



Interactions hôte-candida au cours des péritonites fongiques graves de réanimation

Emmanuel Novy

► To cite this version:

Emmanuel Novy. Interactions hôte-candida au cours des péritonites fongiques graves de réanimation. Médecine humaine et pathologie. Université de Lorraine, 2024. Français. NNT : 2024LORR0034 . tel-04752382

HAL Id: tel-04752382

<https://hal.univ-lorraine.fr/tel-04752382v1>

Submitted on 24 Oct 2024

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



UNIVERSITÉ
DE LORRAINE

BIBLIOTHÈQUES
UNIVERSITAIRES

AVERTISSEMENT

Ce document est le fruit d'un long travail approuvé par le jury de soutenance et mis à disposition de l'ensemble de la communauté universitaire élargie.

Il est soumis à la propriété intellectuelle de l'auteur. Ceci implique une obligation de citation et de référencement lors de l'utilisation de ce document.

D'autre part, toute contrefaçon, plagiat, reproduction illicite encourt une poursuite pénale.

Contact bibliothèque : ddoc-theses-contact@univ-lorraine.fr
(Cette adresse ne permet pas de contacter les auteurs)

LIENS

Code de la Propriété Intellectuelle. articles L 122. 4

Code de la Propriété Intellectuelle. articles L 335.2- L 335.10

http://www.cfcopies.com/V2/leg/leg_droi.php

<http://www.culture.gouv.fr/culture/infos-pratiques/droits/protection.htm>

École Doctorale BioSE (Biologie-Santé-Environnement)

Thèse

Présentée et soutenue publiquement pour l'obtention du titre de

DOCTEUR DE L'UNIVERSITE DE LORRAINE

Mention : « Sciences de la Vie et de la Santé »

Par Emmanuel NOVY

Interactions hôte-candida au cours des péritonites fongiques graves de réanimation

Le 17 juin 2024

Membres du jury :

Rapporteurs	Mme Anne-Claire Lukaszewicz M Michel Wolff	PUPH PUPH	Université de Lyon 1 GHU Paris	LYON PARIS
Examinateurs	M Benjamin Glenn-Chousterman Mme Adeline Germain M Nicolas Mongardon	PUPH PUPH PUPH	Université de Paris Cité Université de Lorraine Université de Paris-Est Créteil	PARIS NANCY PARIS
	Président du Jury M Stéphane Zuiily	PUPH	Université de Lorraine	NANCY
	Mme Anne Debourgogne Directrice de thèse Mme Marie-Reine Losser Co-directrice de thèse	PUPH PUPH	Université de Lorraine Université de Lorraine	NANCY NANCY
Invitée	Mme Marie-Claire Machouart	PUPH	Université de Lorraine	NANCY

Remerciements

Aux membres du jury pour m'avoir fait l'honneur de juger ce travail.

A celles qui ont cru en mon projet dès son origine, qui m'ont encouragé à me lancer et m'ont soutenu tout au long de ce travail : Mesdames les Professeures Marie-Reine Losser, Marie Machouart et Anne Debourgogne.

A celles et ceux qui ont permis la réalisation de ce travail :

- Les membres du laboratoire SIMPA pour leur accueil et encadrement, en particulier Mme Corentine Alauzet, Mme Anne-Lyse Babin, Mme Lisiane Cunat, et mes co-doctorants Pierre Vermeulen et Jordan Chamarande.
- Mes partenaires de recherche ayant contribué à certaines études de cette thèse Mathieu Esposito, Paul Chevallier, Marie Collot, François-Xavier Laithier, et Jérémie Rivière.
- Mes collègues et amis qui m'ont permis de me dégager du temps clinique pour mener au mieux ces recherches : Julien Birckener, Thibaut Belveyre, Laura Chenard, Sylvain Dezavelle, Jean-Marc Lalot, Benoit Longere, Jean-François Perrier, Jean-Pierre Pertek, Nicolas Vautrin.
- L'équipe de chirurgie digestive du CHRU de Nancy Brabois, et en particulier Mme la Professeure Adeline Germain, pour leur collaboration dans l'ensemble des travaux de cette thèse.
- Le Professeur Philippe Guerci pour ses conseils, sa participation active pour les relectures des articles de ce travail mais aussi son amitié et soutien depuis le début de ma carrière.

A celles et ceux qui ont contribué à ce travail par leur encadrement et expertise :

- Les Professeurs Frédéric Dalle (CHU de Dijon) et Sadri Znaidi (Institut Pasteur) qui nous ont guidés pour la partie expérimentale de ce travail.
- Les membres du groupe « Atimicrobial optimisation » de l'Université du Queensland qui m'ont accueilli et formé à la modélisation pharmacologique pendant 1 an : Hafiz Abdul-Aziz, Menino Os Cotta, Jeffrey Lipman, Xin Liu, Patty Mitre, Suzanne Parker, Jason Roberts, Fekade Sime.

- Mme la Professeure Marie-Elisabeth Bougnoux-Andremont et Mr le Professeur Matthias Poussel, membres du comité de suivi de thèse.
- Mme la Professeure Claire Roger pour son amitié, ses conseils, son soutien et sa collaboration.

A celles et ceux sans qui rien n'aurait été possible :

- Marion, la plus belle rencontre de ma vie, ma personne ressource, qui depuis 17 ans, me soutient, m'encourage, m'accompagne dans tous mes projets et avec qui, je le sais, nous avons plein de choses en tête pour notre futur.
- Mes enfants, Constance et Thomas qui m'ont suivi au bout du monde, qui m'épatent et m'émerveillent tous les jours, encore plus après l'aventure australienne. Avec Marion, ils sont ma source d'énergie et d'inspiration.
- Mes parents qui ont consacré leur vie à mon bonheur et pour qui j'aurai une reconnaissance éternelle.
- Mon frère et notre « brotherhood » infinie.
- Mes beaux-parents qui représentent plus qu'une deuxième famille.

A toute notre famille et mes amis.

A tous les soignants et chercheurs qui consacrent leur vie à la prise en charge des patients.

« Comprendre est le commencement d'approuver »
(Traité théologico-politique, B. Spinoza, 1670)

Sommaire

Introduction	11
Chapitre 1 : Comment optimiser le diagnostic de la candidose intra-abdominale ?	15
1. Définition des infections intra-abdominales	15
2. Le cas particulier de la péritonite post-opératoire	16
3. La candidose intra-abdominale	17
3.1. Épidémiologie des candidoses intra-abdominales	18
3.2. Diagnostic de la candidose intra-abdominale	20
3.2.1. Méthode de référence	20
3.2.2. Détection de Candida dans le liquide péritonéal par les méthodes conventionnelles	21
3.2.3. Intérêt des méthodes « non basées » sur la culture dans le liquide péritonéal	21
3.2.3.1. Technique de biologie moléculaire (PCR)	21
3.2.3.2. Le 1,3 beta-D-glucan	23
3.2.3.3. Utilisation du 1,3 beta-D-glucan dans le liquide péritonéal	26
3.2.3.4. Étude pBDG2 : Prospective evaluation of peritoneal 1,3 beta-D-glucan in critically ill patients with intra-abdominal candidiasis	27
Article Combination of peritoneal and serum 1.3 beta-d-glucan can rule out intra-abdominal candidiasis in the surgical critically ill patient	31
3.2.3.5. L'approche métabolique	43
3.2.4. Intérêt des méthodes « non basées » sur la culture dans le sang	47
3.2.5. Les scores cliniques	49
4. Messages clés concernant l'épidémiologie et le diagnostic des candidoses intra-abdominales	50
Chapitre 2 : Comment optimiser le traitement antifongique de la candidose intra-abdominale ?	51
1. Recommandations actuelles	51
1.1. Approche prophylactique dans la candidose intra-abdominale	51
1.2. Traitement antifongique préemptif	52
1.3. Traitement antifongique empirique	53
2. Désescalade antifongique	54
3. Particularités pharmacocinétiques et pharmacodynamiques	54
4. Principaux traitements antifongiques de première ligne pour la candidose intra-abdominale	58
4.1. Fluconazole	58
4.2. Echinocandines	60
Article Pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic considerations for antifungal therapy in the treatment of intra-abdominal candidiasis among critically ill patients	65
5. Durée du traitement antifongique pour la candidose intra-abdominale	83
6. Bon usage des antifongiques (« antifungal stewardship »)	84
7. Enquête « candidoses invasives en réanimation »	88
8. Messages clés concernant la prise en charge thérapeutique des candidoses intra-abdominales	88

Chapitre 3 : Candida dans le liquide péritonéal : inoffensif ou pathogène ?	89
1. Le genre Candida	89
2. Virulence de Candida	91
2.1. Invasion de l'hôte	92
2.2. Adhésion et formation de biofilm	92
2.3. Échappement du système immunitaire	93
2.3.1. Reconnaissance de Candida par le système immunitaire	93
2.3.2. Mécanismes d'échappement du système immunitaire	94
2.4. Interactions Candida-microorganismes	94
2.5. Quelles hypothèses pour la virulence de Candida au cours des candidoses intra-abdominales	98
3. Influence du liquide péritonéal sur la pathogénicité de <i>C. albicans</i>	101
Article Reappraisal of intra-abdominal candidiasis: insights from peritoneal fluid analysis	107
3.1. Synthèse de l'étude expérimentale	121
4. Immunité péritonale	123
4.1. Composants de l'immunité péritonale	123
4.2. La réponse immunitaire locale et générale	124
5. Messages clés concernant la pathogénicité de <i>C. albicans</i> et le rôle de l'immunité	126
Conclusions et perspectives	127
Références bibliographiques	131
Annexes	151
1. Présentation orale congrès SFAR 2021 : Current trends in epidemiology and management of intra-abdominal candidiasis in the critically ill patient	153
2. Article - Protocol for the pBDG2 study : prospective evaluation of the peritoneal 1.3 beta-d-glucan for the diagnosis of intra-abdominal candidiasis	157
3. Présentation orale congrès ECCMID 2024 : Point-of-care testing for peritoneal and serum 1.3 beta-d-glucan to rule out intra-abdominal candidiasis in critically ill patients	167
4. Étude ESPIAC (Early stop of antifungal using serum and peritoneal 1.3 beta-d-glucan in critically ill patient with suspected intra-abdominal candidiasis	171
5. Étude ICCA (early Identification of Candida in intra-abdominal Candidiasis)	173
6. L'appareil calScreener™ (SYMCEL®, Solna, Suède)	175
7. Article - Interest of a metabolic approach using the calScreener™ technology to detect Candida in the peritoneal fluid: a pilot study	177
8. Article - Population pharmacokinetics of fluconazole in critically ill patients receiving extracorporeal membrane oxygenation and continuous renal replacement therapy: an ASAP ECMO study	183

Abréviations

ALS : Agglutinin-Like Sequence
ATF : Antifongique
ASC : Aire Sous la Courbe
BHI : Brain Heart infusion
BDG : 1,3 beta-D-glucan
BUA : Bon usage des antifongiques
CAGTA : *C. albicans* Germ Tube Antibody
CIA : Candidose intra-abdominale
CL : Clairance
CMI : Concentration minimale inhibitrice
ECMO : Extracorporeal Membrane Oxygenation
ESCMID : European Society of Clinical, Microbiology and Infectious Disease
ESICM : European Society of Intensive Care Medicine
HWP : Hypha-associated GPI-linked protein
IIA : Infection intra-abdominale
MALDI-TOF : Matrix Assisted Laser Desorption Ionization - Time of Flight
NETs : Neutrophil extracellular traps
OR : Odds ratio
PAMPs : Pathogen Associated Molecular Patterns
PD : Pharmacodynamie
PHRC : Programme de recherche clinique
PK : Pharmacocinétique
PPO : Péritonite post-opératoire
PPRs : Pattern Recognition Receptors
ROC : Receiving operating characteristic
RPM : rotation par minute
SAP : Secreted aspartic (ou aspartyl) protease
Se : Sensibilité
SFAR : Société Française d'Anesthésie-Réanimation
Sp : Spécificité
STP : Suivi thérapeutique pharmacologique
TNF : Tumor necrosis factor
UFC : Unité formant colonie
UQCCR : University of Queensland Centre for Clinical Research
Vd : Volume de distribution
VPN : Valeur prédictive négative
VPP : Valeur prédictive positive
YPD : Yeast peptose dextrose

Liste des figures

Figure 1 : Espèces de <i>Candida</i> isolées parmi les candidoses invasives en réanimation sur la période 2000 – 2020	19
Figure 2 : Activation de la cascade LAL permettant la détection du 1.3 Beta-d-glucan	24
Figure 3 : Activité métabolique de <i>Candida</i> en fonction de l'inoculum et du milieu en utilisant la technologie calScreener TM (SYMCEL®, Solna, Suède)	45
Figure 4 : Activité métabolique de <i>Candida</i> en présence de bactéries dans différents liquides péritonéaux en utilisant la technologie calScreener TM (SYMCEL®, Solna, Suède)	46
Figure 5 : Timeline des modifications PK/PD au cours de la prise en charge des candidoses intra-abdominales	58
Figure 6 : Principaux mécanismes de virulence de <i>Candida</i> et gènes associés	91
Figure 7 : Interactions <i>Candida</i> / hôte – environnement local – pathogènes	96
Figure 8 : Activité métabolique mesurée par la technologie calScreener TM (SYMCEL®, Solna, Suède) lors de la coculture <i>C. albicans</i> et <i>B. fragilis</i> dans le liquide péritonéal	98
Figure 9 : Morphologie de <i>C. albicans</i> selon le milieu	103

Liste des tableaux

Tableau 1 : Facteurs de risque et facteurs associés à la mortalité au cours des candidoses intra-abdominales	20
Tableau 2 : Performances diagnostiques, avantages et inconvénients de l'examen direct et des techniques de PCR pour la détection de <i>Candida</i> dans le liquide péritonéal	23
Tableau 3 : Principales caractéristiques des études ayant évalué le BDG péritonéal pour le diagnostic de la candidose intra-abdominale en réanimation	27
Tableau 4 : Performances diagnostiques des biomarqueurs sanguins et du Peritonitis score dans la candidose intra-abdominale	50
Tableau 5 : Caractéristiques PK/PD et posologies des principaux antifongiques utilisés pour le traitement de la candidose intra-abdominale en réanimation	62
Tableau 6 : Proposition de cahier des charges d'un programme de bon usage des antifongiques dans le cadre des candidoses intra-abdominales	87
Tableau 7 : Sensibilité des espèces de <i>Candida</i> aux antifongiques de première ligne	90
Tableau 8 : Forward et reverse primers utilisés pour la qPCR, selon le gène d'intérêt	104

Introduction

Les infections intra-abdominales représentent la seconde cause de sepsis et choc septique après les infections respiratoires chez les patients de réanimation. Elles sont associées à une mortalité approchant les 50 %.¹ Elles peuvent prendre différentes formes allant de l'abcès à la péritonite purulente généralisée. La péritonite représente une catégorie à part en lien avec sa présentation clinique, sa sévérité et sa prise en charge nécessitant dans la majorité des cas le recours à la chirurgie. Elle fera donc l'objet de ce travail de thèse. Les péritonites sont généralement polymicrobiennes, associant bactéries et levures du genre *Candida*. La présence de *Candida*, rapportée dans 10 à 30 % des cas,² s'associe en général à une mortalité augmentée.³ La candidose intra-abdominale est actuellement définie par une culture fongique positive à *Candida* (à partir d'un prélèvement intra-abdominal habituellement stérile) et la présence de signes et symptômes compatibles avec une infection intra-abdominale.^{4,5} Sa mortalité peut dépasser 60 % en cas de retard et/ou échec du contrôle de la source.⁶ Parmi les espèces de *Candida* isolées dans la majorité des infections, *C. albicans* est le plus fréquemment rencontré^{7,8} et fera donc l'objet de l'étude expérimentale de ce travail.

La prise en charge actuelle des candidoses intra-abdominales repose sur un diagnostic précoce (déttection de *Candida*), un rapide contrôle de la source et une introduction le plus tôt possible d'un traitement antifongique à bonne posologie.⁹ La détection précoce de *Candida* représente un enjeu majeur car les méthodes classiques souffrent d'une mauvaise sensibilité (examen direct) et/ou d'un délai important pour obtenir un résultat (culture).¹⁰ Afin de réduire ce délai, de nombreuses méthodes dites « non basées sur la culture » ont été proposées ces dernières années.¹⁰ Parmi ces dernières, la recherche du 1,3 beta-D-glucan, un composant de la paroi fongique, mesuré dans le sang¹¹⁻¹⁴ ou le liquide péritonéal¹⁵⁻¹⁸ a été la plus étudiée dans le contexte de réanimation avec un signal intéressant pour écarter la présence de *Candida*. La littérature actuelle ne permet pas de statuer définitivement sur l'intérêt actuel de son dosage dans le liquide péritonéal chez ces patients en raison des effectifs inclus, souvent de petite taille et hétérogènes, ainsi que de la faible prévalence de la candidose intra-abdominale < 25 % dans les études citées. De plus, toutes ces études ont utilisé une seule et même technique de dosage du 1,3 beta-D-glucan. Au cours de ce travail, nous avons émis l'hypothèse que l'inclusion d'une cohorte homogène de patients suffisamment conséquente pour avoir une prévalence de la candidose intra-abdominale > 30% et l'utilisation d'une nouvelle technique de mesure plus adaptée au milieu spécifique représenté par le liquide péritonéal permettraient de valider ou

non cette méthode de diagnostique microbiologique. Par ailleurs, il n'existe pas à ce jour de méthode robuste pour détecter précocement la présence de *Candida*. Une nouvelle approche utilisant la microcalorimétrie indirecte pour détecter la présence de microorganismes a fait son apparition ces dernières années. Cette technologie, principalement étudiée en bactériologie et réputée pour sa sensibilité, pourrait également être intéressante pour la détection de *Candida*. Au cours de ce travail, nous avons évalué les performances diagnostiques de l'appareil calScreener™ (SYMCEL®, Solna, Suède), qui utilise cette approche, dans le liquide péritonéal.

Le deuxième élément clé concernant la prise en charge des candidoses intra-abdominales est l'introduction précoce d'un traitement antifongique adapté. Comme recommandé par la dernière *Surviving Sepsis Campaign*,¹⁹ l'optimisation des posologies et concentrations des traitements anti-infectieux doit être la règle afin de garantir des concentrations efficaces dans le sang et au niveau du site infectieux. La majorité des données actuelles concerne l'antibiothérapie. Il n'existe pas de revue ciblant spécifiquement antifongique et candidose intra-abdominale. Une revue sur les modifications pharmacocinétiques et pharmacodynamiques propres à la candidose intra-abdominale semble pertinent afin de proposer des recommandations de posologies pour les traitements antifongiques en réanimation. L'optimisation pharmacocinétique et pharmacodynamique est d'autant plus importante que les résistances aux antifongiques sont en augmentation, notamment pour les échinocandines,²⁰ classe la plus utilisée en réanimation. Cela s'intègre désormais dans le cadre du bon usage des antifongiques ou « antifungal stewardship ». A ce jour, il n'existe pas de « cahier des charges » pour un programme de bon usage dans le cas particulier de la candidose intra-abdominale. Or cette pathologie semble particulièrement correspondre aux critères exigés par ces programmes. Au cours de ce travail, les éléments clés de ce type de programme seront déclinés pour la candidose intra-abdominale.

Enfin, quels patients de réanimation ayant une infection intra-abdominale et une culture positive à *Candida* doivent absolument recevoir un antifongique ? Cette question fondamentale est soulevée par une littérature clinique rapportant différents effets des traitements antifongiques sur la mortalité en réanimation, allant d'une augmentation de la survie à l'absence d'effet sur la mortalité.²¹ Ces résultats contradictoires suggèreraient une pathogénicité variable de *Candida*, qui pourrait dépendre de la situation clinique et/ou des comorbidités du patient (notamment son statut immunitaire). En effet, *Candida* est un microorganisme commensal du tube digestif. Il fait partie du microbiote intestinal et est souvent considéré comme un colonisant « inoffensif ». Si l'on se réfère aux autres candidoses

invasives, la pathogénicité de *Candida* est généralement liée à ses capacités d'adhésion et d'invasion, notamment dans le cadre des candidémies où les mécanismes sont bien décrits.²² Dans le cas des candidoses intra-abdominales, la présence de *Candida* dans le liquide péritonéal est secondaire à une perforation digestive, un lâchage d'anastomose ou une nécrose ischémique de la paroi digestive. A ce jour, il n'existe pas de preuve de l'expression de virulence chez *Candida* dans le liquide péritonéal chez l'homme.²³ C'est pourquoi certains auteurs ne considèrent pas *Candida* pathogène dans le liquide péritonéal. Pour la partie expérimentale de ce travail, l'hypothèse principale de recherche est que *Candida* passe d'un statut de colonisant inoffensif à un pathogène virulent du fait d'un stress environnemental représenté par son passage du tube digestif dans le liquide péritonéal, la présence de bactéries et l'immunité. Ce travail s'est donc attaché à démontrer la virulence de *Candida* dans le liquide péritonéal. La seconde hypothèse est que l'expression de cette virulence est variable et pourrait expliquer, en partie, le résultat des études cliniques évaluant l'efficacité d'un traitement antifongique. Le rôle de l'immunité sera étudié par une revue exhaustive de la littérature afin de mieux appréhender de futures études.

Les objectifs de ce travail sont donc :

- Chapitre 1 : identifier de nouveaux outils diagnostiques pour confirmer ou écarter la présence de *Candida* dans le liquide péritonéal afin d'optimiser le diagnostic de la candidose intra-abdominale.
- Chapitre 2 : utiliser une approche pharmacologique intégrant un programme de bon usage des antifongiques afin d'optimiser le traitement antifongique.
- Chapitre 3 : mieux comprendre la pathogénicité de *Candida* dans le liquide péritonéal afin de pouvoir mieux cibler les patients de réanimation qui relèveraient d'un traitement antifongique.

Chapitre 1 : Comment optimiser le diagnostic de la candidose intra-abdominale ?

La candidose intra-abdominale (CIA) fait partie des infections intra-abdominales (IIA) et répond à une définition précise. Ces deux entités, IIA et CIA, ont des caractéristiques propres à connaître afin de mieux comprendre les résultats de la littérature et surtout envisager les critères d'inclusion de futures études. En effet, toute étude s'attachant à évaluer les performances diagnostiques d'un test doit commencer par sélectionner les patients les plus à risque d'être atteints de la pathologie concernée afin d'avoir une prévalence suffisante. Cette première partie a donc pour objectif :

- De préciser les définitions et critères des IIA et CIA afin de mieux cibler les patients d'intérêts.
- De détailler les méthodes diagnostiques actuelles pour détecter ou écarter la présence de *Candida* au sein du liquide péritonéal.

1. Définition des infections intra-abdominales

L'IIA est un terme générique rassemblant plusieurs entités qui peuvent être classées²⁴ selon :

- La présentation clinique : de la forme non compliquée au choc septique fulminant,
- Le type d'atteinte : de l'atteinte d'organe (ou abcès localisé) à la péritonite généralisée,
- Le/les microorganisme(s) impliqué(s) : bactéries et/ou levures,
- Le contrôle de la source : éradication (lavage de la cavité péritonéale), contrôle de la contamination (retrait de la cause), correction des modifications anatomiques (remise en continuité digestive)

Concernant le type d'atteinte, seule la péritonite, du fait de sa gravité potentielle et des spécificités de sa prise en charge sera étudiée au cours de cette thèse. On en distingue principalement trois types : primaire (pas de rupture d'organe comme dans la péritonite secondaire à la dialyse péritonéale et l'infection du liquide d'ascite), secondaire (ouverture du tube digestif) et tertiaire (persistance de collection malgré une prise en charge de la source et un traitement anti-infectieux adapté).

Concernant les microorganismes impliqués, différencier colonisation et infection mais également le caractère inoffensif ou virulent peut s'avérer difficile avec les méthodes microbiologiques actuelles. En effet, ces dernières sont centrées sur la présence ou l'absence du microorganisme.²⁵ C'est particulièrement le cas pour *Candida*.

Ainsi, à cause de cette hétérogénéité de présentation, les IIA sont difficiles à étudier.²¹ Récemment en 2019, les experts de la société européenne de réanimation (ESICM) ont proposé une nouvelle classification des IIA retenant trois phénotypes.²⁴ L'objectif était d'intégrer les principaux aspects de la pathologie à savoir : la complexité du contrôle de la source, la sévérité clinique et les microorganismes identifiés. Les IIA étaient classées selon :

- Le lieu d'acquisition de l'IIA (communautaire, associée aux soins) impactant l'écologie microbienne.
- La présence d'une rupture anatomique associée à une péritonite localisée ou généralisée impactant la complexité du contrôle de la source.
- L'expression de la maladie (infection, sepsis, choc septique).

Cette classification a été utilisée dans une cohorte de 2621 patients et les trois éléments (lieu d'acquisition, rupture anatomique et sévérité) étaient associés au pronostic des patients. La présence d'une péritonite généralisée, acquise au cours d'un séjour hospitalier long et la présence d'un choc septique étaient les principaux facteurs associés à la mortalité qui atteignait 50 % lorsque les trois facteurs étaient associés. Un autre élément intéressant de cette importante cohorte était la répartition équilibrée entre *Candida* et bactéries résistantes entre les infections communautaires et associées aux soins. Ainsi, à l'image des autres types d'infections, la présence des germes dits résistants ou moins « classiques » comme les levures ne concerne plus uniquement les patients hospitalisés. Cela souligne d'autant plus l'importance d'un diagnostic microbiologique précoce afin de cibler le plus rapidement possible les microorganismes d'intérêt.

2. Le cas particulier de la péritonite post-opératoire

La péritonite post-opératoire (PPO) est la principale cause d'IIA compliquée en réanimation.²⁶ Elle présente trois caractéristiques principales :

- Une mortalité élevée pouvant atteindre 40 %²⁷ qui s'explique par l'infection en elle-même, mais aussi par les complications inhérentes à la chirurgie,

- Un risque plus élevé de bactéries résistantes et/ou de levures, notamment du fait d'une exposition antibiotique plus importante et des comorbidités plus lourdes des patients atteints, ce risque étant proportionnel au nombre de chirurgie,
- Des difficultés diagnostiques allongeant le délai de contrôle de la source.

Candida est particulièrement rencontré dans les PPO. En effet, les résultats de l'étude EUCANDICU (Candidemia/intra-abdominal candidiasis in European ICU project)² focalisant sur les CIA en réanimation rapportent que 62 % des patients concernés sont des patients chirurgicaux. De plus, la récurrence de perforation gastro-intestinale (OR = 13.9) et le lâchage de suture anastomotique (OR = 6.6) étaient identifiés comme facteur de risque de CIA.

Habituellement, le diagnostic de péritonite est basé sur le jugement clinique : la présence d'une douleur abdominale avec de la fièvre (ou hypothermie) associée à une hyperleucocytose suggèrent le diagnostic.²⁶ Dans le contexte post-opératoire, identifier la survenue d'une IIA est plus complexe car le jugement clinique est moins sensible. Dans une cohorte de 191 patients traités pour une PPO, Bensignor *et al.* rapportaient que la douleur abdominale était présente dans 82 % des cas, l'iléus post-opératoire dans 6 %, la fièvre dans 49 % et les signes d'irritation péritonéal dans 55 % des cas.²⁸

Enfin, d'un point de vue physiopathologique, il existe un état d'immunosuppression secondaire à la première chirurgie. Il se définit, entre autres, par une réduction de l'expression de l'HLA-DR monocytaire, un dysfonctionnement des lymphocytes T et une suppression de la réponse cytokinique pro-inflammatoire.^{29,30}

Ainsi, du fait de ses caractéristiques propres, les PPO doivent être étudiées séparément des autres IIA ou au minimum être analysées en sous-groupe.

3. La candidose intra-abdominale

La candidose invasive est la principale cause d'infection fongique en réanimation.⁷ Elle comporte la candidémie et la candidose profonde. Cette dernière est causée par la dissémination hématogène ou par inoculation directe de *Candida* dans un site habituellement stérile.³¹ Comme la cavité péritonéale est considérée comme un espace stérile, l'inoculation de *Candida* après rupture de la continuité digestive conduit au diagnostic de candidose profonde dite abdominale. La CIA est définie par : une culture du liquide péritonéal positive à *Candida* (ponction directe ou prélèvement chirurgical ou issu d'un drain abdominal < 24h) et des signes cliniques d'infection abdominale.⁵

Contrairement aux autres candidoses invasives où les mécanismes à l'origine de la virulence de *Candida* et les indications à un traitement antifongique (ATF) sont bien connus dans la littérature,^{22,31} la pathogénicité de *Candida* dans le liquide péritonéal est mal connue.^{32,33} Cet aspect sera décrit dans le chapitre 3 de la thèse.

Contrairement aux autres IIA, l'origine anatomique de la CIA impacte sa prévalence et son pronostic, tout comme les facteurs d'hôte.³⁴ *Candida* est principalement présent dans le tube digestif proximal (œsophage, estomac) où sa prévalence atteint 41 %, moins dans l'intestin grêle (35 %) et encore moins dans le colon (12 %).^{35,36} Vergidis *et al.* ont proposé une classification basée sur le type d'infection (abcès vs péritonite) et l'origine anatomique (gastro-intestinale vs hépatobiliaire et pancréatique).⁶ Ces auteurs ont rapporté au sein d'une cohorte de 163 patients atteints de CIA que la mortalité à J100 était plus élevée en cas de péritonite (40 % vs 17 % en cas d'abcès) et en cas d'origine hépatobiliaire ou pancréatique (75 %). Concernant l'origine hépatobiliaire ou pancréatique, la sévérité des patients concernés, les chirurgies répétées et le manque de limites claires et identifiables de l'infection expliquent probablement cette surmortalité.

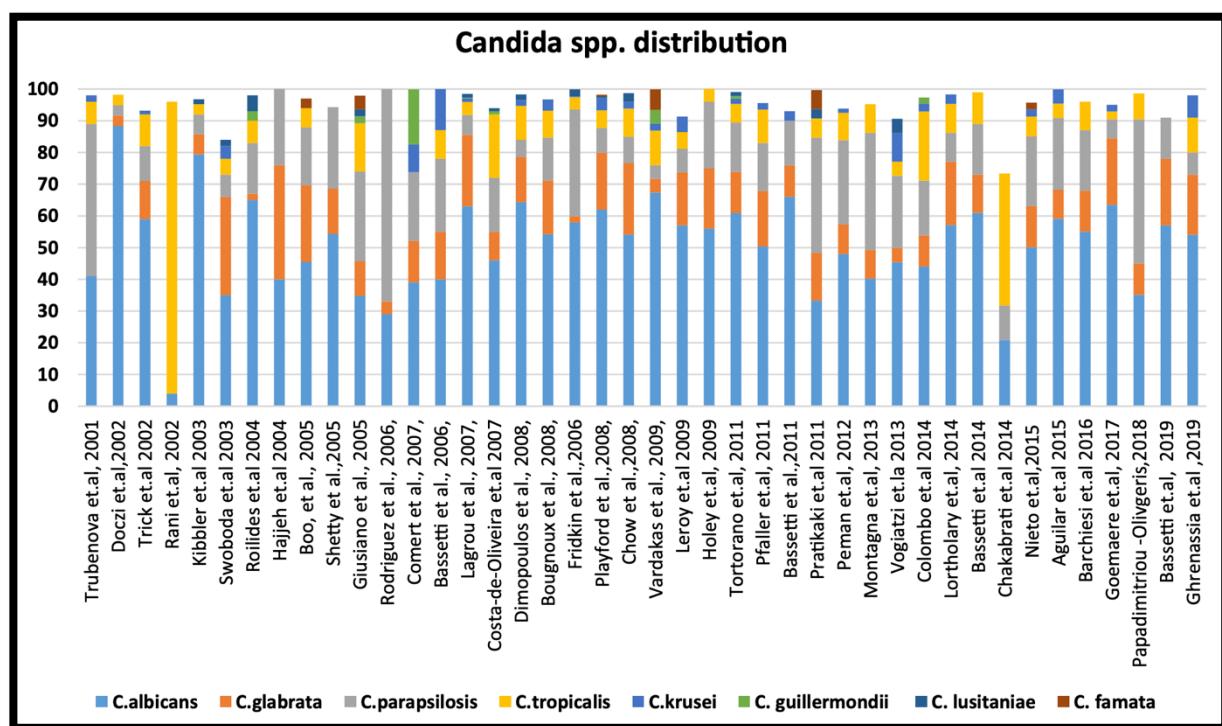
Ainsi le choix de la population à inclure conditionne la prévalence de la CIA et la mortalité rapportée du fait de sévérité variable. De même, la définition de la CIA dans les études est un autre paramètre d'importance afin notamment d'éviter une surestimation de la prévalence en incluant des patients avec une culture positive sans signes d'infection ou à partir de drains gardés plus de 24 heures. Le projet Fungal Infections Definitions in Intensive Care Unit (FUNDICU)³⁷ a récemment publié³⁸ une définition standardisée pour la CIA probable et confirmée en réinsistant sur les critères cliniques et mycologiques. Parmi les critères mycologiques, le délai de pousse selon le délai du contrôle de la source (< ou > 24h) doit être pris en compte pour différencier colonisation et infection.

3.1. Épidémiologie des candidoses intra-abdominales

Les résultats de l'étude EUCANDICU publiée en 2019 a inclus 23 réanimations de neuf pays européens, rassemblant 570 candidoses invasives acquises en réanimation : ils rapportent une incidence de 7,07/1000 admissions en réanimation dont 1,84/1000 admissions pour la CIA. La prévalence des CIA est variable pour les raisons développées précédemment et varie entre 10 % (patients sans facteurs de risque spécifiques de candidose) et 33 % (patients avec infections intra-abdominales compliquées, PPO).^{16,36,39,40} Concernant les espèces de *Candida*, *C. albicans*, *C. glabrata*, *C. parapsilosis*, *C. tropicalis* et *C. krusei* sont les plus rencontrés au cours des CIA.^{8,17,31,41} La **Figure 1** issue de Soulountski *et al.* décrit la répartition des espèces

de *Candida* au cours des candidoses invasives en réanimation au cours des 20 dernières années. Les CIA sont polymicrobiennes dans 20 à 70 % des cas.^{36,42,43} En revanche, la candidémie survient dans moins de 5% des cas.^{7,16,17}

Figure 1 : Espèces de *Candida* isolées parmi les candidoses invasives en réanimation sur la période 2000 – 2020 (figure issue du manuscrit de Soulouontsi *et al.*⁴¹).



Le **Tableau 1** résume les facteurs de risque de survenue d'une candidose invasive, d'une CIA, ainsi que les facteurs pronostiques en cas de CIA selon plusieurs études.^{2,6,24,31,34,42,43} Les principaux facteurs de risque de survenue d'un CIA sont les laparotomies répétées, la perforation gastro-intestinale et la péritonite généralisée. Concernant la mortalité, le délai de prise en charge (contrôle de la source, introduction de l'ATF) est l'élément déterminant.

La mortalité globale de la CIA varie entre 20 et 60 %.^{2,7,8,42} Elle dépend de la qualité de prise en charge (contrôle de la source), de l'origine anatomique et son degré d'extension (péritonite généralisée) et du patient (comorbidité). Par exemple, la mortalité peut atteindre 60 % chez le patient immunodéprimé ou en cas de CIA compliquée de candidémie.⁸ La plus haute mortalité concerne les CIA causées par une péritonite primaire (88 %) ou une péritonite secondaire d'origine hépatobiliaire ou pancréatique (78 %).⁶

Tableau 1 : Facteurs de risque et facteurs associés à la mortalité au cours des candidoses intra-abdominales.^{2,6,24,31,34,42–44}

Survenue d'une candidose intra-abdominale	Mortalité
Facteurs d'hôte	
Chirurgie abdominale*	Age avancé
Pancréatite aiguë nécrosante*	Dénutrition
Hémopathie*	
Transplantation d'organe solide*	
Tumeur solide*	
Colonisation à <i>Candida</i> *	
Facteurs liés à l'infection intra-abdominale	
Péritonite généralisée	Présence d'une péritonite
Perforation gastro-intestinale	Péritonite biliaire ou pancréatique
Lâchage d'anastomose	Péritonite gastro-intestinale
Laparotomies répétées	Laparotomies répétées
	Choc septique
Facteurs liés à la prise en charge	
Administration ATF retardée (≥ 7 jours)	Contrôle de la source approprié
Exposition antibiotique (≥ 7 jours)	ATF approprié
Présence d'un cathéter veineux central*	
Nutrition parentérale*	
Hémodialyse*	
<u>Corticoïdes ou chimiothérapie pour cancer*</u>	

Légende : * Facteurs de risque généraux d'infection à *Candida*.

3.2. Diagnostic de la candidose intra-abdominale

3.2.1. Méthode de référence

Comme décrit précédemment, la confirmation diagnostique repose sur une culture standard positive à *Candida*. C'est la seule méthode validée à ce jour permettant d'obtenir un antifongigramme. Son inconvénient repose sur le délai de culture qui peut varier de 1 à 8 jours, selon l'importance de l'inoculum.¹⁰ De plus, la sensibilité de la culture n'est pas de 100 % et peut être faussement négative.⁴⁵

Le délai d'identification de la levure une fois une culture détectée est aujourd'hui raccourci à 15 minutes grâce à la spectrométrie de masse.^{46–48} Si le coût d'un appareil de spectrométrie de masse (type MALDI-TOF) reste élevé, une fois acquise, cette technologie ne nécessite ni consommables coûteux, ni personnel ultra-qualifié.⁴⁷

Ainsi, l'enjeu actuel réside dans la détection précoce de la présence de *Candida* dans le liquide péritonéal afin de décider de l'introduction d'un traitement ATF ou non. En effet, compte tenu des délais pour l'antifongigramme (24 heures à compter de la culture positive) et sachant qu'il n'existe pas à ce jour de méthode moléculaire pour prédire la résistance en routine, le traitement

débuté sera généralement une échinocandine. D'un point de vue du bon usage des ATF, l'objectif est surtout d'éviter une exposition inutile.

3.2.2. Détection de *Candida* dans le liquide péritonéal avec les méthodes conventionnelles.

Il est important tout d'abord de préciser que la détection de *Candida* (et tout autre microorganisme) dans le liquide péritonéal est difficile⁴⁹ car :

- L'inoculum est faible,
- La distribution des cellules viables est inégale au sein de l'échantillon,
- La consistance du liquide est variable et peut compliquer certaines analyses (techniques microscopiques, colorimétriques ou turbidimétriques notamment),
- Le volume de l'échantillon peut être petit.

Le protocole actuel comporte une première étape d'examen direct du liquide péritonéal idéalement réalisé par un mycologue ou un technicien formé en mycologie. Le liquide est ensuiteensemencé dans un milieu favorable aux levures (Sabouraud ou milieu chromogène dédié à la mycologie). Une étude rétrospective évaluant 152 IIA a rapporté une sensibilité de 35 % et une valeur prédictive négative de 78 % pour l'examen direct (bactérie et levure) du liquide péritonéal.⁵⁰ Les auteurs soulignaient que la performance diagnostique étaient dépendante de l'expérience du lecteur.

Ainsi, la faible sensibilité de l'examen direct et les contraintes de temps de la culture standard ont favorisé le développement de méthodes dites « non basées sur la culture ».

3.2.3. Intérêt des méthodes « non basées » sur la culture dans le liquide péritonéal

A ce jour, il existe deux méthodes décrites dans la littérature pour détecter la présence de *Candida* dans le liquide péritonéal : la PCR *Candida* et le 1,3 beta-D-glucan (BDG).

3.2.3.1. Technique de biologie moléculaire (PCR)

La première expérience de PCR *Candida* dans le liquide péritonéal a été rapportée par Corrales *et al.* en 2015.⁴⁵ Les auteurs avaient évalué rétrospectivement une technique PCR (CLART STIs B) sur 161 liquides péritonaux issus de 27 patients avec une péritonite. Cette PCR permettait la détection de *C. albicans*, *C. glabrata*, *C. parapsilosis*, *C. krusei*, *C. tropicalis*, *C. guillermondi* et *C. dubliniensis*. Elle avait un seuil de détection de 100 UFC / 5 µL. Le comparateur était une technique de culture automatisée en flacons d'hémocultures (BACTEC

FX, BD). La PCR permettait de détecter la présence de *Candida* au sein de 29 échantillons de liquide péritonéal (18 %). La sensibilité était de 93,5 % et la concordance avec la culture était satisfaisante ($\kappa = 0.79$). Parmi les 17 cas avec une culture positive du liquide péritonéal, la PCR était associée à 9 faux négatifs et 8 faux positifs parmi les contrôles.

