Chytra ³³ | RCT | ICU (Czech Republic) | Various | Gram-negative | 214 | 45 | 21 | 47 | 22 | 2 |
| Cotrina-Luque ³⁴ | RCT | Non-ICU (Spain) | Various | <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> | 78 | 64.3 | N/S | 63.8 | N/S | 4 |
| Dejongh ³⁵ | RCT | N/S (Belgium) | Various | Various | 12 | 58 | 12 | 56 | 13 | 2 |
| Dow ³⁶ | Retrospective cohort | ICU (USA) | Various | Gram-negative | 121 | 58 | 24 | 60 | 25 | 8 |
| Dulhunty ³⁷ | RCT | ICU (Australia, Hong Kong) | Various; severe sepsis | Various | 60 | 54 | 21 | 60 | 23 | 5 |
| Dulhunty ³⁸ | RCT | ICU (Australia, Hong Kong) | Sepsis | Various | 432 | 64 | 130 | 65 | 135 | 5 |
| Fahimi ³⁹ | Prospective study | ICU (Iran) | VAP | Gram-negative | 61 | 49 | 19 | 58 | 20 | 7 |
| Feld ⁴⁰ | RCT | Non-ICU; cancer patients (USA) | Pneumonia, septicemia, soft tissue infection | Gram-negative | 120 | 43 | N/S | 46 | N/S | 2 |
| Feld ⁴¹ | RCT | Non-ICU(Canada) | granulocytopenia | Gram-negative | 70 | 56 | N/S | 50 | N/S | 2 |
| Georges ⁴² | RCT | ICU (France) | Nosocomial pneumonia | Gram-negative | 50 | 48 | N/S | 48 | N/S | 2 |
| Grant ⁴³ | Prospective study | N/S (USA) | Various | Various | 98 | 66 | 12 | 65 | 12 | 7 |
| Hanes ⁴⁴ | RCT | ICU/trauma patients (USA) | Pneumonia | Gram-negative | 31 | 34 | 14 | 36 | 11 | 2 |
| Hughes ⁴⁵ | Retrospective cohort | N/S (USA) | Infective endocarditis | MSSA | 107 | 40 | N/S | 45 | N/S | 7 |
| Lagast ⁴⁶ | RCT | N/S (Belgium) | Bacteraemia | Gram-negative | 45 | N/S | N/S | N/S | N/S | 2 |
| Lau ⁴⁷ | RCT | ICU (USA) | Abdominal infection | Various | 167 | 50 | 8 | 49 | 8 | 2 |
| Lodise ¹¹ | Retrospective cohort | Non-ICU (USA) | Various | <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> | 194 | 63 | 15 | 64 | 16 | 7 |

Table 1. Continued

| Study | Study Design | Patient Population (Country) | Infection Type | Organism Isolated | Sample Size (Clinically Evaluable) | PI | | II | | Jadad or Newcastle-Ottawa scale |
|--------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| | | | | | | Mean/Median Age (y) | Mean/Median APECHE II Score | Mean/Median Age (y) | Mean/Median APECHE II Score | |
| Lorente ⁴⁸ | Retrospective cohort | ICU (Spain) | VAP | Gram-negative | 89 | 57 | 15 | 56 | 15 | 7 |
| Lorente ⁴⁹ | Retrospective cohort | ICU (Spain) | VAP | Gram-negative | 121 | 63 | 16 | 63 | 16 | 8 |
| Lorente ⁵⁰ | Retrospective cohort | ICU (Spain) | VAP | Gram-negative | 83 | 63 | 16 | 62 | 16 | 8 |
| Lubasch ⁵¹ | RCT | N/S (Germany) | COPD exacerbation | Various | 73 | 65 | N/S | 65 | N/S | 1 |
| McNabb ⁵² | RCT | ICU (USA) | Nosocomial pneumonia | N/S | 35 | 46 | 13.9 | 56 | 15.5 | 2 |
| Nicolau ⁵³ | RCT | ICU (USA) | Pneumonia | Various | 35 | 46 | 14 | 56 | 16 | 3 |
| Patel ⁵⁴ | Retrospective cohort | N/S(USA) | Various | Gram-negative | 129 | 70 | 11 | 72 | 11 | 7 |
| Rafati ⁵⁵ | RCT | ICU (Iran) | Various | Gram-negative | 40 | 50 | 16 | 48 | 14 | 3 |
| Roberts ⁵⁶ | RCT | ICU (Australia) | Respiratory, IAI | Various | 50 | 43 | 19 | 52 | 16 | 4 |
| Roberts ⁵⁷ | RCT | ICU (Australia) | Sepsis | N/S | 10 | 57 | N/S | 55 | N/S | 3 |
| Roberts ⁵⁸ | RCT | ICU (Australia) | Sepsis | N/S | 13 | 24.5 | 17.5 | 42 | 24 | 2 |
| Roberts ⁵⁹ | RCT | ICU (Australia) | N/S | N/S | 16 | 30 | 20 | 41 | 24 | 2 |
| Sakka ⁶⁰ | RCT | Surgical ICU (Germany) | ICU-acquired pneumonia | Gram-negative | 2 | 62 | 26 | 59 | 2 | 2 |
| van Zanten ⁶¹ | RCT | ICU (The Netherlands) | COPD exacerbation | Various | 83 | 65 | N/S | 69 | N/S | 2 |
| Vuagnat ⁶² | Prospective study | Non-ICU (France) | Osteomyelitis | Staphylococcal infection | 44 | N/S | N/S | N/S | N/S | 3 |
| Wang ⁶³ | Retrospective cohort | ICU (China) | HAP | <i>Acinetobacter baumannii</i> | 30 | 44 | 20 | 40 | 17 | 7 |
| Wright ⁶⁴ | RCT | Non-ICU (South Africa) | Severe respiratory infection | N/S | 36 | N/S | N/S | N/S | N/S | 1 |
| Wysocki ⁶⁵ | Retrospective study | Non-ICU (France) | Various | MRSA | 26 | 61 | N/S | 67 | N/S | 3 |
| Wysocki ⁶⁶ | RCT | ICU (France) | Various | Staphylococcal infection | 160 | 64 | N/S | 62 | N/S | 4 |
| Zhao ⁶⁷ | RCT | ICU (China) | Sepsis | Various | 50 | 68 | 19.4 | 67 | 19.7 | 5 |

Table 2. Antibiotics Dosage Regimens of Eligible Studies for Prolonged Infusion (PI) Versus Intermittent Infusion (II) of Antibiotics Included in the Meta-analysis