Une seconde étude rétrospective monocentrique a été publiée en 2022 comparant PCR *Candida* (extraction ADN utilisant le kit DNA Mini Kit (QIAGE Company, Allemagne) et les primers ciblaient ITS-1 et 4) et culture standard.⁵¹ L'étude incluait 83 patients de réanimation chirurgicale avec un risque élevé de CIA. La prévalence de CIA était de 20,5 % (n = 17). Les performances diagnostiques étaient : sensibilité (Se) 64,7 %, spécificité (Sp) 89,4 %, valeur prédictive positive (VPP) 61,1 % et valeur prédictive négative (VPN) 90,8 %. La courbe ROC avait une aire sous la courbe (ASC) de 0,77 (IC 95 % : 0.63 – 0.91). La concordance avec la culture était correcte ($\kappa = 0.53$).

Ensemble, ces deux études rapportaient une VPN satisfaisante pour exclure la présence de *Candida*. Il faut néanmoins préciser que dans ces deux études, la prévalence de la CIA était faible ~20%. De plus, la première étude n'utilisait pas les standards pour définir la CIA (un prélèvement positif suffisait) et la seconde considérait les prélèvements issus de drains abdominaux laissés en place > 24h.

De plus, avant d'utiliser la PCR en routine, certains points doivent être résolus :

- Identifier un kit PCR applicable et validé pour le liquide péritonéal (éviter les PCR « maison » avec des amorces différentes limitant la comparabilité inter-études),
- Optimiser l'extraction d'ADN dans le liquide péritonéal, notamment en cas de faible charge fongique.

Ainsi, à ce jour, il n'existe pas d'étude prospective ayant évalué une PCR capable de détecter la présence de liquide fongique.

L'étude “Impact of Rapid Molecular Diagnostic Method on Antibiotics Exposure Duration in ICU Patients With Postoperative Peritonitis (DIRECTABDO)” (NCT04925388) sera la première étude prospective à évaluer la PCR Unyvero IAI chez des patients de réanimation avec une IIA grave post-opératoire. Cette étude a démarré fin 2022 et devrait inclure 184 patients. La PCR Unyvero IAI (Curetis GmbH, Holzgerlingen, Allemagne) est une PCR multiplex ciblant l'ADN validée dans le liquide péritonéal qui permet la détection de différentes bactéries et espèces de *Candida* (*C. albicans*, *C. glabrata*, *C. tropicalis* et *C. krusei*).⁵²

Le **Tableau 2** résume les performances diagnostiques de l'examen direct et des méthodes PCR dans le liquide péritonéal.^{45,50,51}

Tableau 2 : Performances diagnostiques, avantages et inconvénients de l'examen direct et des techniques de PCR pour la détection de *Candida* dans le liquide péritonéal.

Technique	Se	Sp	VPP	VPN	Avantages	Inconvénients
Examen direct	35	99	94	78	Coût Disponibilité Recul d'utilisation	Performance ⇔ inoculum, expérience du lecteur
PCR	65	89	61	91	VPN	Coût Manque de méthode standardisée Manque d'étude robuste

Légende : Se : Sensibilité, Sp : Spécificité ; VPN : valeur prédictive négative ; VPP : valeur prédictive positive.

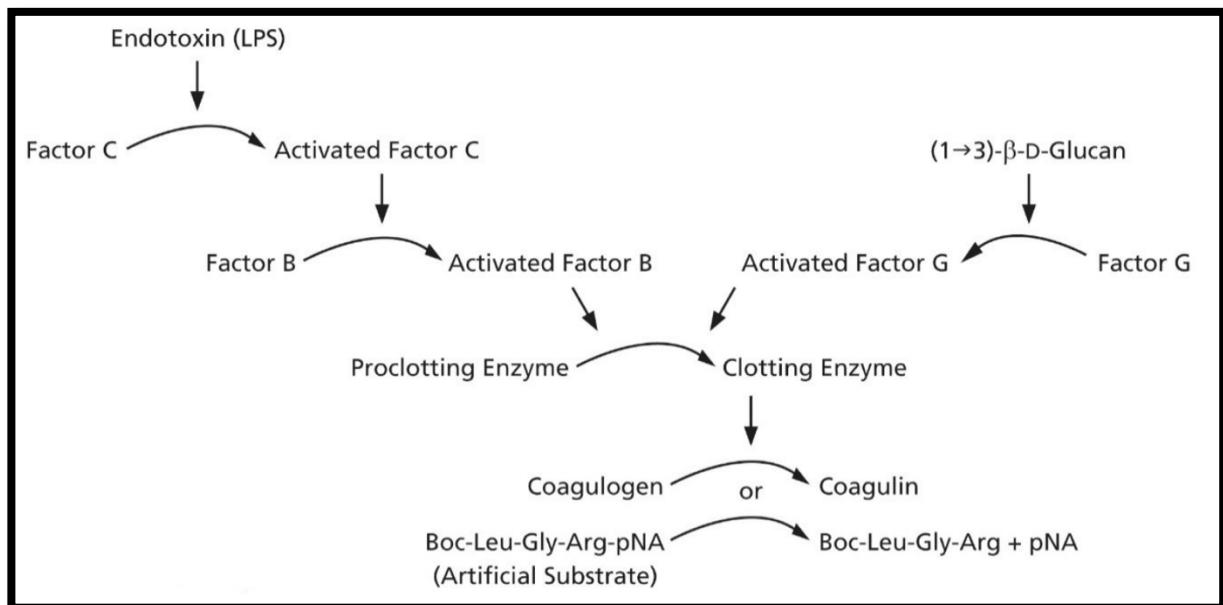
3.2.3.2. Le 1,3 beta-D-glucan

Le 1,3 beta-D-glucan (BDG) est un polysaccharide hydrophile servant au maintien de la paroi fongique de l'ensemble des champignons à l'exception des *Mucorales*.^{53,54} Le BDG est synthétisé chez les bactéries, les champignons, les algues et les plantes.⁵⁵ En revanche, il n'est pas produit chez les mammifères où il est reconnu par les macrophages et cellules dendritiques activant la défense immunitaire antifongique.^{56,57}

- Détection du BDG par les méthodes actuelles :

Sa détection suit le même processus que la détection du lipopolysaccharide bactérien (LPS) par la cascade LAL (*Limulus amebocyte lysate*).^{58,59} En effet, la cascade LAL peut être activée par voies indépendantes : l'endotoxine bactérienne (utilisant le facteur C) et le BDG (via la protéine G). La voie finale est commune et passe par une phase de coagulation (**Figure 2**).

Figure 2 : Activation de la cascade LAL permettant la détection du 1,3 beta-D-glucan (figure issue de Finkelman *et al.*⁶⁰).



Les kits actuellement commercialisés ne comportent que la voie de la protéine G. Ainsi, une réaction positive témoigne de la présence de BDG dans l'échantillon. La révélation des résultats utilise une méthode photométrique permettant de détecter différents seuils⁶¹, qui diffère selon les fabricants (colorimétrie ou turbidimétrie).

Les deux tests les plus utilisés en Europe sont : le « β -glucan test » fabriqué par Fugifilm Wako Chemicals Europe (41468 Neuss, Allemagne), distribué en France par la société Sobioda® (38330 Montbonnot-Saint-Martin, France) et le « Fungitell Assay » fabriqué par Associates of Cape Cod (East Falmouth, Etats-Unis). Les deux kits utilisent la cascade LAL mais possèdent un prétraitement et des méthodes de quantification différents conduisant à des seuils de détection propres.⁶² Le rôle du prétraitement est de désactiver le plus possible des inhibiteurs ou activateurs (ex : endotoxine) de la cascade LAL. En se basant sur une étude incluant 165 patients dont 12 seulement avaient une infection fongique invasive (5 pneumocystoses, 2 candidémies, 1 CIA et 4 aspergilloses), le β -glucan test® avait des performances diagnostiques légèrement supérieures au Fungitell assay® : Se 100 %, Sp 96 %, VPP 65 % et VPN 100 % versus Se 64 %, Sp 91 %, VPP 44 % et VPN 100 %.⁶²

Le BDG est principalement éliminé par le foie. Une augmentation de la demi-vie du BDG a été observée dans les insuffisances hépatiques sévères en pré-transplantation notamment.⁶³ Enfin, il a été observé des différences de concentrations de BDG selon les espèces de *Candida*. *C. tropicalis* et *C. parapsilosis* produisent les plus faibles concentrations de BDG.^{12,64}

- Sources de BDG circulants :

Il existe de nombreux facteurs susceptibles de positiver les tests de BDG :

- Les infections bactériennes : certaines bactéries produisent du BDG comme *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* et certains streptocoques. Dans d'autres cas comme les entérocoques, l'augmentation du BDG circulant est secondaire à une augmentation du passage transmembranaire intestinal d'espèces produisant du BDG du fait du sepsis à entérocoque.
- Certaines thérapeutiques : éponges/drains chirurgicaux, supplémentation en albumine, la nutrition parentérale et certains antibiotiques (beta-lactamines).
- La chirurgie : Szyszkowitz *et al.* ont montré une élévation du BDG en per- et post-opératoire de chirurgie digestive (jusque J5) sans preuve de candidose invasive.⁶⁵
- Certains terrains ou pathologies : grands brûlés, insuffisance rénale chronique, mucoviscidose et le lupus érythémateux disséminé.

Les membranes de dialyse ont longtemps été considérées comme une source de faux positif de BDG sanguin, notamment les anciennes membranes. Une étude rétrospective brésilienne publiée en août 2023 montrait que l'utilisation des nouvelles générations de membrane de dialyse n'étaient pas associés à une élévation du BDG sanguin.⁶⁶

3.2.3.3. Utilisation du BDG dans le liquide péritonéal

Du fait des nombreuses sources de faux positifs dans le sérum, l'idée de mesurer sa concentration dans le liquide péritonéal pouvait être séduisante. En effet, la plupart des facteurs confondants diffusent peu dans le liquide péritonéal, ou de façon retardée, après que le prélèvement péritonéal soit réalisé par le chirurgien.

Nous avons conduit la première étude ayant évalué l'intérêt de son dosage par le test « Fungitell Assay » dans le liquide péritonéal.¹⁵ Il s'agissait d'une étude rétrospective et monocentrique ayant inclus 33 patients de réanimation avec une infection intra-abdominale dont sept CIA. La moitié des patients était immunodéprimée et 42 % avaient une PPO. Dans le groupe « CIA », le BDG médian [Quartile 1 – Quartile 3] était de 1461 [325-5000] pg/ml versus 224 [68-1357] pg/ml dans le groupe témoin, ($P = 0.03$). L'ASC ROC pour différencier CIA et non CIA était de 0.76 (IC 95 % (0.593-0.929), ($P = 0.036$). La VPN était de 100% pour un $\text{BDG} \leq 310 \text{ pg/ml}$. Pour cette étude, le doctorant était l'investigateur principal et il avait encadré une étudiant de 3^{ème} cycle dans le cadre de son mémoire de spécialité.

Une deuxième étude était publiée quatre ans plus tard.¹⁶ Il s’agissait d’une étude prospective monocentrique ayant inclus 65 patients de réanimation avec une infection intra-abdominale compliquée. Il s’agissait principalement de péritonite généralisée (73%). La prévalence de la CIA était de 29%. Dans le groupe « CIA », le BDG médian [Q1-Q3] était de 2890 [942-12326] pg/ml versus 1202 [317-4223] pg/ml dans le groupe témoin, ($P=0.135$). Concernant le BDG mesuré dans le sérum, 80% des patients du groupe « CIA » avaient une concentration > 80 pg/ml à deux reprises versus 58% dans le groupe témoin, ($P=0.13$). Les ASC ROC des BDG péritonéaux et sanguins pour différencier CIA d’une autre IIA étaient respectivement de 0.62 (IC 95% (0.491-0.739), $P=0.11$) et 0.52 (IC 95% (0.394-0.649), $P=0.77$). Il existait un important « overlap », pour les concentrations de BDG sanguines et péritonéales, entre les deux groupes qui étaient mesurées par le « Fungitell Assay » test.

La troisième étude ayant évalué le BDG péritonéal dans les CIA a été publiée en mars 2023.¹⁷ Il s’agissait de la première étude multicentrique évaluant une cohorte de 113 patients de réanimation (135 échantillons de liquide péritonéal) avec une prévalence de CIA de 25 % (n = 28). Dans le groupe « CIA », le BDG médian [Q1-Q3] était de 8100 [3000-15000] pg/ml versus 1901 [332-10650] pg/ml dans le groupe témoin, ($P = 0.002$). Les auteurs reconnaissaient avoir été contraints de diluer 95 (sur les 135) échantillons du fait de valeurs de BDG dépassant la limite supérieure du test (« Fungitell Assay ») tout en respectant les recommandations du fabricant. L’ASC ROC du BDG péritonéal pour différencier CIA d’une autre IIA était de 0.691 (IC 95% (0.606-0.767), $P < 0.002$). Une VPN de 100 % pour écarter la présence d’une IAC était obtenue avec le seuil de 125 pg/ml.

A ce stade de la littérature, deux études étaient positives et une négative. Un important « overlap » était constaté pour les concentrations de BDG entre les cas et les témoins, que ce soit pour le BDG péritonéal et sanguin. Les études manquaient de puissance (monocentrique pour deux d’entre elles) et la prévalence de CIA était basse, < 30%. De plus, toutes les études avaient utilisé le test « Fungitell Assay ».

Dans ce contexte nous avons conduit⁶⁷ et publié¹⁸ l’étude pBDG2 (Prospective evaluation of the peritoneal 1,3 beta-D-glucan in critically ill patients with intra-abdominal candidiasis).

Le **Tableau 3** résume les études ayant évalué le BDG péritonéal en réanimation.

Tableau 3 : Principales caractéristiques des études ayant évalué le BDG péritonéal pour le diagnostic de la candidose intra-abdominale en réanimation.

Auteur, année	Type d'étude	BDG test	Population	CIA prévalence	BDG CIA+	BDG CIA-	ASC ROC
Novy, 2018 ¹⁵	Monocentrique Rétrospective	Fungitell®	N=33 Péritonites secondaires nosocomiales	20% (n=7)	1461* pg/ml	224 pg/ml	0.76
Dupont, 2022 ¹⁶	Monocentrique Prospective	Fungitell®	N=65 Péritonites secondaires nosocomiales	30% (n=19)	2890 pg/ml	1202 pg/ml	0.62
Nourry, 2023 ¹⁷	Multicentrique Prospective	Fungitell®	N=113 Péritonites secondaires	25% (n=28)	8100* pg/ml	1961 pg/ml	0.69
Novy, 2023 ¹⁸	Multicentrique Prospective	Wako®	N=199 Péritonites secondaires	44% (n=87)	447.7* pg/ml	133.1 pg/ml	0.63

Légende : Les valeurs de BDG reportées correspondent à la médiane.

* La différence de concentration de BDG péritonéal entre les deux groupes (CIA vs contrôles) était statistiquement significative.

3.2.3.4. Étude pBDG2

- Rôle du doctorant

Le doctorant était l'investigateur principal de cette étude depuis sa conception jusqu'à la publication des résultats. Pour cette étude, il avait obtenu une bourse de recherche du laboratoire MSD® afin de financer la mise en place d'un cahier de recueil informatique et l'entretien de la base de données ainsi que le financement des dosages de BDG péritonéaux en tant que prélèvement recherche. Cette étude ayant été menée hors programme de recherche clinique (PHRC), le doctorant a dû assurer la formation des centres participants, le suivi de l'étude (formation de nouveaux investigateurs, newsletter), la constitution et le suivi de la collection biologique. Il a également dû négocier avec les partenaires industriels (Associate of Cape Cod® puis Wako Fujifilm® via la société Sobioda®) pour l'obtention d'un tarif préférentiel sur les kits de BDG. Il s'est entouré d'un interne de spécialité qui en a fait sa thèse de docteur en médecine (Dr Jérémie Rivière) et d'un assistant des hôpitaux (Dr François-Xavier Laithier) qu'il a tous les deux formés à la recherche clinique.

- Valorisation scientifique de l'étude :

Les résultats intermédiaires de l'étude ont été présentés au congrès national de la Société Française d'Anesthésie-Réanimation (SFAR) en 2021 (*Annexe 1*). L'étude a permis la publication de deux articles : le protocole⁶⁷ (*Annexe 2*) et les résultats de l'étude (Article

Combination of peritoneal and serum 1.3 beta-d-glucan can rule out intra-abdominal candidiasis in the surgical critically ill patient¹⁸). Les résultats de l'étude seront présentés lors du congrès de l'ESCMID (European Society of Clinical, Microbiology and Infectious Disease) en avril 2024 (*Annexe 3*).

- Résumé des caractéristiques de l'étude :

Il s'agissait d'une étude prospective multicentrique (Dijon, Metz, Nancy, Strasbourg) non interventionnelle conduite de janvier 2020 à décembre 2022.

Était inclus tout patient adulte admis en réanimation pour une infection intra-abdominale à haut risque d'infection à *Candida* et nécessitant une prise en charge chirurgicale.

En se basant sur une prévalence a priori de 30%, l'inclusion de 200 patients permettait d'estimer la prévalence de la CIA avec une précision absolue de 6.5%. Chaque patient bénéficiait d'un dosage du BDG sanguin à J1 et J3 (dans chaque centre). Les liquides péritonéaux étaient conservés après analyse de routine (collection biologique) puis la mesure du BDG péritonéal était réalisée à la fin de l'étude à Nancy.

Le critère de jugement principal était la prévalence de la CIA et les critères de jugement secondaire étaient : la comparaison du BDG péritonéal et sanguin entre CIA et témoin, les performances diagnostiques du BDG péritonéal, du BDG sanguin et du score clinique (Peritonitis score) utilisés seuls et combinés.

- Avantages de l'étude par rapport aux études précédents :

Il s'agissait de la cohorte ayant inclus le plus grand nombre de patients avec une CIA à ce jour. Les critères d'inclusion étaient stricts quant à la définition de la CIA (culture positive et signes d'IIA) et la volonté d'inclure des patients à très haut risque de CIA afin d'obtenir une prévalence suffisante, élément indispensable à l'évaluation d'un test diagnostique.

Il s'agissait de la première étude à utiliser le « β-glucan test » fabriqué par Fugifilm Wako Chemicals Europe (41468 Neuss, Allemagne), l'hypothèse étant que le principe de détection du test était plus adapté à une matrice complexe telle que le liquide péritonéal.

L'étude réalisait un recueil exhaustif des facteurs confondants du BDG et les détails de la culture fongique (notamment le délai de positivité) afin de pouvoir expliquer les performances diagnostiques.

- Principaux résultats :

Principales caractéristiques de la population incluse :

Il s'agissait principalement d'hommes (63 %) avec un âge médian de 66 [54-72] ans. Un tiers des infections intra-abdominales avaient une origine communautaire. Deux tiers des patients

étaient admis en réanimation pour une urgence chirurgicale. Le type d'infection intra-abdominale était une péritonite secondaire dans 96 % des cas. Une immunodépression était rapportée chez 61% des patients, majoritairement en rapport avec l'existence d'une tumeur solide (67 %). Chez les patients atteints de CIA, étaient statistiquement plus rapportés une exposition antibiotique au cours des 72 dernières heures ($P=0.003$) et un Peritonitis score ≥ 3 ($P=0.03$). L'exposition antérieure aux antibiotiques était le facteur de risque le plus fréquemment rencontré dans les CIA selon une méta-analyse récente.⁶⁸

Critère de jugement principal : prévalence CIA 44 % (n = 87) avec un intervalle de confiance à 95 % de [37-51].

Critères de jugement secondaire :

- Concentration médiane [Q1-Q3] BDG péritonéal CIA versus témoin : 447.7 [107.5-1578.0] pg/ml vs 133.1 [16.0-831.0] pg/ml, ($P=0.03$).
- Performance diagnostique BDG péritonéal seuil ≥ 45 pg/ml : Se 89.5%, Sp 38.2%, VPP 53.1% et VPN 82.3%.
- Performance diagnostique BDG sanguin seuil ≥ 3.3 pg/ml : Se 70.6 %, Sp 88.0 %, VPP 66.7 % et VPN 79.2 %.
- Performance diagnostique BDG péritonéal (< 45 pg/ml) avec BDG sanguin J1 (< 3.3 pg/ml) et peritonitis score < 3 : Se 100 % et VPN 100 %.

■ Perspectives :

Le BDG péritonéal, comme le BDG sanguin, ne doivent pas être utilisés seuls pour différencier CIA versus les autres IIA. Pour le BDG sanguin, nous avons également observé l'intérêt d'un seuil plus bas (< 3.3 pg/ml) versus 7 pg/ml (initialement identifié dans les premières études de validation). Une étude prospective récente incluant 174 patients de réanimation suspects de candidose invasive montrait également l'intérêt d'abaisser le seuil en dessous de 4 pg/ml pour améliorer la VPN avec le « β -glucan test ».⁶⁹

Nous avons mis en évidence l'intérêt d'une approche combinée associant les biomarqueurs comme recommandée par les sociétés savantes.⁷⁰ Cette stratégie doit désormais être testée dans une cohorte de validation externe, prospective. Pour cela le doctorant a soumis l'étude ESPIAC (Early stop of antifungal using serum and peritoneal 1.3 beta-d-glucan in critically ill patient with suspected intra-abdominal candidiasis, *Annexe 4*) aux PHRC interrégionaux 2024.

RESEARCH

Open Access



Combination of serum and peritoneal 1.3-beta-D-glucan can rule out intra-abdominal candidiasis in surgical critically ill patients: a multicenter prospective study

Emmanuel Novy^{1,2*} , Jérémie Rivière^{1,3}, Maxime Nguyen^{4,5}, Gaëlle Arfeuille⁶, Guillaume Louis³, Bélaïd Bouhemad^{4,5}, Julien Pottecher^{6,7}, Stéphane Hecketsweiler⁶, Adeline Germain^{8,9}, François-Xavier Laithier¹, Marie-Reine Losser^{1,10}, Anne Debourgogne^{2,11}, Yohann Bernard¹², Hélène Rousseau¹³, Cédric Baumann¹³, Amandine Luc¹³, Julien Birckener¹, Marie-Claire Machouart^{2,11} and Philippe Guerci^{1,10}

Abstract

Background Intra-abdominal candidiasis (IAC) is difficult to predict in critically ill patients with intra-abdominal infection, leading to the overuse of antifungal treatments. Serum and peritoneal 1.3-beta-D-glucan (sBDG and pBDG) have been proposed to confirm or invalidate the diagnosis of IAC, but clinical studies have reported inconsistent results, notably because of heterogeneous populations with a low IAC prevalence. This study aimed to identify a high-risk IAC population and evaluate pBDG and sBDG in diagnosing IAC.

Methods This prospective multicenter noninterventional French study included consecutive critically ill patients undergoing abdominal surgery for abdominal sepsis. The primary objective was to establish the IAC prevalence. The secondary objective was to explore whether sBDG and pBDG could be used to diagnose IAC. Wako® beta-glucan test (WT, Fujifilm Wako Chemicals Europe, Neuss, Germany) was used for pBDG measurements. WT and Fungitell® beta-D-glucan assay (FA, Associate of Cape Cod, East Falmouth, USA) were used for sBDG measurements.

Results Between 1 January 2020 and 31 December 2022, 199 patients were included. Patients were predominantly male (63%), with a median age of 66 [54–72] years. The IAC prevalence was 44% (87/199). The main IAC type was secondary peritonitis. Septic shock occurred in 63% of cases. After multivariate analysis, a nosocomial origin was associated with more IAC cases ($P=0.0399$). The median pBDG level was significantly elevated in IAC (448 [107.5–1578.0] pg/ml) compared to non-IAC patients (133 [16.0–831.0] pg/ml), $P=0.0021$. For a pBDG threshold of 45 pg/ml, the negative predictive value in assessing IAC was 82.3%. The median sBDG level with WT ($n=42$) at day 1 was higher in IAC (5 [3.0–9.0] pg/ml) than in non-IAC patients (3 [3.0–3.0] pg/ml), $P=0.012$. Similarly, median sBDG level with FA ($n=140$) at day 1 was higher in IAC (104 [38.0–211.0] pg/ml) than in non-IAC patients (50 [23.0–141.0] pg/ml), $P=0.009$. Combining a peritonitis score < 3, sBDG < 3.3 pg/ml (WT) and pBDG < 45 pg/ml (WT) yielded a negative predictive value of 100%.

*Correspondence:

Emmanuel Novy
e.novy@chru-nancy.fr

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



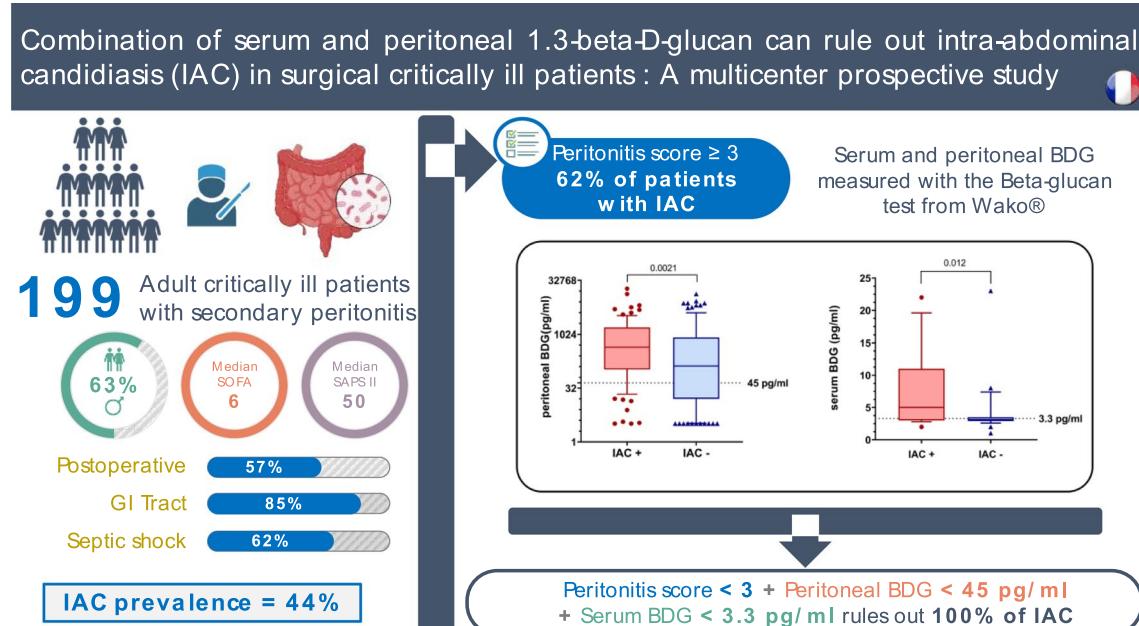
© The Author(s) 2023. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>. The Creative Commons Public Domain Dedication waiver (<http://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/>) applies to the data made available in this article, unless otherwise stated in a credit line to the data.

Conclusion In critically ill patients with intra-abdominal infection requiring surgery, the IAC prevalence was 44%. Combining low sBDG and pBDG with a low peritonitis score effectively excluded IAC and could limit unnecessary antifungal agent exposure.

Trial registration: The study was registered with ClinicalTrials.gov (ID number 03997929, first registered on June 24, 2019).

Keywords Intra-abdominal candidiasis, *Candida*, Beta-D-glucan, Diagnostic, Critically ill patient

Graphical abstract



Take-home message

- Critically ill patients with nosocomial secondary peritonitis and a peritonitis score ≥ 3 are a population of interest for intra-abdominal candidiasis studies, with a prevalence of 44%.
- The combination of serum and peritoneal 1.3-beta-D-glucan with the peritonitis score emerged as a potent strategy for effectively excluding intra-abdominal candidiasis and thereby minimizing unnecessary exposure to antifungal agents.

Introduction

Intra-abdominal candidiasis (IAC) is defined by the detection of *Candida* in peritoneal fluid obtained through direct puncture, intraoperative sampling, or drainage from an intra-abdominal drain inserted in the past 24 h, along with compatible signs and symptoms of

intra-abdominal infection [1, 2]. The definitive diagnosis of IAC relies on the isolation of *Candida* species through conventional mycological culture. IAC carries a cumulative incidence of 1.84 cases per 1000 intensive care unit (ICU) admissions [3] and is associated with a mortality rate of up to 60% [4].

IAC is difficult to predict in critically ill patients with intra-abdominal infection and could lead to delayed [4] or excessive use of antifungal treatments [5]. Indeed, conventional culture could take several days to yield results [6]. Considering the worse prognosis of patients with delayed introduction, antifungals are usually introduced before the results of the culture are obtained, based on clinical scores or context. However, none of the current clinical scores are able to identify patients at risk for IAC, leading to antifungal overuse [5, 7]. Unnecessary antifungal exposure has been associated with increased antifungal resistance, including against echinocandins, the first class used for IAC treatment [8].

To optimize the diagnosis of IAC, the measurement of 1.3-beta-D-glucan (BDG) in the serum (sBDG) and peritoneal fluid (pBDG) has gained interest [9–12]. BDG is a crucial constituent of the cell wall of various fungal species, including *Candida*. In IAC, sBDG is associated with a negative predictive value (NPV) ranging from 70 to 90% [13, 14], and two measurements in 48 h are needed. For pBDG, three studies have reported higher concentrations in IAC patients than in non-IAC individuals [10–12]. However, the statistical significance of these differences in pBDG concentrations has not been consistently established. In addition, the actual prevalence of IAC in these studies was <30%. Thus, the literature does not provide a definitive conclusion regarding the utility of pBDG in confirming or excluding IAC.

Furthermore, all these studies employed the Fungitell® beta-D-glucan assay (FA, Associate of Cape Cod, East Falmouth, Inc., United States of America) for pBDG measurement. The Wako® beta-glucan test (WT, Fujifilm Wako Chemicals Europe, Neuss, Germany) has not been assessed in this context before. The WT has been validated for both serum and plasma matrices. This BDG test is technically less complex to operate than the FA (Fungitell assay) and is simpler to execute and interpret [15]. Therefore, it is plausible that the WT would be more suitable for the medium represented by peritoneal fluid.

The present study sought to identify a high risk of IAC in critically ill patients and to evaluate pBDG measurements using the beta-glucan test from Wako® for the diagnosis of IAC. This study aimed to address some of the limitations of prior research, such as patient population heterogeneity and insufficient confirmed IAC cases, which can introduce bias and ambiguity into the results [16].

Material and methods

Study design: setting

This was a French prospective multicenter noninterventional study conducted at four tertiary teaching hospitals (Dijon, Metz, Nancy and Strasbourg). The protocol for the pBDG2 study has been previously published [17] and summarized in the Fig. 1.

The initial recruitment period spanned from January 1st, 2020, to December 31st, 2021. However, due to the COVID-19 outbreak, this period was subsequently extended by 1 year. The management of patients and their anti-infective strategies were left to the discretion of the attending physicians but were required to adhere to the current guidelines for the management of invasive candidiasis [18, 19].

Participants

Critically ill adult patients with an intra-abdominal infection that necessitated surgical intervention and risk factors IAC [19–22] were included consecutively (Fig. 1).

The primary focus of the study was the diagnostic assessment of pBDG, and consequently, patient follow-up was limited to their duration of stay in the ICU.

Gold standard test for the diagnosis of IAC

The definition of IAC relied on positive culture findings of peritoneal fluid collected under sterile conditions for *Candida* species. The assessment of *Candida* growth was conducted using Sabouraud chloramphenicol medium (BioMerieux, Craponne, France) at a temperature of 35 ± 2 °C. Additional species identification was carried out employing mass spectrometry, and the cultures were retained for a period of up to 8 days.

Serum and peritoneal BDG.

Serum (sBDG) concentrations were collected on Day 1 and Day 3 following abdominal surgery, aligning with established expert guidelines [24] (see Additional file 1 for details of the test used).

For pBDG, any residual peritoneal fluid after routine analysis was preserved at each center using BDG-free containers at a temperature of -20 °C until the conclusion of the recruitment period. Subsequently, all these samples were shipped to the Nancy Center, where BDG measurements using the WT were conducted between May and June 2023.

Objectives

The primary objective was to estimate the prevalence of IAC in the studied population. The secondary objectives were (1) to compare the pBDG concentrations between patients with and without IAC, (2) to identify the risk factors associated with the development of IAC, (3) to assess the diagnostic accuracy of pBDG for the early detection of IAC, using *Candida* culture as the reference standard, and (4) to assess the diagnostic performances of pBDG, both alone and in combination with sBDG and the peritonitis score, to assess the presence of IAC. sBDG results were considered negative (indicating a low risk of IAC) when levels were less than 80 pg/ml (using FA) or less than 3.3 pg/ml (using WT) on two consecutive measurements, according to the literature [25, 26].

Data collection

We collected data on demographics, comorbidities, type of intra-abdominal infection, and IAC management from electronic medical records during patients' ICU

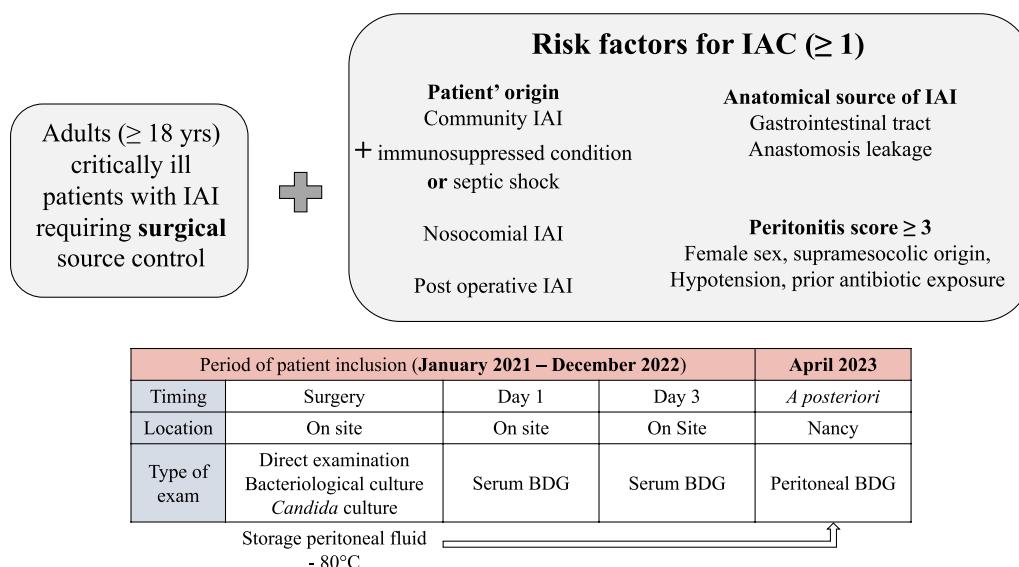


Fig. 1 Study design and inclusion criteria. Abbreviations: BDG: 1.3 beta-D-glucan; IAC: intra-abdominal infection; IAI: intra-abdominal infection. Risk factors according to [19–22], Peritonitis score according to [23]

stays (see Additional file 1 for details). Previous *Candida* colonization was defined as the isolation of *Candida* in cultures obtained from ≥ 2 of the following sources: respiratory tract secretions, stool, skin, wound sites, urines, and drains that have been in place for 24 h or less [1].

Statistical analysis

According to the literature, the prevalence of IAC in severe intra-abdominal infection is estimated to be between 20 and 40% [10, 27]. The expected prevalence of IAC in our sample was 30%, based on our previous study [10]. The inclusion of 200 patients enabled us to estimate this expected prevalence with an absolute precision of 6.5%.

Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the baseline characteristics of the study population, including counts and percentages for categorical variables and the mean \pm standard deviation or median [interquartile range/IQR] for continuous variables, depending on the data distribution. Statistical tests such as the chi-squared or Fisher's exact tests were employed to compare categorical variables, while the nonparametric Mann–Whitney U test and Kruskal–Wallis test were used for continuous variables. The prevalence of IAC was calculated based on *Candida* culture results, along with the 95% confidence interval.

Regarding the secondary objectives, initial sBDG and pBDG concentrations were compared using the Wilcoxon test. Risk factors for IAC were identified through bivariate logistic regression. Factors with a significance threshold of 0.10 were considered candidates in a

multivariable regression model, with significance defined as a *P* value of < 0.05 in two-sided tests.

To assess the diagnostic performance of pBDG, a receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve analysis was conducted, and a new cutoff value was determined, considering the highest Youden index (sensitivity + specificity – 1). For sBDG, analyses were performed based on the test used and previously published thresholds [25]. All statistical analyses were carried out by an independent biostatistician using SAS v9.4 (SAS Institute, Inc., Cary, NC), with a significance level of *P* < 0.05 .

Results

Demographic and characteristics

Figure 2 illustrates the study's flow chart.

Table 1 presents the clinical characteristics of the 199 patients included in the analysis. Patients were predominantly male (63%), with a median age of 66 [54–72] years. Intra-abdominal infections were community-acquired in 27% of cases ($n=54$).

Antibiotic exposure for more than 72 h prior to surgery and a peritonitis score ≥ 3 were significantly more common in the IAC group ($P=0.003$ and $P=0.03$, respectively). One-third of the cohort was considered immunocompromised, mainly due to active solid tumors ($n=52/77$). Two-thirds of the patients were admitted to the ICU for urgent intra-abdominal infection, with secondary peritonitis accounting for 96% of cases ($n=192$), originating primarily from the colon ($n=71/36\%$) and small bowel ($n=67/33\%$). Surgery was predominantly performed by laparotomy ($n=184/92\%$). Approximately

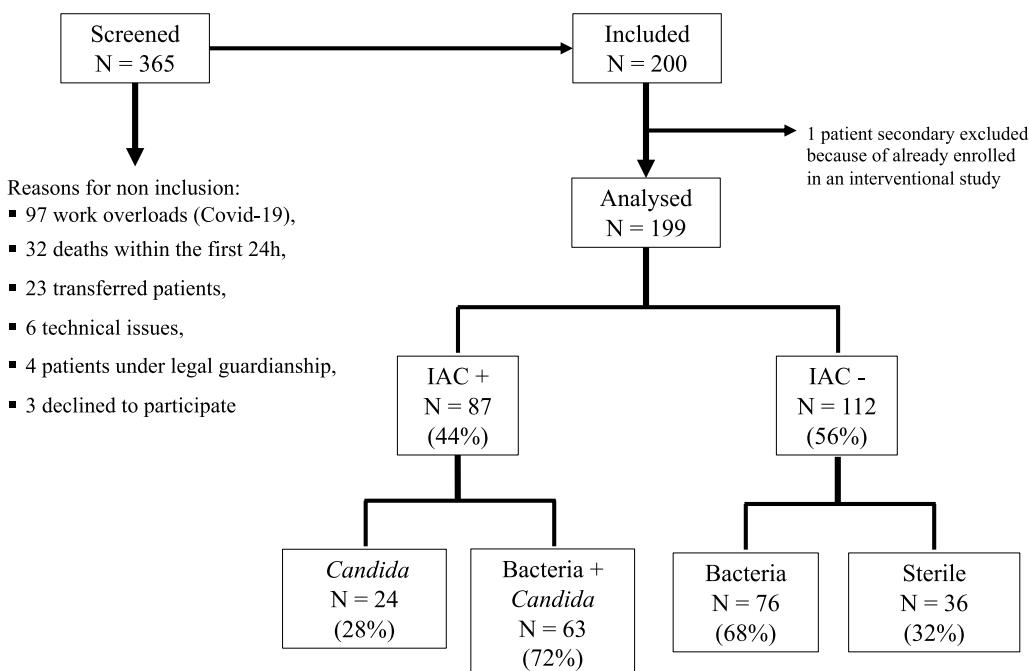


Fig. 2 Flow chart of the study

64% ($n=123$) of cases received antibiotic therapy before surgical incision. Eight patients received antifungal treatment before surgery.

During and after surgery, an antifungal treatment was started for 127 patients (64%) primarily empirically (74% of cases). In the IAC group, 30 patients (35%) received antifungal treatment after *Candida* documentation. Regarding the non-IAC group, 42 patients (37%) received unnecessary antifungal therapy. All patients received an echinocandin as empirical therapy, which was de-escalated to fluconazole in 47% of cases. The overall median duration of antifungal therapy was 8 [8] days in the IAC group versus 5 [3–8] days in the non-IAC group ($P<0.0001$). The median ICU length of stay was 8 [4–14] days, and the ICU mortality rate was 14% ($n=27$).

Primary objective

The prevalence of IAC was 44% ($n=87/199$; 95% CI [37–51]). There was no statistically significant difference in *Candida* risk factors between the two groups except for prior antibiotic exposure longer than 72 h (Table 1). A total of 101 *Candida*-positive species were recovered from the 87 PF samples: 65 *C. albicans*, 19 *C. glabrata*, 7 *C. tropicalis*, 4 *C. kefyr*, 3 *C. krusei*, and 2 *C. parapsilosis*. The IAC was polymicrobial in 72% ($n=63$) of cases. The most encountered bacteria were *Escherichia coli* and *Enterococcus faecalis* (see

Additional file 1: Table S1 for the whole bacterial documentation). Direct examination for yeast was positive for 34 patients (17%). There were only 3 cases of candidemia (3%).

Secondary objectives

Peritoneal BDG

pBDG results (Fig. 3A) were obtained for 196 PF samples, among which 72 (36%) displayed values higher than 600 pg/ml (the upper limit of the calibration curve). The median pBDG concentration was significantly higher in patients with IAC (448 [107.5–1578.0] pg/ml) than in those without IAC (133 [16.0–831.0] pg/ml) ($P=0.0021$). The median pBDG levels depending on the results of the peritoneal fluid culture (bacteria, sterile) are provided in Additional file 1: Fig. S1. Among the risk factors for IAC, after multivariate analysis, a pBDG level ≥ 284 pg/ml and the nosocomial origin of the patient were significantly associated with the presence of IAC (OR 2.5 [1.3–4.5]; $P=0.003$) and OR 2.1 [1.2–3.9]; $P=0.014$), respectively (see Additional file 1: Tables S3/S4).

Serum BDG

Using the WT ($n=42$, Fig. 3B), in IAC patients, the median sBDG concentration was significantly higher than that in non-IAC patients, measuring 5 [3.0–9.0] pg/ml versus 3 [3.0–3.0] pg/ml, $P=0.012$. Patients with sBDG < 3.3 pg/ml had a significantly lower occurrence of IAC ($P=0.004$).

Table 1 Critically ill patients clinical characteristics

Variables	IAC (n=87)	No IAC (n=112)	P value
Age (years)	67 [59–72]	64 [53–72]	0.26
Male sex	54 (62)	72 (64)	0.75
Body mass index (kg/m ²)	26.2 [23.2–32.0]	25.9 [21.6–31.0]	0.38
Knaus score ^a			0.26
A	16 (18)	12 (11)	
B	51 (59)	68 (61)	
C	20 (23)	32 (28)	
McCabe score ^b			0.58
1	47 (54)	53 (47)	
2	34 (39)	52 (46)	
3	6 (7)	7 (6)	
Comorbidities			
Cardiovascular	14 (16)	17 (15)	0.86
COPD	13 (15)	16 (14)	0.40
Chronic renal insufficiency ^c	19 (22)	15 (13)	0.13
Cirrhosis	4 (5)	11 (10)	0.17
Diabetes	17 (19)	29 (26)	0.29
Peptic ulcer	8 (9)	18 (16)	0.15
Malnutrition ^d	60 (69)	65 (58)	0.11
Immunocompromised ^e	34 (39)	43 (38)	0.92
ICU data			
Admission SAPS II score	49 [35–62]	50 [35–60]	0.91
IAC diagnosis SOFA score	6.5 [4–9]	6 [4–9]	0.66
Septic shock (Sepsis 3)	56 (64)	68 (61)	0.60
Norepinephrine infusion	70 (80)	82 (73)	0.19
Invasive mechanical ventilation >48 h	36 (51)	47 (42)	0.93
Renal replacement therapy	23 (41)	19 (26)	0.08
ICU mortality	14 (16)	13 (12)	0.36
Peritonitis data			
Peritonitis score ≥ 3	54 (62)	52 (46)	0.03
Post-operative peritonitis	50 (57)	54 (48)	0.19
Site of origin			0.73
Infra mesocolic	48 (55)	59 (53)	
Supra mesocolic	39 (45)	53 (47)	
Mechanism			0.10
Perforation	47 (54)	65 (59)	
Necrosis	13 (15)	25 (22)	
Anastomosis leakage	27 (31)	21 (19)	
Generalized peritonitis	45 (52)	45 (41)	0.11
Presence of bacteria	63 (72)	76 (68)	0.49
Confounding factors			
Antibiotic > 72 h prior to surgery	41 (47)	30 (27)	0.003
Albumin perfusion prior to surgery	15 (17)	13 (12)	0.26
Transfusion prior to surgery	18 (21)	23 (21)	0.98
Candida colonisation ^f prior to surgery	8 (9)	8 (7)	0.60

Results expressed as n (%) and median [IQR]

COPD chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, IAC intra-abdominal candidiasis, ICU intensive care unit, RRT renal replacement therapy, SAPS II Simplified Acute Physiological Score, SOFA Sequential Organ Failure Assessment score

^a Knaus score [28]: class A (Normal health status)—B (Moderate activity limitation)—C (Severe activity limitation due to chronic disease)—D (Bedridden patient).^b McCabe score [29]: class 1 (Nonfatal disease)—2 (Ultimately fatal disease)—3 (Rapidly fatal disease)^c Chronic renal insufficiency: defined as an estimated glomerular filtration rate < 60 mL/min/1.73 m²

Table 1 (continued)

^d Malnutrition: based on phenotype and etiology criteria from the ESPEN GLIM recommendations [30]
^e Immunocompromised: active cancer (solid tumour or haematological malignancy), organ transplant or bone marrow transplant, systemic and/or immune disease requiring immunosuppressed therapy, receiving one or more immunosuppressed therapy(ies) more than three months.
^f *Candida* colonization: isolation of *Candida* in cultures obtained from ≥ 2 of the following: respiratory tract secretions, stool, skin, wound sites, urines, and drains that have been in place ≤ 24 h [1]

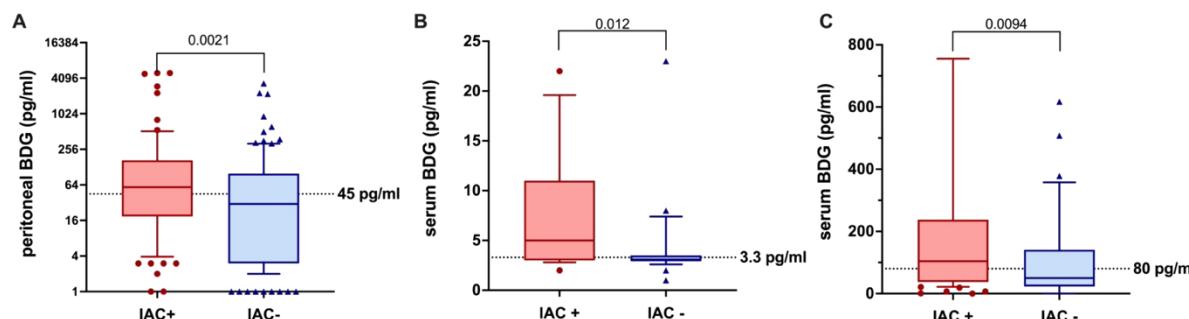


Fig. 3 Serum and peritoneal 1.3 beta-D-glucan concentrations in IAC patients versus non-IAC. **A** Box and whiskers with median, 10 and 90% percentile of peritoneal BDG between confirmed IAC and non-IAC patients (Wako® beta-glucan test, Fujifilm Wako Chemicals Europe, Neuss, Germany). Dotted line represents the threshold of 45 pg/ml. **B** Box and whiskers with median, 10 and 90% percentile of serum BDG measured with the Wako® beta-glucan test (Fujifilm Wako Chemicals Europe, Neuss, Germany) at Day 1 between confirmed IAC and non-IAC patients. Dotted line represents the threshold of 3.3 pg/ml (WT). **C** Box and whiskers with median, 10 and 90% percentile of serum BDG measured with the Fungitell® beta-D-glucan assay (FA, Associate of Cape Cod, East Falmouth, Inc., United States of America) at Day 1 between confirmed IAC and non-IAC patients. Dotted line represents the threshold of 80 pg/ml (FA). Abbreviations: IAC: intra-abdominal candidiasis; BDG: 1.3 beta-D-glucan; WT: Wako® beta-glucan test (Fujifilm Wako Chemicals Europe, Neuss, Germany); FA: Fungitell® beta-D-glucan assay (Associate of Cape Cod, East Falmouth, Inc., United States of America)

Using the FA ($n=140$, Fig. 3C), in IAC patients, the median sBDG concentration was significantly higher than that in non-IAC patients, measuring 104 [38.0–211.0] pg/ml versus 50 [23.0–141.0] pg/ml, $P=0.0094$. Patients with sBDG < 80 pg/ml had a significantly lower occurrence of IAC ($P=0.087$).

The Additional file 1: Fig. S2 shows the distribution of sBDG on Day 1 and 3 in both groups.

Diagnostic performance

The diagnostic performance of pBDG, sBDG, and the peritonitis score is reported in Table 2. Combining diagnostic tests was the best approach to obtain an NPV of 90% (sBDG measured with the FA) and 100% (sBDG measured with the WT) for ruling out IAC.

The ROC curve for the diagnostic performance of pBDG and sBDG in the diagnosis of IAC is shown in Fig. 4. Using a cutoff value of 45 pg/ml (determined by the highest Youden index), the NPV was 82.3%. With this threshold, 9 cases of IAC would have been missed. The time to positivity of the *Candida* culture in these 9 cases was 4 days.

Discussion

In this large cohort of critically ill patients who had undergone urgent abdominal surgery for intra-abdominal infection, the prevalence of IAC was 44%. The study's findings revealed that a pBDG threshold of 45 pg/ml exhibited an NPV of 82.3% (area under the curve (AUC) of 0.63). When combining peritoneal BDG < 45 pg/ml and low serum BDG with a peritonitis score < 3, the negative predictive value reached an impressive 100%.

No demographic data or *Candida* risk factors emerged as predictors for IAC in our study, consistent with previous research [7]. Only the nosocomial origin was associated with more IAC occurrences. This could be explained by the high rate of postoperative infection and prior antibiotic exposure in the cohort, two recognized risk factors for IAC [20]. Interestingly, we did not observe a higher rate of supramesocolic origin in the IAC group. This could be attributed to a lower prevalence of gastrointestinal origin (16%) and more colorectal origin. De Ruiter et al. reported high rates of *Candida* during the initial week of intra-abdominal infection originating from colorectal origin [31], aligning with the timeframe of post-operative peritonitis. Additionally, we noted a

Table 2 Diagnostic performance of tests used alone and combined considering the *Candida* culture of peritoneal samples

Test	Number of patients above the threshold	Sensitivity	Specificity	Positive predictive value	Negative predictive value
Peritonitis score ≥ 3	106/199	62.1 [51.6–71.5]	53.6 [44.4–62.5]	50.9 [41.6–60.3]	64.5 [54.4–73.5]
Serum BDG (FA) ≥ 80 pg/ml	65/140	59.0 [46.5–70.5]	63.3 [52.3–73.1]	55.4 [43.3–66.8]	66.7 [55.4–76.3]
Serum BDG (WT) ≥ 3.3 pg/ml	18/42	70.6 [46.9–86.7]	76.0 [56.6–88.5]	66.7 [43.7–83.7]	79.2 [59.5–90.8]
Peritoneal BDG (WT) ≥ 45 pg/ml	145/196	89.5 [81.3–94.4]	38.2 [29.6–47.5]	53.1 [45.0–61.0]	82.3 [69.7–90.4]
Peritoneal BDG (WT) ≥ 45 pg/ml or serum BDG (FA) ≥ 80 pg/ml or peritonitis score ≥ 3	130/140	98.5 [92.2–99.7]	11.1 [5.1–18.3]	48.6 [40.4–56.8]	90.0 [59.6–98.2]
Peritoneal BDG (WT) ≥ 45 pg/ml or serum BDG (WT) ≥ 3.3 pg/ml or peritonitis score ≥ 3	35/42	100.0	28.0 [14.3–47.6]	48.6 [33.0–64.4]	100.0

Results expressed as % [95% confidence interval]. The results of serum BDG that were considered was Day 1. Serum BDG with FA test: n = 140 (61 IAC+/79 IAC-) with WT: n = 42 (17 IAC+/25 IAC-).

BDG: 1.3 beta-D-glucan; FA: Fungitell® beta-D-glucan assay (Associate of Cape Cod, East Falmouth, Inc., United States of America); WT: Wako® beta-glucan test (Fujifilm Wako Chemicals Europe, Neuss, Germany)

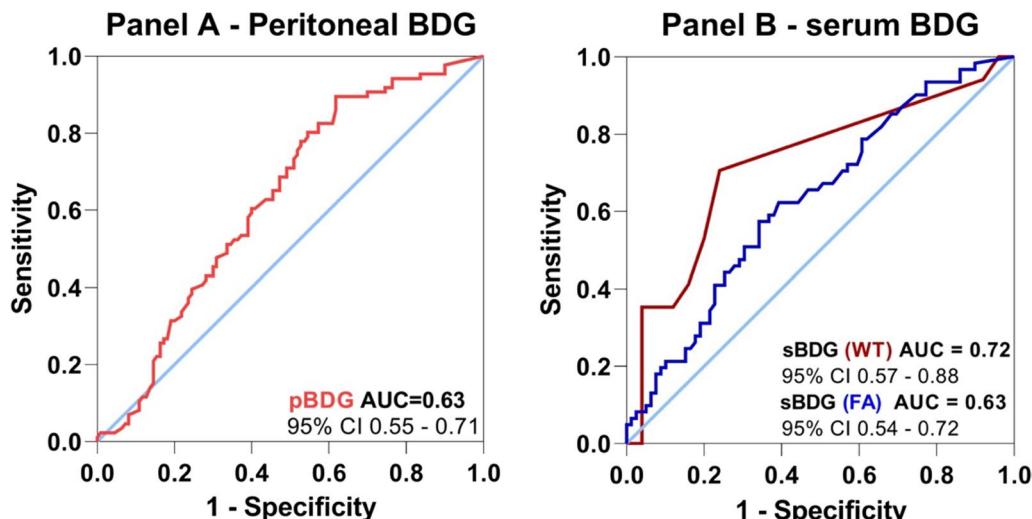


Fig. 4 Peritoneal and serum 1.3 beta-D-glucan to rule out intra-abdominal candidiasis in secondary peritonitis. Receiver operating characteristic curve of peritoneal and serum 1.3 beta-D-glucan for identification of intra-abdominal candidiasis (**A**—peritoneal BDG (n=196)/**B**—serum BDG at Day 1 according to the test used (Wako test® N=42 and Fungitell® beta-D-glucan assay N=140). Abbreviations: FA: Fungitell® beta-D-glucan assay (Associate of Cape Cod, East Falmouth, Inc., United States of America); pBDG: peritoneal 1.3 beta-D-glucan; sBDG: serum 1.3 beta-D-glucan; WT: Wako® beta-glucan test (Fujifilm Wako Chemicals Europe, Neuss, Germany)

balanced distribution of community origin between IAC and non-IAC patients, consistent with previous findings [12, 31, 32]. This underscores the importance of considering community origin when contemplating the initiation of empirical antifungal therapy, particularly in the presence of immunosuppression [19] and/or septic shock [22]. Additionally, because we only included patients with intra-abdominal infection requiring surgery, the prevalence of IAC increased. Indeed, Dupont et al. reported a 30% prevalence of IAC in a population with complicated intra-abdominal infection requiring surgery [11]. In contrast, Nourry et al. included patients

with intra-abdominal infection managed by radiology and reported a prevalence of 21% [12]. Recent literature consistently supports the idea of focusing on selected ICU populations when evaluating the diagnostic performance of biomarkers for IAC such as pBDG [1, 9, 21]. Consequently, studying ICU populations that necessitate surgical source control emerges as a promising approach for assessing biomarkers for IAC.

Two studies with an IAC prevalence of 21% reported promising results when measuring pBDG in critically ill patients to rule out IAC [10, 12]. In the first retrospective study including 33 nosocomial secondary peritonitis

cases, the authors reported a 98% NPV [10]. Recently, Nourry et al. conducted a prospective study with 113 patients and reported a 100% NPV [12]. In our study using the WT, the NPV of pBDG was notably lower, at 82.3%. First, as the NPV depends on the prevalence of the disease, its value decreases with increasing prevalence. Additionally, it is important to consider that in previous studies, the actual number of patients with IAC whose pBDG concentrations fell below the obtained threshold was low, at 3 patients in the first study and 12 patients in the second study. Furthermore, in the study by Nourry et al., the authors acknowledged that 21 samples had been exposed to antifungal treatment, which could lead to negative fungal culture results and/or reduced yeast quantities [12]. In our study, using pBDG alone with a threshold of 42 pg/ml would have led to nine missed cases. Notably, the mean time to positivity of the *Candida* culture in these nine cases was four days, suggesting a low inoculum. Thus, the quantity of yeast present might have influenced the diagnostic performance of pBDG.

The pBDG levels were higher in cases of polymicrobial IAC and lower in negative samples, which is consistent with previous findings [10, 12]. Similarly to previous study [4, 31], we reported a high bacterial documentation of 72%. Bacteria, especially gram-negative and enterococci are known to be associated with false-positive results for BDG [33], which could explain the high rate of false-positive peritoneal BDG results observed in our study. With a threshold of ≥ 45 pg/ml, 68 patients would have received unnecessary antifungal treatment.

Thus, we reaffirmed the limited positive predictive performance of both peritoneal and serum BDG. In the ICU setting, numerous confounding factors for sBDG exist, including antibiotics, albumin infusion, and transfusions, among others, which are known to be associated with false-positive results [33]. Additionally, Szyszkowitz et al. highlighted increased levels of sBDG in the peri- and post-operative period, diminishing the significance of its positive value [34]. Conversely, the risk of false-negative values is less likely to occur, particularly in the peritoneal fluid. False negatives are typically caused by a low inoculum or prior exposure to antifungals [35]. In the case of IAC, clinical studies have reported a low rate of antifungal initiation before surgical incision [5], and the peritoneal diffusion of antifungals has been demonstrated to be low (approximately 30%) [36].

The results of our study regarding sBDG differed from previously published data [11]. In the study by Dupont et al., the sBDG determined with the FA showed an AUC of 0.52, $P=0.77$, indicating poor diagnostic performance. In our study, both tests demonstrated significantly lower levels of sBDG in non-IAC cases, with reported AUCs of

0.63 and 0.72 for the FA and WT, respectively. Previously, sensitivity values of approximately 70% have been documented for both tests in ICU patients with IAC and no concurrent candidemia [25]. Interestingly, the diagnostic performance of the WT alone and combined with the other markers was superior to that of the FA in our study. Additionally, our study confirmed the superior sensitivity of the WT when using a lower cutoff of 3.3 pg/ml compared to 7 pg/ml, as demonstrated previously in critically ill patients with noncandidemic IAC [25].

While our study has highlighted the limitations of using serum and pBDG and the Peritonitis score as standalone markers for initiating antifungal therapy, it has also emphasized the importance of combining tests to rule out IAC [9, 37]. Specifically, the combination of low pBDG and sBDG with a peritonitis score < 3 demonstrated a sensitivity and NPV of 100% and could be used for discontinuing unnecessary treatment in patients with IAC. In our study, we corroborated the limited performance of the peritonitis score when used on its own [11, 12, 38]. However, its combination with BDG demonstrated the potential to enhance diagnostic efficacy (Additional file 1: Table S6). This assessment tool is not only easy-to-use at the bedside but also cost-effective and globally accessible. Furthermore, the current BDG tests (WT or Fungitell STAT assay[®]) permit individual patient testing with a swift turnaround time (less than 90 min) [15]. Consequently, an algorithm grounded in the peritonitis score and individual BDG tests could swiftly exclude IAC within two days, averting unnecessary antifungal exposure linked to escalating antifungal resistance and elevated costs [39]. It is noteworthy that this timeframe necessitates further clinical validation in real-life ICU conditions.

The major strengths of our study include its sample size, multicenter nature, and high number of consecutively included patients with pBDG results, allowing for a high prevalence of IAC. Certainly, there are some limitations to consider. Firstly, there is a risk of misclassification between IAC and non-IAC due to the sensitivity of the peritoneal culture. However, all participating centers followed a local protocol that recommended direct inoculation of the peritoneal sample into a favorable culture medium and storage of all cultures for up to 8 days to detect delayed positivity, which helps mitigate this risk to some extent. Secondly, the COVID-19 outbreak affected our study, and we had to extend the inclusion period. However, the management of IAC remained consistent during this time, which should minimize any potential impact on our results. Thirdly, the peritonitis score was the exclusive scoring system employed in this non-interventional study, aligning with the standard practice

across all participating centers and in accordance with the French guidelines [19]. Consequently, the assessment of alternative *Candida* risk factor scores was precluded due to the prevailing routine in the involved centers.

Last, our study did not evaluate patient survival but rather focused on surrogate markers to optimize the detection of *Candida* in peritoneal fluid. The role of *Candida* as a true pathogen in IAC is still debated [40, 41], and the effectiveness of antifungal treatment in IAC remains inconclusive in previous studies [4, 42, 43].

Conclusion

In critically ill patients with secondary peritonitis, the IAC prevalence was 44%. Our study advocates for a comprehensive strategy involving a peritoneal BDG measurement below 45 pg/ml (Wako® beta-glucan test), coupled with a Peritonitis score below 3 and low serum BDG levels on day 1, to effectively exclude *Candida* infection within a span of two days. Nonetheless, further clinical validation in ICU real-life is warranted.

Abbreviations

AUC	Area under the curve
BDG	1.3 Beta-D-glucan
FA	Fungitell® beta-D-glucan assay (Associate of Cape Cod, East Falmouth, Inc., USA)
IAC	Intra-abdominal candidiasis
ICU	Intensive care unit
NPV	Negative predictive value
pBDG	Peritoneal 1.3 beta-D-glucan
pBDG2	Prospective evaluation of the interest of 1.3-beta-D-glucan in the peritoneal fluid for the diagnosis of intra-abdominal candidiasis in critically ill patients
ROC	Receiving operating characteristic
sBDG	Serum 1.3 beta-D-glucan
WT	Wako® beta-glucan test (Fujifilm Wako Chemicals Europe, Neuss, Germany)

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13054-023-04761-7>.

Additional file 1: Combination of serum and peritoneal 1.3-beta-D-glucan can rule out intra-abdominal candidiasis in surgical critically ill patients: A multicenter prospective study. File format: pdf. Including further details on Results with seven tables (Table S1 "Bacteriology data", S2 "Antibiotic therapy", S3 "Risk factors for intra-abdominal candidiasis (univariate analysis)", S4 "Risk factors for intra-abdominal candidiasis (multivariate analysis)", S5 "Diagnostic performance of different serum and peritoneal beta-D-glucan threshold considering the Candida culture of peritoneal samples", S6 "Influence of the peritonitis score on the diagnostic performance of serum and peritoneal 1.3 beta-D-glucan", S7 "Peritoneal 1.3 beta-D-glucan results depending on the community and nosocomial origin of intra-abdominal infection") and two figures (Figure S1 "Peritoneal 1.3 beta-D-glucan concentrations according to the culture of peritoneal fluid sample", S2 "Distribution of serum BDG at Day 1 and Day 3 according to the test used"), on the Participating centers, on Methods, and the checklists from STROBE and STARD reporting guidelines.

Acknowledgements

All intensivists of the participating centers for patient recruitment. All mycologists of the participating centers: Pierre Vermeulen (Nancy), Louise Basmaciyan and Frédéric Dalle (Dijon), Valérie Bru (Strasbourg), Charlotte Stephan and Pascale Perez (Metz).

Author contributions

EN (conceptualization, investigation, methodology, data curation, data analysis and interpretation, writing-original draft, writing-review and editing), JR (conceptualization, investigation, methodology, data curation), MN and BB (investigation, data curation), GA, SH and JP (investigation, data curation), GL (investigation, data curation), AG (investigation, methodology), FL (conceptualization, investigation), MRL (conceptualization, investigation), AD (data curation, data analysis and interpretation), HR (data management), YB (project administration), CB (methodology), AL (statistical analysis), JB (investigation, data curation), MM (conceptualization, investigation, methodology, data curation, validation, supervision), and PG (investigation, data analysis and interpretation, validation, writing-original draft, writing-review and editing, supervision). AD supervised peritoneal glucan assays.

Funding

The study was funded by a grant from MSD. The funding source was not involved in the study at any stage, including manuscript preparation. We are grateful to Sobioda® (Montbonnot Saint Martin, France) and Fujifilm Wako® Chemicals Europe (Neuss, Germany) for a discount on the pricing of the kits and devices for the Wako β-glucan test®.

Availability of data and materials

The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

The pBDG2 study was classified as noninterventional. Consequently, the need for informed consent was waived, and patients or substitute decision-makers were only asked if they declined to participate. The study was conducted according to the guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the local ethics committee of Nancy, France (N°334). All personal and medical information is being collected and shared in accordance with medical confidentiality as well as French and European regulations regarding data protection. Furthermore, all data are being recorded in a secured database for statistical analysis with deidentification (number of the center, first letter of name and last name).

The study was registered with ClinicalTrials.gov (ID number 03997929, first registered on June 24, 2019).

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors have disclosed that they do not have any conflicts of interest.

Author details

¹Service d'Anesthésie-Réanimation et Médecine Péri-opératoire, CHRU Nancy – Hôpitaux de Brabois, 54500 Vandœuvre-Lès-Nancy, France. ²SIMPA, UR7300, Université de Lorraine, 54500 Vandœuvre-Lès-Nancy, France. ³Service de Réanimation Polyvalente, CHR Metz-Thionville, 57000 Metz, France. ⁴Service d'Anesthésie-Réanimation et Médecine Péri-Opératoire, CHU Dijon, 21000 Dijon, France. ⁵INSERM UMR1231, Université de Bourgogne-Franche Comté, 21000 Dijon, France. ⁶Service d'Anesthésie-Réanimation et Médecine Péri-Opératoire, Hôpital de Hautepierre, Hôpitaux Universitaires de Strasbourg, 67200 Strasbourg, France. ⁷UR3072, FMTS, Faculté de Médecine, Maïeutique et Science de la santé, Université de Strasbourg, 67000 Strasbourg, France. ⁸Service de chirurgie digestive, CHRU Nancy – Hôpitaux de Brabois, 54500 Vandœuvre-Lès-Nancy, France. ⁹NGERE, U1256, Université de Lorraine, 54500 Vandœuvre-Lès-Nancy, France. ¹⁰DCAC, INSERM 1116, Université de

Lorraine, 54500 Vandoeuvre-Lès-Nancy, France.¹¹ Service de mycologie et parasitologie, CHRU Nancy – Hôpitaux de Brabois, 54500 Vandoeuvre-Lès-Nancy, France.¹² Délégation à la recherche et à l'innovation, CHRU de Nancy, 54500 Vandoeuvre-Lès-Nancy, France.¹³ Unité de Méthodologie, data management et statistiques, DRCI, CHRU de Nancy – Hôpitaux de Brabois, 54500 Vandoeuvre-Lès-Nancy, France.

Received: 10 October 2023 Accepted: 28 November 2023

Published online: 30 November 2023

References

- Bassetti M, Azoulay E, Kullberg B-J, et al. EORTC/MSGERC definitions of invasive fungal diseases: summary of activities of the intensive care unit working group. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2021;72:S121–7. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciaa1751>.
- Montravers P, Dupont H, Eggimann P. Intra-abdominal candidiasis: the guidelines—forgotten non-candidemic invasive candidiasis. *Intensive Care Med*. 2013;39:2226–30. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-013-3134-2>.
- Bassetti M, Giacobbe DR, Vena A, et al. Incidence and outcome of invasive candidiasis in intensive care units (ICUs) in Europe: results of the EU CANDICU project. *Crit Care*. 2019;23:219. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13054-019-2497-3>.
- Vergidis P, Clancy CJ, Shields RK, et al. Intra-abdominal candidiasis: the importance of early source control and antifungal treatment. *PLoS ONE*. 2016;11: e0153247. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0153247>.
- Leroy O, Bailly S, Gangneux J-P, et al. Systemic antifungal therapy for proven or suspected invasive candidiasis: the AmarCAND 2 study. *Ann Intensive Care*. 2016;6:2. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13613-015-0103-7>.
- Alves J, Alonso-Tarrés C, Rello J. How to identify invasive candidemia in ICU—a narrative review. *Antibiotics (Basel)*. 2022;11:1804. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics11121804>.
- Bailly S, Leroy O, Dupont H, Timsit J-F. Secondarily documented invasive candidiasis is unpredictable using traditional risk factors in non transplant—non-neutropenic adult ICU patients. *Int J Infect Dis*. 2017;54:31–3. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2016.11.403>.
- Pristov KE, Ghannoum MA. Resistance of *Candida* to azoles and echinocandins worldwide. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2019;25:792–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmi.2019.03.028>.
- De Pascale G, Martin-Loeches I, Nseir S. Antifungal stewardship in critically ill patients. *Intensive Care Med*. 2023. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-023-07034-7>.
- Novy E, Laithier F-X, Machouart M-C, et al. Determination of 1,3-β-D-glucan in the peritoneal fluid for the diagnosis of intra-abdominal candidiasis in critically ill patients: a pilot study. *Minerva Anestesiol*. 2018;84:1369–76. <https://doi.org/10.23736/S0375-9393.18.12619-8>.
- Dupont H, Malaquin S, Villeret L, et al. Is β-d-glucan relevant for the diagnosis and follow-up of intensive care patients with yeast-complicated intra-abdominal infection? *J Fungi (Basel)*. 2022;8:487. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jof8050487>.
- Nourry É, Wallet F, Darien M, et al. Use of 1,3-beta-D-glucan concentration in peritoneal fluid for the diagnosis of intra-abdominal candidiasis in critically ill patients. *Med Mycol*. 2023;61:myad029. <https://doi.org/10.1093/mym/myad029>.
- Tissot F, Lamoth F, Hauser PM, et al. β-glucan antigenemia anticipates diagnosis of blood culture-negative intraabdominal candidiasis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2013;188:1100–9. <https://doi.org/10.1164/rccm.201211-2069OC>.
- Kritikos A, Poissy J, Croxatto A, et al. Impact of the beta-glucan test on management of intensive care unit patients at risk for invasive candidiasis. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2020;58:e01996-e2019. <https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.01996-19>.
- Fang W, Wu J, Cheng M, et al. Diagnosis of invasive fungal infections: challenges and recent developments. *J Biomed Sci*. 2023;30:42. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12929-023-00926-2>.
- Montravers P, Leroy O, Eckmann C. Intra-abdominal candidiasis: it's still a long way to get unquestionable data. *Intensive Care Med*. 2015;41:1682–4. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-015-3894-y>.
- Novy E, Laithier F-X, Riviere J, et al. Protocol for the pBDG2 study: prospective evaluation of 1,3-β-D-glucan in the peritoneal fluid for the diagnosis of intra-abdominal candidiasis in critically ill patients. *Microbiol Res*. 2021;12:196–203. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microbiolres12010015>.
- Martin-Loeches I, Antonelli M, Cuenca-Estrella M, et al. ESICM/ESCMID task force on practical management of invasive candidiasis in critically ill patients. *Intensive Care Med*. 2019;45:789–805. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-019-05599-w>.
- Montravers P, Dupont H, Leone M, et al. Guidelines for management of intra-abdominal infections. *Anaesth Crit Care Pain Med*. 2015;34:117–30. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaccpm.2015.03.005>.
- Bassetti M, Vena A, Giacobbe DR, et al. Risk factors for intra-abdominal candidiasis in intensive care units: results from EU CANDICU Study. *Infect Dis Ther*. 2022;11:827–40. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40121-021-00585-6>.
- Bassetti M, Marchetti M, Chakrabarti A, et al. A research agenda on the management of intra-abdominal candidiasis: results from a consensus of multinational experts. *Intensive Care Med*. 2013;39:2092–106. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-013-3109-3>.
- Sartelli M, Catena F, Abu-Zidan FM, et al. Management of intra-abdominal infections: recommendations by the WSES 2016 consensus conference. *World J Emerg Surg*. 2017;12:22. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13017-017-0132-7>.
- Dupont H, Bourichon A, Paugam-Burtz C, et al. Can yeast isolation in peritoneal fluid be predicted in intensive care unit patients with peritonitis? *Crit Care Med*. 2003;31:752–7. <https://doi.org/10.1097/01.CCM.000053525.49267.77>.
- Cornely OA, Bassetti M, Calandra T, et al. ESCMID* guideline for the diagnosis and management of *Candida* diseases 2012: non-neutropenic adult patients. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2012;18(Suppl 7):19–37. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1469-0691.12039>.
- Kritikos A, Caruana G, Poissy J, et al. Comparison of three β-glucan tests for the diagnosis of invasive candidiasis in intensive care units. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2023. <https://doi.org/10.1128/jcm.01691-22>.
- De Carolis E, Marchionni F, Torelli R, et al. Comparative performance evaluation of Wako β-glucan test and Fungitell assay for the diagnosis of invasive fungal diseases. *PLoS ONE*. 2020;15:e0236095. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0236095>.
- De Waele J, Lipman J, Sakr Y, et al. Abdominal infections in the intensive care unit: characteristics, treatment and determinants of outcome. *BMC Infect Dis*. 2014;14:420. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2334-14-420>.
- Knaus WA, Zimmerman JE, Wagner DP, et al. APACHE—acute physiology and chronic health evaluation: a physiologically based classification system. *Crit Care Med*. 1981;9:591–7. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00003246-198108000-00008>.
- McCABE WR, Jackson GG. Gram-negative bacteremia: I. Etiology and ecology. *Arch Intern Med*. 1962;110:847–55. <https://doi.org/10.1001/archinte.1962.03620240029006>.
- Singer P, Blaser AR, Berger MM, et al. ESPEN guideline on clinical nutrition in the intensive care unit. *Clin Nutr*. 2019;38:48–79. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clnu.2018.08.037>.
- de Ruiter J, Weel J, Manusama E, et al. The epidemiology of intra-abdominal flora in critically ill patients with secondary and tertiary abdominal sepsis. *Infection*. 2009;37:522–7. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s15010-009-8249-6>.
- Blot S, Antonelli M, Arvaniti K, et al. Epidemiology of intra-abdominal infection and sepsis in critically ill patients: "AbSeS", a multinational observational cohort study and ESICM Trials Group Project. *Intensive Care Med*. 2019;45:1703–17. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-019-05819-3>.
- Finkelman MA. Specificity influences in (1→3)-β-d-glucan-supported diagnosis of invasive fungal disease. *J Fungi (Basel)*. 2020;7:14. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jof7010014>.
- Szyszkowitz A, Zurl C, Herzeg A, et al. Serum 1,3-beta-D-glucan values during and after laparoscopic and open intestinal surgery. *Open Forum Infect Dis*. 2018;5:296. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ofid/ofy296>.
- Lo Cascio G, Koncan R, Stringari G, et al. Interference of confounding factors on the use of (1,3)-beta-D-glucan in the diagnosis of invasive candidiasis in the intensive care unit. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2015;34:357–65. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10096-014-2239-z>.
- Maseda E, Martín-Loeches I, Zaragoza R, et al. Critical appraisal beyond clinical guidelines for intraabdominal candidiasis. *Crit Care*. 2023;27:382. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13054-023-04673-6>.

37. León C, Ruiz-Santana S, Saavedra P, et al. Contribution of Candida biomarkers and DNA detection for the diagnosis of invasive candidiasis in ICU patients with severe abdominal conditions. *Crit Care*. 2016;20:149. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13054-016-1324-3>.
38. Montravers P, Perriault PF, Timsit JF, et al. Antifungal therapy for patients with proven or suspected Candida peritonitis: Amarcand2, a prospective cohort study in French intensive care units. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2017;23:117.e1-117.e8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmi.2016.10.001>.
39. Logan C, Martin-Loeches I, Bicanic T. Invasive candidiasis in critical care: challenges and future directions. *Intensive Care Med.* 2020;46:2001–14. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-020-06240-x>.
40. Sandven P, Qvist H, Skovlund E, et al. Significance of Candida recovered from intraoperative specimens in patients with intra-abdominal perforations. *Crit Care Med.* 2002;30:541–7. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00003246-200203000-00008>.
41. Novy E, Esposito M, Birckner J, et al. Reappraisal of intra-abdominal candidiasis: insights from peritoneal fluid analysis. *Intensive Care Med Exp.* 2023;11:67. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40635-023-00552-0>.
42. Lagunes L, Borgatta B, Martín-Gómez MT, et al. Predictors of choice of initial antifungal treatment in intraabdominal candidiasis. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2016;22:719–24. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmi.2016.06.005>.
43. Dupont H, Paugam-Burtz C, Muller-Serieys C, et al. Predictive factors of mortality due to polymicrobial peritonitis with Candida isolation in peritoneal fluid in critically ill patients. *Arch Surg.* 2002;137:1341–46; discussion 1347.

Publisher's Note

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

3.2.3.5. L'approche métabolique

La PCR *Candida* et le BDG péritonéal ont l'avantage d'une bonne sensibilité et VPN pour écarter la présence de *Candida* et ainsi éviter une exposition aux ATF inutile. En revanche, ces deux techniques avaient une très mauvaise spécificité et VPP.

Comme la mortalité des patients atteints de CIA est directement corrélée au délai diagnostique, la détection précoce de *Candida* dans le liquide péritonéal reste une priorité.

Au cours de cette thèse, le doctorant a collaboré avec l'entreprise SYMCEL® (Solna, Suède) afin d'évaluer l'intérêt d'une approche métabolique pour détecter *Candida*. Cette étude a permis au doctorant de mettre en place un partenariat de recherche avec une entreprise étrangère. Une fois les premiers contacts pris avec SYMCEL®, le doctorant a écrit un projet de recherche soumis à la direction de la recherche du CHRU de Nancy nommé ICCA (*early Identification of Candida in Critically ill patients with intra-Abdominal candidiasis, Annexe 4*). L'étude a été référencée sur la plateforme Clinicaltrial.gov sous le numéro d'identification NCT **05264571**). Pour cette étude, le doctorant a encadré une interne de spécialité dans le cadre de sa thèse de docteur en médecine (Dr Marie Collot).

- La technologie calScreener™ :

Il s'agit d'un appareil utilisant la microcalorimétrie indirecte qui permet de mesurer la production de chaleur de cellules vivantes, en direct, au sein d'un échantillon biologique, tissulaire ou liquide (*Annexe 5*).⁷¹ La production de chaleur dépend du microorganisme et de son activité (phase stationnaire ou en croissance). Par exemple, la présence d'un biofilm et de cellules dormantes a été corrélée avec une activité métabolique moindre.⁷² Ainsi, analyser l'activité métabolique permet d'identifier certains processus demandeurs en énergie (virulence) et de différencier les étapes de croissance d'un microorganisme.⁷³

La technologie fonctionne théoriquement pour tout type de microorganisme sachant que les données publiées au moment de l'étude concernaient uniquement les bactéries.^{73,74} L'appareil fournit les résultats en temps réel pendant une durée calibrée allant de quelques heures à plusieurs jours. L'analyse nécessite un logiciel dédié, le calView®. De façon simplifiée, après une phase de stabilisation du signal, un plateau survient avant que l'activité métabolique augmente, atteigne un pic puis décroisse. Ainsi, différents paramètres peuvent être déduits de la courbe comme le temps de détection de l'activité métabolique, le délai d'atteinte du pic d'activité, l'ASC, ou le temps de décroissance. De plus, il est possible de calculer la production totale de chaleur. Chaque pathogène produit un signal métabolique qui lui est propre et permet sa détermination dans des conditions déterminées (milieu favorable).

La technologie calScreener™ utilise des plaques de croissance (calPlate®, 48 trous accueillant des trous en titane réutilisables) permettant l'analyse de 32 échantillons, les 16 restants servant de référence interne thermodynamique.

Toute expérience utilisant le calScreener™ nécessite des étapes préalables :

- 1) Préparer les échantillons afin d'assurer la comparabilité (culture « overnight » d'un inoculum standardisé $1\text{-}3.10^6$ UFC / mL de *Candida* spp. incubé pendant 24 h à 37°C),
- 2) Stériliser les plaques et les trous en titane par autoclavage,
- 3) Préparer les trous avec 200 µL d'échantillons (tests et contrôles),
- 4) Fermer les trous en utilisant un tournevis dédié délivrant une force de 40 Newtons,
- 5) Insérer la plaque dans le calScreener™ en respectant deux paliers de stabilisation de signal.

Au cours de cette étude nous avons été assistés par SYMCEL® en visioconférence pour chaque étape de manipulation du calScreener™ ainsi que pour l'interprétation des résultats.

- Objectifs de l'étude :

L'étude ICCA devait tester la faisabilité, la reproductibilité et les performances diagnostiques de la technologie calScreener™ pour détecter différentes espèces de *Candida* au sein de liquides péritonéaux issus de la collection biologique de l'étude pBDG2. L'appareil était disponible de fin février 2022 à début juin 2022.