| Study | Antibiotics | Intervention | PI Daily Dose | II Daily Dose | Equivalent Daily Dose? | Concomitant Antibiotic? |
|-----------------------------|---|-------------------------|--|--|------------------------|---|
| Abdul-Aziz ²⁶ | Cefepime (C) | Continuous | C: day 1: 2 g LD over 30 min + 2 g over 8h q8h; day 2: 2g over 8 h q8h. | C: 2 g over 30 min q8h. | Yes | Allowed: azithromycin; vancomycin; metronidazole; clindamycin; aminoglycosides; colistin |
| | Meropenem (M) | | M: day 1: 1g LD over 30 min+1g over 8h q8h; day 2: 1g over 8h q8h. | M: 1g over 30 min q8h | | |
| | Piperacillin/tazobactam (P) | | P: day 1: 4 g/0.5 g LD over 30 min+4g/0.5g over 6h q6h; day 2: 4g/0.5g over 6h q6h | P: 4 g/0.5 g over 30 min q6h | | |
| Abdul-Aziz ²⁷ | Piperacillin or Meropenem | Continuous and extended | N/S | N/S | Yes | N/S |
| Adembri ²⁸ | Linezolid | Continuous | Day 1: 300 mg LD over 30 min; 900 mg over 2 4h; Day 2: 1200 mg/daily | 600 mg q12h | Yes | N/S |
| Angus ²⁹ | Ceftazidime | Continuous | 12 mg/kg LD over 30 min; 4 mg/kg/h over 24h | 4 mg/kg q8h | Yes | Allowed: amoxicillin/clavulanic acid or combination of doxycycline, trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole and chloramphenicol |
| Bodey ³⁰ | Cefamandole | Continuous | 3g LD over 30 min; 12 g over 24h | 3 g q6h | Yes | Allowed: carbenicillin |
| Buck ³¹ | Piperacillin/tazobactam | Continuous | 2/0.5 g LD over 1h; 8/1 g over 24h | 4/0.5 g q8h | No | N/S |
| Buijk ³² | Ceftazidime | Continuous | 1 g LD/4.5 g over 24h | 1 g LD; 1.5 g q8h | Yes | Allowed |
| Chytra ³³ | Meropenem | Continuous | 2 g LD over 30 min; 4 g over 24h | 2 g q12h | Yes | Allowed |
| Cotrina-Luque ³⁴ | Piperacillin/tazobactam | Continuous | 2 g/0.25 g over 30 min + 8/1 g over 24h | 4 g/0.5g over 30 min q8h | No | N/S |
| DeJongh ³⁵ | Temocillin | Continuous | 2 g LD over 30 min; 4 g over 24h | 2 g q12h | Yes | Allowed: Flucloraxillin |
| Dow ³⁶ | Piperacillin/tazobactam | Extended | 3/0.375 g over 3-4 h q8h, 500mg q6h over 3-4h | 3/0.375g q6h, 500 mg q6h | Yes | Allowed |
| Dulhunty ³⁷ | Piperacillin/tazobactam, Meropenem, Ticarcillin/clavulanic acid | Continuous | 13.5 g total daily dose over 24h, 3 g total daily dose over 24h, 12.4-13.5 g total daily dose over 24h | 11.3-13.5 g given in divided doses, 3 g given in divided doses, 3 g given in divided doses | Yes | N/S |
| Dulhunty ³⁸ | Piperacillin-tazobactam, ticarcillin-clavulanate, meropenem | Continuous | Prescribed antibiotic over 24h | Prescribed antibiotic q8h | Yes | N/S |
| Fahimi ³⁹ | Piperacillin/tazobactam | Extended | 3/0.375g over 4h q8h | 3/0.375g q6h | No | Allowed |
| Feld ⁴⁰ | Sisomicin | Continuous | 30 mg/m2 LD over 30 min; 120 mg/m2 over 24h | 30 mg/m2 over 30 min q6h | Yes | N/S |
| Feld ⁴¹ | Tobramycin | Continuous | 60 mg/m2 LD over 30 min; 300 mg/m2 over 24h | 75 mg/m2 over 30 min q6h | Yes | Allowed: Cefamandole nafate |
| Georges ⁴² | Cefepime | Continuous | 4g over 24h | 2g q12h | Yes | Allowed: amikacin |
| Grant ⁴³ | Piperacillin/tazobactam | Continuous | 8/1 g or 12/1.5 g over 24h | 3/0.375 g q6h or 4/0.5g q8h | No | N/S |
| Hanes ⁴⁴ | Ceftazidime | Continuous | 2 g LD over 30 min; 4 g over 24h | 2 g q8h | No | N/S |

Table 2. Continued

| Study | Antibiotics | Intervention | PI Daily Dose | II Daily Dose | Equivalent Daily Dose? | Concomitant Antibiotic? |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|--------------|--|---|------------------------|---|
| Hughes ⁴⁵ | Oxacillin | Continuous | 12 g over 24h | 2 g q4h | Yes | Allowed: gentamicin |
| Lagast ⁴⁶ | Cefoperazone | Continuous | 1g LD over 15 min; 4g over 24h | 2 g q12h | Yes | N/S |
| Lau ⁴⁷ | Piperacillin/tazobactam | Continuous | 2/0.25 g LD over 30 min; 12/1.5 g over 24h | 3/0.375 g q6h | Yes | N/S |
| Lodise ¹¹ | Piperacillin/tazobactam | Extended | 3/0.375 g over 4h q8h | 3/0.375 g q4h or q6h | No | Allowed: fluoroquinolone; gentamicin |
| Lorente ⁴⁸ | Meropenem | Continuous | 1 g LD over 30 min; 4 g over 24h | 1 g q6h | Yes | Allowed: tobramycin |
| Lorente ⁴⁹ | Ceftazidime | Continuous | 1 g LD over 30 min; 4 g over 24h | 2 g q12h | Yes | Allowed: tobramycin |
| Lorente ⁵⁰ | Piperacillin/tazobactam | Continuous | 4/0.5 g LD over 30 min; 16/2 g over 24h | 4/0.5 g q6h | Yes | Allowed: tobramycin |
| Lubasch ⁵¹ | Ceftazidime | Extended | 2 g LD over 30 min; 2 g over 7h q12h | 2 g q8h | No | N/S |
| McNabb ⁵² | Ceftazidime | Continuous | 3 g/d over 24h | 2 g/d q8h | No | Allowed: tobramycin |
| Nicolau ⁵³ | Ceftazidime | Continuous | 1 g LD over 30 min; 3 g over 24h | 2 g q8h | No | Allowed: tobramycin |
| Patel ⁵⁴ | Piperacillin/tazobactam | Extended | 3/0.375 g over 4h q8h | 3/0.375 g or 4/0.5 g q6h-q8h | No | Allowed: a minoglycoside; fluoroquinolone |
| Rafat ⁵⁵ | Piperacillin | Continuous | 2 g LD over 30 min; 8 g over 24h | 2 g LD; 3g q6h | No | Allowed: amikacin |
| Roberts ⁵⁶ | Ceftriaxone | Continuous | 0.5 g LD; 2g over 24h | 0.5 g LD; 2g q24h | Yes | Allowed |
| Roberts ⁵⁷ | Meropenem | Continuous | 500 mg LD over 3 min; 3 g over 24h | 1.5 g LD over 5 min; 1g q8h | Yes | N/S |
| Roberts ⁵⁸ | Piperacillin-tazobactam | Continuous | Day 1: 4 g/0.5 g over 20 min+ 8/1 g over 24 h ; Day2: 12g/1.5 g over 24h | 4 g/0.5 g q6h or q8h | Yes | N/S |
| Roberts ⁵⁹ | Piperacillin/tazobactam | Continuous | 4/0.5g LD over 20 min; 12/1.5g over 24h | 4/0.5 g q6h-q8h | Yes | N/S |
| Sakka ⁶⁰ | Imipenem/cilastatin | Continuous | 1/1 g LD over 40 min; 2/2g over 24h | 1/1 g q8h | No | N/S |
| van Zanten ⁶¹ | Cefotaxime | Continuous | 1g LD over 30 min; 2g over 24h | 1 g q8 h | No | N/S |
| Vuagnat ⁶² | Vancomycin | Continuous | 20 mg/kg LD over 60 min+40 mg/kg over 24h | 20 mg/kg LD over 60 min+20 mg/kg over 60 min q12h | Yes | N/S |
| Wang ⁶³ | Meropenem | Extended | 500 mg over 3h q6h | 1g q8h | No | N/S |
| Wright ⁶⁴ | Gentamicin | Continuous | 60 mg/m2 over 8 h q8h | 60 mg/m2 over 30 min q8h | Yes | Allowed: penicillin |
| Wysocki ⁶⁵ | Vancomycin | Continuous | 15 mg/kg LD over 1h+30 mg/kg over 23h | 15 mg/kg over 1h q12h | Yes | N/S |
| Wysocki ⁶⁶ | Vancomycin | Continuous | 15 mg/kg LD over 1h+30 mg/kg over 23h | 15 mg/kg over 1h q12h | Yes | N/S |
| Zhao ⁶⁷ | Meropenem | Continuous | 0.5 g LD+ 3g over 24h | 1.5 g LD+1g q8h | No | N/S |

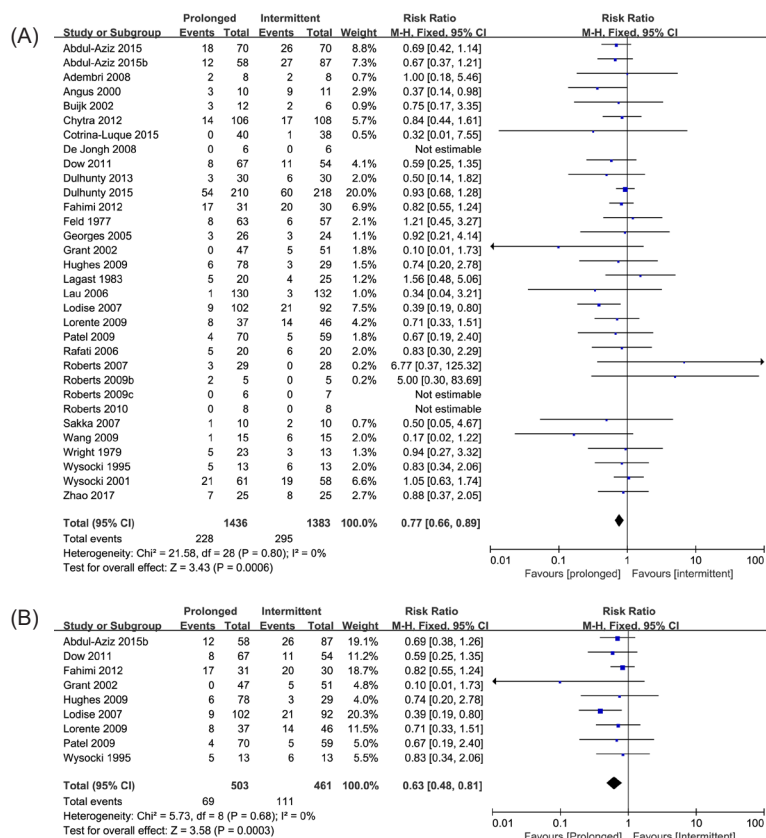


Figure 2. A) Forest plot summary of the pooled relative risks (RRs) of the studies comparing all-cause mortality in patients receiving prolonged and intermittent infusion. **B)** Forest plot summary of the pooled relative risks (RRs) of the non-RCTs comparing all-cause mortality in patients receiving prolonged and intermittent infusion.

dependent antibiotics (Figure S1 and S2, see online Supplementary file 1). Moreover, analysis with specific APACHE II scores indicated that the mortality rate was much more lower in critically ill patients with APACHE II scores ≥ 15 when prolonged infusion was used (Figure 3A; RR=0.74, 95% CI=0.63–0.89). Additionally, in the studies with septic patients, the mortality rate in the patients receiving prolonged infusion was not significantly lower than those receiving intermittent infusion (Figure 3B; RR=0.87, 95% CI=0.70–1.09). Overall, based on qualitative and quantitative exploration, no conclusive evidence of reporting bias was found.

Clinical Cure

Pooled outcomes of 27 studies (2460 patients) exhibited a statistically significant benefit in clinical cure in the patients with prolonged infusion, compared with intermittent infusion (Figure 4A; RR=1.11, 95% CI=1.04–1.19). Similar to the mortality results, a statistically significant advantage in clinical cure was detected in non-RCTs (Figure 4B; RR=1.33, 95% CI 1.13–1.57) and in RTCs (RR=1.07, 95% CI 1.01–1.13; Figure not shown). In the subgroups analysis, there was statistically significant a better clinical cure rate in patients with APACHE II score ≥ 15 receiving prolonged infusion than those receiving intermittent infusion (RR=1.19, 95% CI=1.07–1.32;

Figure not shown). However, the clinical cure in studies with septic patients showed no difference between prolonged and intermittent infusion (RR=1.14, 95% CI=1.02–1.28; Figure not shown).

Serious Side Effects

Twelve studies reported serious side effects during antibiotic administration. Antibiotic-related adverse drug events were generally mild, and none were associated with mortality. Gastrointestinal manifestations were minor and included nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, and transient elevation in liver enzymes. Kidney injury also was also reported, including elevated serum creatinine and urea levels. No statistically significant differences in severe antibiotic side effects between the study arms were observed (Figure 5; RR=0.83, 95% CI=0.62–1.13).

Heterogeneity and Publication Bias

The included studies exhibited a large variation in sample sizes and clinical settings. There was no statistically significant heterogeneity among studies evaluating mortality ($I^2=0\%$, $P=0.80$), among RCTs evaluating mortality ($I^2=0\%$, $P=0.79$), among non-RCTs evaluating mortality ($I^2=0\%$, $P=0.68$), among RCTs evaluating clinical cure ($I^2=2\%$, $P=0.44$), among studies evaluating serious side effects ($I^2=19\%$, $P=0.28$), among patients

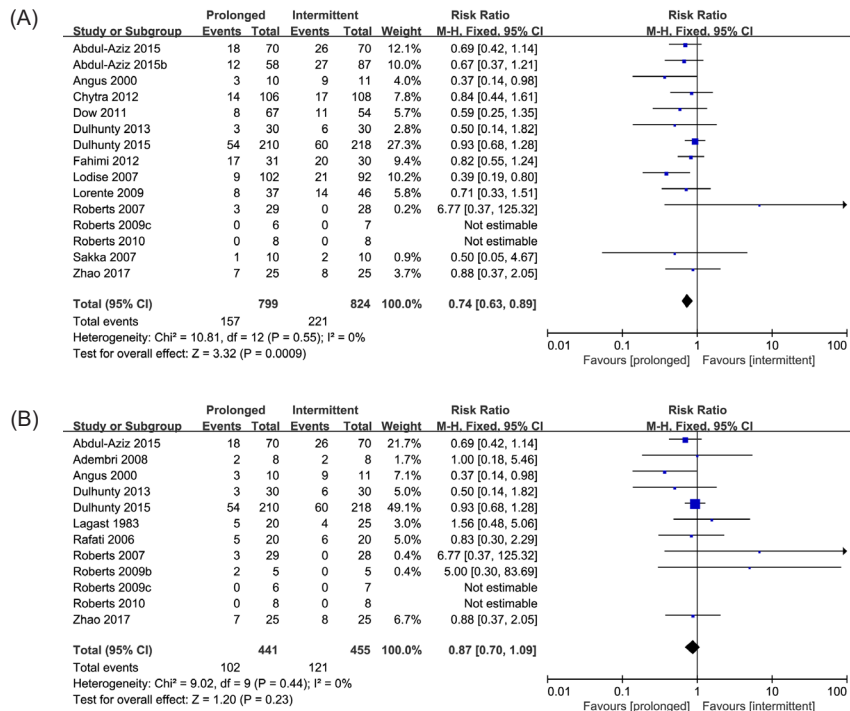


Figure 3. A) Forest plot summary of the pooled relative risks (RRs) of the studies with APACHE II score ≥ 15 comparing all-cause mortality in patients receiving prolonged and intermittent infusion. B) Forest plot summary of the pooled relative risks (RRs) of the studies with septic patients comparing all-cause mortality in patients receiving prolonged and intermittent infusion.