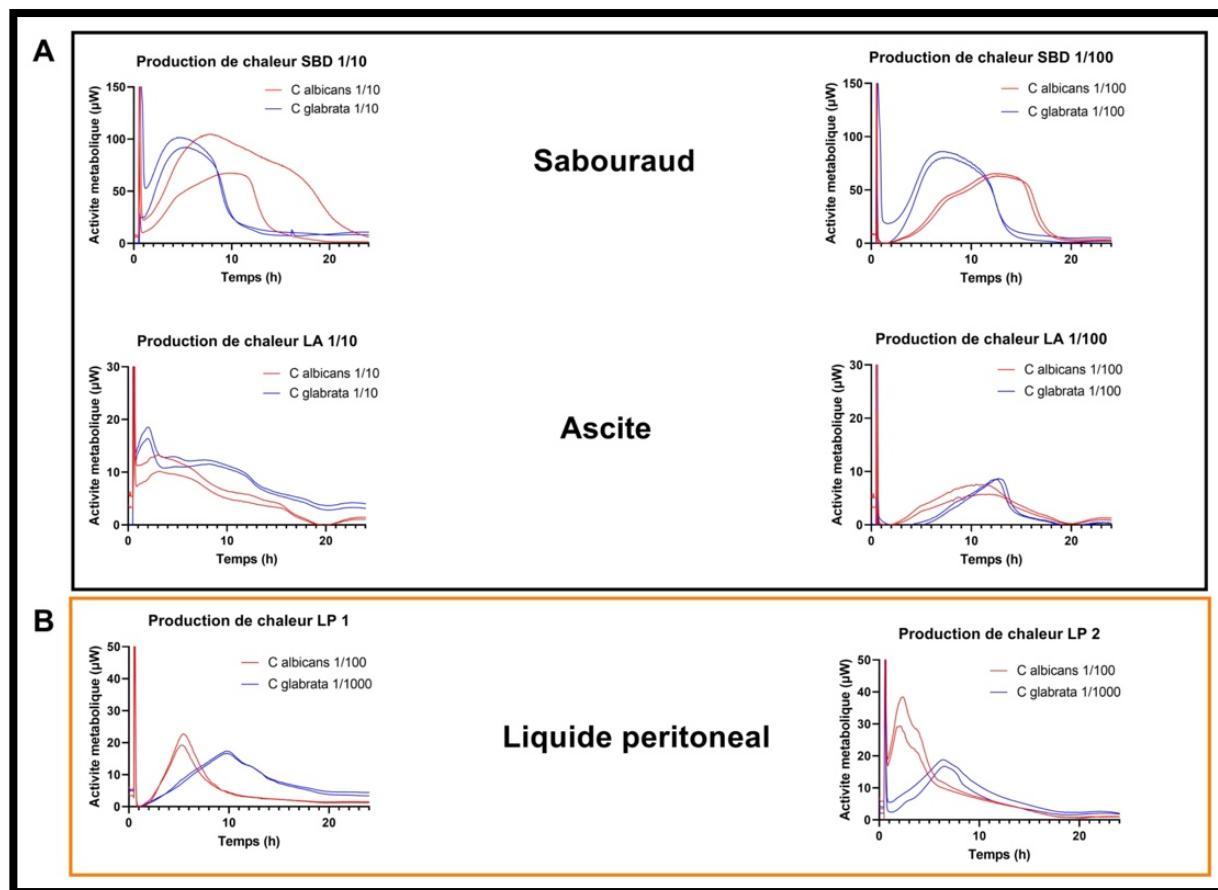
Deux étapes étaient programmées :

- 1) Configuration de l'appareil : obtention des courbes de différentes espèces de *Candida* à différents inoculums afin de permettre leur identification, comparaison de souches cliniques et de référence, échantillon mono *Candida* versus polymicrobien, test de différents milieux (Sabouraud, liquide d'ascite, liquide péritonéal).
- 2) Passer les échantillons positifs à *Candida* de la collection biologique de l'étude pBDG2 et comparer les délais diagnostiques avec la culture fongique (technique de référence).

- Résultats principaux :

L'utilisation d'échantillons contrôlés (inoculum standardisé $1\text{-}3.10^6$ UFC / ml) montrait une bonne reproductibilité et faisabilité (**Figure 3**). Le calScreener™ était notamment suffisamment sensible pour identifier les trois espèces de *Candida* utilisées (*C. albicans*, *C. glabrata*, *C. guilliermondi*), à dilutions décroissantes (1/10 – 1/100 – 1/1000) et dans différents milieux (Sabouraud, ascite, liquide péritonéal).

Figure 3 : Activité métabolique de *Candida* en fonction de l'inoculum et du milieu en utilisant la technologie calScreener™ (SYMCEL®, Solna, Suède), adaptée de Novy *et al.*⁷⁵.

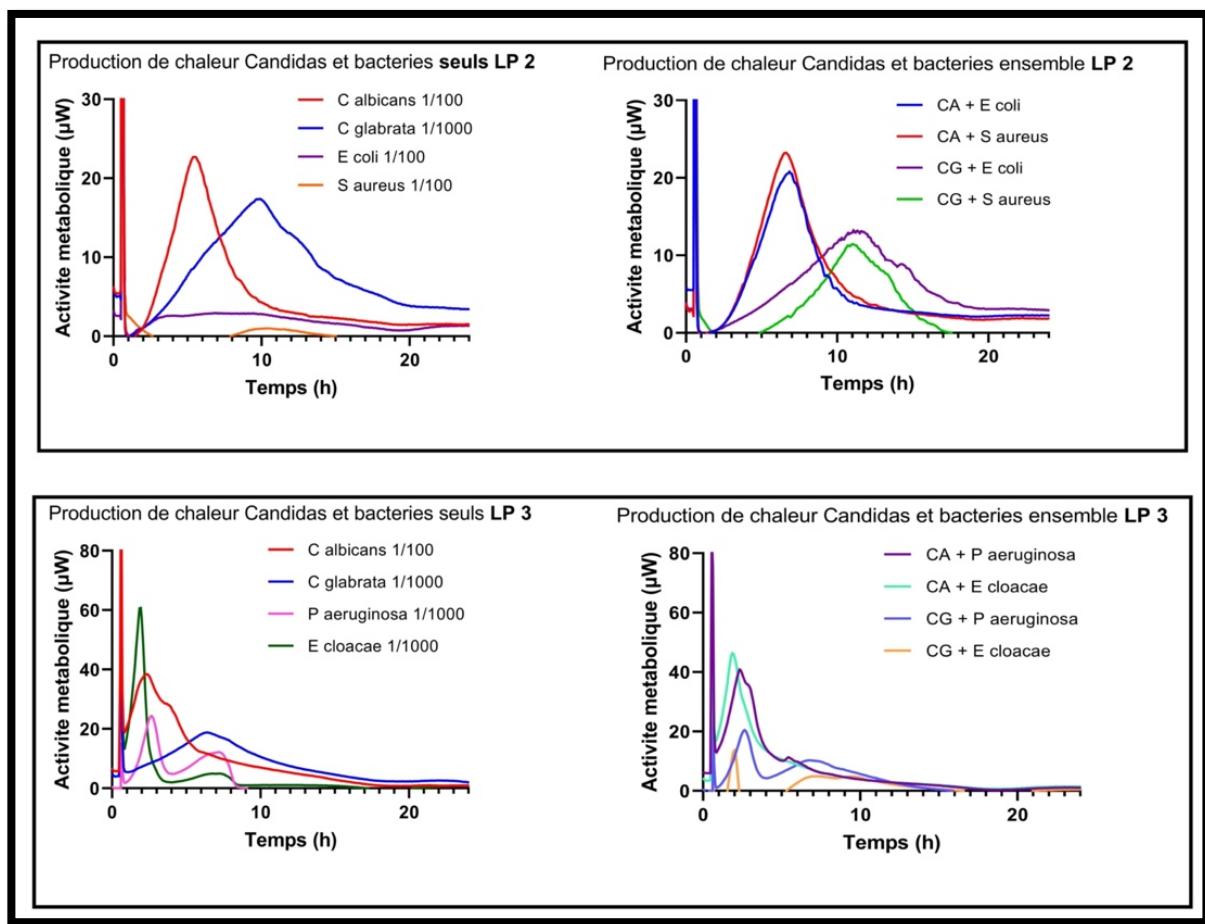


Légende : **A** Comparaison de l'activité métabolique de *C. albicans* et *C. glabrata* selon l'inoculum ($10^3 - 10^6$ UFC/mL) dans le milieu Sabouraud et l'ascite. **B** Comparaison de l'activité métabolique de *C. albicans* et *C. glabrata* selon l'inoculum ($10^5 - 10^6$ UFC/mL) dans le liquide péritonéal.

Abréviations : LA : liquide d'ascite ; LP : liquide péritonéal.

L'ajout d'un inoculum contrôlé de différentes bactéries révélait des courbes d'activité métabolique différentes, dépendant des bactéries et des milieux (**Figure 4**).

Figure 4 : Activité métabolique de *Candida* en présence de bactéries dans différents liquides péritonéaux en utilisant la technologie calScreener™ (Solna, Suède), adaptée de Novy *et al.*⁷⁵



Légende : CA : *C. albicans* ; CG : *C. glabrata* ; LP : liquide péritonéal.

La détection de *Candida* au sein de ces échantillons contrôlés était particulièrement rapide, <3 heures.

En revanche, les échantillons cliniques de liquides péritonéaux positifs à *Candida* avaient un signal métabolique indétectable probablement du fait du faible inoculum. Cet aspect a été discuté avec les ingénieurs de SYMCEL® et l'ajout de nutriments favorisant la croissance de *Candida* aurait pu stimuler l'activité métabolique. Nous n'avons pas été en mesure de tester cette stratégie dans la période dédiée. En effet, l'utilisation de l'appareil nous a demandé une

période d'apprentissage. Il a fallu maîtriser l'insertion de la plaque pour éviter toute contamination du signal. Il existe par exemple un risque d'artefact du signal métabolique en cas de mal positionnement des échantillons ou de mauvaise fermeture des puits en titane. Depuis la réalisation de notre étude, un article présentant l'ensemble des manipulations avec le calScreener™ avec les causes d'erreurs possibles et des propositions pour les résoudre a été publié.⁷³

Ainsi, nous avons vite remarqué que l'objectif de tester une collection biologique de liquides péritonéaux afin de détecter *Candida* était impossible à ce stade. En effet, indépendamment de l'aspect inoculum, chaque échantillon produit une seule courbe métabolique qui résulte de la fusion des activités métaboliques de l'ensemble des microorganismes contenus. Ainsi, il faudrait commencer par produire les courbes de l'ensemble des combinaisons bactéries / *Candida*, ce qui était infaisable dans le temps imparti. C'est pourquoi, lors des dernières expériences, nous avons utilisé l'appareil pour étudier la virulence de *Candida*, aspect développé dans le chapitre 3 de la thèse.

Les résultats de cette étude ont été publiés⁷⁵ et l'article se trouve en *Annexe 6*.

3.2.4. Intérêt des méthodes « non basées sur la culture » dans le sérum

De nombreux biomarqueurs mesurés dans le sérum ont été développés ces dernières années pour anticiper le diagnostic de candidose invasive avant les résultats de la culture fongique. Il faut d'emblée préciser que la plupart de ces biomarqueurs ont été développés pour détecter les candidémies et non les candidoses profondes « non candidémiques » comme la CIA. Étant donné la faible prévalence des candidémies dans les CIA, ces biomarqueurs seront abordés brièvement.

- La détection des antigènes mannanes, anticorps anti-mannanes et *C. albicans* Germ tube Antibody (GACTA) :

Les mannanes sont également des composants de la paroi fongique. La détection combinée des antigènes et anticorps anti-mannanes a une Se de 83% et une Sp de 86% pour le diagnostic de candidémie.^{76,77} Leur utilisation permet d'anticiper les résultats des hémocultures. Leur sensibilité dépend également des espèces de *Candida*, elle est par exemple plus faible pour *C. parapsilosis* et *C. krusei*.⁷⁸ Les GACTA (*C. albicans* Germ tube Antibody) sont des anticorps capables de détecter la présence d'une protéine impliquée dans la filamentation de *C. albicans* produite lors de la transformation en hyphes ou la formation de biofilm. Ce test renseigne

théoriquement sur le caractère invasif de la levure. Sa sensibilité et spécificité varient entre 53-73% et 54-80% respectivement pour la CIA.

- Le BDG sanguin :

De nombreuses études ont étudié les performances diagnostiques du BDG sanguin pour diverses infections fongiques invasives.⁷⁹ La Se et Sp cumulées étaient de 75-80% et 60-80% respectivement,⁸⁰ sachant que les résultats d'une méta-analyse étaient biaisés par les études incluant des candidémies.

Dans la CIA, les Se et Sp cumulées du test « Fungitell assay® » étaient de 65 % et 75 %, respectivement.^{13,79} Sa VPN et VPP étaient respectivement de 77-96 % et 17-68 %.^{13,79,81} Le seuil recommandé (par l'utilisation du « Fungitell Assay® ») pour exclure une candidose invasive est < 80 pg/ml.⁸² La performance diagnostique du BDG mesuré dans le sérum est meilleure si on utilise deux valeurs consécutives séparées de 48 heures.^{81,83,84} Tout comme pour les antigènes mannanes/anticorps anti-mannanes et GACTA, l'intérêt principal du BDG sanguin est sa VPN pour écarter une candidose invasive et/ou arrêter un traitement ATF empirique.²⁵

Si on se réfère aux trois études ayant mesuré le BDG dans le sérum de patients de réanimation avec une CIA, notre étude pBDG2¹⁸ était la seule à objectiver une différence significative entre les cas et les témoins quel que soit le test utilisé (Fungitell® ou Wako®), sachant qu'il n'y avait que 3 candidémies. Néanmoins, la VPP dans cette étude était de 79 %. Ainsi, l'utilisation seule du BDG sanguin n'est pas suffisante pour décider d'introduire un traitement antifongique comme démontré par l'étude randomisée CandiSep comparant stratégie conventionnelle versus BDG sérique.¹⁴

- Le T2Candida Panel :

Il s'agit d'une technique d'amplification génique réalisée par résonance magnétique (T2MR) : des nanoparticules de fer sont recouvertes de séquences susceptibles de s'hybrider avec l'ADN fongique. Cette technique est capable de détecter la présence de *C. albicans*, *C. tropicalis*, *C. glabrata*, *C. krusei* et *C. parapsilosis* dans le sang avec un délai < 5 heures^{85,86} avec une Se et Sp de respectivement 91 et 98%. Les performances diagnostiques étaient meilleures chez les patients recevant un ATF. A ce jour, seules deux études ont rapporté des résultats chez des patients avec une CIA.^{87,88} Dans l'étude de Lamoth,⁸⁸ la performance diagnostique du T2Candida Panel était évaluée dans un population de 48 patients à risque et montrait Se/Sp/VPP/VPN de 33/93/74/71 %, respectivement. De façon notable, en couplant T2Candida

Panel et BDG sérique, on obtenait 100 % de détection de CIA quand les deux tests étaient positifs. Dans l'étude de Krifors,⁸⁹ 134 patients étaient évalués dont 13 avaient une CIA. Les Se/Sp/VPP/VPN étaient de 46/97/61/94 %, respectivement. Les auteurs rapportaient également de meilleures performances diagnostiques lorsque le T2Candida Panel était combiné au BDG sérique. La principale limite actuelle de ce test est sa disponibilité limitée à certains centres.

- PCR *Candida* :

En se basant sur une méta-analyse de 2011, les Se et Sp cumulées étaient respectivement de 95 and 92% pour les candidoses invasives prouvées ou possibles (principalement candidémie).⁹⁰ Dans la CIA, la Se varie de 96 à 91 % et la Sp de 33 à 97 %.⁹¹ Les difficultés pour les techniques de PCR concernent les limites de détection, la variabilité dans les méthodes de mesures, et l'impossibilité de différencier colonisation et infection.

3.2.5. Les scores cliniques

Pour la CIA, le score clinique le plus utilisé et actuellement intégré dans les recommandations françaises de la SFAR⁹² est le Peritonitis score.⁹³ Dans l'étude princeps, 57 patients de réanimation ayant des signes de péritonite et une culture fongique positive à *Candida* étaient évalués. Chez les patients avec un score ≥ 3 sur 4, Se/Sp/VPN/ VPP étaient respectivement 84/50/67/72 %. Récemment, l'intérêt général des scores cliniques, dont le Peritonitis score, a été remis en cause pour décider de l'introduction d'un ATF.⁹⁴ Dans l'étude de Nourry,¹⁷ 6 patients avec une CIA avaient un Peritonitis score ≥ 3 (/28, 21 %) versus 17 (/107, 16 %) parmi les témoins, ($P=0.489$). Dans notre étude pBDG2,¹⁸ un Peritonitis score ≥ 3 était significativement plus fréquent chez les cas ($n = 54/62 \%$) que chez les témoins ($n = 52/46 \%$), ($P=0.03$) mais sa VPN était faible, calculée à 64,5 %.

Ainsi, comme pour les biomarqueurs, l'intérêt des scores cliniques réside dans leur association avec d'autres marqueurs.

Le **Tableau 4** résume les performances diagnostiques de ces différentes méthodes et du Peritonitis score.

Tableau 4: Performances diagnostiques des biomarqueurs sanguins utilisés seuls et du Peritonitis score dans la candidose intra-abdominale^{13,79,83,87,88,93,95}

Méthode	Se	Sp	VPP	VPN
Ag/Ac mannanes positifs	83	86	89	17
CAGCTA	42-96	54-100	53	83
BDG	56-77	57-83	17-68	77-96
PCR	86-91	33-97	27-71	74-88
T2Candida	33-46	93-97	61-71	74-97
Peritonitis score	84	50	67	72

Légende : BDG : 1,3 beta-D-glucan sanguin ; CAGTA : *C. albicans* Germ Tube Antibody ; Se : Sensibilité, Sp : Spécificité ; VPN : valeur prédictive négative ; VPP : valeur prédictive positive.

4. Messages clés concernant l'épidémiologie et le diagnostic des candidoses intra-abdominales

Les candidoses intra-abdominales doivent être étudiées séparément des autres candidoses invasives notamment les candidémies,

La périctonite post-opératoire semble particulièrement intéressante pour étudier la candidose intra-abdominale,

La prévalence actuelle des candidoses intra-abdominales est estimée à ~ 20-45% selon les populations incluses (sélectionnée à haut risque versus non sélectionnée),

Deux principaux facteurs de risque : les laparotomies répétées et la perforation gastro-intestinale,

Deux principaux facteurs associés à la mortalité : le délai du contrôle de la source et de l'introduction d'un ATF adapté, eux même directement liés au délai de détection de *Candida* dans le liquide périctonéal,

L'optimisation diagnostique pourrait passer par un algorithme combinant score clinique et biomarqueurs afin d'atteindre des performances diagnostiques compatibles avec une efficacité et une sécurité pour le patient.

Chapitre 2 : Comment optimiser le traitement antifongique de la candidose intra-abdominale ?

L'introduction précoce et à la bonne dose d'un traitement antifongique (ATF) est un élément majeur dans la prise en charge des CIA.^{6,9} Une échinocandine est le choix consensuel dans les recommandations actuelles comme ATF de première ligne.^{82,96} En revanche, les doses recommandées sont les mêmes que celles pour les patients hors réanimation. Or, le sepsis abdominal a des spécificités pharmacocinétiques (PK) et pharmacodynamiques (PD) qui exposent les patients de réanimation à des concentrations insuffisantes d'ATF. Ces spécificités PK/PD seront détaillées dans ce chapitre.

La durée du traitement ATF est quant à elle non consensuelle et dépend du type de CIA et de l'évolution clinique. Seule la durée en cas de candidémie est fortement recommandée : deux semaines après la première hémoculture négative. Dans le cas de la CIA, la durée est habituellement de deux à trois semaines. Une revue de la littérature sur la durée de traitement de la CIA sera détaillée dans ce chapitre.

Choix de l'ATF, optimisation des posologies, durée, patients justifiant d'un traitement ATF sont autant de questions qui rentrent dans le cadre d'un programme de bon usage des antifongiques (BUA).^{70,97,98} La littérature au sujet du BUA s'étoffe ces dernières années mais concerne majoritairement les candidémies et les patients immunodéprimés.^{99,100} De par ses spécificités comme la sélection des patients et la gestion des ATF, la CIA semble particulièrement concernée par ce type de programme.

1. Recommandations actuelles

1.1. Approche prophylactique dans la candidose intra-abdominale

Le traitement ATF prophylactique consiste à prescrire un ATF chez les patients à très haut risque de candidose invasive, pour prévenir sa survenue. Chez le patient immunocompétent, le fluconazole est l'ATF qui a été le plus évalué pour un stratégie prophylactique, notamment dans les années 90, début 2000.^{101,102} Les premières conclusions étaient plutôt encourageantes puisque la prescription prophylactique de fluconazole était associée à une réduction de 50 % de l'incidence des candidoses invasives, dont les CIA. Cette stratégie était particulièrement efficace chez le patient ayant subi une chirurgie abdominale récente ou une perforation gastro-

intestinale répétée ou un lâchage d'anastomose.¹⁰³ Cependant, le pourcentage de réduction était hautement dépendant de la prévalence de CIA dans la population concernée. Si la prévalence était faible (1-2 %), 100 à 200 patients devaient être traités pour obtenir une réduction de 50 % versus 10 à 20 patients en cas de prévalence > 10 %. De plus, si la population était mal sélectionnée, en plus d'être inefficace, l'exposition inutile au fluconazole pouvait s'accompagner de toxicité et favoriser l'émergence de résistance aux ATF. Une étude randomisée contrôlée a évalué l'intérêt d'une prophylaxie par caspofungine chez 222 patients de réanimation.¹⁰⁴ La prescription était basée sur des critères cliniques et le dosage du BDG sérique. L'incidence de la candidose invasive était faible dans l'étude et identique entre les deux groupes (prophylaxie / contrôle). De façon notable, 88% des patients inclus présentaient au moins un effet secondaire associé au traitement.

Par conséquent, considérant la difficulté de bien sélectionner les patients d'intérêt et les impacts négatifs en termes de toxicité et pression de sélection, cette stratégie prophylactique doit être discutée d'un point de vue bénéfice / risque.

Les recommandations^{82,96} actuelles stipulent :

Antifongique prophylactique :

- Fluconazole ou une échinocandine peuvent être utilisés chez les patients à haut risque avec une prévalence de candidose invasive > 5% (*faible recommandation ; niveau de preuve modéré*)
- Définition des patients à haut-risque : lâchage d'anastomose gastro-intestinale, transplantation de pancréas, d'intestin grêle ou hépatique.

1.2. Traitement ATF préemptif

L'approche préemptive consiste à administrer un ATF lorsqu'il existe un ou plusieurs biomarqueurs d'infection fongique sans confirmation microbiologique. Les biomarqueurs concernés sont les indices de colonisation à *Candida* et les marqueurs de la paroi fongique comme le BDG ou les GACTA. Les indices de colonisation ont été progressivement abandonnés du fait des contraintes logistiques et financières. De plus, un large essai randomisé contrôlé utilisant la colonisation comme argument pour débuter une échinocandine n'avait pas montré de bénéfice sur la survie.¹⁰⁵ Concernant les biomarqueurs de la paroi fongique, le plus étudié est le BDG. L'essai randomisé contrôlé récent Candisep a évalué l'intérêt d'une stratégie préemptive basée sur le dosage du BDG sérique.¹⁴ Les auteurs rapportaient que dans le groupe « BDG », un ATF était prescrit plus rapidement (1 versus 4 jours) et plus fréquemment

conduisant des coûts plus élevés. La mortalité n'était pas différente dans les deux groupes. Malgré une population à haut risque (60 % de chirurgie abdominale récente, 90 % de choc septique d'origine abdominale dans 60 % des cas), la prévalence de la candidose invasive était basse, de 15 %. Cette étude a renforcé l'idée que le BDG notamment, devait être utilisé pour arrêter un ATF plus que pour l'introduire.¹⁰⁶ Les recommandations actuelles ne sont pas en faveur d'une stratégie préemptive chez les patients de réanimation.⁸²

1.3. Traitement ATF empirique

Il est défini par un ATF introduit chez un patient de réanimation ayant un sepsis grave possiblement en rapport avec une infection fongique mais sans confirmation microbiologique. Cette stratégie combine l'évaluation de facteurs de risque, des biomarqueurs positifs et l'absence de preuve pour un sepsis bactérien.

Les recommandations actuelles pour le patient de réanimation :

- La stratégie empirique doit être considérée chez le patient avec des facteurs de risque de candidose invasive et aucune autre cause de sepsis. Elle doit être basée sur une évaluation clinique des facteurs de risque, la présence de marqueurs indirects de candidose invasive et/ou une culture fongique positive de site habituellement stérile (*recommandation forte ; niveau de preuve modéré*)⁹⁶,
- Uniquement chez le patient en choc septique ou défaillance multiviscérale (*recommandation forte ; niveau de preuve faible*)⁸²,
- Traitement de première ligne = échinocandine (*recommandation forte ; niveau de preuve modéré*), mais le fluconazole peut être utilisé si le patient n'a pas d'exposition récente à un traitement azolé et n'est pas colonisé à une souche résistante aux azolés (*recommandation forte ; niveau de preuve faible*)⁹⁶,

Place d'un ATF empirique dans le cadre spécifique des CIA :

Antifongique empirique :

- Signes cliniques d'IIA et facteurs de risque de CIA (chirurgie abdominale récente, lâchage de suture, pancréatite nécrosante) (*recommandation forte ; niveau de preuve modéré*)⁹⁶,
- Examen direct positif du liquide péritonéal (prélevé dans les conditions stériles) à *Candida*⁹²,
- Peritonitis score ≥ 3 sur 4⁹²,
- Traitement de première ligne = échinocandine.

2. Désescalade antifongique

La désescalade d'une échinocandine vers un ATF de la classe des azolés a été évaluée dans plusieurs études.¹⁰⁷⁻¹¹⁰ Tous les auteurs rapportaient que la désescalade était faisable sans risque de surmortalité dès lors que le patient était stabilisé, le contrôle de la source acquis et que l'antifongigramme confirmait la sensibilité de *Candida*. Néanmoins, il faut souligner qu'aucune de ces études n'était randomisée, la plupart étaient une analyse post-hoc d'une étude non conçue pour évaluer la désescalade et aucune n'était centrée sur les CIA.

Les recommandations actuelles soutiennent la désescalade vers fluconazole dès lors que le patient est « cliniquement stable et que la souche est sensible au fluconazole » (*recommandation forte ; niveau de preuve modéré*)⁸². Étant donné son niveau de preuve actuel, la question de la désescalade entre parfaitement dans le cadre d'un programme de bon usage des ATF afin de prendre en compte l'ensemble des paramètres, y compris l'adéquation du traitement probabiliste en termes de posologies et délai d'introduction.

3. Particularités pharmacocinétiques et pharmacodynamiques

Actuellement, en dehors de la classe à privilégier, il n'existe aucune recommandation spécifique pour optimiser les doses d'ATF chez le patient de réanimation.¹¹¹ Cependant, le sepsis abdominal présente des modifications PK et PD exposant au risque de sous-dosage et d'échec thérapeutique.

▪ Principales modifications pharmacocinétiques :

Les modifications PK des patients de réanimation sont médiées par deux mécanismes principaux : modification du volume de distribution (Vd) et des clairances d'élimination (CL), principalement rénale et hépatique.¹¹² Les modifications du Vd sont liées à la fuite capillaire secondaire à l'inflammation et les modifications de liaison protéique secondaires à l'hypoalbuminémie. Concernant les clairances d'élimination, le phénomène le plus important est celui de l'hyperclairance rénale (définie par une CL > 130 ml/min/1.73 m²).^{113,114} Enfin, les assistances extra-corporelles comme l'épuration extra-rénale et l'ECMO contribuent également aux modifications PK par différents mécanismes en lien avec le circuit, les membranes et la technique elle-même.^{115,116} Une revue systématique et méta-analyse publiée fin 2023 sur ECMO et ATF rapportait que, parmi les ATF utilisés dans la CIA, seuls le fluconazole et la micafungine pourraient justifier une augmentation des posologies en lien avec une augmentation de leurs Vd sous ECMO.¹¹⁷

Le sepsis abdominal aggrave ces modifications par plusieurs mécanismes :

- L'inflammation secondaire à la chirurgie^{30,118,119} se rajoute à l'inflammation septique particulièrement marquée dans le sepsis abdominal,¹²⁰ augmentant la fuite capillaire et donc le Vd,
- Le remplissage vasculaire massif de ces patients modifie le Vd,^{121,122}
- L'anesthésie générale, par les effets vasodilatateurs de drogues sédatives notamment, entraîne le recours au remplissage vasculaire et/ou l'administration de catécholamines qui modifient le Vd,^{123–125}
- L'altération de la circulation régionale (augmentation des catécholamines endogènes en rapport avec le traumatisme chirurgical)¹²⁶,
- Les pertes liquidienne et sanguine pendant la chirurgie qui modifient le Vd,
- La présence de drains chirurgicaux dont le débit est associé à une augmentation de la clairance de certaines drogues.¹²⁷

Ainsi, la période opératoire est particulièrement à risque de sous-dosage et nécessite probablement d'administrer des doses plus importantes au bloc opératoire. Aucune étude n'a évalué les concentrations d'ATF lors de la chirurgie à ce jour.

▪ Principales modifications pharmacodynamiques :

La mauvaise pénétration des ATF au site abdominal (ratio de pénétration < 0,4)^{111,128} entraîne un risque de sous-dosage susceptible de promouvoir le développement de résistance aux ATF.^{129,130} En effet, des études animales ont montré que le sous dosage des ATF, notamment à la phase précoce de l'infection, favorisait le développement de résistance aux ATF.^{129,130} Une seule étude chez l'homme a montré que chez les patients exposés aux échinocandines, la prévalence de résistance (notamment les mutations FKS) était plus fréquente et les auteurs suggéraient que la cavité péritonéale agissait comme un réservoir « caché » pour *Candida*.¹³¹ De plus, l'immunité est altérée en lien avec un état d'immunosuppression post-opératoire.^{29,132} Sachant que *Candida* est fréquemment isolé dans les PPO, il existe donc un risque de cumuler immuno-suppression et concentrations infra-thérapeutiques d'ATF chez ces patients.

▪ Quelles leçons en tirer ?

Ainsi il existe un risque théorique important de sous dosage antifongique du fait des modifications PK du patient de réanimation,¹¹² de la particularité du sepsis abdominal et de la faible diffusion des antifongiques au sein de la cavité abdominale.^{111,133}

Lors de l'écriture de la revue sur les particularités PK/PD des CIA nous avons analysé l'ensemble des études de population PK ayant rapporté ce type de données dans une population d'IIA. Toutes les études concluaient à des concentrations d'antifongiques insuffisantes.^{133,134} Il pourrait donc être pertinent d'augmenter les posologies notamment des échinocandines puisque ces molécules sont associées à très peu d'effets secondaires. Les études de modélisation PK incluant des patients de réanimation décrivaient à plusieurs reprises l'intérêt d'augmenter les posologies de caspofungine^{135,136} et micafungine^{137,138} pour obtenir une meilleure atteinte des objectifs PK/PD. Néanmoins, toutes ces études incluaient des cohortes de petite taille (< 35 patients) limitant la variabilité inter-individuelle et toutes comportaient des dosages post-opératoires. Or, particulièrement dans les CIA, le moment clé reste la phase opératoire, lors du contrôle de la source par la chirurgie. Il n'y a aucune étude ayant mesuré les concentrations d'antifongiques au moment de l'incision chirurgicale. De plus, il n'existe aucune étude ayant comparé fortes posologies versus posologies standards sur la mortalité. Faudrait-il pour autant conduire ces études ? La réponse n'est pas évidente car conduire ces études ne s'annonce pas simple. Comme nous l'avons décrit dans le chapitre 1, identifier les patients qui auront une CIA parmi ceux avec une infection intra-abdominale grave est difficile. La conséquence directe est que peu de patients reçoivent un traitement empirique en pré-opératoire.^{8,18} De plus, le délai du contrôle de la source par la chirurgie a un rôle majeur sur le devenir. Ainsi il faudrait comparer des patients selon le délai du contrôle de la source et les posologies d'antifongique. Il ne paraît pas éthique aujourd'hui de conduire de telles études, ce d'autant qu'elles impliqueraient un grand nombre de patients. En revanche, mieux caractériser la PK/PD des antifongiques au cours de la chirurgie semble pertinent. Dans l'attente, à l'image des données avec les antibiotiques, il paraît raisonnable de proposer des doses élevées au moins à l'instauration du traitement antifongique, surtout si le contrôle de la source est difficile ou retardé. En se basant sur les données actuelles de la littérature, nous avons proposé différentes posologies pour les principaux ATF utilisés pour le traitement des CIA (**Tableau 5**).

▪ Existe-t-il une alternative pharmacologique ?

Certains auteurs ont proposé de réutiliser d'anciens antifongiques comme l'amphotéricine B liposomale.¹¹¹ Cette molécule possède de nombreux avantages comme un large spectre notamment sur *Candida*, un effet fongicide rapide, un effet post-antifongique et une action contre le biofilm.^{139,140} Elle serait moins susceptible à l'augmentation des résistances de *Candida* en comparaison aux échinocandines. En revanche, à l'instar des études avec les antifongiques de première ligne, peu de données existent chez le patient de réanimation et dans

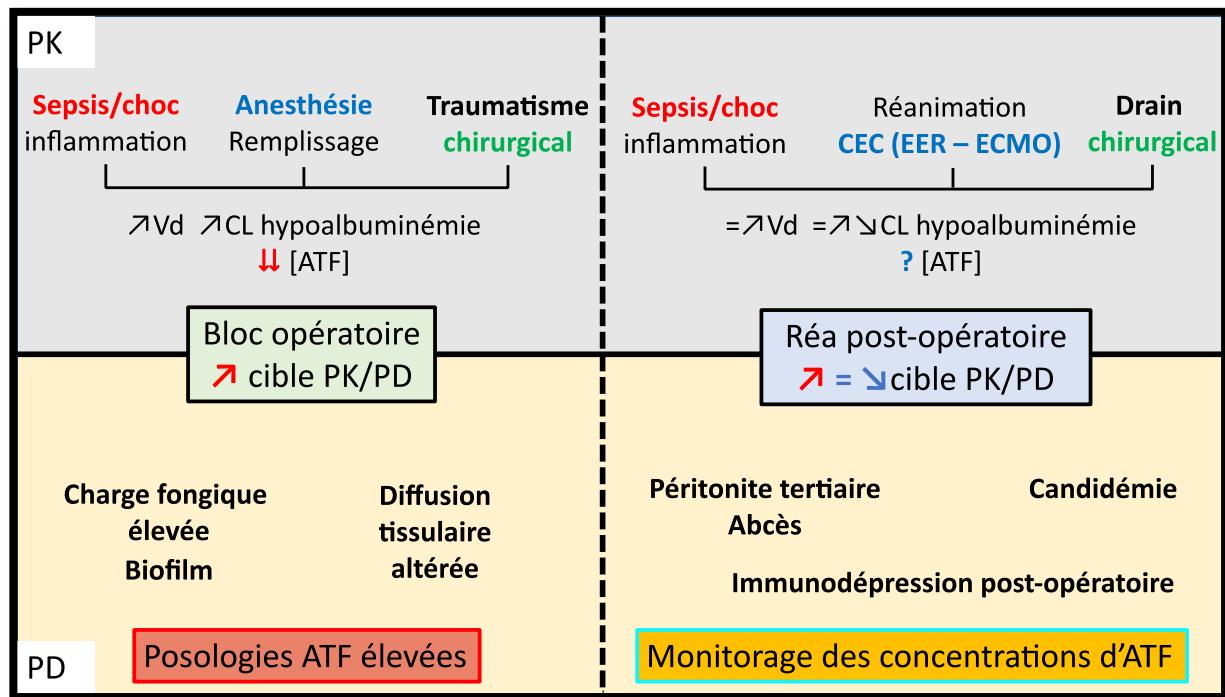
le péritoine.^{111,133} Les études avec la forme non liposomale suggèreraient d'augmenter les doses en réanimations. Une récente étude a confirmé la bonne tolérance de la dose de 5 mg/kg (versus 3 mg/kg) chez les patients de réanimation.¹⁴¹

- **Une place pour de nouveaux antifongiques ?**

Enfin, de nouveaux antifongiques arrivent progressivement sur le marché.¹⁴² Parmi ces derniers, la rezafungine et l'ibrexafungerp sont les deux molécules les plus étudiées.^{133,142} Néanmoins, il n'existe, à ce jour, aucune étude ni clinique, ni pharmacologique, chez les patients de réanimation avec une candidose intra-abdominale. La rezafungine, qui possède la caractéristique d'avoir une demi-vie très longue autorisant une injection hebdomadaire, a été évaluée dans une étude de population PK.¹⁴³ La modélisation PK proposée par Roepcke *et al.* suggèrerait que la PK de la rezafungine chez le patient de réanimation serait peu modifiée sans nécessité de modifier les posologies et l'atteinte des cibles PK/PD serait supérieure à 90% pour la plupart des espèces de *Candida* dont *C. glabrata*.¹⁴³ Il faut préciser que cette étude est une analyse post-hoc de base de données fusionnées de plusieurs études cliniques et que parmi les patients avec une candidose invasive, il s'agissait de candidémie dans > 75 % des cas. D'autres études sont donc nécessaires pour mieux appréhender la PK de la rezafungine chez le patient de réanimation avec une CIA.

La **Figure 5** résume les principales modifications PK/PD lors de la prise en charge des CIA. La période per-opératoire est particulièrement à risque de sous dosage et devrait justifier des posologies élevées. Une fois le patient transféré en réanimation en post-opératoire les conditions PK/PD se modifient. En effet, le champignon a été éliminé ou au moins la charge fongique a été diminuée par la chirurgie. Néanmoins, les concentrations d'ATF restent difficiles à prédire dans l'attente de la résolution du choc et/ou en cas de recours à des thérapeutiques extra-corporelles. Tous les scénarios sont possibles (sous dosage – surdosage – adéquat). Ainsi, le dosage des antifongiques devrait avoir toute sa place chez ces patients. Malheureusement, l'accès au dosage des ATF est très variable. De plus, si le sous-dosage est fréquemment observé en réanimation,¹⁴⁴ il n'existe pas d'intervalle de concentrations cibles pour les ATF dont l'atteinte (ou pas) serait associée au pronostic des patients.¹⁴⁵

Figure 5 : Timeline des modifications PK/PD au cours de la prise en charge des candidoses intra-abdominales (adaptée de Novy *et al.*¹³³).



Légende : La figure 5 est divisée deux fois. Verticalement, où la partie de gauche résume les modifications PK/PD lors la chirurgie et la partie droite, la période post-opératoire en réanimation. Horizontalement, la partie haute résume les modifications pharmacocinétiques et la partie basse les modifications pharmacodynamiques.

ATF : antifongique ; CEC : circulation extra-corporelle ; CL : clairance ; EER : épuration extra-rénale ; STP : suivi thérapeutique pharmacologique ; Vd : volume de distribution.

4. Principaux traitements antifongiques utilisés dans les candidoses intra-abdominales

4.1. Fluconazole

Le fluconazole est un triazolé inhibant la 14- α -demethylase, une enzyme nécessaire à la conversion du lanostérol en ergostérol, un composant de la paroi fongique.¹⁴⁶ C'est le traitement de référence pour la prophylaxie et le traitement des infections à *C. albicans*.^{82,96} C'est un acide faible hydrophile, hautement polarisé, faiblement lié aux protéines et possédant un faible poids moléculaire.¹⁴⁶ Sa demi-vie est d'environ 25 à 40 heures chez le volontaire sain. Ses propriétés physico-chimiques font du fluconazole un ATF aux concentrations extrêmement variables chez le patient de réanimation. En effet, sa faible liaison protéique et son caractère hydrophile le rendent particulièrement sensible aux modifications du Vd. De plus, comme il

est éliminé par voie rénale (par filtration glomérulaire et sécrétion tubulaire)¹⁴⁷, il est hautement sensible aux situations d'hyperclairance rénale ou en cas de recours à l'épuration extra-rénale. Concernant les effets de l'ECMO, les données proviennent principalement d'études pédiatriques^{148,149} et il existe peu de données chez l'adulte.^{150,151} Au cours de son stage à l'international en Australie, le doctorant a travaillé sur une base de données concernant des patients adultes traités par ECMO, l'étude ASAP ECMO (Antibiotic and Analgesic Pharmacokinetics during Extracorporeal Membrane Oxygenation¹⁵²). Cette étude multicentrique permettait le recueil des données PK de différents médicaments comme les antifongiques. L'objectif était d'utiliser une méthode de modélisation PK pour identifier les posologies optimales chez ces patients. Le doctorant a travaillé sur le fluconazole (*Annexe 7*)¹⁵³. Il a mis en évidence que les posologies de fluconazole ne devaient pas être fixes mais calculées sur le poids réel chez ces patients. Les recommandations de posologies actuelles étaient insuffisantes pour couvrir de façon optimale *Candida* ayant une CMI > 1 mg/L. Nous avons également observé que l'ECMO par elle-même n'avait pas d'impact sur la PK du fluconazole, probablement en lien avec ses propriétés physico-chimiques et son caractère hydrophile.