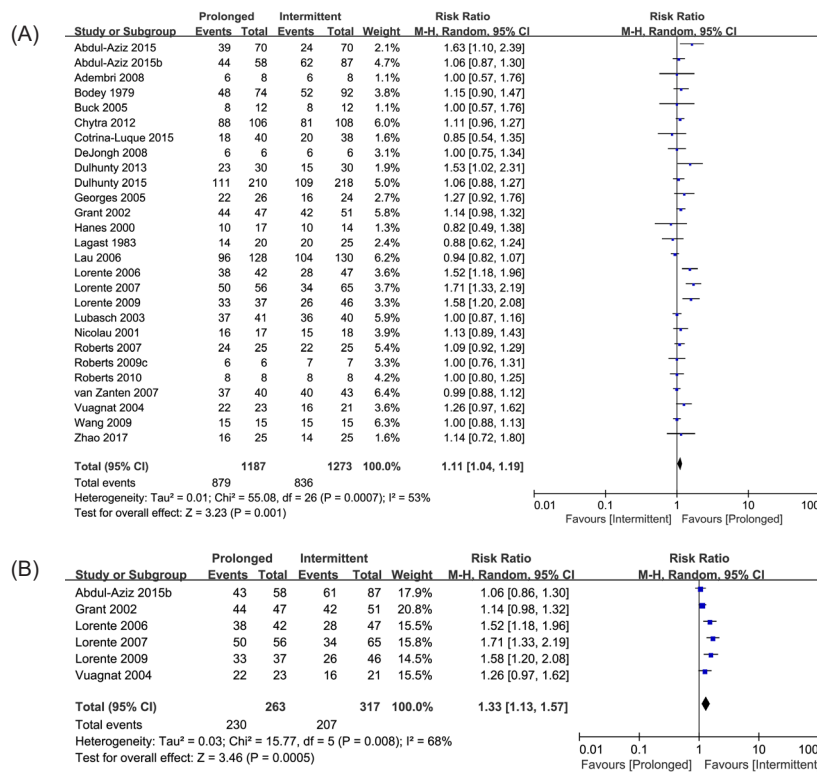


Figure 4. A) Forest plot summary of the pooled relative risks (RRs) of the studies comparing clinical cure in patients receiving prolonged and intermittent infusion. B) Forest plot summary of the pooled relative risks (RRs) of the non-RCTs comparing clinical cure in patients receiving prolonged and intermittent infusion.

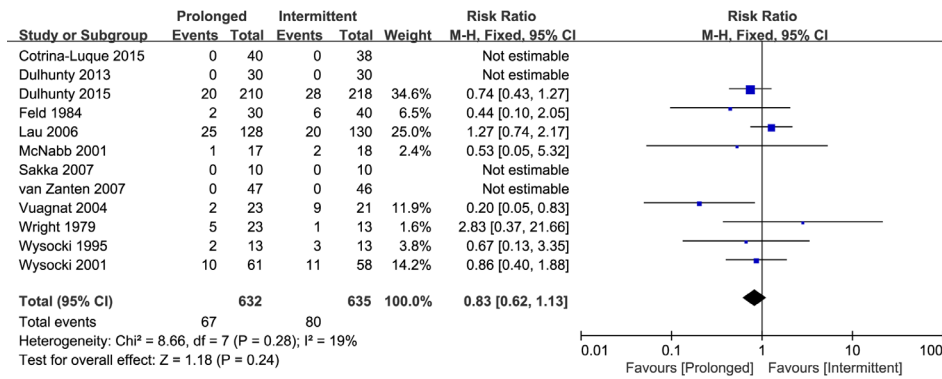


Figure 5. Forest Plot Summary of the Pooled Relative Risks (RRs) of the Studies Comparing Severe Adverse Events in Patients Receiving Prolonged and Intermittent Infusion.

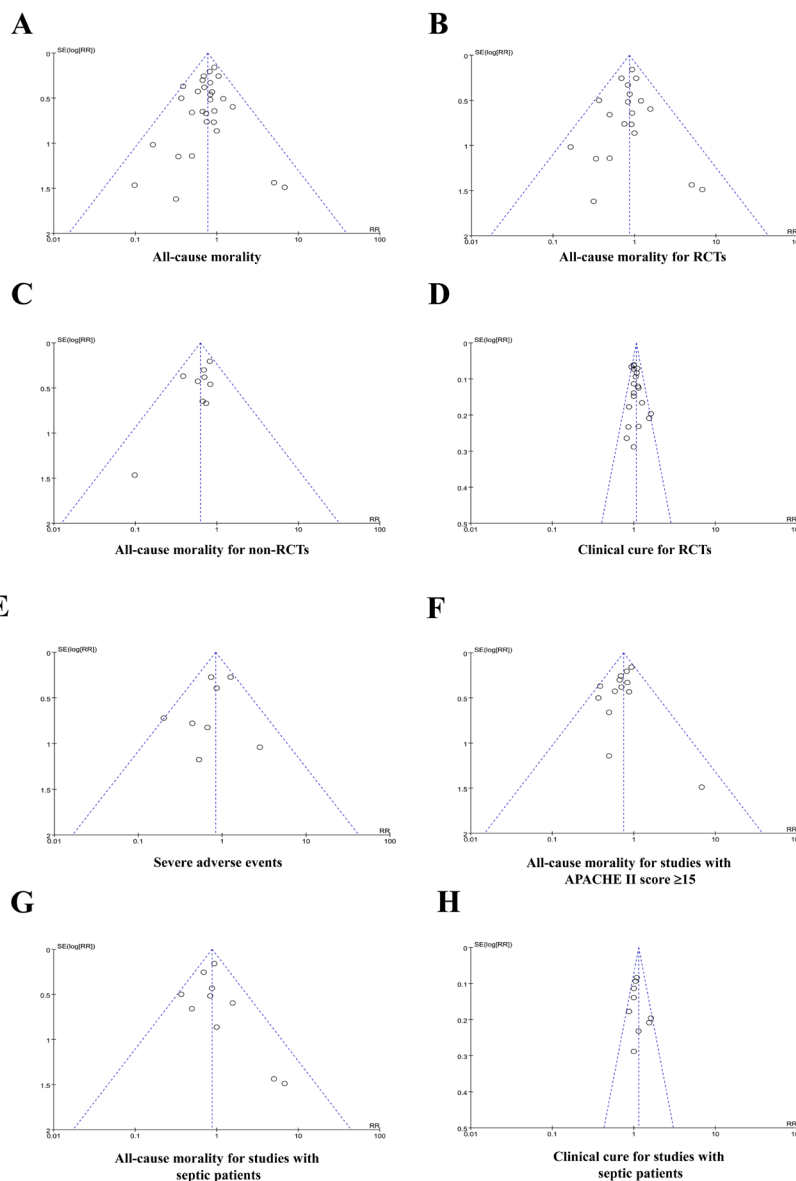


Figure 6. Funnel plots demonstrating low probability of publication bias in studies successively evaluating 1) all-cause mortality, 2) mortality for RCTs, 3) mortality for non-RCTs, 4) clinical cure, 5) severe adverse events, 6) mortality in patients with APACHE II score ≥ 15 , 7) mortality in septic patients, and 8) clinical cure in septic patients.

with APACHE II score ≥ 15 evaluating mortality ($I^2=0\%$, $P=0.55$), among septic patients evaluating mortality ($I^2=0\%$, $P=0.87$), and among septic patients evaluating clinical cure ($I^2=26\%$, $P=0.21$) (Figure 6). However, significant heterogeneity was observed among studies assessing clinical cure ($I^2=53\%$, $P=0.0007$), among non-RCTs assessing clinical cure ($I^2=68\%$, $P=0.008$), and among patients with APACHE II score ≥ 15 assessing clinical cure ($I^2=65\%$, $P=0.0006$) (Figure 7). Visual inspection of the funnel plot comparing the effect measures of the primary outcomes for each study with its precision did not suggest asymmetry (Figure 6). No or little publication bias was detected.

Discussion

Several meta-analyses and reviews studies comparing prolonged and intermittent infusion of different antibiotics have been conducted previously.^{15,16,21,68-76} Our present meta-analysis included 30 RCTs and 13 non-RCTs (5 prospective comparative studies and 8 retrospective cohort studies), which means it is the largest comprehensive analysis to date, and a wide range of antibiotics, infections, and organisms were also involved. The wide range of studies used in the present meta-analyses may allow the results to be broadly generalized. Our study is also one of the few studies showing a significant reduction in mortality and clinical cure improvement favor prolonged infusion of antibiotics in hospitalized patients over intermittent infusion. However, stratified analysis showed that the clinical benefits in all-cause mortality from prolonged infusion were attributable to the involved non-RCTs, because of the non-statistically significant results from the RCTs were as consistent as those of previous studies that involved RCTs alone.^{19,68,669,73-75}

A possible explanation for the significant improvement in all-cause mortality from prolonged infusion among the non-RCTs (prospective and retrospective studies) compared with RCTs could be the difference in the sample size and specific organism in the study design. The average sample size of each non-RCTs was much larger than RCTs for all-cause mortality. There were 9 non-RCTs with 964 participants and 23 RCTs with 1855 participants (Figure

2A). Moreover, most solely gram-negative infections have been reported in non-RCTs compared to RCTs (Table 1). Gram-negative pathogen may be susceptible to β -lactams treatment. A previous study indicated that β -lactams with prolonged infusion had better clinical outcomes than intermittent infusion for gram-negative infections.^{16,38} Since the non-RCTs with relatively large sample sizes and gram-negative infections were most likely to demonstrate the benefits of prolonged infusion, the influence may be detected in these studies. In addition, we also found that the prolonged infusion of time-dependent antibiotics had better outcome than intermittent infusion which was consistent with the previous studies,¹¹⁻¹⁴ suggesting that serum drug concentration above MIC can improve clinical outcomes. In the studies with concentration-dependent antibiotics, there were only two studies included in subgroup analysis which affected its statistical validity.

Previous studies have reported discrepant results in the clinical benefits of prolonged infusion in RCTs, which have been deeply discussed.^{68,69,73,74,76} The potential effective factors to explain these inconsistency in the results of previous studies are small sample sizes, variation in clinical setting such as heterogeneous patients and disease severity, poor study quality, and renal dysfunction, which all can have an impact on the outcomes.^{68,76} In our meta-analysis, the number of RCTs and non-RCTs included were 30 and 13 respectively, which are more compared to previous studies. Larger sample size could help to avoid the study bias as much as possible. Additionally, in some of the study population from the RCTs, who were composed of ICU patients, low mortality rates and low APACHE II scores may not be truly 'critically ill' and instead reflect participants with lower-risk. For example, study from Lau et al in the year 2006 exhibited a mortality rate of 1.5% and APACHE II score of 8,⁴⁷ whereas in a study by Chytra et al in 2012, the hospital mortality rates in critically ill participants was 15.5% and average of APACHE II score was 21.75.³³ The differences between study populations with heterogeneous clinical settings may affect the conclusions of different meta-analysis.

In our study, the critically ill patients and patients with APACHE II scores ≥ 15 who have been treated with

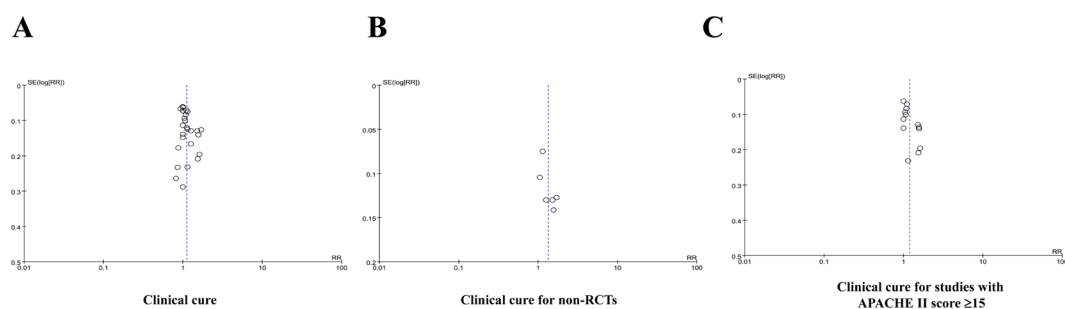


Figure 7. Funnel plots demonstrating relative high probability of publication bias in studies successively evaluating 1) clinical cure, 2) clinical cure in non-RCTs, and 3) clinical cure in patients with APACHE II score ≥ 15 .

Archive of SID

prolonged infusion had low mortality rates and better clinical cure. Augmented volume of integral distribution and accelerated drug clearance may elicit lower initial and reduced drug concentrations.⁶ Extended and continuous infusion was more likely to maintain tough concentrations above the MIC in critically ill patients than intermittent infusion.⁶⁸ Increased MICs of organisms and decreased drug concentration may jointly reduce the probability of clinical cure when using intermittent infusion, which is further confirmed by our findings that septic patients with prolonged infusion had statistically significant clinical cure rates over intermittent infusion, although two dosing strategies had no significant difference in all-cause mortality rates in septic patients. Moreover, the two dosing strategies had no remarkable difference in severe adverse effects. Taken together, our results tend to support the choice of prolonged infusion of antibiotics for critically ill patients.

One limitation of the present study was that some involved clinical research did not provide infection-caused microbiological evidence and its susceptibility profiles, especially in older studies with low precision methodology in organism detection. It is inevitable that inappropriate antibiotic treatments and highly resistant organisms may be linked to increased mortality rates in some studies. Another limitation was our statistical analysis included retrospective studies which by nature have a risk of selection bias and make it difficult to control for confounding factors.

In conclusion, our meta-analysis data has shown that prolonged infusion of antibiotics may be associated with clinical benefits, less side effects, lower hospital mortality and higher rate of clinical cure than intermittent infusion. Critically illness patients, including patients with sepsis or APACHE II score ≥ 15 , probably derive the most benefit from prolonged infusion.

Authors' Contribution

JY Luo and JL Liao contributed equally to this work; ZH Liu, Z Yang and YJ Cheng designed the research and analyzed the data; ZH Liu, JL Liao, RB Cai, JJ Liu, ZH Huang performed the retrieval; ZH Liu and JY Luo wrote the paper.

Conflict of Interest Disclosures

The authors have declared that no competing interests.

Ethical Statement

Not applicable.

Acknowledgments

The study was supported in part by grants from National Natural Scientific Foundation of China (81602660), Guangdong Natural Science Foundation (2016A030310159). The study was also financially supported by the grants from National Natural Scientific Foundation of China (81670220, 31270992, and 30800215), the project of Guangdong Province Science and Technology Plan (2015A020212013), the Fundamental Research Funds for Central Universities in Sun Yat-Sen University (grant numbers 17ykzd18 and 13ykpy24), and the project of science and technology program

of Guangzhou City (201803010008).

Supplementary Materials

Supplementary file 1 contains Figures S1-S2.