Le fluconazole est un traitement fongistatique concentration- et temps-dépendant. L'efficacité PK/PD est déterminée par le ratio de l'ASC/CMI pendant 24h qui doit être supérieur à 100.¹⁵⁴ Le fluconazole est actif sur la plupart des souches sauvages de *Candida* à l'exception de *C. glabrata* (sensibilité intermédiaire, dose dépendante) et *C. krusei* (naturellement résistant). Enfin, le ratio de diffusion péritonéal de fluconazole varie de 0.5 à 0.9 selon les sites anatomiques : 0.5 pour la cavité péritonéale,^{155,156} 0.85 pour l'ascite¹⁵⁷ et 0.9 pour le pancréas.¹⁵⁸

Concernant la toxicité du fluconazole, comme il inhibe fortement les cytochromes CYP3A4 et CYP2C9, de nombreuses interactions médicamenteuses doivent être prise en compte.¹⁵⁹ L'utilisation de molécules métabolisées via les mêmes cytochromes sont à proscrire, notamment celles allongeant l'intervalle QT.¹⁶⁰ Les interactions à connaître pour l'anesthésiste-réanimateur sont :

- Midazolam : un effet sédatif prolongé a été montré quand les deux médicaments sont utilisés en même temps, en lien avec une diminution de la clairance de l'hypnotique,^{161,162}
- Cyclosporine, tacrolimus et sirolimus : risque de surdosage des immunosuppresseurs,¹⁶³
- Warfarine et rivaroxaban : pour l'anti-vitamine K, un allongement du TP est observé lorsque les deux sont co-prescrits.¹⁶⁴ Concernant le rivaroxaban, des concentrations

plus élevées ont été rapportées en cas de co-prescription, notamment en cas d'insuffisance rénale, avec un risque hémorragique augmenté.¹⁶⁵

- Phénytoïne : le fluconazole inhibe son métabolisme via CYP2C exposant à une toxicité hépatique et neurologique,¹⁶⁶
- Rifampicine : un sous dosage en fluconazole est observé en cas de co-prescription, du fait d'une induction du cytochrome CYP3A par l'antibiotique, exposant à des échecs thérapeutiques.¹⁶⁷

A ce jour, il n'existe pas d'intervalle thérapeutique de sécurité pour le fluconazole.^{145,168} Une concentration minimale de 10-15 mg/L a été corrélée au succès clinique et peut servir de base pour un suivi thérapeutique personnalisé.¹⁶⁹

4.2. Les échinocandines

Les échinocandines sont des molécules lipopeptidiques cycliques ciblant la paroi fongique en inhibant la synthèse du BDG.¹⁴⁷ Trois molécules sont les plus étudiées dans le cadre des CIA : caspofungine, anidulafungine et micafungine. Ce sont des molécules hydrophiles, hautement liées aux protéines (> 90%) qui sont éliminées par dégradation spontanée dans le sang (anidulafungine) ou par métabolisation hépatique (micafungine et caspofungine). La métabolisation hépatique n'utilise pas le cytochrome P450, limitant ainsi le risque d'interactions médicamenteuses. Ce sont des agents fongicides ciblant presque l'ensemble des espèces de *Candida*.^{170,171}

La littérature PK/PD concernant les échinocandines a remis en cause le concept de posologie fixe pour ces molécules, sans nécessité d'ajustement en cas de défaillances d'organes et sans nécessité d'augmentation des posologies chez les patients les plus graves.¹⁷² Or il a été démontré que des posologies augmentées étaient nécessaires chez l'obèse,^{173,174} tout comme les patients avec une hypoalbuminémie du fait d'une augmentation du Vd.¹²⁸ Concernant les circulations extra-corporelles, du fait d'une forte liaison protéique, l'ECMO expose les échinocandines à une diminution des concentrations plasmatiques du fait d'une séquestration dans le circuit.^{115,175}

Ces molécules sont concentration-dépendantes, possèdent un effet post-antifongique et sont actives contre le biofilm. L'indice PK/PD associé au maximum d'efficacité est l'ASC/CMI.^{176,177}

Concernant la diffusion péritonéale des échinocandines, six études ont été publiées et rapportent un ratio de pénétration faible, d'environ 0,3.¹⁷⁷⁻¹⁸²

Enfin, les échinocandines sont des molécules bien tolérées avec un faible risque d'interactions médicamenteuses. Les principaux effets indésirables (occurrence ~1%) sont la leucopénie, l'anémie, l'hypokaliémie et une toxicité hépatique.¹⁴⁷

Comme pour le fluconazole, il n'existe pas d'intervalle thérapeutique de toxicité ni d'efficacité.^{145,168} Une concentration minimale de 1 mg/L a été proposée comme cible thérapeutique, en se basant sur des études *in vitro* et animales.

Le **Tableau 5** résume les caractéristiques PK/PD du fluconazole et des échinocandines. Il propose des posologies et des intervalles de concentrations pour le suivi thérapeutique pharmacologique (STP) chez le patient de réanimation.

Tableau 5 : Caractéristiques PK/PD et posologies des principaux antifongiques utilisés pour le traitement de la candidose intra-abdominale en réanimation (adapté de Novy *et al.*¹³³).

	Fluconazole	Caspofungine	Anidulafungine	Micafungine
Volontaire sain				
Posologie recommandée, q24h	800 mg (12 mg/kg) J1 Puis 400 mg (6 mg/kg)	70 mg J1 Puis 50 mg (70 si poids total > 80 kg)	200 mg J1 Puis 100 mg	100 mg
Liaison protéique (%)	12	92.4 - 96.5	99.0	99.9
$\frac{1}{2}$ vie (h)	25 – 40	9 - 11	40 – 50	11 – 20
CL (mL/min)	15 – 46	10 – 12	1	12.8 – 14
Patient de réanimation				
$\frac{1}{2}$ vie (h)	30 – 75	18.4	31.2	14.8
CL (mL/min)	13 – 36	13	17.1	12.2
Proposition de posologie, q24h	12 mg/kg J1 Puis 6 mg/kg	100-140 mg J1 Puis 50-70 mg	200 mg J1 Puis 100 mg	150 mg J1 Puis 150 mg
Défaillance rénale	Diminuer la dose de 50% si CL < 50 mL/min		Pas d'ajustement	
Épuration extra-rénale	Augmenter la dose si effluent > 2L/h Ou 300 – 400 mg x2/j		Pas d'ajustement	
Défaillance hépatique	Données insuffisantes	Child Pugh 7-9, diminué la dose entretien à 35 mg/j	Pas d'ajustement	Pas d'ajustement
Obésité	12 mg/kg J1 Puis 6 – 12 mg/kg	Augmenter les doses de 25 à 50% si > 80 – 120 kg	Augmenter les doses de 25% si > 140 kg	Augmenter la dose d'entretien 100 – 300 mg selon la CMI si > 125 kg
	Poids réel	2 mg/kg J1 Puis 1.25 mg/kg		
ECMO	Pas de données	Pas d'ajustement	Pas d'ajustement	Dose de charge 200 mg et dose d'entretien 150 mg
Suivi thérapeutique pharmacologique				
Cible PK/PD*	$fASC_{24}/CMI > 100$	$ASC_{24}/CMI > 250 – 1185$	$ASC_{24}/CMI > 2000 – 9000$	$ASC_{24}/CMI > 3000 – 10000$
ASC cible (mg/h/L)	> 400	> 100	110	> 130
C_{min} cible (mg/L)	10 - 15	> 3	> 3	> 3

Légende : ASC : aire sous la courbe ; CL : clairance ; C_{max} : concentration maximale ou pic ; C_{min} : concentration minimale ou résiduelle ; q24 : toutes les 24 h ; Vd : volume de distribution ; * selon l'espèce de *Candida*.

L’article « **Pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic considerations for antifungal therapy in the treatment of intra-abdominal candidiasis among critically ill patients** »¹³³ détaille l’ensemble des modifications PK/PD lors d’une CIA, analyse toutes les études PK/PD ayant inclus des patients de réanimation avec une CIA et suggère des propositions thérapeutiques. Cette revue a été rédigée par le doctorant lors du stage à l’international en Australie, à Brisbane au sein du groupe « Antimicrobial optimisation » du Professeur Jason Roberts de l’université du Queensland.

REVIEW

Open Access



Pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic considerations for antifungal therapy optimisation in the treatment of intra-abdominal candidiasis

Emmanuel Novy^{1,2,3}, Claire Roger^{4,5}, Jason A. Roberts^{1,4,6,7*} and Menino Osbert Cotta¹

Abstract

Intra-abdominal candidiasis (IAC) is one of the most common of invasive candidiasis observed in critically ill patients. It is associated with high mortality, with up to 50% of deaths attributable to delays in source control and/or the introduction of antifungal therapy. Currently, there is no comprehensive guidance on optimising antifungal dosing in the treatment of IAC among the critically ill. However, this form of abdominal sepsis presents specific pharmacokinetic (PK) alterations and pharmacodynamic (PD) challenges that risk suboptimal antifungal exposure at the site of infection in critically ill patients. This review aims to describe the peculiarities of IAC from both PK and PD perspectives, advocating an individualized approach to antifungal dosing. Additionally, all current PK/PD studies relating to IAC are reviewed in terms of strength and limitations, so that core elements for the basis of future research can be provided.

Highlights

- Intra-abdominal candidiasis presents specific pharmacokinetic (PK) and pharmacodynamic (PD) challenges where suboptimal antifungal concentrations are likely to occur leading to high risk of treatment failure.
- The intra-abdominal cavity has been highlighted as a hidden reservoir for resistance to antifungals including echinocandins.
- To date, all antifungal PK/PD studies in intra-abdominal candidiasis have enrolled small cohorts and have only provided post-operative antifungal concentrations analysis.
- Based on current evidence, high dosing regimens of antifungals should be strongly considered, especially at the onset of infection.
- The place of new antifungals (rezafungin, ibrexafungerp) requires more robust clinical studies including PK/PD analysis in critically ill patients.

Keywords Intra-abdominal candidiasis, Antifungal, Pharmacokinetic, Pharmacodynamic, Critically ill patients

*Correspondence:

Jason A. Roberts
j.roberts2@uq.edu.au

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



© The Author(s) 2023. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>. The Creative Commons Public Domain Dedication waiver (<http://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/>) applies to the data made available in this article, unless otherwise stated in a credit line to the data.

Introduction

Intra-abdominal candidiasis (IAC) is defined as the isolation of *Candida* from a sterile intra-abdominal sample along with symptoms of intra-abdominal infection [1, 2]. Current epidemiological data quantifies IAC having a cumulative incidence of 1.84 cases per 1,000 ICU admissions and a mortality up to 50% [3, 4]. *C. albicans* accounts for most infections followed by non-albicans species such as *C. glabrata* and *C. parapsilosis* [5, 6].

The management of IAC requires initiating early and adequate source control, and prompt initiation of anti-fungal therapy [7, 8]. Current guidelines recommend echinocandins as the first-line agent for empirical treatment of IAC in critically ill patients [8–10]. Fluconazole has been recommended for clinically stable patients with no recent exposure to azoles in the setting of fluconazole-susceptible pathogens [10, 11]. Second-line agents include the liposomal formulation of amphotericin B [10, 11] and voriconazole [12]. However, these guidelines do not provide any specific recommendations regarding alternative dosing regimens in the critically ill [7]. Indeed, only standardized antifungal dosing regimens are proposed. Of note, specific guidelines in cases of critically ill obese patients or those receiving extracorporeal support are lacking, even though IAC is common to these situations which are associated with difficult-to-predict antifungal concentrations [13]. The considerable pharmacokinetics (PK) inter-variability of antifungals was highlighted in the multinational Defining Antibiotic Levels in Intensive care Unit (DALI) study [14].

Most of the studies providing antifungal dosing recommendations for invasive candidiasis generally include more patients with candidemia than IAC [15]. Thus, most studies describe antifungal exposure in the central compartment (i.e., blood). However, it has been demonstrated that many antifungals diffuse poorly into intra-abdominal collections [13, 16]. Therefore, considering that critically ill patients may have lower plasma antifungal concentrations compared to other population groups, the risk of suboptimal concentrations at the site of infection may be even higher [17, 18].

This review explores the pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic considerations for antifungal therapy in the treatment of IAC among critically ill patients. Additionally, it proposes dose optimisation strategies of the most used antifungals in the treatment of IAC.

Pharmacokinetic considerations

Critically ill patients have severe pathophysiological changes driven by a change in the volume of distribution (Vd) and/or modified renal and/or hepatic clearances [19]. Altered Vd is characterized by the expansion of the interstitial space secondary to an increase in capillary

permeability, vascular filling, and change in protein binding. "Capillary leakage" is caused by systemic inflammation, a common feature during sepsis that is even more pronounced in septic shock. In critically ill patients with intra-abdominal infections, sepsis and septic shock affect more than 60% and 30% of them, respectively [20]. Abdominal sepsis is also associated with a cytokine "storm", further aggravating the patient's inflammatory state compared to sepsis of other origins [21]. Besides, abdominal surgery induced-trauma results in post-operative inflammation [22, 23]. The degree of post-operative inflammation depends on the surgical approach [24]. Laparotomy, which is the most commonly used [25], is more aggressive and thereby highly "inflammatory" compared to laparoscopic surgery. In addition to this "high" inflammatory state, abdominal sepsis is characterized by severe hypovolemia caused by a high prevalence of fever and other sources of fluid loss including anorexia, nausea, and vomiting [26]. Surgery also provides changes in extracellular fluid space mostly driven by neuroendocrine mechanisms. Indeed, part of the endocrine response to surgery involves the increased secretion of antidiuretic hormone and aldosterone leading to salt and water retention [27]. Sequestration of fluids may also occur due to large volume of fluids lost into a distended gut or the peritoneal cavity [28]. Thus, vascular filling is potentially massive in the sickest of these patients, with up to 10 L administered during the first days of fluid resuscitation [17, 29]. An increase in the drug Vd equates to insufficient drug concentrations within the central compartment (i.e. plasma). Lastly, surgery itself affects drug distribution by changes in blood volume (blood and fluid losses during laparotomy) and altered regional perfusion secondary to an increase in circulating catecholamines induced by surgical trauma [28]. Local inflammation combined with decreases in regional blood flow contribute to drug diffusion impairment.

During the post-operative period, interventions that utilise extracorporeal circuits such as renal replacement therapy (RRT) or extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO) may also contribute to changes in drug clearance depending on the physicochemical properties of the drug [30, 31]. In addition, alterations of protein binding are highly frequent in surgical ICU patients because of a physiological decrease of pre-albumin and albumin in response to an increase of inflammatory protein. Hypoalbuminemia is worsened by vascular filling, malnutrition and a catabolic state, frequent situations seen in post-operative surgical patients [32]. Lastly, indwelling abdominal drains left in situ post-operatively also contribute to an increased elimination of drug [33]. Indeed, previous studies have reported that the increase in drug clearance is proportional to drainage output [34].

Therefore, critically ill patients with IAC have significant drug PK alteration that potentially predisposes them to inadequate drug concentrations that can be exacerbated by surgical interventions during their ICU admission.

Pharmacokinetic properties of parenteral antifungals used in intra-abdominal candidiasis

Table 1 summarises the PK of antifungal agents used in the treatment of intra-abdominal candidiasis. Dosing regimens and therapeutic ranges for therapeutic drug monitoring (TDM) are proposed based on current evidence.

First-line agents

Fluconazole

Fluconazole is a triazole which inhibits the 14- α -demethylase which is an enzyme required for conversion of lanosterol into ergosterol. It has low plasma protein binding of 12% and is a weakly basic, highly polar, hydrophilic (LogP 0.5) drug with a small molecular weight [35]. These physicochemical properties expose fluconazole to unpredictable concentrations in the critically ill patient [36, 37]. Indeed, hydrophilic, low protein-binding and low molecular weight are highly influenced by increased V_d and renal clearance; leading to low drug exposure [19].

Fluconazole exhibits concentration- and time-dependent antifungal activity with a prolonged post-antifungal effect. The predictive PK/PD index associated with maximal fungal killing is the ratio of free-drug area under the concentration time curve (from 0 to 24 h) to minimum inhibitory concentration of the fungal organism ($f\text{AUC}_{0-24}/\text{MIC}$). An $f\text{AUC}_{0-24}/\text{MIC}$ of greater than 100 is associated with optimal fungicidal activity and positive outcomes in critically ill patients [38, 39]. Current dosing regimens in critically ill patients with normal renal function recommend a loading dose of 12 mg/kg intravenously followed by a maintenance dose of 6–12 mg/kg/day [40]. Maintenance doses of up to 18 mg/kg per day have been proposed [41]. Factors associated with suboptimal fluconazole exposure include obesity, high renal clearance and patients undergoing continuous RRT [42, 43]. In obese patients, total body weight has been used to calculate doses [44]. In the setting of RRT, adjusting the maintenance dose to 800 mg (400 mg q12h) has been suggested [45]. In contrast, ECMO by itself does not seem to influence fluconazole PK [31]. Indeed, PK alteration under ECMO is mostly related to lipophilicity or changes in V_d and to date, no sequestration in the ECMO circuit has been demonstrated with fluconazole. However, data in adult patients are scarce and more studies are warranted to better address optimal dosing of fluconazole in patients undergoing ECMO.

Regarding abdominal diffusion of fluconazole, very few data are available [46]. Sinnollareddy et al. [47] have measured subcutaneous concentrations of fluconazole in critically ill patients and reported an AUC_{0-24} 50% lower than in plasma. A mini-case series of three liver transplant patients reported that the ascites-to-plasma ratio of fluconazole was 0.85 [48]. A case report of a patient with cholecystitis showed that biliary fluconazole concentrations were 50% lower than in the plasma [49]. Lastly, relatively good penetration (88 to 91%) of fluconazole in the pancreas has been reported [50]. This is of significance given that pancreatic necrosis is a frequent source of IAC. Therefore, if tissue penetration based on small studies advocate for relatively good penetration of fluconazole (>50%), physicochemical properties of fluconazole expose it to suboptimal plasma concentrations in critically ill patients. As low plasma concentrations are associated with even lower tissue concentrations for hydrophilic drugs [51], the risk of suboptimal fluconazole concentrations at the site of infection must be considered very high. Thus, higher doses and TDM should be considered when treating IAC with fluconazole. However, data regarding the therapeutic range of fluconazole are lacking [40, 52, 53]. For instance, a mean trough concentration of 14 mg/L \pm 11 mg/L was reported in the DALI study [14]. A trough concentration of 10 to 15 mg/L has been proposed as a basis for fluconazole TDM [52].

Echinocandins

General considerations Echinocandins are cyclic hexapeptides targeting the fungal wall by inhibiting 1,3 beta-D-glucan synthesis [54]. They are fungicidal against most pathogenic species of *Candida* [55].

Echinocandins are highly protein-bound ($\geq 90\%$), hydrophilic molecules which are eliminated through ubiquitous spontaneous degradation. The PK/PD index most frequently reported for echinocandins is AUC/MIC [56, 57]. The AUC/MIC ratios ranged from >250 (caspofungin/*C. tropicalis*) to >10,000 (micafungin/*C. albicans*) [58] (Table 1). Thanks to low drug-drug interactions, non-renal elimination, and less extensive hepatic clearance, echinocandins are often considered easy-to-dose drugs [13]. Reported adverse events to date have not established any exposure-related toxicity [56]. Additionally, high doses in the treatment of endocarditis are well tolerated [59]. However, a growing body of evidence has challenged the concept of fixed standard doses [18, 56, 60]. Higher body weights may require higher dosing [61, 62], whilst patients with hypoalbuminemia may have an increased V_d and clearance [13]. Most studies point towards a 20% lower exposures in critically ill patients when compared with healthy volunteers [63–65].

Table 1 Overview of pharmacokinetic parameters and dosing regimens of antifungals for intra-abdominal candidiasis

	First-line agents	Caspofungin	Anidulafungin	Micafungin	Second-line agents
	Fluconazole				Liposomal amphotericin B
<i>Healthy volunteer</i>					
Recommended dosing regimen	LD 800 mg (12 mg/kg) MD 400 mg (6 mg/kg)	LD 70 mg MD 50 mg (70 if BW > 80 kg)	LD 200 mg MD 100 mg	100 mg	LD 6 mg/kg q12h MD 4 mg/kg q12h
C_{max} (mg/L)	9	9.5–12	7–8	8–18	58–90
AUC (mg·h/L)	90–100	98	110	66	713
Vd (L/kg)	0.7–0.8	0.15–2	0.6	0.2	0.2–1.6
Protein binding (%)	12	92.4–96.5	99.0	99.9	95–99
Half-life (h)	25–40	9–11	40–50	11–20	13–34
CL (mL/min)	15–46	10–12	1	12.8–14	6
<i>Critically ill patient</i>					
Proposed dosing regimen	LD 12 mg/kg MD 6 mg/kg	LD 100–140 mg MD 50–70 mg	LD 200 mg MD 100 mg	LD 150 mg MD 150 mg	5 mg/kg
Vd (L/kg)	1.2–1.4	0.1	0.5	3.45	0.42
Half-life (h)	30–75	18.4	31.2	14.8	13
CL (mL/min)	13–36	13	17.1	12.2	0.36–1.4
Renal impairment	Decreased dose by 50% when renal CL < 50 mL/min	No dose adjustment	No dose adjustment	No dose adjustment	Switch to oral formulation when creatinine CL < 50 mL/min
CRTT	LD 12 mg/kg MD 6 mg/kg	No dose adjustment	No dose adjustment	No dose adjustment	No dose adjustment
	Consider increasing the dose if ultrafiltration rate > 2L/h Or 300–400 mg q12	Consider increasing the dose if ultrafiltration rate > 2L/h Or 300–400 mg q12	Child-Pugh 7–9, decrease MD to 35 mg q24h	No dose adjustment	Limited data, no specific recommendations
Hepatic impairment	Limited data, no specific recommendations No data	Child-Pugh 7–9, decrease MD to 35 mg q24h MD 50–70 mg according to the MIC	Reduced AUC but not defined dose	Reduced AUC but not defined dose No data	Reduced maintenance dose of 50% Considered unbound concentration to be 50% higher than the total measured concentration
Hypoalbuminemia					

Table 1 (continued)

First-line agents		Second-line agents					
		Fluconazole	Caspofungin	Anidulafungin	Micafungin	Liposomal amphotericin B	Voriconazole
Obesity	Avoid fixed-dose, use weight-based dosing (TBW) LD 12 mg/kg MD 6–12 mg/kg	Increased the LD and MD by at least 25% when body weight > 80–120 kg LD 2 mg/kg MD 1.25 mg/kg	Increased the LD and MD by 25% in patients > 140 kg	Increased the MD from 100 to 300 mg according to the MIC when body weight > 125 kg	Increased the MD from 100 to 300 mg according to the MIC when body weight > 125 kg	Avoid fixed-dose, use weight-based dosing (TBW) 5 mg/kg	Avoid fixed-dose, use weight-based dosing (TBW) (based on non-ICU patients)
ECMO	No data in adult patients		No dose adjustment	No dose adjustment	Only case reports suggesting increasing of the MD and/or change for extended infusion or switch for amphotericin B deoxycholate	Circuit loss reported but no specific recommendations	
Therapeutic drug monitoring							
PK/PD target	$fAUC_{0-24}/MIC \geq 100$	$AUC_{0-24}/MIC > 250$ (<i>C. tropicalis/Kruusei</i>) 450 (<i>C. glabrata</i>)– 865 (<i>C. albicans</i>)– 1185 (<i>C. parapsilosis</i>)	$AUC_{0-24}/MIC > 2000$ (<i>C. parapsilosis</i>)– 3000 (<i>C. glabrata</i>)– 9000 (<i>C. albicans</i>)	$AUC_{0-24}/MIC > 3000$ (<i>C. glabrata/parapsilosis</i>)– $10,000$ (<i>C. albicans</i>)	$AUC_{0-24}/MIC > 3000$ (<i>C. glabrata/parapsilosis</i>)– $10,000$ (<i>C. albicans</i>)	Not defined	$fAUC_{0-24}/MIC > 25–100$
Therapeutic range (AUC) mg·h/L	>400	>100	110	>130	Not defined	Not defined	
Therapeutic range (C_{min}) mg/L	10–15	1–10	1–10	1–10	Not correlated with efficacy	2–6 (MIC of 1 mg/L)	

According to [13, 31, 35–46, 52–69, 77–87, 89–98]

ABW: adjusted body weight; AUC: area under the curve; Cl: clearance; C_{min} : minimal concentration; C_{max} : maximal concentration; CRRT: continuous renal replacement therapy; ECMO: extracorporeal membrane oxygenation; $fAUC$: AUC of the free concentration; LD: loading dose; MD: maintain dose; Vd: volume of distribution

Caspofungin It has been suggested to increase the loading dose to 140 mg in critically ill patients [66]. Likewise, a higher, weight-based dose of 2 mg/kg as a loading dose and 1.25 mg/kg as a maintenance dose have been recommended in critically ill obese patients [67]. Regarding ECMO, caspofungin loss via sequestering within the ECMO circuit was reported, suggesting to increase the loading and 24-hourly maintenance dose to 70 mg, respectively [31, 68].

Micafungin It has been proposed to increase the maintenance dose from 150 mg to between 200 to 300 mg 24-hourly in critically ill obese patients (>125 kg), depending on the MIC [61]. In patients with ECMO, it has been suggested to increase the micafungin loading and 24-hourly maintenance dose to 150 and 70 mg, respectively [31].

Anidulafungin If suboptimal exposures have been reported (~30% lower concentrations compared to healthy volunteers [69]), current data does not define what higher doses should be used [68]. No dosing adjustments are currently recommended for anidulafungin during ECMO.

Peritoneal diffusion of echinocandins Regarding peritoneal diffusion of echinocandins, eight PK studies [57, 70–76] (Table 2) were performed and reported an overall penetration ratio of ~30%, knowing that no PK/PD target in the peritoneum has been defined to date. One study also reported highly variable ascites-to-plasma echinocandin penetration ratios ranging from 0.02 to 0.46 in ascitic fluids [48].

Which lessons? Recent data supporting the need for higher echinocandin doses are mostly from PK studies. This data does not demonstrate, however, that the use of these proposed higher echinocandin doses is associated with better clinical outcomes.

Considering the PK variability of echinocandins in the plasma and the low to moderate penetration ratios in the peritoneal fluid, the risk of suboptimal echinocandin exposures at the site of infection remains high. Thus, use of higher doses and TDM are valid considerations. However, there are currently no defined therapeutic ranges for echinocandins [40, 52, 53]. Some authors have proposed a total trough concentration >1 mg/L or between 1 and 3 mg/L [52, 53].

Second-line agents

Liposomal amphotericin B

The lipid formulations of amphotericin B deoxycholate (L-AmB) are recommended as alternatives in cases

of echinocandin-resistant *Candida* infections [10, 11]. L-AmB has many PK/PD advantages such as broad-spectrum coverage, rapid time-kill rate, post-antifungal effect, and action against biofilm formation [77, 78]. PK/PD studies of L-AmB involving critically ill patients are scarce and reported lower Vd with considerable variability in L-AmB concentrations [79–81]. Furthermore, no clear PK/PD target has been defined for the liposomal formulation. Table 1 provides general PK data and influence of RRT [54], ECMO [82–84], and obesity on L-AmB dosing [85]. Considering the high variability of L-AmB concentrations with a high risk of underdosing, it seems reasonable to propose the dose of 5 mg/kg/day in critically ill patients with IAC which has been reported to be safe [86]. Last, one pediatric study has evaluated peritoneal diffusion and reported lower peritoneal L-AmB concentrations than plasma concentrations [87].

Voriconazole

Voriconazole is the second most used azole in critically ill patients with IAC [88]. It has been proposed as an alternative option in severe intra-abdominal infections that have a risk of fluconazole-resistant *Candida* strains [12]. Data in critically ill patients are scarce and reported large interindividual variability [89, 90]. PK/PD main characteristics of voriconazole are provided in Table 1 [54, 90] with influence of various clinical situations [13, 91–94] and extracorporeal supports [31, 54, 92, 95–98]. Considering the high interindividual variability and high occurrence of drug-drug interactions, voriconazole TDM is strongly recommended [13, 40]. Last, one study reported a peritoneal penetration ratio of 0.54 and 0.67 for single and multiple doses, respectively (Table 3) [99].

New antifungals

Among new antifungals arriving through the development pipeline [100], Rezafungin and Ibrexafungerp have been evaluated within phase 3 clinical trials in patients with invasive candidiasis [101–103]. Rezafungin is a new echinocandin with extended half-life and improved tissue penetration compared to other echinocandins [104–106]. The main PK/PD parameters [106, 107] and spectrum of activity [108, 109] are described in Table 2. Rezafungin PK is not affected by age, sex, race, body weight (34–155 kg), renal clearance (9.3 to >120 ml/min), continuous RRT [110], and impaired liver function (Child Pugh B or C) [111]. The PK/PD properties of rezafungin may advocate its use in IAC. Indeed, as it has been reported that IAC could provide a reservoir for the emergence of *Candida* resistance [112], considering the front-loaded exposure and higher tissue penetration, rezafungin may be associated with a lower risk of emergence of resistance compared to the other echinocandins [113]. However,

Table 2 Overview of clinical PK/PD studies reporting abdominal (ascitic and peritoneal fluid) concentrations of antifungals

Author	Type of study	Population	ATF	Samples	Results	Notes
Lin [99]	Prospective monocentric PK study	Adults with suspected or confirmed invasive candidiasis N=19 (4 Surgical)	Voriconazole Prophylaxis (n=9) Treatment (n=10)	Day 1 and then TDM data Day 1: h1, h2, h4, h6, h8, and h12 Peritoneal samples obtained from drain	Low and lower fluctuations of voriconazole concentrations in the PF than in the plasma Penetration ratio: 0.54 (single dose) and 0.67 (multiple doses) 81% of steady state concentration reached the PK/PD target	No IAC Heterogeneity of the population and voriconazole indication Intensive sampling only at Day 1 Peritoneal samples obtained from drain
Tortora [87]	Observational retrospective study	Children with liver transplantation N=6 (5 months–242 months)	Liposomal amphotericin B 3 mg/kg	Plasma: TDM Day 1 to 4 PF Day 1 to 4 Peritoneal samples obtained from drain	Peritoneal concentrations were lower than plasma with a correlation coefficient of 0.72 None of the patient reached the PK/PD target attainment in the PF	No IAC TDM data Peritoneal samples obtained from drain
Garbez [57]	Prospective monocentric PK study	Adults with secondary peritonitis N=11 SAPS II 38 [24–77] SOFA 7 [0–12]	Caspofungin 70 mg then 70 mg then 50 or 70 mg (>80 kg)	Day 1, between 3 and 4 PF day 1 h1, h1.5, h2, h4, h6, h12 and h24 Peritoneal samples obtained from drain	High PK variability Penetration ratio: 0.33 Adequate PTA for most susceptible species in patients with Free Fat Mass < 50 kg	IAC=10% (n = 1/10) No unbound concentration Peritoneal samples obtained from drain at day 1 No ATF concentrations during surgery
Weite [74]	Prospective monocentric PK study	Adults with proven or suspected invasive fungal infections N=29 ANF=11 CSF=6 MCF=13	Caspofungin 70 mg then 50 mg Anidulafungin 200 mg then 100 mg Micafungin 100 mg q24h	Day 1: h4, h8, h12, h18, and h24 Paracentesis on-demand Ascitic fluid from drain	Echinocandins concentrations in ascites fluid were lower than the simultaneous plasma levels	Nine patients with peritonitis with only 2 IAC Highly heterogeneous population No unbound concentration Ascitic fluid from drain No ATF concentrations during surgery
Garbez [72]	Prospective monocentric PK study	Adults with secondary peritonitis N=12 SAPS II 40 [29–67] SOFA 5 [1–9]	Micafungin 100 mg q24h	Day 1, between 3 and 5 h1, h1.5, h2, h4, h6, h12 and h24 Peritoneal samples obtained from drain	High PK variability Penetration ratio: 0.25 (Day 1) and 0.4 (Day 3–5) Adequate PTA for most susceptible species in patients with Free Fat Mass < 65 kg	IAC=50% (n = 5/10) No unbound concentration Peritoneal samples obtained from drain No ATF concentrations during surgery
Gioia [73]	Prospective monocentric PK study	Blood and peritoneal samples	Caspofungin 70 mg then 50 mg Anidulafungin 200 mg then 100 mg Micafungin 100 mg q24h	Day 4 h1, h6, h12, h24h	Most PF ATF concentrations < µg/mL Penetration ratio: 0.3	IAC=74% (n = 17/23) No unbound concentration Peritoneal samples obtained from drain No ATF concentrations during surgery

Table 2 (continued)

Author	Type of study	Population	ATF	Samples	Results	Notes
Pérez Civantos [75]	Prospective multicentric PK study Blood and peritoneal samples	Adults with secondary and tertiary peritonitis N=31 Apache II 22.7±5.9 SOFA 10.3±3.5	Anidulafungin 200 mg then 100 mg q24	Day 2, after LD and 1 MD h1, h3, h6, h12, h18 and h24 Peritoneal samples obtained from drain	ANF exposure PF < plasma Penetration ratio: 0.3	IAC = 12% (n=4/31) No unbound concentration Peritoneal samples obtained from drain No ATF concentrations during surgery
Dupont [71]	Prospective multicentric PK study Blood samples	Adults with complicated IAs N=14 SAPS II 54 [45–67] SOFA 8 [7–12]	Anidulafungin 200 mg then 100 mg q24	Day 1: T0, Tmax, T24; day 3: T0, Tmax, T24; day 5: T0, Tmax, T3, T4, T6, T12 and T24	Higher volume of distribution and lower half-life compared to other types of ICU patients	IAC = 85% (n = 12/14) No unbound concentration, nor peritoneal samples No ATF concentrations during surgery
García-de-Lorenzo [76]	Prospective monocentric PK study Blood and peritoneal samples	Adults with severe burn injuries or complicated IAs N=10 (IA) SOFA 5 [1.5–7.5]	Micafungin 1.5 mg/kg (BW)	Day 1, between 3 and 4 h1, h3, h5, h8, h18 and h24 Peritoneal samples obtained from drain	Penetration ratio: 0.29	IAC = 4 No unbound concentration No ATF concentrations during surgery
Grav [70]	Prospective monocentric PK study Blood and peritoneal samples	Adults with PPO N=10 Apache II 15 [12–24] SOFA 5 [1.5–7.5]	Micafungin 100 mg	3 days after MCF initiation Before, h1, h3, h5, h8, h18 and h24 Peritoneal samples issues from a Jackson-Pratt drain	MCF exposure PF < plasma Penetration ratio: 0.3 C_{max} achieved in 5–8 h in the PF 100% PTA: <i>C. albicans</i> (MIC 0.016 mg/l) <i>C. parapsilosis</i> (MIC 0.25 mg/l)	IAC = 40% (n = 4/10) No unbound concentration Peritoneal samples obtained at Day 3 d, from drain No ATF concentrations during surgery
Pea [48]	Case-series Blood, bile, and ascites samples	Transplanted adult patients non-critically ill patients N=3 (1 cholangitis, 2 peritonitis)	Fluconazole LD 400 mg then 100–200 mg q24 h depending on renal function	At steady state, from plasma, bile drains or paracentesis for ascitic fluid	Penetration ratio bile: 0.5 Penetration ratio ascites: 0.8	Documented candidiasis 100% Non-critically ill patients No unbound concentration No ATF concentrations during surgery

ANF: anidulafungin; APACHE II score: acute physiology and chronic health evaluation; ATF: antifungal; BW: body weight; C_{max} : maximal concentration; CSF: caspofungin; IA: intra-abdominal infection; IAC: intra-abdominal candidiasis; MCF: micafungin; PF: peritoneal fluid; PK: pharmacokinetic; PPO: post-operative peritonitis; PTA: probability of target attainment; q24: every 24 h; SAPS II score: simplified acute physiology score; SOFA score: sequential organ failure score

Table 3 Overview of pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic parameters and dosing regimens of new antifungal agents

	Rezafungin (CD101, Rezzayo™)	Ibrexafungerp (SCY-078, MK-3118)
Class	Echinocandin (structural analog of anidulafungin)	Triterpenoid (Semi-synthetic derivative of enfumafungin)
Indication	Treatment of candidemia and invasive candidiasis, in cases with limited or no alternative antifungal options	Treatment of vulvovaginal candidiasis
Authorities' approvals	EMA: 2022 FDA: 2023	FDA: 2021
Recommended dosing regimen	LD 400 mg MD 200 mg weekly intravenous	LD 1000–1500 mg MD 500–750 mg daily oral
Mode of administration	intravenous	oral
Bioavailability	Not applicable	35 to 50%
C_{\max} (mg/L)	11.8–19.2	0.43
AUC (mg·h/L)	667–827	6.8
Vd (L/kg)	0.95	8.5
Protein binding (%)	87.5–93.6	99.5–99.8
Half-life (h)	152	20–30
CL (mL/min)	5.8	880
<i>Candida</i> spectrum	All Including <i>C. auris</i> (↓ for <i>C. parapsilosis</i>)	All Including <i>C. auris</i> (↓ for <i>C. krusei, lusitaniae</i> and <i>guillermondi</i>)
PK/PD target	fAUC/MIC	fAUC/MIC
Critically ill patients	No data	No data
Critically ill patients with IAC	No data	No data
Animal model with IAC	Faster, higher, and longer peritoneal diffusion	Excellent penetration in the liver

According to [100–120]

AUC: area under the curve; CL: clearance; C_{\min} : minimal concentration; C_{\max} : maximal concentration; fAUC: AUC of the free concentration; EMA: European Medicines Agency; FDA: US Food and Drug administration; IAC: intra-abdominal candidiasis; IV: intravenous; LD: loading dose; MD: maintain dose; MIC: minimal inhibitory concentration; PK/PD: pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic; Vd: volume of distribution

its half-life precludes dose adjustment before one week. Considering the dynamic process of PK alteration in critically ill patients, clinical studies are warranted to quantify rezafungin exposure at the onset of infection.

Ibrexafungerp inhibits the production of 1,3-beta-glucan through non-competitive inhibition of the 1,3-beta-glucan synthase complex [114, 115]. The main PK/PD parameters [116–119] and spectrum of activity [114, 119] are described in Table 2. No dosage adjustment is recommended in patients with renal and mild-to-moderate hepatic impairment. Excellent tissue penetration has been reported in the liver, lung, kidney, spleen, skin and bone [114]. Regarding IAC, one murine model has confirmed excellent penetration of ibrexafungerp penetration in the liver with prolonged therapeutic exposure [120].

In addition to its interest in echinocandin *Candida* resistant strains, ibrexafungerp could be useful as an oral drug in replacement of azoles for de-escalation, especially when azoles are not well-tolerated. Ibrexafungerp is currently under investigation for step-down therapy after initial empirical treatment with echinocandins (clinical-Trials.gov number NCT02244606).

Pharmacodynamic considerations

Mechanisms of antifungal resistance

An increase in fluconazole and echinocandin resistance has been reported in both *C. albicans* and non-albicans species. This increase in antifungal resistance is mainly associated with an increased exposure to antifungal therapy in the ICU [112, 121, 122].

Mechanisms of antifungal resistance depend on the *Candida* species as well as the antifungal [123]. Broadly, there are three main mechanisms of antifungal resistance:

- Presence of biofilm, where the highest MICs have been observed mostly from in vitro studies [124],
- Increased number of efflux pumps which precludes accumulation of antifungal in the fungal cell [125],
- Reduced 1,3 beta-d-glucan synthase sensitivity [125].

These three mechanisms have been observed in *C. albicans*. The reduction in 1,3 beta-d-glucan synthase sensitivity caused by a mutation in FKS1 and FKS2 genes has been demonstrated to confer a cross resistance to azoles and echinocandins. *C. glabrata* has a reduced susceptibility to azoles secondary to an overexpression of efflux

pumps [125] and a reduced susceptibility to echinocandins through mutations in the FKS1 or FKS2 genes [126].

Antifungal resistance in IAC is due to poor tissue diffusion

Studies focusing on IAC are scarce and mostly come from animal model. Zhao et al. [105] reported a poor diffusion within the lesion during the first 6 h after a single dose in a murine model of IAC. These results highlighted, especially during the first day of therapy, insufficient drug exposure which potentially promotes development of antifungal resistance. A second study from Cheng et al. [127] used a murine model of IAC to address the virulence of *C. glabrata*. They reported that if the inoculum was not controlled at the onset of infection, it led to a high occurrence of candidemia with 100% of mice death. Then, if *C. glabrata* was not eradicate, abscess formation could occur, which persisted in most of the mice for at least 28 days. This study describes the dynamic process of IAC depending on the size of the inoculum and highlights the importance of adequate antifungal exposure at the onset of IAC to avoid candidemia, and thereafter to avoid abscess and/or tertiary peritonitis where antifungal diffusion remains challenging. One study has evaluated the prevalence of antifungal resistance among patients with IAC and prior echinocandin exposure. FKS mutant *Candida* isolates were identified in 24% (6/25) of patients [128], with the presence of FKS mutations associated with prolonged echinocandin exposure ($P=0.01$) and therapeutic failures despite source control interventions (100%). The authors suggest that IAC acts as a hidden reservoir for the emergence of echinocandin-resistant *Candida*. These observations were supported by the ongoing challenge of insufficient drug penetration during therapy for IAC supported by animal studies and clinical studies.