References

- Rosenthal VD, Bijie H, Maki DG, Mehta Y, Apisarnthanarak A, Medeiros EA, et al. International nosocomial infection control consortium (INICC) report, data summary of 36 countries, for 2004–2009. *Am J Infect Control*. 2012;40(5):396-407. doi: 10.1016/j.ajic.2011.05.020.
- Ghafourian S, Sekawi Z, Sadeghifard N, Mohebi R, Neela VK, Maleki A, et al. The prevalence of ESBLs producing *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolates in some major hospitals, Iran. *Open Microbiol J*. 2011;5:91-5. doi: 10.2174/1874285801105010091.
- Meyer E, Ziegler R, Mattner F, Schwab F, Gastmeier P, Martin M. Increase of patients co-colonised or co-infected with methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, vancomycin-resistant *Enterococcus faecium* or extended-spectrum B-lactamase-producing *Enterobacteriaceae*. *Infection*. 2011;39(6):501-6. doi: 10.1007/s15010-011-0154-0.
- Neidell MJ, Cohen B, Furuya Y, Hill J, Jeon CY, Glied S, et al. Costs of healthcare- and community-associated infections with antimicrobial-resistance versus susceptible organisms. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2012;55(6):807-15. doi: 10.1093/cid/cis552.
- Sunenshine RH, Wright MO, Maragakis LL, Harris AD, Song X, Hebden J, et al. Multidrug-resistant *Acinetobacter* infection mortality rate and length of hospitalization. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2007;13(1):97-103. doi: 10.3201/eid1301.060716
- Roberts JA, Lipman J. Antibacterial dosing in intensive care: pharmacokinetics, degree of disease and pharmacodynamics of sepsis. *Clinical Pharmacokinetics*. 2006;45(8):755–73. doi: 10.2165/00003088-200645080-00001
- McKinnon PS, Paladino JA, Schentag JJ. Evaluation of area under the inhibitory curve (AUC) and time above the minimum inhibitory concentration ($T > MIC$) as predictors of outcome for cefepime and ceftazidime in serious bacterial infections. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*. 2008;31(4):345-51. doi: 10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2007.12.009.
- van Zanten AR. The jury is still out on continuous infusion of B-lactam antibiotics in intensive care patients. *Crit Care Med*. 2009;37(6):2137-8. doi: 10.1097/CCM.0b013e3181a0e3ff.
- Craig WA. Pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic parameters: rationale for antibacterial dosing of mice and men. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1998;26(1):1-10. doi: 10.1086/516284.
- Moore RD, Lietman PS, Smith CR. Clinical response to aminoglycoside therapy: importance of the ratio of peak concentration to minimal inhibitory concentration. *J Infect Dis*. 1987;155(1):93-9. doi: 10.1093/infdis/155.1.93
- Lodise TP Jr, Lomaestro B, Drusano GL. Piperacillin-tazobactam for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infection: clinical implications of an extended-infusion dosing strategy. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2007;44(3):357-63. doi: 10.1086/510590
- Mohd Hafiz AA, Staatz CE, Kirkpatrick CM, Lipman J, Roberts JA. Continuous infusion vs. bolus dosing: implications for β -lactam antibiotics. *Minerva Anesthesiol*. 2012;78(1):94-104. doi: 10.1087/510678.
- Roberts JA, Abdul-Aziz MH, Davis JS, Dulhunty JM, Cotta MO, Myburgh J, et al. Continuous versus intermittent β -lactam infusion in severe sepsis. a meta-analysis of individual patient data from randomized trials. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2016;194(6):681-91. doi: 10.1164/rccm.201601-0024OC.
- Dulhunty JM, Roberts JA, Davis JS, Webb SA, Bellomo R, Gomersall C, et al. A multicenter randomized trial of continuous versus intermittent β -lactam infusion in severe sepsis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2015;192(11):1298-305. doi: 10.1164/rccm.201505-0857OC.