The *C. auris* threat

In the last decade, an increased number of outbreaks involving *C. auris* has been reported worldwide [129, 130]. *C. auris* has reduced susceptibility to the predominantly used antifungals (i.e. azoles, echinocandins, amphotericin B) [131, 132]. Current microbiological data reported that 90% of *C. auris* strains demonstrated resistance to fluconazole, 30% to amphotericin B, and 5% to echinocandins [133]. Rezafungin and ibrexafungerp demonstrated better susceptibility and a reduction in mortality using an animal *C. auris* candidemia model [131]. Thus, considering the risk suboptimal antifungal concentrations during IAC and the ability to develop resistance to antifungal of *C. auris*, the choice of antifungal and dose are of paramount importance in case of IAC caused by this difficult-to-treat pathogen.

Which role for the immune response?

Lastly, the role of immunological processes during IAC must be considered when determining antifungal PK/PD targets, as both innate and adaptive immunity are important for defence against *Candida* [134]. Neutrophils and macrophages have an important role in *Candida* recognition and activation of the immune response thereafter. As mentioned above, abdominal surgery induced-trauma provides peri- and post-operative inflammation followed by immunosuppression [22]. Impairment of the immune response during this period can promote *Candida* growth and exacerbate virulence [135, 136]. Besides, *Candida* is frequently encountered in post-operative peritonitis [137]. As it has been suggested to aim for higher PK/PD targets for antibiotics in the case of neutropenia [138], we wonder if in post-operative peritonitis, a more aggressive antifungal PK/PD target may need to be considered. Thus, studies including immunosuppressed critically ill patients with IAC exploring the relationship between antifungal exposure and clinical outcomes are also warranted.

Figure 1 summarises the PK and PD considerations when treating critically ill patients with IAC requiring surgery.

Lessons learned from PK/PD studies conducted in critically ill patients with IAC

Table 3 provides a summary of retrieved PK/PD studies which have focused on the use of antifungal during IAC. Details regarding study selection are provided in the Additional file 1 with the ClinPK statement checklist [139] for each included study (Additional file 1: Table S2). Overall, the studies fulfilled more than 80% of PK analysis checklist items (namely, use of valid quantitative bioanalytical methods, description of the PK modelling methods and software used, and adequate detail of the PK analysis performed). The main weakness across all studies was related to patient selection and follow-up from a clinical perspective.

Population consideration

All study investigators acknowledged the small size of their cohorts (between 3 and 31 patients) and highlighted a high inter-subject variability. Moreover, the case-mix of patients was mostly composed of secondary peritonitis, with IAC suspected rather than confirmed in most cases. Thus, the impact of PK/PD target attainment on mortality cannot be addressed due to the small sample sizes and the low number of confirmed cases of IAC. Echinocandin is the most evaluated antifungal class in IAC. Only one case-series addressed the PK of fluconazole in abdominal samples, in a non-ICU population.

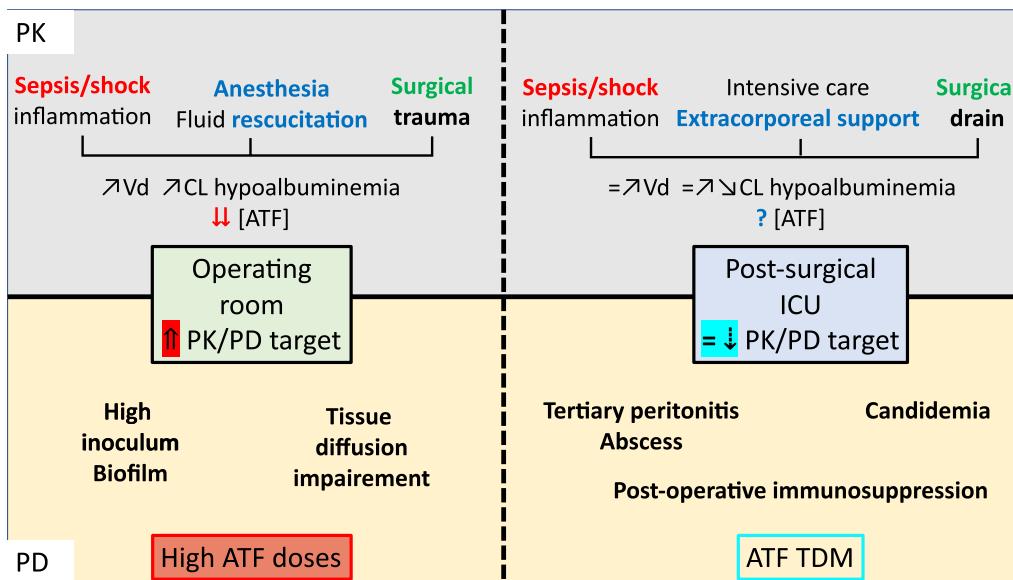


Fig. 1 PK/PD alterations during intra-abdominal candidiasis. PK: pharmacokinetic; PD: pharmacodynamic; Vd: volume of distribution; CL: clearance; ICU: intensive care unit; ATF: antifungal; TDM: therapeutic drug monitoring. Figure 1 is split twice: vertically, where left side represents the per-operative phase and right side the post-operative period, and horizontally, where the upper case described the sources of pharmacokinetic alterations, and the lower case, the sources of pharmacodynamic alterations. In the operating room, sources of PK variability are driven by the sepsis/shock, the resuscitation (fluid resuscitation and catecholamines), the anaesthesia, and inflammation caused by the surgical trauma. Together they contribute to a high risk of suboptimal antifungal concentrations by increase in volume of distribution and clearance in both the plasma and the peritoneum. From a pharmacodynamic perspective, before the source control is performed by the surgeon, high inoculum potentially protect by *Candida* biofilm and low tissue penetration could promote antifungal resistance. Thus, increased PK/PD target and high dose of antifungal are required. During the post-operative period, the source control is supposed to be achieved and thereby the sepsis/shock should be less important. However, organ failures caused by the abdominal sepsis could occur, and provide the need for extracorporeal support such as renal replacement therapy or ECMO. The presence of surgical drains could increase drug clearance. Therefore, antifungal concentrations are highly unpredictable, from low to high concentration. From a pharmacodynamic perspective, source control has been performed but an immunoparalysis could be present and candidemia and/or abscess/tertiary peritonitis could occur. Therefore, therapeutic drug monitoring of antifungal should be considered

Laboratory consideration

In all studies, only the total concentration was measured. However, from a tissue diffusion perspective, the unbound concentration should be assessed in further studies, especially in critically ill patients because of a high prevalence of hypoalbuminemia and marked fluctuations in serum albumin concentrations during acute illness [140]. Regarding peritoneal samples, most studies obtained samples from in situ abdominal drains and acknowledged less data compared to blood samples given these drains were usually removed after 72 h post-operatively. Therefore, peritoneal fluid samples obtained intra-operatively would allow for more accurate PK data describing antifungal abdominal diffusion.

Clinical course of IAC consideration

All studies analysed the PK/PD targets based on antifungal concentrations obtained from the post-operative period, often two to three days after surgery to evaluate steady-state concentrations. In our opinion, except

perhaps for tertiary peritonitis (poorly studied thus far), the post-operative period has lower impact on mortality compared to the surgical period. Indeed, mortality increases with delay in source control and commencement of antifungal therapy [4]. Thus, if a PK/PD study aims to evaluate the impact of PK/PD target attainment on mortality, intra-operative sampling must be considered because: (i) this is the phase where inoculum is potentially the highest, (ii) the PK alterations from sepsis, surgery, and resuscitation therapeutics are maximized, and (iii) source control is ongoing.

However, there is still a risk of unpredictable antifungal concentrations during the post-operative period. Indeed, because of all other sources of PK variability in critically ill patients such as renal failure or extracorporeal support, the risk of suboptimal exposure can persist throughout the course of therapy [19, 141]. Therefore, in cases of either candidemia, tertiary peritonitis or inadequate source control, ensuring optimal antifungal exposure is crucial, knowing that these situations require longer antifungal duration [142].

Further perspectives

Based on the PK and PD challenges noted, we believe that further clinical studies evaluating impact of anti-fungal PK/PD parameters on outcome such as mortality are warranted and of crucial importance, especially studies that sample during the peri-operative phase during surgical intervention. This observation implies that antifungal therapy should commence before surgery, which is not always the case because of the diagnostic difficulties associated with identifying IAC [143]. Indeed, in the AMARCAND-2 study, antifungal therapy was started after *Candida* documentation in 70% of the patients, thus noting that few patients received antifungal at the onset of IAC [88]. Performing PK/PD analysis during and after surgery would allow to describe important fluctuations in antifungal exposure, some of which may impact on patient outcomes. Certainly, the identification of critically ill patients with intra-abdominal infection who then develop IAC remains a challenge [144, 145]. The future consensus definition of IAC from the FUNDICU project [146] is eagerly awaited and would certainly help identifying the right population.

An additional difficulty when addressing clinical outcome such as mortality in critically ill patients with IAC is related to the *Candida* itself [147–149]. Although the presence of *Candida* in peritoneal samples is associated with poor outcomes [150], other studies have been inconsistent [151]. This may be due to whether the *Candida* isolated is a true pathogen responsible for mortality. Indeed, the pathogenicity of *Candida* has been questioned, with suggestion that it may be dependent on the clinical situation and/or underlying condition of the patient [152–154].

In the interim of obtaining more robust PK/PD data linked to patient outcomes, using antifungal TDM in critically ill patients with IAC, especially in cases with high prevalence of non-*albicans* species, should be advocated. In the absence of clear recommendations specifically for IAC in critically ill patients [52], and based on available PK/PD data [48, 57, 73, 74], we suggest trough concentrations between 10 and 20 mg/L for fluconazole, and 1 to 10 mg/L for echinocandins. Further studies aiming to evaluate these therapeutic ranges in critically ill patients are, however, required.

It is noteworthy that data regarding antifungal dose optimization using dosing software are scarce. In invasive candidiasis, only one study has been reported. Bayesian analysis using a limited sampling strategy has been evaluated for anidulafungin using data from 20 critically ill patients and showed reasonable prediction [69]. Given that use of TDM in combination with dosing software may become more common practice in the ICU,

assessment of these dose optimization interventions is a future consideration.

Conclusion

Due to the specific pathophysiology and associated interventions, IAC must be considered differently compared to other forms of invasive candidiasis such as candidemia. High-quality PK/PD studies are required to better describe the rate of antifungal target attainment in both plasma and peritoneal fluid, during and after the surgery, and when the patient is transferred to the ICU. The lack of intra-operative data is a current weakness. Proposed PK/PD targets, derived mostly from animal models, have yet to be validated in the critically ill population. To study the impact of antifungal PK/PD target attainment on clinical outcomes, larger sample sizes and multicentre studies are needed. In the meantime, antifungal TDM in critically ill patients with IAC should be considered, especially in cases of high prevalence of non-*albicans* species or when fluconazole is prescribed. Regarding the interest in new antifungals, studies involving critically ill patients coupled with rigorous PK/PD analysis are warranted before a more widespread use.

Abbreviations

AUC	Area under the curve
ECMO	Extra-corporeal membrane oxygenation
faUC	Area under the curve of the free (unbound) concentration
IAC	Intra-abdominal candidiasis
ICU	Intensive care unit
L-AmB	Liposomal amphotericin B
PD	Pharmacodynamic
PK	Pharmacokinetic
RCT	Randomized controlled trial
RRT	Renal replacement therapy
TDM	Therapeutic drug monitoring
Vd	Volume of distribution

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13054-023-04742-w>.

Additional file 1. Supplementary material S1: Methodology of the literature review for pharmacokinetic studies evaluating antifungals in IAC. **Supplementary material S2:** ClinPK checklist applied to evaluated pharmacokinetic studies.

Author contributions

EN: Conceptualization, Investigation, Visualization, Writing—original draft. CR: Conceptualization, Writing—review & editing. JAR: Writing—review & editing, Supervision, funding acquisition. MOC: Conceptualization, Investigation, Visualization, Writing—original draft, Supervision.

Funding

This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

Availability of data and materials

Not applicable.

Declarations

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Competing interest

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Author details

¹University of Queensland Centre for Clinical Research (UQCCR), Faculty of Medicine, The University of Queensland, Royal Brisbane & Women's Hospital Campus Herston, Brisbane, QLD 4029, Australia. ²Department of Anaesthesiology, Critical Care and Peri-Operative Medicine, University Hospital of Nancy, Nancy, France. ³Université de Lorraine, SIMPA, 54500 Nancy, France. ⁴Department of Anesthesiology, Critical Care, Pain and Emergency Medicine, Nimes University Hospital, Place du Professeur Robert Debré, 30029 Nîmes Cedex 9, France. ⁵UR UM103 IMAGINE, Univ Montpellier, Montpellier, France. ⁶Department of Intensive Care Medicine and Pharmacy, Royal Brisbane and Women's Hospital, Brisbane, QLD, Australia. ⁷Herston Infectious Diseases Institute (HeIDI), Metro North Health, Brisbane, Australia.

Received: 13 September 2023 Accepted: 14 November 2023

Published online: 20 November 2023

References

- Montravers P, Dupont H, Eggimann P. Intra-abdominal candidiasis: the guidelines—forgotten non-candidemic invasive candidiasis. *Intens Care Med*. 2013;39:2226–30. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s0134-013-3134-2>.
- Bassetti M, Azoulay E, Kullberg B-J, Ruhnke M, Shoham S, Vazquez J, et al. EORTC/MSGERC definitions of invasive fungal diseases: summary of activities of the intensive care unit working group. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2021;72:S121–7. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciaa1751>.
- Bassetti M, Vena A, Giacobbe DR, Trucchi C, Ansaldi F, Antonelli M, et al. Risk factors for intra-abdominal candidiasis in intensive care units: results from EUCAIDICU study. *Infect Dis Ther*. 2022;11:827–40. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40121-021-00585-6>.
- Vergidis P, Clancy CJ, Shields RK, Park SY, Wildfeuer BN, Simmons RL, et al. Intra-abdominal candidiasis: the importance of early source control and antifungal treatment. *PLoS ONE*. 2016;11: e0153247. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0153247>.
- Bassetti M, Giacobbe DR, Vena A, Trucchi C, Ansaldi F, Antonelli M, et al. Incidence and outcome of invasive candidiasis in intensive care units (ICUs) in Europe: results of the EUCAIDICU project. *Crit Care*. 2019;23:219. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13054-019-2497-3>.
- Hoenigl M, Salmantón-García J, Egger M, Gangneux J-P, Bicanic T, Arıkan-Akdağlı S, et al. Guideline adherence and survival of patients with candidaemia in Europe: results from the ECMM Candida III multinational European observational cohort study. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2023;23:751–61. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099\(22\)00872-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(22)00872-6).
- Pecanha-Pietrobom PM, Colombo AL. Mind the gaps: challenges in the clinical management of invasive candidiasis in critically ill patients. *Curr Opin Infect Dis*. 2020;33:441–8. <https://doi.org/10.1097/QCO.0000000000000684>.
- Montravers P, Assadi M, Gouel-Cheron A. Priorities in peritonitis. *Curr Opin Crit Care*. 2021;27:201. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MCC.0000000000000085>.
- Montravers P, Dupont H, Leone M, Constantin J-M, Mertes P-M, Société française d'anesthésie et de réanimation (Sfar), et al. Guidelines for management of intra-abdominal infections. *Anaesth Crit Care Pain Med* 2015;34:117–30. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaccpm.2015.03.005>.
- Pappas PG, Kauffman CA, Andes DR, Clancy CJ, Marr KA, Ostrosky-Zeichner L, et al. Clinical practice guideline for the management of candidiasis: 2016 update by the infectious diseases society of America. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2016;62:e1–50. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/civ933>.
- Martin-Löches I, Antonelli M, Cuenca-Estrella M, Dimopoulos G, Einav S, De Waele JJ, et al. ESICM/ESCMID task force on practical management of invasive candidiasis in critically ill patients. *Intens Care Med*. 2019;45:789–805. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-019-05599-w>.
- Mazuski JE, Tessier JM, May AK, Sawyer RG, Nadler EP, Rosengart MR, et al. The surgical infection society revised guidelines on the management of intra-abdominal infection. *Surg Infect*. 2017;18:1–76. <https://doi.org/10.1089/sur.2016.261>.
- Pea F, Lewis RE. Overview of antifungal dosing in invasive candidiasis. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2018;73:i33–43. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkx447>.
- Sinnolareddy MG, Roberts JA, Lipman J, Akova M, Bassetti M, De Waele JJ, et al. Pharmacokinetic variability and exposures of fluconazole, anidulafungin, and caspofungin in intensive care unit patients: data from multinational defining antibiotic levels in intensive care unit (DALI) patients study. *Crit Care*. 2015;19:33. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13054-015-0758-3>.
- Kullberg BJ, Arendrup MC. Invasive candidiasis. *N Engl J Med*. 2015;373:1445–56. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMra1315399>.
- Maseda E, Martín-Löches I, Zaragoza R, Pernán J, Fortún J, Grau S, et al. Critical appraisal beyond clinical guidelines for intraabdominal candidiasis. *Crit Care*. 2023;27:382. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13054-023-04673-6>.
- Jacobs R, Wise RD, Myatchin I, Vanhonacker D, Minini A, Mekeirele M, et al. Fluid management, intra-abdominal hypertension and the abdominal compartment syndrome: a narrative review. *Life*. 2022;12:1390. <https://doi.org/10.3390/life12091390>.
- Baracaldo-Santamaría D, Cala-García JD, Medina-Rincón GJ, Rojas-Rodríguez LC, Calderón-Ospina C-A. Therapeutic drug monitoring of antifungal agents in critically ill patients: is there a need for dose optimisation? *Antibiotics*. 2022;11:645. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics11050645>.
- Roberts JA, Lipman J. Pharmacokinetic issues for antibiotics in the critically ill patient. *Crit Care Med*. 2009;37:840–51. <https://doi.org/10.1097/CCM.0b013e3181961bff>.
- De Pascale G, Antonelli M, Deschepper M, Arvaniti K, Blot K, Brown BC, et al. Poor timing and failure of source control are risk factors for mortality in critically ill patients with secondary peritonitis. *Intensive Care Med*. 2022;48:1593–606. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-022-06883-y>.
- Zhao J, Zhang T, Deng Z, Han X, Ma T, Xie K. Evaluation of biomarkers from peritoneal fluid as predictors of severity for abdominal sepsis patients following emergency laparotomy. *J Inflamm Res*. 2023;16:809–26. <https://doi.org/10.2147/JIR.S401428>.
- Hogan BV, Peter MB, Shenoy HG, Horgan K, Hughes TA. Surgery induced immunosuppression. *Surgeon*. 2011;9:38–43. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.surge.2010.07.011>.
- Shan C-X, Ni C, Qiu M, Jiang D-Z, Li M. Influence of laparoscopy vs laparotomy on bacterial translocation and systemic inflammatory responses in a porcine model with peritonitis. *J Invest Surg*. 2014;27:73–80. <https://doi.org/10.3109/08941939.2013.837564>.
- Evans C, Galustian C, Kumar D, Hagger R, Melville DM, Bodman-Smith M, et al. Impact of surgery on immunologic function: comparison between minimally invasive techniques and conventional laparotomy for surgical resection of colorectal tumors. *Am J Surg*. 2009;197:238–45. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amjsurg.2008.01.021>.
- van de Groep K, Verhoeft TL, Verboom DM, Bos LD, Schultz MJ, Bonten MJM, et al. Epidemiology and outcomes of source control procedures in critically ill patients with intra-abdominal infection. *J Crit Care*. 2019;52:258–64. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcrc.2019.02.029>.
- Skipworth RJE, Fearon KCH. Acute abdomen: peritonitis. *Surgery*. 2008;26:98–101. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mpsur.2008.01.004>.
- Küllmar M, Saadat-Gilani K, Weiss R, Massoth C, Lagan A, Cortés MN, et al. Kinetic changes of plasma renin concentrations predict acute kidney injury in cardiac surgery patients. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*. 2021;203:1119–26. <https://doi.org/10.1164/rccm.202005-20500C>.
- Kennedy JM, Van Rij AM. Effects of surgery on the pharmacokinetic parameters of drugs. *Clin Pharmacokinet*. 1998;35:293–312. <https://doi.org/10.2165/00003088-199835040-00003>.

29. Wiedermann CJ. Phases of fluid management and the roles of human albumin solution in perioperative and critically ill patients. *Curr Med Res Opin.* 2020;36:1961–73. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03007995.2020.1840970>.
30. Roberts JA, Bellomo R, Cotta MO, Koch BC, Lyster H, Ostermann M, et al. Machines that help machines to help patients: optimising antimicrobial dosing in patients receiving extracorporeal membrane oxygenation and renal replacement therapy using dosing software. *Intens Care Med.* 2022. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-022-06847-2>.
31. Patel JS, Kooda K, Igneri LA. A narrative review of the impact of extracorporeal membrane oxygenation on the pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of critical care therapies. *Ann Pharmacother.* 2022. <https://doi.org/10.1177/10600280221126438>.
32. Larsen PB, Liest S, Hannani D, Jørgensen HL, Sørensen LT, Jørgensen LN. Preoperative hypoalbuminemia predicts early mortality following open abdominal surgery in patients above 60 years of age. *Scand J Surg.* 2021;110:29–36. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1457496919888598>.
33. Adnan S, Paterson DL, Lipman J, Kumar S, Li J, Rudd M, et al. Pharmacokinetics of beta-lactam antibiotics in patients with intra-abdominal disease: a structured review. *Surg Infect.* 2012;13:9–17. <https://doi.org/10.1089/sur.2011.046>.
34. Adnan S, Li JX, Wallis SC, Rudd M, Jarrett P, Paterson DL, et al. Pharmacokinetics of meropenem and piperacillin in critically ill patients with indwelling surgical drains. *Int J Antimicrob Agents.* 2013;42:90–3. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2013.02.023>.
35. Sinnolareddy M, Peake SL, Roberts MS, Lipman J, Roberts JA. Using pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics to optimise dosing of antifungal agents in critically ill patients: a systematic review. *Int J Antimicrob Agents.* 2012;39:1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2011.07.013>.
36. Sinnolareddy M, Peake SL, Roberts MS, Playford EG, Lipman J, Roberts JA. Pharmacokinetic evaluation of fluconazole in critically ill patients. *Expert Opin Drug Metab Toxicol.* 2011;7:1431–40. <https://doi.org/10.1517/17425255.2011.615309>.
37. Bienvenu AL, Pradat P, Matusik E, Piriou V, Rimmelé T, Parant F, et al. Suboptimal exposure to fluconazole in critically ill patients: pharmacokinetic analysis and determinants. *Infect Dis Now.* 2023;53: 104630. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.idnow.2022.10.002>.
38. Cuesta I, Bielza C, Larrañaga P, Cuenca-Estrella M, Laguna F, Rodriguez-Pardo D, et al. Data mining validation of fluconazole breakpoints established by the European committee on antimicrobial susceptibility testing. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2009;53:2949–54. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00081-09>.
39. Rodríguez-Tudela JL, Almirante B, Rodríguez-Pardo D, Laguna F, Donnelly JP, Mouton JW, et al. Correlation of the MIC and dose/MIC ratio of fluconazole to the therapeutic response of patients with mucosal candidiasis and candidemia. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2007;51:3599–604. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00296-07>.
40. Abdul-Aziz MH, Alffenaar JWC, Bassetti M, Bracht H, Dimopoulos G, Marriott D, et al. Antimicrobial therapeutic drug monitoring in critically ill adult patients: a Position Paper. *Intens Care Med.* 2020;46:1127–53. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-020-06050-1>.
41. De Bellis P, Bonfiglio M, Gerbi G, Bacigalupo P, Buscaglia G, Guido P, et al. High-dose fluconazole therapy in Intensive Care Unit. *Minerva Anestesiol.* 2003;69(45–52):153–7.
42. Sandaradura I, Marriott DJE, Day RO, Norris RLG, Pang E, Stocker SL, et al. Current fluconazole treatment regimens result in under-dosing of critically ill adults during early therapy. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis.* 2021;40:1521–8. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10096-021-04201-w>.
43. Chen L, van Rhee KP, Wasemann RE, Krekels EHJ, Wiezer MJ, van Dongen EPA, et al. Total bodyweight and sex both drive pharmacokinetic variability of fluconazole in obese adults. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2022;77:2217–26. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkac160>.
44. Allobaid AS, Wallis SC, Jarrett P, Starr T, Stuart J, Lassig-Smith M, et al. Effect of obesity on the population pharmacokinetics of fluconazole in critically ill patients. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2016;60:6550–7. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01088-16>.
45. Muijlwijk EW, de Lange DW, Schouten JA, Wasemann RE, Ter Heine R, Burger DM, et al. Suboptimal dosing of fluconazole in critically ill patients: time to rethink dosing. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2020;64:e00984-e1020. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00984-20>.
46. Felton T, Troke PF, Hope WW. Tissue penetration of antifungal agents. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 2014;27:68–88. <https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.00046-13>.
47. Sinnolareddy MG, Roberts MS, Lipman J, Lassig-Smith M, Starr T, Robertson T, et al. In vivo microdialysis to determine subcutaneous interstitial fluid penetration and pharmacokinetics of fluconazole in intensive care unit patients with sepsis. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2016;60:827–32. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.02461-15>.
48. Pea F, Righi E, Cojutti P, Carnelutti A, Baccarani U, Soardo G, et al. Intra-abdominal penetration and pharmacodynamic exposure to fluconazole in three liver transplant patients with deep-seated candidiasis. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2014;69:2585–6. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dku169>.
49. Bozzette SA, Gordon RL, Yen A, Rinaldi M, Ito MK, Fierer J. Biliary concentrations of fluconazole in a patient with candidal cholecystitis: case report. *Clin Infect Dis.* 1992;15:701–3. <https://doi.org/10.1093/clind/15.4.701>.
50. Shrikhande S, Friess H, Isseneger C, Martignoni ME, Yong H, Gloor B, et al. Fluconazole penetration into the pancreas. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2000;44:2569–71. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.44.9.2569-2571.2000>.
51. Jager NGL, van Hest RM, Lipman J, Roberts JA, Cotta MO. Antibiotic exposure at the site of infection: principles and assessment of tissue penetration. *Expert Rev Clin Pharmacol.* 2019;12:623–34. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17512433.2019.1621161>.
52. Gómez-López A. Antifungal therapeutic drug monitoring: focus on drugs without a clear recommendation. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2020;26:1481–7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmi.2020.05.037>.
53. Kably B, Launay M, Derobertmasure A, Lefevre S, Dannaoui E, Billaud EM. Antifungal drugs TDM: trends and update. *Ther Drug Monit.* 2022;44:166. <https://doi.org/10.1097/FTD.0000000000000952>.
54. Bellmann R, Smuszkiewicz P. Pharmacokinetics of antifungal drugs: practical implications for optimized treatment of patients. *Infection.* 2017;45:737–79. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s15010-017-1042-z>.
55. Barchiesi F, Spreghini E, Tomassetti S, Della Vittoria A, Arzeni D, Manso E, et al. Effects of caspofungin against *Candida guilliermondii* and *Candida parapsilosis*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2006;50:2719–27. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00111-06>.
56. Kim HY, Baldelli S, Märtsöön A-G, Stocker S, Alffenaar J-W, Cattaneo D, et al. Therapeutic drug monitoring of the echinocandin antifungal agents: is there a role in clinical practice? a position statement of the anti-infective drugs committee of the international association of therapeutic drug monitoring and clinical toxicology. *Ther Drug Monit.* 2022;44:198–214. <https://doi.org/10.1097/FTD.0000000000000931>.
57. Garbez N, Mbatchi LC, Wallis SC, Muller L, Lipman J, Roberts JA, et al. Caspofungin population pharmacokinetic analysis in plasma and peritoneal fluid in septic patients with intra-abdominal infections: a prospective cohort study. *Clin Pharmacokinet.* 2022;61:673–86. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40262-021-01062-6>.
58. Andes D, Diekema DJ, Pfaller MA, Bohmuller J, Marchillo K, Lepak A. In vivo comparison of the pharmacodynamic targets for echinocandin drugs against candida species. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2010;54:2497–506. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01584-09>.
59. Thompson GR, Jenks JD, Baddley JW, Lewis JS, Egger M, Schwartz IS, et al. Fungal endocarditis: pathophysiology, epidemiology, clinical presentation, diagnosis, and management. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 2023. <https://doi.org/10.1128/cmr.00019-23>.
60. Agrifoglio A, Cachafeiro L, Herrero E, Sánchez M, García de Lorenzo A. Are we near to the end of the standard dose of micafungin? *Crit Care.* 2018;22:149. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13054-018-2068-z>.
61. Maseda E, Grau S, Luque S, Castillo-Mafla M-P, Suárez-de-la-Rica A, Montero-Feijoo A, et al. Population pharmacokinetics/pharmacodynamics of micafungin against *Candida* species in obese, critically ill, and morbidly obese critically ill patients. *Crit Care.* 2018;22:94. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13054-018-2019-8>.
62. Wasemann RE, Ter Heine R, van Dongen EP, Burger DM, Lemmers VJ, Knibbe CA, et al. Pharmacokinetics of anidulafungin in obese and normal-weight adults. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2018;62:e00063-e118. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00063-18>.
63. Brüggemann RJM, Middel-Baars V, de Lange DW, Colbers A, Girbes ARJ, Pickkers P, et al. Pharmacokinetics of anidulafungin in critically ill

- intensive care unit patients with suspected or proven invasive fungal infections. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2017;61:e01894-e1916. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01894-16>.
- 64. Lempers VJ, Schouten JA, Hunfeld NG, Colbers A, van Leeuwen HJ, Burger DM, et al. Altered micafungin pharmacokinetics in intensive care unit patients. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2015;59:4403–9. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00623-15>.
 - 65. Martial LC, Ter Heine R, Schouten JA, Hunfeld NG, van Leeuwen HJ, Verweij PE, et al. Population pharmacokinetic model and pharmacokinetic target attainment of micafungin in intensive care unit patients. *Clin Pharmacokinet*. 2017;56:1197–206. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40262-017-0509-5>.
 - 66. Baily S, Gautier-Veyret E, Lé MP, Bouadma L, Andremont O, Neuville M, et al. Impact of loading dose of caspofungin in pharmacokinetic-pharmacodynamic target attainment for severe candidiasis infections in patients in intensive care units: the CASPOLOAD Study. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2020;64:e01545-e1620. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01545-20>.
 - 67. Märtsönen A-G, van der Elst KCM, Veringa A, Zijlstra JG, Beishuizen A, van der Werf TS, et al. Caspofungin weight-based dosing supported by a population pharmacokinetic model in critically ill patients. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2020;64:e00905-e920. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00905-20>.
 - 68. Liu X, Liu D, Pan Y, Li Y. Pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamics variability of echinocandins in critically ill patients: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Clin Pharm Ther*. 2020;45:1207–17. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jcpt.13211>.
 - 69. van Wanrooy MJP, Proost JH, Rodgers MGG, Zijlstra JG, Uges DRA, Kosterink JGW, et al. Limited-sampling strategies for anidulafungin in critically ill patients. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2015;59:1177–81. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.03375-14>.
 - 70. Grau S, Luque S, Campillo N, Samso E, Rodriguez U, Garcia-Bernedo CA, et al. Plasma and peritoneal fluid population pharmacokinetics of micafungin in post-surgical patients with severe peritonitis. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2015;70:2854–61. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkv173>.
 - 71. Dupont H, Massias L, Jung B, Ammenouche N, Montravers P. Pharmacokinetic study of anidulafungin in ICU patients with intra-abdominal candidiasis. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2017;72:1429–32. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkw568>.
 - 72. Garbez N, Mbatchi L, Wallis SC, Muller L, Lipman J, Roberts JA, et al. Prospective cohort study of micafungin population pharmacokinetic analysis in plasma and peritoneal fluid in septic patients with intra-abdominal infections. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2021. <https://doi.org/10.1128/aac.02307-20>.
 - 73. Gioia F, Gomez-Lopez A, Alvarez ME, Gomez-Garcia de la Pedrosa E, Martin-Davila P, Cuenca-Estrella M, et al. Pharmacokinetics of echinocandins in suspected candida peritonitis: a potential risk for resistance. *Int J Infect Dis*. 2020;101:24–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2020.09.019>.
 - 74. Welte R, Oberacher H, Gasperetti T, Pfisterer H, Griesmacher A, Santner T, et al. Pharmacokinetics and antifungal activity of echinocandins in ascites fluid of critically ill patients. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2021;65: e0256520. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.02565-20>.
 - 75. Pérez Civantos DV, Robles Marcos M, Azanza Perea JR, Pazos Pacheco C, García-Montoto Pérez F, Jerez G-C. Pharmacokinetics of anidulafungin in critically ill patients with Candida peritonitis. *Int J Infect Dis*. 2019;86:142–6. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2019.07.008>.
 - 76. García-de-Lorenzo A, Luque S, Grau S, Agrifoglio A, Cachafeiro L, Herrero E, et al. Comparative population plasma and tissue pharmacokinetics of micafungin in critically ill patients with severe burn injuries and patients with complicated intra-abdominal infection. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2016;60:5914–21. <https://doi.org/10.1128/aac.00727-16>.
 - 77. Di Bonaventura G, Spedicato I, Picciani C, D'Antonio D, Piccolomini R. In vitro pharmacodynamic characteristics of amphotericin B, caspofungin, fluconazole, and voriconazole against bloodstream isolates of infrequent *Candida* species from patients with hematologic malignancies. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2004;48:4453–6. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.48.11.4453-4456.2004>.
 - 78. Maertens J, Pagano L, Azoulay E, Warris A. Liposomal amphotericin B-the present. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2022;77:11–20. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkac352>.
 - 79. Van Daele R, Wauters J, Elkayal O, Dreesen E, Debaveye Y, Lagrou K, et al. Liposomal amphotericin B exposure in critically ill patients: a prospective pharmacokinetic study. *Med Mycol*. 2022;60:myac074. <https://doi.org/10.1093/mmy/myac074>.
 - 80. Heinemann V, Bosse D, Jehn U, Kahny B, Wachholz K, Debus A, et al. Pharmacokinetics of liposomal amphotericin B (Ambisome) in critically ill patients. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 1997;41:1275–80. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.41.6.1275>.
 - 81. Stone NR, Bicanic T, Salim R, Hope W. Liposomal Amphotericin B (AmBisome®): a review of the pharmacokinetics, pharmacodynamics, clinical experience and future directions. *Drugs*. 2016;76:485–500. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40265-016-0538-7>.
 - 82. Zhao Y, Seelhammer TG, Barreto EF, Wilson JW. Altered pharmacokinetics and dosing of liposomal amphotericin B and isavuconazole during extracorporeal membrane oxygenation. *Pharmacotherapy*. 2020;40:89–95. <https://doi.org/10.1002/phar.2348>.
 - 83. Sato S, Kamata W, Fukaguchi K, Tsunoda S, Kamio T, Koyama H, et al. Successful treatment of invasive tracheobronchial pulmonary aspergillosis with venous extracorporeal membrane oxygenation and combined systemic, intratracheal instillation of liposomal amphotericin B: a case report. *J Med Case Rep*. 2022;16:470. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13256-022-03692-1>.
 - 84. Branick K, Taylor MJ, Trump MW, Wall GC. Apparent interference with extracorporeal membrane oxygenation by liposomal amphotericin B in a patient with disseminated blastomycosis receiving continuous renal replacement therapy. *Am J Health Syst Pharm*. 2019;76:810–3. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ajhp/zxz054>.
 - 85. Ting MH, Spec A, Micek ST, Ritchie DJ, Krekel T. Evaluation of total body weight versus adjusted body weight liposomal amphotericin B dosing in obese patients. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2021;65: e02366-20. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.02366-20>.
 - 86. Rinaldi M, Bartoletti M, Bonazzetti C, Caroccia N, Gatti M, Tazza B, et al. Tolerability of pulse high dose L-AmB as pre-emptive therapy in patients at high risk for intra-abdominal candidiasis: a phase 2 study (LAMBDA study). *Int J Antimicrob Agents*. 2023. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2023.106998>.
 - 87. Tortora F, Dei Giudici L, Simeoli R, Chiusolo F, Cairoli S, Bernaschi P, et al. Therapeutic drug monitoring of amphotericin-B in plasma and peritoneal fluid of pediatric patients after liver transplantation: a case series. *Antibiotics*. 2022;11:640. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics11050640>.
 - 88. Leroy O, Baily S, Gangneux J-P, Mira J-P, Devos P, Dupont H, et al. Systemic antifungal therapy for proven or suspected invasive candidiasis: the AmarCAND 2 study. *Ann Intensive Care*. 2016;6:2. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13613-015-0103-7>.
 - 89. Myriantheis P, Markantonis SL, Evangelopoulou P, Despotelis S, Evodia E, Panidis D, et al. Monitoring plasma voriconazole levels following intravenous administration in critically ill patients: an observational study. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*. 2010;35:468–72. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2009.12.021>.
 - 90. Troke PF, Hockey HP, Hope WW. Observational study of the clinical efficacy of voriconazole and its relationship to plasma concentrations in patients. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2011;55:4782–8. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01083-10>.
 - 91. Weiler S, Zoller H, Graziadei I, Vogel W, Bellmann-Weiler R, Joannidis M, et al. Altered pharmacokinetics of voriconazole in a patient with liver cirrhosis. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2007;51:3459–60. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00791-07>.
 - 92. Fuhrmann V, Schenk P, Jaeger W, Miksits M, Kneidinger N, Warszawska J, et al. Pharmacokinetics of voriconazole during continuous venovenous haemodiafiltration. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2007;60:1085–90. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkm349>.
 - 93. Jeu L, Piacenti FJ, Lyakhovetskiy AG, Fung HB. Voriconazole. *Clin Ther*. 2003;25:1321–81. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0149-2918\(03\)80126-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0149-2918(03)80126-1).
 - 94. Diller E, Krekel T, Spec A, Klaus J. Evaluation of total body weight versus adjusted body weight voriconazole dosing in obese patients. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2021;65: e0246020. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.02460-20>.
 - 95. Radej J, Krouzecky A, Stehlík P, Sykora R, Chvojka J, Karvunidis T, et al. Pharmacokinetic evaluation of voriconazole treatment in critically ill patients undergoing continuous venovenous hemofiltration. *Ther Drug Monit*. 2011;33:393–7. <https://doi.org/10.1097/FTD.0b013e3182205d93>.

96. Ruiz S, Papy E, Da Silva D, Nataf P, Massias L, Wolff M, et al. Potential voriconazole and caspofungin sequestration during extracorporeal membrane oxygenation. *Intensive Care Med.* 2009;35:183–4. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-008-1269-3>.
97. Spriet I, Annaert P, Meersseman P, Hermans G, Meersseman W, Verbeselt R, et al. Pharmacokinetics of caspofungin and voriconazole in critically ill patients during extracorporeal membrane oxygenation. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2009;63:767–70. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkp026>.
98. Ronda M, Llop-Talaveron JM, Fuset M, Leiva E, Shaw E, Gumucio-Sanguino VD, et al. Voriconazole pharmacokinetics in critically ill patients and extracorporeal membrane oxygenation support: a retrospective comparative case-control study. *Antibiotics.* 2023;12:1100. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics12071100>.
99. Lin XB, Hu XG, Tang ZX, Guo PH, Liu XM, Liang T, et al. Pharmacokinetics of Voriconazole in peritoneal fluid of critically ill patients. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2023;67: e0172122. <https://doi.org/10.1128/aac.01721-22>.
100. Lamoth F. Novel therapeutic approaches to invasive candidiasis: considerations for the clinician. *Infect Drug Resist.* 2023;16:1087–97. <https://doi.org/10.2147/IDR.S375625>.
101. Thompson GR, Soriano A, Skoutelis A, Vazquez JA, Honore PM, Horcajada JP, et al. Rezafungin versus Caspofungin in a phase 2, randomized, double-blind study for the treatment of Candidemia and invasive candidiasis: the STRIVE trial. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2021;73:e3647–55. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciaa1380>.
102. Thompson GR, Soriano A, Cornely OA, Kullberg BJ, Kollef M, Vazquez J, et al. Rezafungin versus caspofungin for treatment of candidaemia and invasive candidiasis (ReSTORE): a multicentre, double-blind, double-dummy, randomised phase 3 trial. *Lancet.* 2023;401:49–59. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(22\)02324-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(22)02324-8).
103. Spec A, Pullman J, Thompson GR, Powderly WG, Tobin EH, Vazquez J, et al. MSG-10: a phase 2 study of oral ibrexafungerp (SCY-078) following initial echinocandin therapy in non-neutropenic patients with invasive candidiasis. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2019;74:3056–62. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkz277>.
104. James KD, Laudean CP, Malkar NB, Krishnan R, Polowy K. Structure-activity relationships of a series of Echinocandins and the discovery of CD101, a highly stable and soluble Echinocandin with distinctive pharmacokinetic properties. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2017;61:e01541-e1616. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01541-16>.
105. Zhao Y, Prideaux B, Nagasaki Y, Lee MH, Chen P-Y, Blanc L, et al. Unraveling drug penetration of Echinocandin antifungals at the site of infection in an intra-abdominal abscess model. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2017;61:e01009-e1017. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01009-17>.
106. Syed YY. Rezafungin: first approval. *Drugs.* 2023;83:833–40. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40265-023-01891-8>.
107. Lepak AJ, Zhao M, Andes DR. Determination of pharmacodynamic target exposures for rezafungin against *Candida tropicalis* and *Candida dubliniensis* in the neutropenic mouse disseminated Candidiasis model. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2019;63:e01556-e1619. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01556-19>.
108. Tóth Z, Forgács L, Locke JB, Kardos G, Nagy F, Kovács R, et al. In vitro activity of rezafungin against common and rare *Candida* species and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2019;74:3505–10. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkz390>.
109. Pfaller MA, Messer SA, Rhomberg PR, Jones RN, Castanheira M. Activity of a long-acting echinocandin, CD101, determined using CLSI and EUCAST reference methods, against *Candida* and *Aspergillus* spp., including echinocandin-and azole-resistant isolates. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2016;71:2868–73. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkw214>.
110. Jang SM, Hough G, Mueller BA. Ex vivo rezafungin adsorption and clearance during continuous renal replacement therapy. *Blood Purif.* 2018;46:214–9. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000489212>.
111. Rubino CM, Flanagan S. Population pharmacokinetics of rezafungin in patients with fungal infections. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2021;65:e0084221. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00842-21>.
112. Diaz-García J, Machado M, Alcalá L, Reigadas E, Sánchez-Carrillo C, Pérez-Ayala A, et al. Antifungal resistance in *Candida* spp. within the intra-abdominal cavity: study of resistance acquisition in patients with serial isolates. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2023;S1198–743(23):00404. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmi.2023.08.021>.
113. Ordway EE, Clement J, Vergidis P. The role of novel antifungals in the management of Candidiasis: a clinical perspective. *Mycopathologia.* 2023. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11046-023-00759-5>.
114. Wiederhold NP. Pharmacodynamics, mechanisms of action and resistance, and spectrum of activity of new antifungal agents. *J Fungi.* 2022;8:857. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jof8080857>.
115. Jiménez-Ortigosa C, Perez WB, Angulo D, Borroto-Esoda K, Perlin DS. De Novo acquisition of resistance to SCY-078 in *Candida glabrata* involves FKS mutations that both overlap and are distinct from those conferring Echinocandin resistance. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2017;61:e00833-e917. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00833-17>.
116. Angulo DA, Alexander B, Rautemaa-Richardson R, Alastruey-Izquierdo A, Hoenigl M, Ibrahim AS, et al. Ibrexafungerp, a novel triterpenoid antifungal in development for the treatment of mold infections. *J Fungi.* 2022;8:1121. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jof8111121>.
117. Jallow S, Govender NP. Ibrexafungerp: a first-in-class oral triterpenoid glucan synthase inhibitor. *J Fungi.* 2021;7:163. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jof7030163>.
118. Lepak AJ, Marchillo K, Andes DR. Pharmacodynamic target evaluation of a novel oral glucan synthase inhibitor, SCY-078 (MK-3118), using an in vivo murine invasive candidiasis model. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2015;59:1265–72. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.04445-14>.
119. Ghannoum M, Arendrup MC, Chaturvedi VP, Lockhart SR, McCormick TS, Chaturvedi S, et al. Ibrexafungerp: a novel oral triterpenoid antifungal in development for the treatment of candida auris infections. *Antibiotics.* 2020;9:539. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics9090539>.
120. Lee A, Prideaux B, Zimmerman M, Carter C, Barat S, Angulo D, et al. Penetration of Ibrexafungerp (Formerly SCY-078) at the site of infection in an intra-abdominal candidiasis mouse model. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2020;64:e02268-e2319. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.02268-19>.
121. Fournier P, Schwebel C, Maubon D, Vesin A, Lebeau B, Foroni L, et al. Antifungal use influences *Candida* species distribution and susceptibility in the intensive care unit. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2011;66:2880–6. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkr394>.
122. Bally S, Maubon D, Fournier P, Pelloux H, Schwebel C, Chapuis C, et al. Impact of antifungal prescription on relative distribution and susceptibility of *Candida* spp.—Trends over 10 years. *J Infect.* 2016;72:103–11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jinf.2015.09.041>.
123. Pristov KE, Ghannoum MA. Resistance of *Candida* to azoles and echinocandins worldwide. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2019;25:792–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmi.2019.03.028>.
124. Tobudic S, Kratzer C, Lassnigg A, Presterl E. Antifungal susceptibility of *Candida albicans* in biofilms. *Mycoses.* 2012;55:199–204. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1439-0507.2011.02076.x>.
125. Sanguineti M, Posteraro B, Lass-Flörl C. Antifungal drug resistance among *Candida* species: mechanisms and clinical impact. *Mycoses.* 2015;58(Suppl 2):2–13. <https://doi.org/10.1111/myc.12330>.
126. Alexander BD, Johnson MD, Pfeiffer CD, Jiménez-Ortigosa C, Catania J, Booker R, et al. Increasing echinocandin resistance in *Candida glabrata*: clinical failure correlates with presence of FKS mutations and elevated minimum inhibitory concentrations. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2013;56:1724–32. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/cit136>.
127. Cheng S, Clancy CJ, Hartman DJ, Hao B, Nguyen MH. *Candida glabrata* intra-abdominal candidiasis is characterized by persistence within the peritoneal cavity and abscesses. *Infect Immun.* 2014;82:3015–22. <https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.00062-14>.
128. Shields RK, Nguyen MH, Press EG, Clancy CJ. Abdominal Candidiasis is a hidden reservoir of echinocandin resistance. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2014;58:7601–5. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.04134-14>.
129. Benedict K, Forsberg K, Gold JAW, Baggs J, Lyman M. *Candida auris*-associated hospitalizations, United States, 2017–2022. *Emerg Infect Dis.* 2023;29:1485–7. <https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2907.230540>.
130. Kohlenberg A, Monnet DL, Plachouras D. *Candida auris* survey collaborative group, *Candida auris* survey collaborative group includes the following national experts. Increasing number of cases and outbreaks caused by *Candida auris* in the EU/EEA. *Euro Surveill.* 2022;27:2200846. <https://doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2022.27.46.2200846>.

131. de Treviño-Rangel RJ, González GM, Montoya AM, Rojas OC, Elizondo-Zertuche M, Álvarez-Villalobos NA. Recent antifungal pipeline developments against *Candida auris*: a systematic review. *J Fungi*. 2022;8:1144. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jof8111144>.
132. de Cássia Orlandi Sardi J, Silva DR, Soares Mendes-Giannini MJ, Rosalen PL. *Candida auris*: epidemiology, risk factors, virulence, resistance, and therapeutic options. *Microb Pathog*. 2018;125:116–21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micpath.2018.09.014>.
133. Chaabane F, Graf A, Jequier L, Coste AT. Review on antifungal resistance mechanisms in the emerging pathogen *Candida auris*. *Front Microbiol*. 2019;10:2788. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2019.02788>.
134. Netea MG, Joosten LAB, van der Meer JWM, Kullberg B-J, van de Veerdonk FL. Immune defence against *Candida* fungal infections. *Nat Rev Immunol*. 2015;15:630–42. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nri3897>.
135. Fried E, Weissman C, Sprung C. Postoperative sepsis. *Curr Opin Crit Care*. 2011;17:396–401. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MCC.0b013e328348bee2>.
136. van Till JWO, van Veen SQ, van Ruler O, Lamme B, Gouma DJ, Boermeester MA. The innate immune response to secondary peritonitis. *Shock*. 2007;28:504–17. <https://doi.org/10.1097/shk.0b013e318063e6ca>.
137. Bassetti M, Eckmann C, Giacobbe DR, Sartelli M, Montravers P. Post-operative abdominal infections: epidemiology, operational definitions, and outcomes. *Intensive Care Med*. 2020;46:163–72. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-019-05841-5>.
138. Guo B, Abdelraouf K, Ledesma KR, Chang K-T, Nikolaou M, Tam VH. Quantitative impact of neutrophils on bacterial clearance in a murine pneumonia model. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2011;55:4601–5. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00508-11>.
139. Kanji S, Hayes M, Ling A, Shamseer L, Chant C, Edwards DJ, et al. Reporting guidelines for clinical pharmacokinetic studies: the ClinPK statement. *Clin Pharmacokinet*. 2015;54:783–95. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40262-015-0236-8>.
140. Ulldemolins M, Roberts JA, Rello J, Paterson DL, Lipman J. The effects of hypoalbuminaemia on optimizing antibacterial dosing in critically ill patients. *Clin Pharmacokinet*. 2011;50:99–110. <https://doi.org/10.2165/11539220-00000000-00000>.
141. Novy E, Martinière H, Roger C. The current status and future perspectives of beta-lactam therapeutic drug monitoring in critically ill patients. *Antibiotics*. 2023;12:681. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics12040681>.
142. Bassetti M, Giacobbe DR, Berruti M, Del Puente F, Vena A. Adequate duration of therapy in severe fungal infections. *Curr Opin Crit Care*. 2020;26:466–72. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MCC.0000000000000758>.
143. Clancy CJ, Nguyen MH. Non-culture diagnostics for invasive candidiasis: promise and unintended consequences. *J Fungi*. 2018;4:27. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jof4010027>.
144. Soulountsi V, Schizidimos T, Kotoulas SC. Deciphering the epidemiology of invasive candidiasis in the intensive care unit: is it possible? *Infection*. 2021;49:1107–31. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s15010-021-01640-7>.
145. Montravers P, Blot S, Dimopoulos G, Eckmann C, Eggimann P, Guirao X, et al. Therapeutic management of peritonitis: a comprehensive guide for intensivists. *Intens Care Med*. 2016;42:1234–47. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-016-4307-6>.
146. Bassetti M, Scudeller L, Giacobbe DR, Lamoth F, Righi E, Zuccaro V, et al. Developing definitions for invasive fungal diseases in critically ill adult patients in intensive care units. Protocol of the FUNGAL infections Definitions in ICU patients (FUNDICU) project. *Mycoses*. 2019;62:310–9. <https://doi.org/10.1111/myc.12869>.
147. Rex JH. *Candida* in the peritoneum: passenger or pathogen? *Crit Care Med*. 2006;34:902–3. <https://doi.org/10.1097/01.CCM.0000202129.19154.64>.
148. Montravers P, Leroy O, Eckmann C. Intra-abdominal candidiasis: it's still a long way to get unquestionable data. *Intens Care Med*. 2015;41:1682–4. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-015-3894-y>.
149. Novy E, Esposito M, Birckner J, Germain A, Losser M-R, Machouart M-C, et al. Reappraisal of intra-abdominal candidiasis: insights from peritoneal fluid analysis. *Intens Care Med Exp*. 2023;11:67. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40635-023-00552-0>.
150. Montravers P, Dupont H, Gauzit R, Veber B, Auboyer C, Blin P, et al. Candida as a risk factor for mortality in peritonitis. *Crit Care Med*. 2006;34:646–52. <https://doi.org/10.1097/01.CCM.0000201889.39443.D2>.

5. Durée du traitement antifongique pour la candidose intra-abdominale

▪ Les recommandations :

Les recommandations françaises ne donnent pas de durée précise pour les IIA à *Candida*.⁹²

Les recommandations américaines ne fixent pas de durée précise : « la durée de traitement doit être déterminée par la qualité du contrôle de la source et l'évolution clinique » (*recommandation forte ; qualité de la preuve modérée*).⁹⁶

Les recommandations européennes suggèrent que les candidoses invasives (dont CIA) sans candidémie doivent être traitées pendant 10 à 14 jours (*recommandation faible ; qualité de la preuve faible*).⁸²

▪ La littérature :

Ainsi, si la durée actuelle ne devrait pas excéder 14 jours, les études récentes rapportent fréquemment une durée plus élevée. Dans l'étude AMARCAND-2 incluant des IIA compliquées, la durée moyenne était de 20 jours ± 14 jours, avec une médiane de 17 jours.⁸ Dans l'étude de Lamoth *et al.*, la médiane était de 14 [4-48] jours.⁸⁸ Dans l'étude pBDG2,¹⁸ la durée était inférieure à 14 jours (8 [5-8]). Dans cette étude, il était encouragé de suivre les dernières recommandations intégrant l'évolution clinique dans la durée de traitement.

Concernant le traitement empirique, la durée est généralement supérieure à 8 jours.^{8,183} Les stratégies d'épargne basées sur les biomarqueurs comme le BDG plasmatique sont encore mal connues par l'ensemble des réanimateurs. De plus, les études ayant évalué un algorithme utilisant le BDG pour guider le traitement ATF concernent majoritairement le patient « médical » avec un sepsis.^{14,184} Enfin, les études ayant évalué l'intérêt d'un programme de bon usage des ATF rapportent que les efforts investis pour réduire les durées de traitement étaient souvent peu récompensés.¹⁸⁵

Dans le cadre des CIA, il est important de différencier traitement empirique et documenté. Les difficultés pour le traitement empirique sont en rapport avec les difficultés diagnostiques des CIA et l'absence de biomarqueur ou score clinique fiables (ayant une bonne VPP). Ces questions sont particulièrement adaptées à des staffs d'infectiologie en réanimation. Nous développerons ce point dans la section « bon usage des ATF ». Pour le traitement des infections confirmées, contrairement aux IIA bactériennes où un consensus existe désormais en faveur d'un traitement < 8 jours pour les péritonites généralisées,¹⁸⁶ il n'existe pas d'étude similaire pour les CIA ayant comparé 8 versus 14 jours en l'absence de candidémie. Une fois le diagnostic confirmé, la durée optimale doit prendre en compte : l'hôte, la qualité du traitement empirique (délai introduction, dose, spectre) et la qualité du contrôle de la source.^{96,187}

Concernant l'évaluation du statut immunitaire de l'hôte, il faut souligner que la plupart des études étaient centrées sur le patient neutropénique et/ou d'oncohématologie, deux facteurs de risques reconnus de candidose invasive.¹⁸⁸ Or il existe de multiples sources d'altération de l'immunité chez le patient de réanimation, notamment l'immunosuppression post-opératoire et l'immunoparalysie associée à l'état septique.^{189,190} Une seule étude prospective non randomisée a évalué l'intérêt de l'interféron gamma pour restaurer l'immunité via l'HLA-DR chez huit patients de réanimation atteints d'une candidose invasive.¹⁹¹ Il n'y avait pas de CIA dans la population, mais les auteurs rapportaient une augmentation de l'expression de l'HLA-DR monocytaire parmi les patients ayant reçu l'interféron permettant de produire plus de cytokines pro-inflammatoires impliquées dans la défense antifongique.

A ce jour, il n'y a donc pas d'intérêt à poursuivre un traitement antifongique au-delà de 14 jours (hors candidémie). Il n'existe pas de données pour baser la durée de traitement sur le statut immunitaire. Il pourrait être intéressant de comparer la survie des patients atteints de CIA avec une altération de l'immunité attestée par l'HLA-DR monocytaire afin de pouvoir justifier une durée plus élevée de traitement chez ces patients. En effet, une série de huit cas d'infections fongiques invasives (aspergillose et candidose) a évalué l'immunité avant et après stimulation par de l'interféron gamma, en complément du traitement antifongique.¹⁹¹ Les auteurs montraient un taux d'HLA DR basal inférieur au seuil reconnu d'immunoparalysie et un effet bénéfique de la stimulation par l'interféron. Cette petite série de cas vient confirmer une tendance globale en faveur d'un traitement capable de moduler la réponse immunitaire.¹⁹²

6. Bon usage des antifongiques (« antifungal stewardship ») dans le cadre des candidoses intra-abdominales

▪ Les programmes de bon usage :

L'intérêt des programmes de bon usage des anti-infectieux (« antimicrobial stewardship ») a été exponentiel ces 10 dernières années.^{193,194} Les programmes de bon usage intègrent le choix (spectre), la posologie et la durée de traitement. L'objectif principal de ces programmes est « d'optimiser le traitement des infections tout en limitant les conséquences négatives non souhaitées, comme la toxicité médicamenteuse et l'émergence de résistances ». Ces programmes entrent en jeu à différents niveaux :

- Le service hospitalier : confirmation diagnostique de l'infection, adéquation aux recommandations locales de prescription des anti-infectieux

- L'hôpital : présence d'une équipe spécialisée en « antimicrobial stewardship », surveillance de la consommation des anti-infectieux et des résistances microbiennes,
- L'industrie agro-alimentaire : usage raisonnable des anti-infectieux dans l'agriculture,
- L'industrie pharmaceutique : limiter la production d'anti-infectieux large spectre,
- Les pouvoirs publics : faire de ces programmes une priorité nationale et aider leur financement.

En réanimation, ces programmes incluent^{195–197} :

- L'identification des patients qui nécessitent un traitement anti-infectieux : inflammation versus infection,¹⁹⁸
- Le timing d'introduction d'un traitement anti-infectieux : sepsis versus choc septique,¹⁹
- L'identification rapide du pathogène et de sa résistance afin d'éviter l'usage d'anti-infectieux large spectre,
- L'optimisation des posologies par une approche PK/PD,¹⁹
- La personnalisation des durées de traitement.

Tous ces items sous-entendent une équipe multidisciplinaire (cliniciens, microbiologistes, pharmaciens, spécialistes en hygiène hospitalière et pharmacologues) dirigée par un leader. Pour aider à l'implémentation de ces programmes, un accès rapide aux recommandations locales peut être facilité par la prescription informatisée et l'accès à un suivi thérapeutique pharmacologique.¹⁹⁵ Enfin, toutes les recommandations concernant le bon usage insistent sur l'importance d'un programme d'éducation, d'évaluation, d'audit et de retour d'expérience.

▪ **Le bon usage des antifongiques (BUA) :**

C'est un concept plus récent qui comporte les mêmes éléments principaux des programmes généraux.^{99,185,199–201} Si le plus souvent ces programmes BUA sont intégrés dans le programme global de la structure, certains auteurs plaident pour une équipe dédiée spécialisée en ATF surtout dans les structures à forte utilisation d'ATF.²⁰⁰ A la différence des antibiotiques, les méconnaissances des prescripteurs concernant les infections fongiques et leur prise en charge sont plus importantes. Ainsi, les programmes d'éducation et la restriction d'utilisation des ATF, ou son encadrement à des situations cliniques bien précises, sont souhaités.

▪ **Programme de bon usage des ATF adapté aux candidoses intra-abdominales :**

Nous pensons que la CIA est particulièrement concernée par ces programmes compte tenu du nombre de questions sans réponses claires dans la littérature et/ou les recommandations :

- Quels patients souffrant d'une IIA doivent bénéficier d'un ATF ?
 - o Y a-t-il une place pour la prophylaxie ATF ?
- Quel ATF ? quelle posologie ?
 - o Peut-on désescalader ? Quand ?
- Quels biomarqueurs puis-je utiliser ?
 - o Pour introduire un ATF,
 - o Pour arrêter un ATF,
 - o Pour évaluer la réponse au traitement ?
- Quelle durée de traitement ?
 - o Empirique versus documentée.
- Y a-t-il une place pour un suivi thérapeutique pharmacologique ?
 - o Quels intervalles thérapeutiques ?
 - o Comment interpréter les résultats ?
- Le contrôle de la source est-il acquis ?
- Le patient est-il immunodéprimé ?
 - o Faut-il prolonger le traitement ?
 - o Faut-il monitorer le statut immunitaire ?

Ainsi, nous pourrions proposer un cahier des charges. Le **Tableau 6** résume les éléments principaux d'un programme de bon usage pour les ATF.

Tableau 6 : Proposition de cahier des charges d'un programme de bon usage des antifongiques dans le cadre des candidoses intra-abdominales.

Recommandations	
Acteurs 	Anesthésistes-réanimateurs, chirurgiens, immunologues, infectiologues, microbiologistes, pharmaciens, pharmacologues, spécialistes de l'hygiène hospitalière, autres (gastro-entérologues, oncologues...)
Outils 	BUA leader Réunions multidisciplinaires régulières Guides de prescription – prescriptions informatisées Restriction de prescription des ATF et/ou justification notamment pour la poursuite Accès aux dosages (STP) +/- dosing software
Épidémiologie 	Taux de CIA documentée / suspectée : quelle prévalence ? Suivi consommation annuelle des ATF Accès aux données de l'écologie locale fongique et suivi des résistances
Patients 	Type de patient : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Chirurgicaux versus médicaux, - Immunodéprimé : type d'immunosuppression et facteurs de risque spécifique de CIA, En cas de CIA : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Type de péritonite, présence d'abcès, - Critères de poursuite du traitement ATF
Introduction des ATF 	Éducation : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Classes d'ATF, posologies, toxicité, Choix de l'ATF : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Écologie locale des espèces de <i>Candida</i> - Echinocandines versus fluconazole Timing d'introduction des ATF : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Prophylaxie ? - Introduction préopératoire, pas au-delà du post-opératoire immédiat selon les constatations per-opératoires., Posologies d'ATF : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fortes doses ? - Accès au STP
Poursuite des ATF 	Éducation : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Empirique vs infection documentée, - Biomarqueurs disponibles : performances diagnostiques, fiabilité Durée : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Empirique : biomarqueurs, évolution clinique, identification bactérienne, terrain / comorbidités, max 5 jours, - Documentée : désescalade, durée fonction du contrôle de la source et des facteurs d'hôte, 7-14 jours, - Présence ou absence de candidémie, STP afin d'assurer un traitement efficace sans toxicité
Éducation / Évaluation 	Éducation : connaissances globales sur la CIA, facteurs de risques. Audit – feedback de toutes les prescriptions d'ATF dans les IIA Évolution de la consommation d'ATF Évolution des durées de traitement empirique versus documenté Évolution des résistances aux ATF

7. Enquête « candidoses invasives en réanimation »

De façon à faire l'état des lieux afin d'évaluer les connaissances actuelles, les moyens diagnostiques et thérapeutiques pour la prise en charge des candidoses invasives en réanimation, nous avons conduit une enquête au sein des réanimations françaises. L'hypothèse de recherche de cette enquête était qu'il existe un contraste important entre la littérature sur les infections fongiques invasives (notamment les techniques diagnostiques disponibles aujourd'hui) et la réalité du terrain. En effet, le recours aux techniques de diagnostic microbiologique de type biologie moléculaire ou antigéniques sont fortement étudiées et encouragées dans la littérature. Mais qu'en est-il de l'accès réel en routine, des connaissances des cliniciens sur leurs indications / limites / validité ? Une récente enquête italienne montrait par exemple que 40% des personnes interrogées n'avaient pas accès à l'entièreté des techniques de diagnostics microbiologiques fongiques (PCR, antigènes).²⁰²

Pour ce travail, le doctorant était l'investigateur principal à l'origine de l'idée. Il a organisé une équipe multidisciplinaire composée de réanimateurs, microbiologistes, infectiologues, un pharmacologue et une épidémiologiste issus de plusieurs hôpitaux universitaires français. Ce travail fait l'objet d'une thèse de docteur en médecine pour un interne de spécialité (Dr Florent Lemery).

L'objectif principal de cette enquête sera d'identifier la présence des éléments importants d'un programme de bon usage des ATF dans les réanimations françaises. Les objectifs secondaires seront de faire l'état des lieux des moyens diagnostiques pour les infections à *Candida*, de l'accès à un suivi thérapeutique pharmacologique et d'évaluer la prise en charge au travers de cas cliniques.

8. Messages clés concernant la prise en charge des candidoses intra-abdominales

Il existe un risque important de sous dosage des ATF notamment lors de la chirurgie,
Il faut probablement augmenter les posologies d'ATF au moins à la phase initiale des CIA,
Les données concernant le monitorage des ATF en réanimation, que ce soit pour l'efficacité ou la sécurité du traitement, sont actuellement insuffisantes,
Les programmes de bon usage des ATF semblent avoir toute leur place dans la prise en charge des CIA.

Chapitre 3 : *Candida* dans le liquide péritonéal : inoffensif ou pathogène ?

La présence de *Candida* dans l'appareil digestif est physiologique. *Candida* est un microorganisme de la flore commensale du tube digestif qui lui conférerait un statut de colonisant. En cas d'ouverture du tube digestif, *Candida* quitte son environnement naturel (lumière intestinale) et peut être isolé dans le liquide péritonéal. Dès lors, la question principale est de savoir si *Candida* devient virulent dans ce nouvel environnement et pourrait être responsable de la mortalité élevée observée dans les CIA.⁴ Lorsque l'on regarde les études cliniques ayant évalué l'impact des traitements antifongiques sur la mortalité chez les patients de réanimation, on observe des résultats très variables.^{3,8,203} Ces résultats inconstants pourraient suggérer que la mortalité des patients n'est pas directement liée à la virulence de *Candida* et que la présence de *Candida* serait un marqueur « indirect » de sévérité.³² De plus, il n'existe pas à ce jour de preuve de virulence de *Candida* lorsqu'il est isolé dans le liquide péritonéal chez l'homme. En effet, les principaux mécanismes de virulence de *Candida* sont décrits au cours des candidémies, lorsque *Candida* doit traverser les barrières naturelles représentées par la peau et/ou les muqueuses pour atteindre le sang.²² Enfin, le dernier élément pourrait être l'immunité locale et/ou systémique. En effet, on peut également supposer que même si *Candida* changerait pour une forme virulente une fois dans le liquide péritonéal, sa prolifération pourrait être contrôlée par l'immunité.

Ce chapitre a donc pour objectifs de décrire :

- Les mécanismes connus de virulence chez *C. albicans*,
- L'influence du liquide péritonéal sur la virulence de *C. albicans* (recherche fondamentale),
- L'immunité anti-*Candida* avec une attention particulière sur l'immunité péritonéale.

1. Le genre *Candida*

Le genre *Candida* inclus entre autres *C. albicans*, *C. glabrata*, *C. tropicalis*, *C. parapsilosis*, *C. kefyr* et *C. krusei*.

C. albicans est le type de *Candida* le plus rencontré dans les candidoses invasives notamment les CIA.¹⁵⁻¹⁸ C'est un pathogène colonisant de la peau et des muqueuses intestinales, génitales et urinaires qui constituent des réservoirs endogènes pouvant être la source d'infections

opportunistes. Ses principaux mécanismes de virulence sont la transformation en hyphes, l'adhésion cellulaire, la capacité d'échappement du système immunitaire et la formation de biofilm.²² *C. albicans* est le type de *Candida* le plus sensible aux ATF, avec une sensibilité *in vitro* atteignant les 95%.²⁰⁴

C. glabrata est la seconde espèce la plus isolée dans les CIA. Ses mécanismes de virulence sont différents de *C. albicans*. Il se distingue notamment par le fait qu'il est incapable de se transformer en hyphe.²⁰⁵ De plus, il ne déclenche pas une réaction forte du système immunitaire,²⁰⁶ il est moins destructeur que *C. albicans* et ses mécanismes de virulence sont plus dédiés à l'échappement du système immunitaire et la persistance.²⁰⁷ Son biofilm est moins dense et plus fin comparé à *C. albicans*.²⁰⁶ D'un point de vue thérapeutique, il est moins sensible que les autres espèces, notamment au fluconazole.²⁰⁸

C. tropicalis est le troisième type le plus isolé dans les CIA. Il partage de nombreux mécanismes de virulence avec *C. albicans*, comme la transformation en hyphe et le type de biofilm. D'un point vue ATF, il est plus résistant aux azolés que *C. albicans*.²⁰⁹

La sensibilité actuelle des principales espèces de *Candida* rencontrées au cours des CIA est rapportée dans le **Tableau 7**.²¹⁰

Tableau 7 : Sensibilité des espèces de *Candida* aux antifongiques de première ligne.

	Fluconazole		Voriconazole	Echinocandines	
	Naturelle	CIA % Souches R	Naturelle	Naturelle	CIA % Souches R
<i>C. albicans</i>	S	2.8%	S	S	1.4%
<i>C. glabrata</i>	I/R	17.5%	S/I/R	S	2.5%
<i>C. tropicalis</i>	S/SDD	0%	S	S	0
<i>C. parapsilosis</i>	S	0%	S	S/I	0
<i>C. krusei</i>	R	NA	S	S	0

Abréviations : CIA : candidose intra-abdominale ; I : intermédiaire, R : résistant ; SDD : sensibilité dose dépendante ; NA : non applicable. Les données de résistances actuelles sont issues de Diaz-Garcia *et al.*²¹¹

2. Virulence de *C. albicans*

Il possède plusieurs mécanismes de virulence centrés sur la dégradation tissulaire et l'échappement au système immunitaire.²⁰⁵

Ses principaux mécanismes d'agression²¹² sont :

- Adhésion cellulaire médierée via les adhésines ALS (Agglutinin-Like sequence),²¹³
- Sécrétion d'enzymes lytiques type protéases (SAP Secreted Aspartyl Protease), phospholipases et candidalysine qui dégradent les barrières naturelles afin d'envahir les tissus avoisinants,²¹⁴
- Transformation en hyphes pour faciliter l'invasion tissulaire.

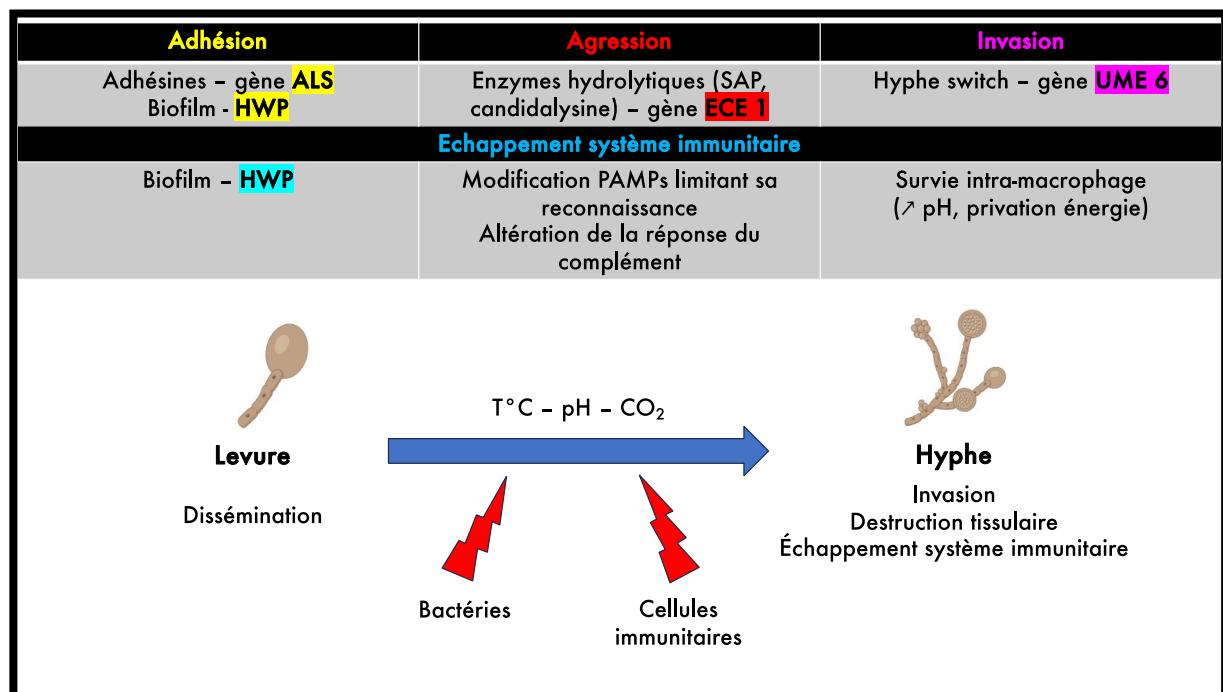
Ses principaux mécanismes de défense sont :

- Transformation en hyphe pour éviter la phagocytose macrophagique,²¹⁵
- Production de biofilm.²¹⁶

De plus, l'expression de sa virulence est dépendante des interactions avec l'hôte et les autres microorganismes. Ces mécanismes seront détaillés plus loin, dans le contexte spécifique de la CIA.

La Figure 6 résume les principaux mécanismes de virulence et les gènes associés.

Figure 6 : Principaux mécanismes de virulence de *Candida* et gènes associés.



Abréviations : PAMPS : Pathogen Associated Molecular Patterns ; $T^{\circ}C$: température corporelle.

2.1. Invasion de l'hôte

La muqueuse intestinale est la première ligne de défense contre les infections à *Candida*. Elle est composée de cellules épithéliales interconnectées par des jonctions intercellulaires (les « tight junctions ») qui empêchent la pénétration des microorganismes.^{217,218} De plus, certains types de cellules épithéliales produisent un mucus limitant l'invasion de *Candida*. Il existe également d'autres barrières naturelles telles que l'acidité gastrique et la bile, qui créent un environnement hostile à la croissance de *Candida*.²⁰⁵

Afin de traverser la barrière intestinale, *C. albicans* passe de levure à hyphe, permettant notamment d'exercer d'une pression physique, et sécrète des enzymes hydrolytiques permettant d'endommager la muqueuse intestinale.²¹⁹ Le switch est médié entre autres par la protéine ALS3, une protéine permettant la transformation en hyphe qui va permettre de mimer la formation des « tight junctions ». Le changement de forme est lié à des réarrangements du cytosquelette qui permet l'internalisation de *Candida*.²²⁰ Quant aux enzymes hydrolytiques, les principales sont celles du groupe SAP dont la candidalysine. Elles sont codées par le gène ECE-1.²²¹

Ainsi, le switch levure – hyphe est un des principaux mécanismes de virulence de *C. albicans*. Il existe de nombreux triggers à cette transformation : la température (élévée), le pH (acide), le sérum et le CO₂.²²² Les voies de signalisation diffèrent selon les triggers. Les changements de température par exemple, stimulent des activateurs comme UME 6.²²³ Il est important de préciser que le switch levure – hyphe ne signifie pas que la forme levure est inoffensive. Il a été montré que la forme levure favorise la dissémination de l'infection alors que la forme hyphe favorise l'invasion tissulaire et les dégâts tissulaires.^{222,224}

2.2. Adhésion et formation de biofilm

Candida est capable de s'accrocher à différents types cellulaires (cellules épithéliales, endothéliales et immunitaires), aux autres microorganismes (bactéries et autres *Candida*) et sur des surfaces abiotiques comme les dispositifs médicaux.²²⁵ L'adhésion est médiée par les protéines de type adhésines²²⁶ qui sont principalement représentées par les protéines de type « agglutinin-like sequence » ALS (1 à 7 et 9)²¹³ et celles de type « hypha-associated GPI-linked protein » HWP 1 et 2.²²⁷ Ces adhésines participent également à la formation du biofilm.

La formation du biofilm est un processus évoluant par phases^{228,229} :

- 1) Phase d'adhésion : une fois adhérent à la surface d'intérêt, plusieurs *Candida* s'agglutinent formant une structure 3D intégrée dans une matrice en gel,
- 2) Phase de prolifération : au sein de cette matrice, les *Candida* forment des colonies,

- 3) Phase de maturation : la sécrétion de substances polymériques extra-cellulaires permet de renforcer la partie externe de la matrice du biofilm, protégeant les *Candida* en dessous,
- 4) Phase de dispersion : les biofilms peuvent se détacher.

Un biofilm mature est dense et composé d'un réseau dense de levures, pseudo-hyphes et hyphes là où il existe des espaces vides, aboutissant à la formation des micro canaux.²³⁰ Ainsi, le biofilm constitue une barrière contre les ATF en lien notamment avec un métabolisme réduit (statut dormant), le développement de cellules résistantes, l'activation de système d'efflux et la réduction de la diffusion des ATF.²³¹ C'est également une barrière contre le système immunitaire notamment contre les polynucléaires neutrophiles en limitant la formation des NETs (neutrophil extracellular traps).²³² De même, les cellules situées à la partie externe du biofilm sont capables de masquer le BDG de leur paroi, limitant ainsi la reconnaissance par le système immunitaire.²²⁸

2.3. Échappement au système immunitaire

2.3.1. Reconnaissance de *Candida* par le système immunitaire

A la phase initiale de l'infection, les cellules épithéliales de la paroi intestinale reconnaissent *Candida* par le biais des « Pattern Recognition Receptors » (PPRs) présents à leur surface.²³³ La réponse immunitaire est déclenchée par l'interaction des PPRs avec les « Pathogen Associated Molecular Patterns » (PAMPs) comme le BDG ou la chitine, deux composants de la paroi fongique.²³⁴

Une fois alertées, les cellules épithéliales sécrètent des peptides antimicrobiens comme les β-défensines et LL-37 afin de contrôler l'infection et de relarguer des médiateurs pro inflammatoires, de type cytokine et chémokines, favorisant le recrutement de phagocytes (neutrophiles, macrophages) et de cellules dendritiques.^{235,236} Ces cellules immunitaires de la réaction innée ont également un rôle important dans la reconnaissance de *Candida* via le récepteur Dectin-1 situé à leur surface.²³⁷ Ce récepteur permet l'accrochage phagocytes – *Candida*, la production de médiateurs pro-inflammatoires et l'organisation de la réponse immunitaire adaptative.

Un autre acteur et modulateur d'intérêt de la réponse immunitaire adaptative est le lymphocyte T helper TH17 via IL-17. En effet, il a été démontré que la mémoire T spécifique pour *C. albicans* était principalement présente dans les cellules TH17.²³⁸ De plus, lorsque cette réponse était compromise, comme dans le VIH, les candidoses invasives étaient plus fréquentes.²³⁹

2.3.2. Mécanismes d'échappement du système immunitaire

L'un des principaux mécanismes est celui de masquer les PAMPs, notamment le BDG, de la paroi fongique afin d'éviter reconnaissance et phagocytose.²⁴⁰ Il existe plusieurs triggers favorisant le masquage du BDG comme l'exposition au lactate et l'hypoxie.²⁴¹

Candida peut également échapper au système du complément. En effet, il possède une protéine membranaire capable de lier le facteur H : la protéine « high affinity glucose transporter 1 » (Hgt1p), impliquée dans le métabolisme glucidique. Cette protéine peut se lier au facteur H qui régule le complément. En liant le facteur H, l'activité du complément est réduite limitant ainsi la phagocytose par les neutrophiles.²⁴² En plus de lier le facteur H, il peut également l'inactiver, tout comme ses récepteurs macrophagiques CR3 et CR4, via la protéine SAP2.²⁴³

Lorsqu'il est phagocyté par les macrophages, *Candida* est capable de survivre au sein du phagolysosome qui est un environnement pauvre en glucose, riche en dérivés réactifs de l'oxygène et acide. Sa survie est médiée via une alcalinisation du milieu en utilisant d'autres sources d'énergie, comme la β-oxydation des acides gras, produisant de l'ammonium qui augmente le pH, augmentation qui provoque son switch en hyphé.^{244,245} Ainsi, le macrophage, privé de source d'énergie, meurt.²⁴⁶

2.4. Interactions *Candida* – microorganismes

Les interactions entre *Candida*, bactéries et l'hôte sont principalement de trois types²⁴⁷:

- Synergie : un microorganisme produit une niche aidant un autre microorganisme à coloniser et/ou infecter l'hôte,
- Prédisposition : l'interaction entre le microorganisme et l'hôte prédispose à la colonisation et/ou l'infection par un autre microorganisme,
- Interférence : l'interaction entre l'hôte et un microorganisme diminue ou empêche la colonisation et/ou l'infection par un autre microorganisme (antagonisme), ou au contraire la colonisation et/ou l'infection est favorisée par l'interaction (addition).

L'environnement local participe lui aussi aux interactions entre les microorganismes. Par exemple, la quantité de nutriments, d'oxygène et la disponibilité des sites d'implantation/d'adhésion peuvent varier selon les niches. Ces interactions peuvent être physiques (contact) ou chimiques.

Ainsi, les interactions *Candida* – bactéries peuvent être bénéfiques ou délétères pour l'hôte²⁴⁸ :

- Une diversité microbienne importante maintient *Candida* et bactéries sous contrôle. Si une exposition antibiotique diminue le nombre de bactéries, cela augmentera la croissance de *Candida*,²⁴⁹
- Une diversité microbienne faible crée un environnement favorable pour des microorganismes opportunistes passant de colonisant inoffensif à pathogène,
- Au cours des co-infections, *Candida* et bactéries peuvent promouvoir la virulence de l'un et de l'autre.