15. Korbila IP, Tansarli GS, Karageorgopoulos DE, Vardakas KZ, Falagas ME. Extended or continuous versus short-term intravenous infusion of cephalosporins: a meta-analysis. *Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther.* 2013;11(6):585-95. doi: 10.1586/eri.13.44.
16. Falagas ME, Tansarli GS, Ikawa K, Vardakas KZ. Clinical outcomes with extended or continuous versus short-term intravenous infusion of carbapenems and piperacillin/tazobactam: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2013;56(2):272-82. doi: 10.1093/cid/cis857.
17. Roberts JA, Webb S, Paterson D, Ho KM, Lipman J. A systematic review on clinical benefits of continuous administration of β -lactam antibiotics. *Crit Care Med.* 2009;37(6):2071-8. doi: 10.1097/CCM.0b013e3181a0054d.
18. Tamma PD, Putcha N, Suh YD, Van Arendonk KJ, Rinke ML. Does prolonged β -lactam infusions improve clinical outcomes compared to intermittent infusions? A meta-analysis and systematic review of randomized, controlled trials. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2011;11:181. doi: 10.1186/1471-2334-11-181.
19. Shiu J, Wang E, Tejani AM, Wasdell M. Continuous versus intermittent infusions of antibiotics for the treatment of severe acute infections. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2013;(3):CD008481. doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD008481.pub2.
20. Kasiakou SK, Sermaidis GJ, Michalopoulos A, Soteriades ES, Falagas ME. Continuous versus intermittent intravenous administration of antibiotics: a meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. *Lancet Infect Dis.* 2005;5:581-9. doi: 10.1016/S1473-3099(05)70218-8.
21. Teo J, Liew Y, Lee W, Kwa AL. Prolonged infusion versus intermittent boluses of β -lactam antibiotics for treatment of acute infections: a meta-analysis. *Int J Antimicrob Agents.* 2014;43(5):403-11. doi: 10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2014.01.027.
22. Moher D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, Altman DG; PRISMA Group. Preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses: the PRISMA statement. *PLoS Med.* 2009;6(7):e1000097. doi: 10.1371/journal.pmed.1000097.
23. Jadad AR, Moore RA, Carroll D, Jenkinson C, Reynolds DJ, Gavaghan DJ, et al. Assessing the quality of reports of randomized clinical trials: Is blinding necessary? *Control Clin Trials.* 1996;17:1-12. doi: 10.1016/S1574-4099(08)70117-9.
24. Deeks JJ, Dinnes J, D'Amico R, Sowden AJ, Sakarovich C, Song F, et al. Evaluating non-randomised intervention studies. *Health Technol Assess.* 2003;7:iii-x, 1-173.
25. Chytra I, Stepan M, Benes J, Pelnar P, Zidkova A, Bergerova T, et al. Clinical and microbiological efficacy of continuous versus intermittent application of meropenem in critically ill patients: a randomized open-label controlled trial. *Crit Care.* 2012;16(3):R113. doi: 10.1186/cc11405.
26. Abdul-Aziz MH, Sulaiman H, Mat-Nor MB, Rai V, Wong KK, Hasan MS, et al. Beta-Lactam Infusion in Severe Sepsis (BLISS): a prospective, two centre, open labelled randomised controlled trial of continuous versus intermittent beta-lactam infusion in critically ill patients with severe sepsis. *Intensive Care Med.* 2016;42(10):1535-45. doi: 10.1007/s00134-015-4188-0.
27. Abdul-Aziz MH, Lipman J, Akova M, Bassetti M, De Waele JJ, Dimopoulos G, et al. Is prolonged infusion of piperacillin/tazobactam and meropenem in critically ill patients associated with improved pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic and patient outcomes? An observation from the Defining Antibiotic Levels in Intensive care unit patients (DALI) cohort. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2016;71(1):196-207. doi: 10.1093/jac/dkv288.
28. Adembri C, Fallani S, Cassetta MI, Arrigucci S, Ottaviano A, Pecile P, et al. Linezolid pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic profile in critically ill septic patients: intermittent versus continuous infusion. *Int J Antimicrob Agents.* 2008;31(2):122-9. doi: 10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2007.09.009
29. Angus BJ, Smith MD, Suputtamongkol Y, Mattie H, Walsh AL, Wuthiekanun V, et al. Pharmacokinetic-pharmacodynamic evaluation of ceftazidime continuous infusion vs intermittent bolus injection in septicemic melioidosis. *Br J Clin Pharmacol.* 2000;49(5):445-52. doi: 10.1046/j.1365-2125.2000.00179.x
30. Bodey GP, Ketchel SJ, Rodriguez V. A randomized study of carbenicillin plus cefamandole or tobramycin in the treatment of febrile episodes in cancer patients. *Am J Med.* 1979;67(4):608-16. doi: 10.1016/0002-9343(79)90242-0
31. Buck C, Bertram N, Ackermann T, Sauerbruch T, Derendorf H, Paar WD. Pharmacokinetics of piperacillin-tazobactam: intermittent dosing versus continuous infusion. *Int J Antimicrob Agents.* 2005;25(1):62-7. doi: 10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2004.08.012
32. Buijk SL, Gyssens IC, Mouton JW, Van Vliet A, Verbrugh HA, Bruining HA. Pharmacokinetics of ceftazidime in serum and peritoneal exudate during continuous versus intermittent administration to patients with severe intra-abdominal infections. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2002;49(1):121-8. doi: 10.1093/jac/49.1.121
33. Chytra L, Stepan M, Benes J, Pelnar P, Zidkova A, Bergerova T, et al. Clinical and microbiological efficacy of continuous versus intermittent application of meropenem in critically ill patients: a randomized open-label controlled trial. *Crit Care.* 2012;16(3):R113. doi: 10.1186/cc11405.
34. Cotrina-Luque J, Gil-Navarro MV, Acosta-García H, Alfaro-Lara ER, Luque-Márquez R, Beltrán-García M, et al. Continuous versus intermittent piperacillin/tazobactam infusion in infection due to or suspected pseudomonas aeruginosa. *Int J Clin Pharm.* 2016;38(1):70-9. doi: 10.1007/s11096-015-0208-y
35. De Jongh R, Hens R, Basma V, Mouton JW, Tulkens PM, Carryn S. Continuous versus intermittent infusion of temocillin, a directed spectrum penicillin for intensive care patients with nosocomial pneumonia: stability, compatibility, population pharmacokinetic studies and breakpoint selection. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2008 Feb;61(2):382-8. doi: 10.1093/jac/dkm467
36. Dow RJ, Rose WE, Fox BC, Thorpe JM, Fish JT. Retrospective study of prolonged versus intermittent infusion piperacillin-tazobactam and meropenem in intensive care unit patients at an academic medical center. *Infect Dis Clin Pract* 2011;19:413-417. doi: 10.2032/jac/dkm237.
37. Dulhunty JM, Roberts JA, Davis JS, Webb SA, Bellomo R, Gomersall C, et al. Continuous infusion of beta-lactam antibiotics in severe sepsis: a multicenter double-blind, randomized controlled trial. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2013;56(2):236-44. doi: 10.1093/cid/cis856.
38. Abdul-Aziz MH, Sulaiman H, Mat-Nor MB, Rai V, Wong KK, Hasan MS, et al. Beta-Lactam infusion in Severe Sepsis (BLISS): a prospective, two-centre, open-labelled randomized controlled trial of continuous versus intermittent beta-lactam infusion in critically ill patients with severe sepsis. *Intensive Care Med.* 2016;42(10):1535-1545. doi: 10.1007/s00134-015-4188-0.
39. Fahimi F, Ghafari S, Jamaati H, Baniyasi S, Tabarsi P, Najafi A, et al. Continuous versus intermittent administration of piperacillin-tazobactam in intensive care unit patients with ventilator-associated pneumonia. *Indian J Crit Care Med.* 2012;16(3):141-7. doi: 10.4103/0972-5229.102083.
40. Feld R, Valdivieso M, Bodey GP, Rodriguez V. A comparative trial of sisomicin therapy by intermittent versus continuous infusion. *Am J Med Sci.* 1977;274(2):179-88. doi: 10.1097/00000441-197709000-00010.
41. Feld R, Rachlis A, Tuffnell PG, Duncan I, Moran L, Pinfold P, et al. Empiric therapy for infections in patients with granulocytopenia. Continuous v interrupted infusion

Archive of SID

- of tobramycin plus cefamandole. Arch Intern Med. 1984;144(5):1005-10. doi: 11.1011/s00134-022-3808-1.
42. Georges B, Conil JM, Cougot P, Decun JF, Archambaud M, Seguin T, et al. Cefepime in critically ill patients: continuous infusion vs. an intermittent dosing regimen. Int J Clin Pharmacol Ther. 2005;43(8):360-9. doi: 10.5414/cpp43360
 43. Grant EM, Kuti JL, Nicolau DP, Nightingale C, Quintiliani R. Clinical efficacy and pharmacoeconomics of a continuous-infusion piperacillin-tazobactam program in a large community teaching hospital. Pharmacotherapy. 2002;22(4):471-83. doi: 10.1592/phco.22.7.471.33665
 44. Hanes SD, Wood GC, Herring V, Croce MA, Fabian TC, Pritchard E, et al. Intermittent and continuous ceftazidime infusion for critically ill trauma patients. Am J Surg. 2000;179(6):436-40. doi: 10.1016/s0002-9610(00)00388-3
 45. Hughes DW, Frei CR, Maxwell PR, Green K, Patterson JE, Crawford GE, et al. Continuous versus intermittent infusion of oxacillin for treatment of infective endocarditis caused by methicillin-susceptible *Staphylococcus aureus*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 2009;53(5):2014-9. doi: 10.1128/AAC.01232-08.
 46. Lagast H, Meunier-Carpentier F, Klastersky J. Treatment of gram-negative bacillary septicemia with cefoperazone. Eur J Clin Microbiol. 1983;2(6):554-8.
 47. Lau WK, Mercer D, Itani KM, Nicolau DP, Kuti JL, Mansfield D, et al. Randomized, open-label, comparative study of piperacillin-tazobactam administered by continuous infusion versus intermittent infusion for treatment of hospitalized patients with complicated intra-abdominal infection. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 2006;50(11):3556-61. doi: 10.1128/AAC.00329-06.
 48. Lorente L, Lorenzo L, Martín MM, Jiménez A, Mora ML. Meropenem by continuous versus intermittent infusion in ventilator-associated pneumonia due to gram-negative bacilli. Ann Pharmacother. 2006;40(2):219-23. doi: 10.1345/aph.1G467.
 49. Lorente L, Jiménez A, Palmero S, Jiménez JJ, Iribarren JL, Santana M, et al. Comparison of clinical cure rates in adults with ventilator-associated pneumonia treated with intravenous ceftazidime administered by continuous or intermittent infusion: a retrospective, nonrandomized, open-label, historical chart review. Clin Ther. 2007;29(11):2433-9. doi: 10.1016/j.clinthera.2007.11.003
 50. Lorente L, Jiménez A, Martín MM, Iribarren JL, Jiménez JJ, Mora ML. Clinical cure of ventilator-associated pneumonia treated with piperacillin/tazobactam administered by continuous or intermittent infusion. Int J Antimicrob Agents. 2009;33(5):464-8. doi: 10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2008.10.025.
 51. Lubasch A, Lück S, Lode H, Mauch H, Lorenz J, Bölskei P, et al. Optimizing ceftazidime pharmacodynamics in patients with acute exacerbation of severe chronic bronchitis. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2005;51(3):659-64. doi: 10.1093/jac/dkg111.
 52. McNabb JJ, Nightingale CH, Quintiliani R, Nicolau DP. Cost effectiveness of ceftazidime by continuous infusion versus intermittent infusion for nosocomial pneumonia. Pharmacotherapy. 2001 ;21(5):549-55. doi: 10.1592/phco.21.6.549.34539
 53. Nicolau DP, McNabb J, Lacy MK, Quintiliani R, Nightingale CH. Continuous versus intermittent administration of ceftazidime in intensive care unit patients with nosocomial pneumonia. Int J Antimicrob Agents. 2001;17(6):497-504.
 54. Patel GW, Patel N, Lat A, Trombley K, Enbawe S, Manor K, et al. Outcomes of extended infusion piperacillin/tazobactam for documented Gram-negative infections. Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis. 2009;64(2):236-40. doi: 10.1016/j.diagmicrobio.2009.03.002.
 55. Rafati MR, Rouini MR, Mojtahedzadeh M, Najafi A, Tavakoli H, Gholami K, et al. Clinical efficacy of continuous infusion of piperacillin compared with intermittent dosing in septic critically ill patients. Int J Antimicrob Agents. 2006;28(2):122-7. doi: 10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2006.02.020
 56. Roberts JA, Boots R, Rickard CM, Thomas P, Quinn J, Roberts DM, et al. Is continuous infusion ceftriaxone better than once-a-day dosing in intensive care? A randomized controlled pilot study. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2007;59(2):285-91. doi: 10.1093/jac/dkl478
 57. Roberts JA, Kirkpatrick CM, Roberts MS, Robertson TA, Dalley AJ, Lipman J. Meropenem dosing in critically ill patients with sepsis and without renal dysfunction: intermittent bolus versus continuous administration? Monte Carlo dosing simulations and subcutaneous tissue distribution. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2009;64(1):142-50. doi: 10.1093/jac/dkp139.
 58. Roberts JA, Roberts MS, Robertson TA, Dalley AJ, Lipman J. Piperacillin penetration into tissue of critically ill patients with sepsis--bolus versus continuous administration? Crit Care Med. 2009;37(3):926-33. doi: 10.1097/CCM.0b013e3181968e44.
 59. Roberts JA, Kirkpatrick CM, Roberts MS, Dalley AJ, Lipman J. First-dose and steady-state population pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of piperacillin by continuous or intermittent dosing in critically ill patients with sepsis. Int J Antimicrob Agents. 2010;35(2):156-63. doi: 10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2009.10.008.
 60. Sakka SG, Glauner AK, Bulitta JB, Kinzig-Schippers M, Pfister W, Drusano GL, et al. Population pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of continuous versus short-term infusion of imipenem-cilastatin in critically ill patients in a randomized, controlled trial. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 2007;51(9):3304-10. doi: 10.1128/AAC.01318-06
 61. van Zanten AR, Oudijk M, Nohlmans-Paulssen MK, van der Meer YG, Girbes AR, Polderman KH. Continuous vs. intermittent cefotaxime administration in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and respiratory tract infections: pharmacokinetics/pharmacodynamics, bacterial susceptibility and clinical efficacy. Br J Clin Pharmacol. 2007;63(1):100-9. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2125.2006.02730.x
 62. Vuagnat A, Stern R, Lotte A, Schuhmacher H, Duong M, Hoffmeyer P, et al. High dose vancomycin for osteomyelitis: continuous vs. intermittent infusion. J Clin Pharm Ther. 2004;29(4):351-7. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2710.2004.00572.x
 63. Wang D. Experience with extended-infusion meropenem in the management of ventilator-associated pneumonia due to multidrug-resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii*. Int J Antimicrob Agents. 2009;33(3):290-1. doi: 10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2008.09.012.
 64. Wright JP, Potgieter PD, Forder AA, Botha P, Brinkworth G, Elisha G, et al. Gentamicin and penicillin in the treatment of severe respiratory infections. S Afr Med J. 1979;55(6):197-200.
 65. Wysocki M, Thomas F, Wolff MA, Pean Y, Ravaut Y, Herman B. Comparison of continuous with discontinuous intravenous infusion of vancomycin in severe MRSA infections. J Antimicrob Chemother. 1995;35(2):352-4. doi: 10.1093/jac/35.2.352.
 66. Wysocki M, Delatour F, Faurisson F, Rauss A, Pean Y, Misset B, et al. Continuous versus intermittent infusion of vancomycin in severe staphylococcal infections: prospective multicenter randomized study. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 2001;45(9):2460-7. doi: 10.1128/aac.45.9.2460-2467.2001.
 67. Zhao HY, Gu J, Lyu J, Liu D, Wang YT, Liu F, et al. Pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic efficacies of continuous versus intermittent administration of meropenem in patients with severe sepsis and septic shock: a prospective randomized pilot study. Chin Med J (Engl). 2017;130(10):1139-1145. doi: 10.4103/0366-6999.205859.
 68. Roberts JA, Webb S, Paterson D, Ho KM, Lipman J. A systematic review on clinical benefits of continuous administration of

Archive of SID

- β -lactam antibiotics. *Crit Care Med.* 2009;37:2071–8. doi: 10.1097/CCM.0b013e3181a0054d.
69. Tamma PD, Putcha N, Suh YD, Van Arendonk KJ, Rinke ML. Does prolonged β -lactam infusions improve clinical outcomes compared to intermittent infusions? A meta-analysis and systematic review of randomized, controlled trials. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2011;11:181. doi: 10.1186/1471-2334-11-181.
 70. Roberts JA, Abdul-Aziz MH, Davis JS, Dulhunty JM, Cotta MO, Myburgh J, et al. Continuous versus intermittent β -Lactam infusion in severe sepsis A meta-analysis of individual patient data from randomized trial. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2016;194(6):681-91. doi: 10.1164/rccm.201601-0024OC.
 71. Lal A, Jaoude P, El-Solh AA. Prolonged versus Intermittent Infusion of β -Lactams for the Treatment of Nosocomial Pneumonia: A Meta-Analysis. *Infect Chemother.* 2016;48(2):81-90. doi: 10.3947/ic.2016.48.2.81.
 72. Lee YR, Miller PD, Alzghari SK, Blanco DD, Hager JD, Kuntz KS. Continuous infusion versus intermittent bolus of beta-lactams in critically ill patients with respiratory infections: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur J Drug Metab Pharmacokinet.* 2018;43(2):155-170. doi: 10.1007/s13318-017-0439-5.
 73. Hao JJ, Chen H, Zhou JX. Continuous versus intermittent infusion of vancomycin in adult patients: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int J Antimicrob Agents.* 2016;47(1):28-35. doi: 10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2015.10.019.
 74. Man SS, Carr RR, Ensom MH. Comparison of continuous and intermittent IV infusion of vancomycin: systematic review. *Can J Hosp Pharm.* 2010;63(5):373-81. doi: 10.4212/cjhp.v63i5.949
 75. Cataldo MA, Tacconelli E, Grilli E, Pea F, Petrosillo N. Continuous versus intermittent infusion of vancomycin for the treatment of gram-positive infections: systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2012;67(1):17-24. doi: 10.1093/jac/dkr442.
 76. Abdul-Aziz MH, Dulhunty JM, Bellomo R, Lipman J, Roberts JA. Continuous β -lactam infusion in critically ill patients: the clinical evidence. *Ann Intensive Care.* 2012;2(1):37. doi: 10.1186/2110-5820-2-37.

 © 2019 The Author(s). This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.