La formation des biofilms est un exemple intéressant d'interactions entre différentes espèces de *Candida* ou *Candida* / bactéries. La combinaison *C. albicans* et *C. glabrata* est la plus décrite. Un ratio *C. albicans* / *glabrata* de (1:3) augmente significativement la masse du biofilm comparé à l'une des deux espèces seule ou un ratio de (1:1).²⁵⁰ De même, il a été rapporté une activation des gènes HWP 1 et ALS 3 dans les biofilms composés de différentes espèces de *Candida*.²⁵¹ Concernant les biofilms *Candida* / bactéries, l'association la plus décrite est celle de *C. albicans* avec *Bacteroides fragilis*.²⁵² En effet, le biofilm produit par *C. albicans* produit un environnement hypoxique favorable à la croissance de *B. fragilis*.

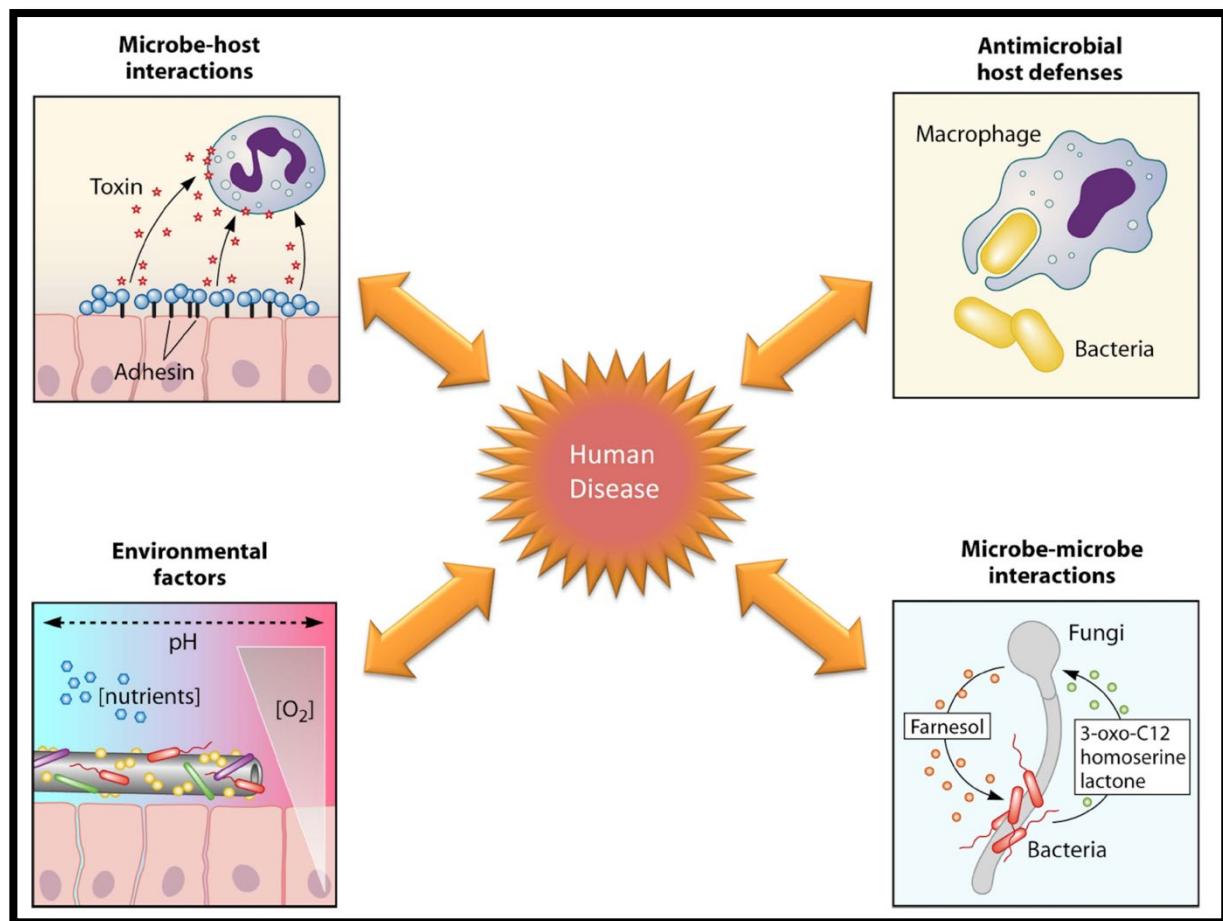
Les interactions ne se limitent pas à la formation de biofilm. Dans les IIA, une mortalité plus élevée était rapportée lorsque *Staphylococcus aureus* et *C. albicans* étaient inoculés en même temps chez la souris comparé aux deux espèces seules, en lien avec une surexpression de l'alpha-toxine de *S. aureus* causée par *C. albicans*.^{253,254}

Un autre exemple d'interaction *Candida* / bactérie est celle avec *Enterococcus faecalis*. Cette interaction est de type antagoniste. En effet, *E. faecalis* inhibe la formation d'hyphe chez *C. albicans*.²⁵⁵

Concernant les interactions avec des bactéries à gram négatif, celle de *C. albicans* avec *E. coli* est la plus étudiée. Tout comme l'association avec *S. aureus*, la coinfection avec *E. coli* est associée à une mortalité plus élevée comparée à la mono-infection, principalement médier via le LPS.^{256,257} Un autre exemple d'interaction synergique entre ces deux pathogènes est celui des biofilms. Il a été rapporté que l'association des deux pathogènes au sein d'un biofilm augmentait la tolérance de *E. coli* à l'ofloxacine via une production plus importante de BDG renforçant la partie extérieure du biofilm.²⁵⁸

La **Figure 7** résume l'ensemble des interactions entre *Candida*, l'hôte, l'environnement local et les co-pathogènes présents (figure issue de Allison *et al.*²⁵⁹)

Figure 7 : Interactions *Candida* / hôte – environnement local – pathogènes (Issue de Allison *et al.*²⁵⁹).



▪ Interactions *C. albicans* et *Bacteroides fragilis*

Au cours de sa thèse, le doctorant a co-encadré un étudiant en master 2 (Paul Chevallier) afin d'explorer la relation *C. albicans* et *B. fragilis* dans le liquide péritonéal. En effet, les bactéries anaérobies sont isolées dans 10 à 20% des péritonites, notamment le genre *Bactéroïdes*.^{24,260} Les interactions entre *C. albicans* et *B. fragilis* ont déjà été démontrées *in vitro* : *C. albicans* favoriserait la croissance de *B. fragilis* en réduisant l'oxygène de l'environnement (via le biofilm), en servant de nutriments (cellules mortes) et en sécrétant des métabolites stimulant sa croissance.²⁶¹ Au cours de ce travail de master 2, nous avons étudié l'interaction entre les deux pathogènes dans le liquide péritonéal par une approche phénotypique (croissance) et métabolique.

- Méthode :

Nous avons utilisé des souches de référence et cliniques des deux pathogènes. Pour créer l'environnement anaérobie, nous avons utilisé des boites anaérobies (Thermo Fisher Scientific®, Waltham, MA, États-Unis d'Amérique), des jarres anaérobies (Oxoid™, Thermo Fisher Scientific®, Waltham, MA, États-Unis d'Amérique) et des sacs (GenBox Anaer, Biomérieux®, Marcy-L'Étoile, France). La croissance *in vitro* a été comparée entre différents milieux : YPD, BHI, gélose sang et liquide péritonéal. Chaque culture était réalisée en triplicat. *C. albicans* monoculture / *C. albicans* et *B. fragilis* en coculture / *B. fragilis* monoculture étaient comparées à inoculum de départ standardisé, en condition anaérobie, pendant 72 heures. La croissance était mesurée par également sur géloses YPD, BHI et sang. L'activité métabolique était évaluée par le calScreener™ (SYMCEL®, Solna, Suède).

- Principaux résultats :

Il n'y avait pas de différence entre les souches de référence et les souches cliniques. Concernant la croissance, on constatait une croissance significativement plus importante dans les milieux de synthèse (BHI) en cas de coculture à 24, 48 et 72 heures ($P < 0.05$).

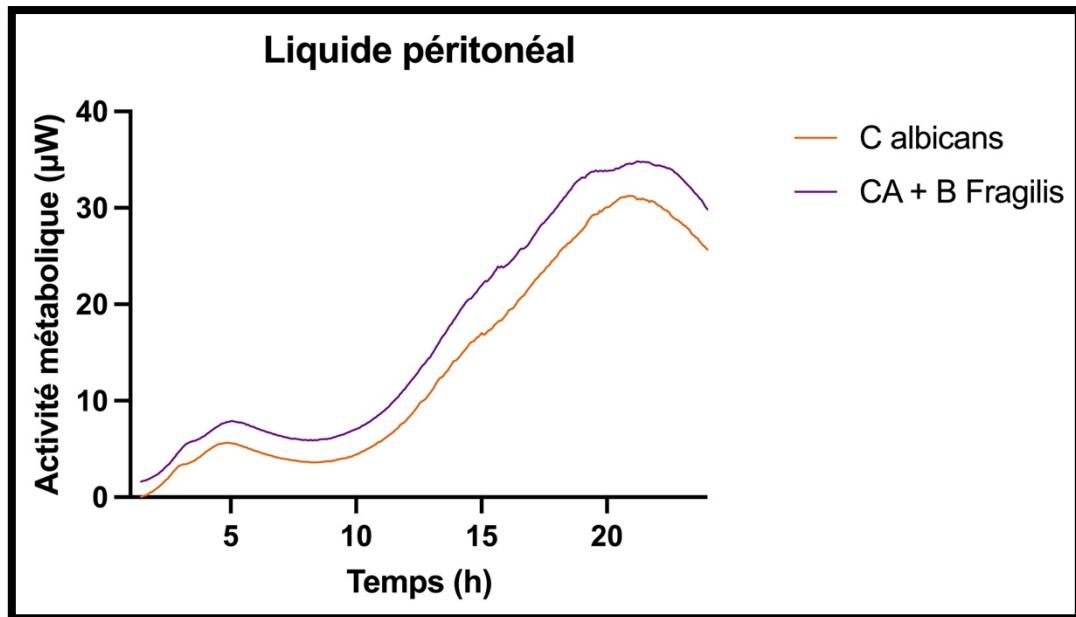
Dans les liquides péritonéaux ($n = 3$), la croissance était variable selon les liquides, avec une tendance à l'augmentation plus importante en cas de coculture.

D'un point de vue métabolique, de façon intéressante, aucune souche de *B. fragilis* inoculée seule n'a survécu dans le liquide péritonéal, en rapport avec l'impossibilité de maintenir l'anaérobiose lors de la manipulation de la calPlate™. En revanche, lors des associations entre *C. albicans* et *B. fragilis*, l'activité métabolique persistait au-delà de 48 heures, suggérant un effet synergique entre les deux pathogènes, probablement en rapport avec la formation d'un biofilm. La **Figure 8** montre cette activité métabolique persistante de *C. albicans* et *B. fragilis* au sein d'un liquide péritonéal.

- Conclusions :

Du fait d'un délai conséquent nécessaire à l'élaboration des protocoles, la maîtrise de l'anaérobiose et des techniques de microbiologie standard, nous n'avons pas été en mesure de tester de nombreux échantillons. De plus, il fallait faire des choix pour l'utilisation des liquides péritonéaux entre ces expériences et celles décrites plus loin pour la virulence de *C. albicans*. Néanmoins, les différences constatées tant sur la croissance que sur l'activité métabolique, semblent confirmer que le milieu péritonéal a des caractéristiques propres qui pourraient influencer la survie des pathogènes en son sein. Les résultats observés avec *C. albicans* et *B. fragilis* vont dans le même sens que ceux observés avec les autres bactéries suggérant fortement un effet « milieu ».

Figure 8 : Activité métabolique mesurée par la technologie calScreener™ (SYMCEL®, Solna, Suède) lors de la coculture *C. albicans* et *B. fragilis* dans le liquide péritonéal (adaptée de Novy *et al.*²⁶²).



Abréviations : CA : *C. albicans* ; B Fragilis : *Bacteroides Fragilis*

2.5. Quelles hypothèses pour la virulence de *Candida* au cours de candidoses intra-abdominales ?

CIA et candidémie partagent des facteurs de risque communs et sont associées à une morbi-mortalité élevée.³¹ En revanche, la principale différence concerne le bénéfice du traitement ATF qui est clairement démontré pour les candidémies avec des recommandations de haut niveau de preuve²⁶³ contrairement aux CIA. De même, les mécanismes à l'origine de la virulence de *Candida* lors des candidémies sont connus. Dans le cadre des CIA, la virulence de *Candida* n'est pas démontrée à ce jour dans le liquide péritonéal et la présence de *Candida* dans le liquide péritonéal peut s'apparenter à de la colonisation.^{23,264} Ainsi, en l'absence de candidémie, ce qui est fréquemment le cas dans les CIA, les patients qui nécessiteraient un traitement ne sont pas clairement identifiés.²⁶⁵ Le terrain semble avoir un rôle prépondérant, notamment sa capacité à « éradiquer » *Candida* lorsque ce dernier est présent dans le liquide péritonéal.³³

Quelles hypothèses ?

- La mortalité serait liée à la **candidémie** : la présence d'une candidémie « certifierait » l'expression de virulence de *Candida* (nécessaire à sa translocation à travers la barrière

intestinale). La faible prévalence des candidémies dans les CIA ne plaide pas pour cette hypothèse.

- Le **terrain** expliquerait la mortalité, notamment le **statut immunitaire** : en effet, on pourrait supposer que l'expression de virulence pourrait être contrôlée par le système immunitaire, notamment au niveau péritonéal. Cependant, des cas de CIA ont été décrits chez le patient immunocompétent suggérant d'autres mécanismes.¹⁷
- Les **interactions avec les bactéries** : comme décrit précédemment, notamment dans les modèles animaux, la co-infection bactérie / *Candida* est associée à une mortalité plus élevée. De plus, de nombreuses associations synergiques ont été rapportées dans la littérature. *Candida* agirait comme un « booster » et/ou un protecteur de la bactérie lui permettant d'être plus agressive. Ainsi la mortalité serait le résultat d'une virulence bactérienne accrue et *Candida* n'aurait qu'un rôle indirect.

Si l'on se réfère à la littérature et l'expérience clinique, il est fort probable que la mortalité des CIA est multifactorielle. La mortalité du patient immunodéprimé notamment, même s'il n'est pas le seul à être concerné par la CIA, reste la plus élevée.⁶ Il nous paraît donc important d'avoir un raisonnement étape par étape :

- 1) Y a-t-il une expression de virulence chez *Candida* lorsqu'il se trouve dans un nouvel environnement représenté par le liquide péritonéal ?
- 2) Si oui, quels sont les facteurs qui contribuent à l'expression de cette virulence (les caractéristiques du milieu comme le pH ou la quantité de nutriments, la présence de bactéries...)
- 3) Si oui, cette virulence peut-elle être contrôlée par le système immunitaire local et systémique ?

Au cours de cette thèse, nous nous sommes intéressés à l'influence du liquide péritonéal sur l'expression de virulence de *C. albicans*.

3. Influence du liquide péritonéal sur la pathogénicité de *C. albicans*

La première étape pour comprendre la pathogénicité de *Candida* dans les CIA était d'observer si le liquide péritonéal pouvait influencer l'expression de virulence chez *Candida*. En effet, à la différence des candidémies où *Candida* doit activer ses mécanismes de virulence pour traverser les membranes et rejoindre le compartiment sanguin, dans les CIA, l'ouverture du tube digestif conduit à l'effraction de *Candida* dans la cavité abdominale. Ainsi, on pourrait supposer qu'il n'ait pas besoin d'activer de mécanismes de virulence particulier, sauf pour survivre dans ce nouvel environnement représenté par le liquide péritonéal.

Nous avons choisi de travailler avec des souches de *C. albicans* car (i) c'est la première espèce de *Candida* rencontrée dans les CIA, (ii) ses mécanismes de virulence et son génome sont bien décrits dans la littérature²⁶⁶ et (iii) la souche de référence SC5314, facilement disponible en recherche, est celle utilisée dans la littérature permettant la comparabilité de nos résultats.

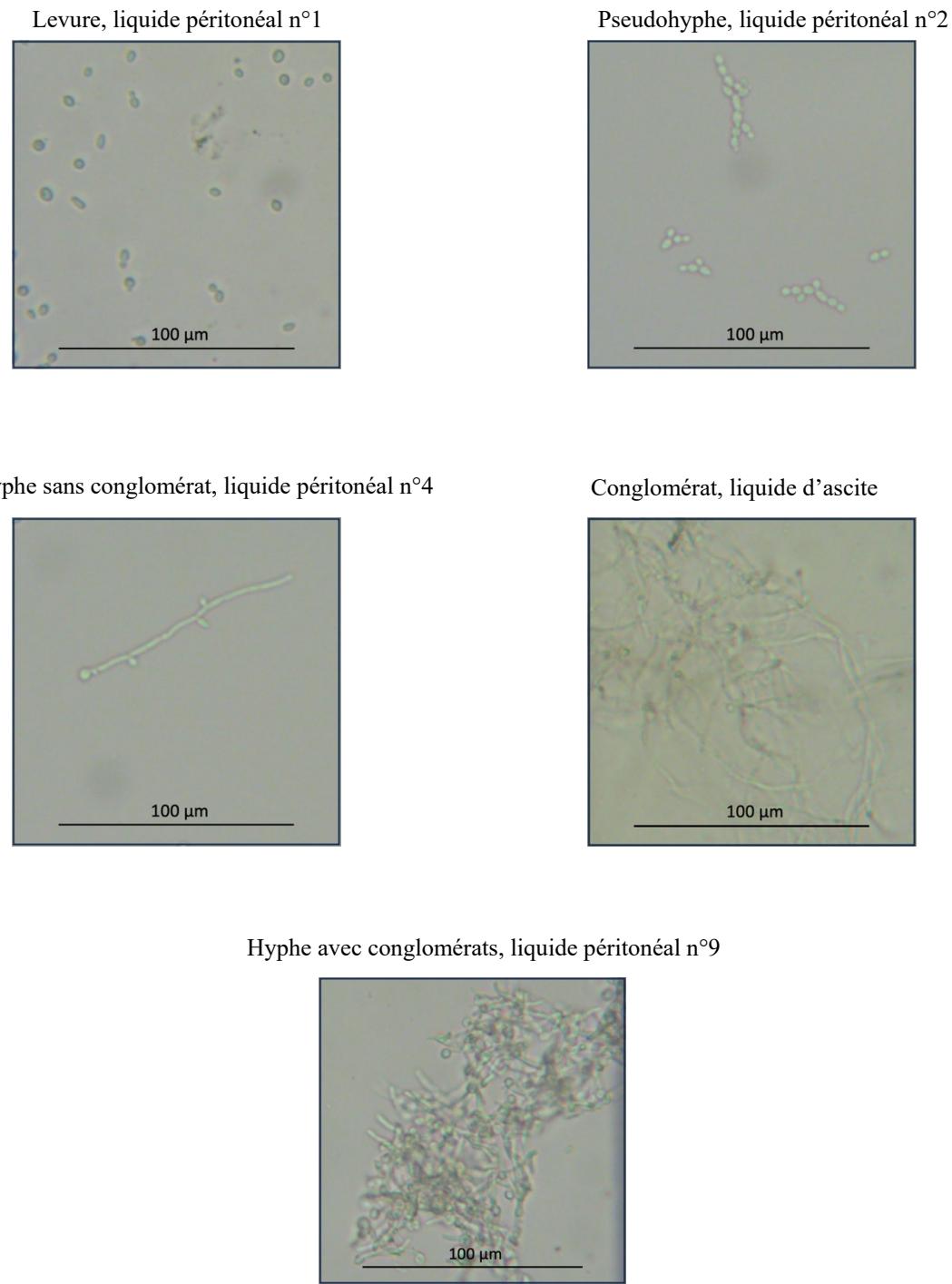
En préambule de toute expérience, un inoculum contrôlé et standardisé (3.10^6 UFC/ml) dans les mêmes conditions expérimentales était cultivé en triplicat pendant 24 h afin d'avoir la même base de départ. Ces conditions étaient favorables à la croissance de *C. albicans* sans ajouter de stress externe. Ensuite il a fallu trouver un liquide biologique contrôle afin de permettre la comparabilité avec le liquide péritonéal. Nous avons opté pour le liquide d'ascite recueilli chez des patients de réanimation présentant une décompensation œdémato-ascitique d'origine non infectieuse. Pour cette recherche expérimentale, le doctorant a encadré un étudiant en Master 2 (Dr Mathieu Esposito) qui l'a assisté dans cette recherche.

Nous avons opté pour une approche étape par étape associant différentes méthodes. Compte tenu de l'absence de données préalables nous avons commencé par une approche phénotypique centrée sur la croissance et la morphologie de *C. albicans* dans les différents milieux. Cette étape comprenait une observation en microscopie optique et un dénombrement en culture pour quantifier la croissance. Elle était donc non coûteuse et ne nécessitait pas de matériel hyperspecialisé. Cette première étape montrant des signaux positifs en faveur de notre hypothèse, nous avons complété par deux autres approches, plus complexes, moléculaire et métabolique. Ainsi, nous avons développé un programme de recherche afin d'évaluer la virulence de *C. albicans* par ces différentes méthodes en utilisant la collection biologique de l'étude pBDG2.

L'approche phénotypique avait pour objectif d'étudier la croissance et d'observer la transformation en hyphes de *C. albicans*. La **Figure 9** montre les différentes morphologies de

C. albicans selon les milieux, à savoir levure, pseudo-hyphe et hyphe. Nous avons également étudié la composition biochimique (concentration en protides, glucose et mesure du pH) et la cellularité (par cytométrie en flux) de certains liquides d'ascite et péritonéaux. On observait un nombre élevé de leucocytes (Médiane 42,9 G/L, principalement des polynucléaires neutrophiles), une concentration élevée en protéine (Médiane 38 g/L), une concentration basse de glucose (Médiane 0.3 mmol/L) et un pH de type alcalin (8.5). Ces résultats contrastaient avec les liquides d'ascite contenant moins de cellules inflammatoires, une concentration en protides moindre et un pH plus bas d'environ 7.5.

Figure 9 : Morphologie de *C. albicans* selon le milieu.



Légende : Morphologie de *C. albicans* selon le milieu, après 24 heures de culture (issue de Novy *et al.*²⁶²).

Étant donné que la transformation en hyphe n'est pas le seul mécanisme de virulence et que *C. albicans* peut rester au stade levure et être virulent par d'autres mécanismes,²²⁴ nous avons poursuivi par une analyse de l'expression de divers gènes de virulence. Parmi ces gènes, UME6 et SFL2 ont un rôle dans la filamentation et ALS3, HWP1 et ECE1, dans l'adhésion et la destruction cellulaire. L'extraction d'ARN utilisait la technique NEB (Monarch Genomic DNA purification) précédée d'un pré-traitement par beat beating Fastprep® (MP Biochemicals, Santa Ana, Californie, USA). Toutes les analyses étaient réalisées en duplicit et avec des contrôles négatifs. Le niveau d'expression des gènes était comparé entre liquide péritonéal et ascite, par la méthode du $\Delta\Delta CT$.²⁶⁷

Le **Tableau 8** présente les différents gènes étudiés et leur rôle dans la virulence de *C. albicans*.

Tableau 8. Forward et reverse primers utilisés pour la qPCR, selon le gène d'intérêt.

Gènes d'intérêt	Séquence 5' -> 3'
Gènes cibles	
Gènes impliqués dans l'adhésion	
ALS3	FW – ATTCTGAATTACTACTTCCACAGC RV – ATGATAGGCGATGAAGCTTC
HWP1	FW – CTCCAAAATCATCAGCTC RV – CACTAGCCAAAACAGAAAG
Gène impliqués dans la lyse cellulaire	
ECE1	FW – CACTGGTGTTCAACAATCCAT RV – AGCATTTCATAACCGACAG
Gène impliqué dans la filamentation	
UME6	FW – TGGTAATGGCACTAACACCAA RV – CCAAATTAGCACAAACCTCCA
SFL2	FW – CAGCATCAGCTTATCTCC RV – ACGATAGTTGGTTGAATTCA
Gènes de référence	
ACT1	FW – TATGAAAGTTAAGATTATTGCTCCACCAGAAA RV – GGAAAGTAGACAATGAAGCCAAGATAGAAC
TEF3	FW – GATCACAAATTGGGTCCAAGG RV – AGCAGCGGCAATCTGTTAC

Légende : ACT1: Actin 1; ALS3: agglutinin-like protein 3; ECE1: extent of cell elongation protein 1; FW: Forward primer; HWP1: Hyphal wall protein 1; RV: Reverse primer; TEF3: translation elongation factor 3.

Enfin, nous avons ajouté une analyse métabolique. Fort de l'expérience acquise avec l'étude ICCA, nous avons utilisé l'appareil calScreener™ (SYMCEL®, Solna, Suède) pour mesurer l'activité métabolique d'un inoculum standardisé de *C. albicans* ensemencé dans des puits de 200 µL contenant différents liquides péritonéaux, avec différentes bactéries, toujours en triplicat. L'analyse micro calorimétrique durait 48h, à une température fixe de 37°C. *C. albicans* était cultivé seul puis avec diverses bactéries dans un milieu de Sabouraud, du liquide d'ascite et différents liquides péritonéaux. Cela nous permettait d'étudier les différences d'activité métabolique entre les liquides et selon le type de bactérie associée.

L'article « *Reappraisal of intra-abdominal candidiasis: insights from peritoneal fluid analysis* » détaille cette recherche fondamentale.

RESEARCH ARTICLES

Open Access



Reappraisal of intra-abdominal candidiasis: insights from peritoneal fluid analysis

Emmanuel Novy^{1,2*} , Mathieu Esposito^{1,2}, Julien Birckener¹, Adeline Germain^{3,4}, Marie-Reine Losser^{1,5}, Marie-Claire Machouart^{2,6} and Philippe Guerci^{1,5}

Abstract

Background The understanding of high mortality associated with intra-abdominal candidiasis (IAC) remains limited. While *Candida* is considered a harmless colonizer in the digestive tract, its role as a true pathogen in IAC is still debated. Evidence regarding *Candida* virulence in the human peritoneal fluid are lacking. We hypothesized that during IAC, *Candida albicans* develops virulence factors to survive to new environmental conditions. The objective of this observational exploratory monocentric study is to investigate the influence of peritoneal fluid (PF) on the expression of *C. albicans* virulence using a multimodal approach.

Materials and methods A standardized inoculum of a *C. albicans* (3.10^6 UFC/mL) reference strain (SC5314) was introduced in vitro into various PF samples obtained from critically ill patients with intra-abdominal infection. Ascitic fluids (AFs) and Sabouraud medium (SBD) were used as control groups. Optical microscopy and conventional culture techniques were employed to assess the morphological changes and growth of *C. albicans*. Reverse transcriptase qPCR was utilized to quantify the expression levels of five virulence genes. The metabolic production of *C. albicans* was measured using the calScreener™ technology.

Results A total of 26 PF samples from patients with secondary peritonitis were included in the study. Critically ill patients were mostly male (73%) with a median age of 58 years admitted for urgent surgery (78%). Peritonitis was mostly hospital-acquired (81%), including 13 post-operative peritonitis (50%). The infected PF samples predominantly exhibited polymicrobial composition. The findings revealed substantial variability in *C. albicans* growth and morphological changes in the PF compared to ascitic fluid. Virulence gene expression and metabolic production were dependent on the specific PF sample and the presence of bacterial coinfection.

Conclusions This study provides evidence of *C. albicans* virulence expression in the peritoneal fluid. The observed variability in virulence expression suggests that it is influenced by the composition of PF and the presence of bacterial coinfection. These findings contribute to a better understanding of the complex dynamics of intra-abdominal candidiasis and advocate for personalized approach for IAC patients.

Trial registration <https://clinicaltrials.gov/> (NCT05264571; February 22, 2022)

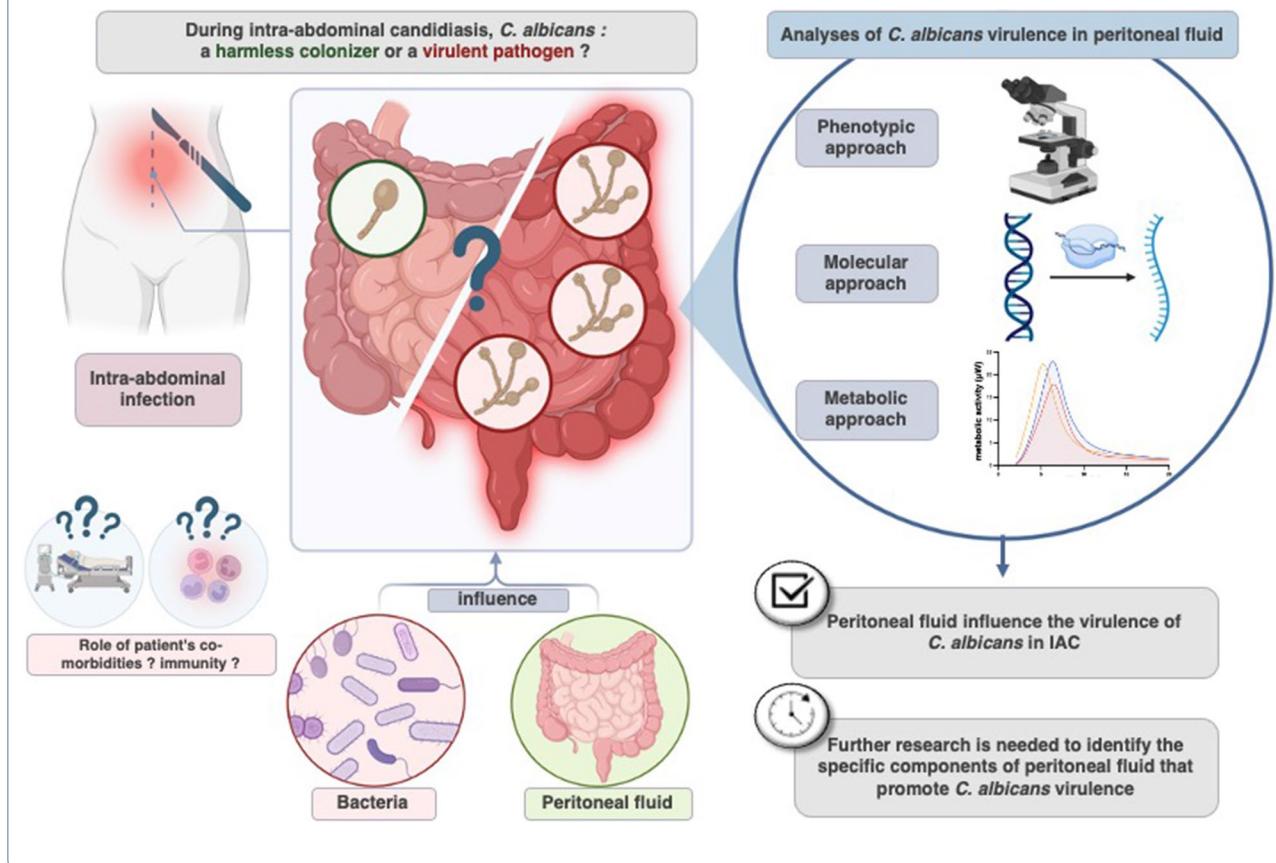
*Correspondence:
Emmanuel Novy
manunovy@gmail.com; e.novy@chru-nancy.fr
Full list of author information is available at the end of the article

Highlights

- This study is the first to demonstrate the expression of *Candida albicans* virulence in human peritoneal fluid.
- The expression of *Candida albicans* virulence in peritoneal fluid shows significant variability among critically ill patients with intra-abdominal infection.
- The composition of peritoneal fluid and bacterial coinfection may influence the expression of *Candida albicans* virulence.
- These findings emphasize the imperative to reevaluate the delineation of intra-abdominal candidiasis, with due consideration to the virulence expression exhibited by isolated *Candida*.

Keywords Secondary peritonitis, *Candida*, Virulence, Critically ill patient, Pathogenicity

Graphical Abstract



Background

Intra-abdominal infections are the second cause of sepsis and septic shock in the critically ill patients [1]. These infections encompass a range of types, with generalized peritonitis associated with the highest mortality rates [2]. In addition to bacterial pathogens, *Candida* species can also be involved in intra-abdominal infections. Currently, the diagnosis of

intra-abdominal candidiasis (IAC) is based on the presence of *Candida* in abdominal samples obtained during surgery [3, 4]. IAC accounts for a substantial proportion of invasive candidiasis in critically ill patients [5], occurring in both hospital- and community-acquired in 13–33% and 7–32% of cases, respectively [6]. *Candida albicans* is the primary causative agent of IAC [7, 8]. The mortality rate associated with IAC ranges

from 20 to 50% [2, 9]. However, the reasons behind the high mortality in IAC remain unclear, especially in the absence of candidemia.

While *Candida* is considered a harmless colonizer in the digestive tract, its role as a true pathogen in IAC is still debated [10]. Isolating *Candida* from the peritoneal fluid (PF) without candidemia poses challenges in determining its pathogenicity and its association with mortality [11, 12]. Antifungal treatment studies in IAC have yielded inconsistent results regarding patient survival [13–17]. Some researchers consider the presence of *Candida* as a marker of disease severity [18]. Despite this, there is a lack of studies investigating *Candida* virulence in human PF.

C. albicans possesses various virulence mechanisms that enable tissue invasion, evasion of host defenses, and biofilm formation [19, 20]. However, most of these mechanisms have been studied in the context of candidemia, where *Candida* must overcome natural barriers to reach the bloodstream [21]. The course of infection in IAC differs, as the breach in the intestinal wall is caused by anastomosis leakage, necrosis, or perforation. Notably, candidemia is only associated with a minority of IAC cases [7], suggesting alternative triggers for *C. albicans* virulence.

In this study, our hypothesis was that in the context of secondary peritonitis, *C. albicans* develops virulence factors as a means of adapting to the new environmental conditions presented by the peritoneal fluid. In addition, we explored whether this adaptation was influenced by interactions with other microorganisms. Using a step-by-step and multimodal approach, this experimental study aims to evaluate the influence of PF issued from critically ill patients with intra-abdominal infections on *C. albicans* virulence.

Methods

Study design and setting

This study was an observational exploratory monocentric study conducted at the Université de Lorraine, in the laboratory “Stress, Immunité et Pathogènes” (SIMPA, UR 7300), and at the University Hospital of Nancy from January 2021 to December 2022. The study was registered with clinicaltrials.gov under the number NCT05264571 (retrospectively registered 22 February 2022). This study was an ancillary study of a non-interventional prospective cohort study (the pBDG2 study, prospective evaluation of 1.3 β-D-glucan in the PF for the diagnosis of intra-abdominal candidiasis in the critically ill patients NCT03997929). The pBDG2 study included critically ill patients with intra-abdominal infections requiring abdominal surgery and allowed the constitution of a biological collection of peritoneal fluid samples.

Abdominal samples

The samples used in this study consisted of PF obtained from critically ill patients with intra-abdominal infections, and ascitic fluid (AF) obtained from critically ill patients with decompensated cirrhosis of non-infectious origin. AF has the advantage to be the accessible sterile, biological fluid with the closest composition to PF. These samples were obtained after routine analysis, and the remaining samples were selected for use in this study. All selected samples underwent microbiological analysis to detect the presence of bacteria and fungi.

To be eligible for selection, PF samples had to meet the following criteria: absence of *Candida* infection, derived from the initial abdominal surgery (excluding relaparotomy), obtained from the University Hospital of Nancy, and having a minimum volume of 5 mL.

Strains and media

The SC5314 reference *C. albicans* strain was used for all experiments, as its growth and genome are well-described in the literature [22]. For the evaluation of metabolic production, clinical strains of various bacteria were utilized.

For all experiments (phenotype, molecular, metabolic) three different media were employed: two as controls (Sabouraud and AF) and the PF. Sabouraud medium (SBD) served as a control medium for assessing growth, morphology, and metabolic profile. AF was obtained as a non-infected clinical sample from humans, and its lack of infection was confirmed through microbiological analysis (direct examination, conventional culture) and cytology (neutrophil count < 250/mm³). PF, on the other hand, could exhibit different characteristics and might be infected with various bacteria, both positive and negative gram. Since AF and PF were collected consecutively, they were stored at – 20 °C until each experiment period. All analyses were conducted in duplicate or triplicate.

Phenotypic approach

Inoculation of *C. albicans* in the different media

C. albicans SC5314 strain was inoculated in triplicate into one mL of the three different types of media (SBD, AF, PF) at an optical density (OD) of 0.3 nm, corresponding to approximately 3.10⁶ colonies of *C. albicans* per millilitre (*C. albicans*/mL) of media. Control wells containing only the media without *C. albicans* were also included on the same 24-well plate to confirm the absence of contamination. All OD measurements were performed at 600 nm with a UV/Visible spectrophotometer P4 from VWR® (Radnor, Pennsylvania, United States).

Observation of *C. albicans* in each media

The 24-well plate was inoculated and incubated at 37 °C with shaking at 300 RPM for 24 h. First, the morphology of *C. albicans* was observed under a light microscope at hourly intervals for the initial 8 h, followed by observations at H16 and H24. The analysis of morphology was conducted by ME, in collaboration with the members of the SIMPA laboratory. The results were subsequently validated by MM, an expert in mycology, who was blinded to the sample types. Any discrepancies were resolved through consensus or consultation with a third independent researcher. Second, *C. albicans* growth was assessed by inoculating 10 µL from each well onto SBD dextrose agar, and the colonies were counted after 24 h of incubation at 37 °C. To facilitate counting, 1000-fold dilutions of each inoculated well were prepared beforehand.

Composition of ascitic and peritoneal fluid

Each liquid received biochemical measurements (protein, glucose, pH) and cell counts using flow cytometry.

Molecular approach

C. albicans inoculation in the different media followed the same protocol as for phenotypic evaluation, with an overnight culture of 24 h before gene expression analysis.

Genes of interest

The primers utilized for reverse transcription and quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RTq-PCR) analysis can be found in supplementary material (Additional file 1: Table S1). The five virulence genes of interest are UME6, ALS3, AFL2, HWP1 and ECE1. Basically, UME6 and AFL2 have a role in *Candida* filamentation. ALS3, HWP1, and ECE1, have a role in adhesion and epithelial cells damage. Please refer to supplementary material for the precise role of each gene.

RNA extraction

After the 24-h overnight culture, the samples were centrifuged to retain only the cell pellet. The cell pellet was then washed twice with 10 mL of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Subsequently, the PBS was removed, leaving behind only the cell pellet.

RNA extraction was performed using the FASTPREP® lysis technology (MP Biomedicals, Santa Ana, California, United States), following the manufacturer's program specifically designed for *Candida* cells. To assess the quality and measure the RNA concentration, each sample was analyzed using a Nanodrop 2000 system (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, United States). Total RNA extraction was carried out using the Monarch Genomic RNA Purification Kit (New England Biolabs® Inc., Ipswich, MA, United States) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions.

Reverse transcription

Reverse transcription was performed using the Quanti-Tect Reverse Transcription kit from Qiagen® (Germantown, Maryland, United States) following the manufacturer's instructions. The samples were prepared in two steps: genomic DNA removal and reverse transcription. The reverse transcription process was carried out using a thermocycler, following the specified protocol. The steps involved were as follows: annealing at 25 °C for 3 min, reverse transcription at 45 °C for 10 min, and inactivation at 85 °C for 5 min.

Amplification by PCR

The qPCR was performed in MicroAmp Optical 96-Well Reaction Plates (Applied Biosystems) using the CFX96 Real-Time PCR System (Bio-Rad, Marnes-la Coquette, France). Please refer to supplementary material S1 for the details regarding the primers and cycling protocol. Relative transcript levels and the fold change of AFL2, UME6, ALS3, HWP1 and ECE1 were determined following the $\Delta\Delta CT$ method [23]. All analyses were performed in duplicate with negative control samples. The level of expression was compared among the PF against AF level expression, to ensure the comparability in a clinical sample.

Metabolic approach using the calScreener™ technology

The calScreener™ technology

The metabolic evaluation was conducted using the calScreener™ technology (Symcel AB, Solna, Sweden) (Fig. 1) [24]. This technology utilizes isothermal calorimetry to measure the heat flow generated by living cells in real time. It can be applied to various microorganisms and media types. The calScreener™ device provides continuous real-time data over an extended duration. Different parameters can be evaluated directly from the curve, such as time to activity, time to peak or decay time. Analysis of the heat production is carried out using the dedicated software, calView® (Symcel AB, Solna, Sweden). Each specific pathogen generates a distinct growth pattern in the kinetic data, enabling identification of the pathogen type [25]. This technology utilizes 48-well microtiter cell culture plates, accommodating 32 biological samples and 16 thermodynamic internal reference positions.

Metabolic analysis

For the inoculation of *C. albicans* in the different media, the same protocol was followed as for the phenotypic and molecular evaluation. The overnight culture of *C. albicans* for 24 h was used before transferring the samples into the calScreener™. It should be noted that all AF and PF samples used were confirmed to be free of pathogens to serve as controls for the added

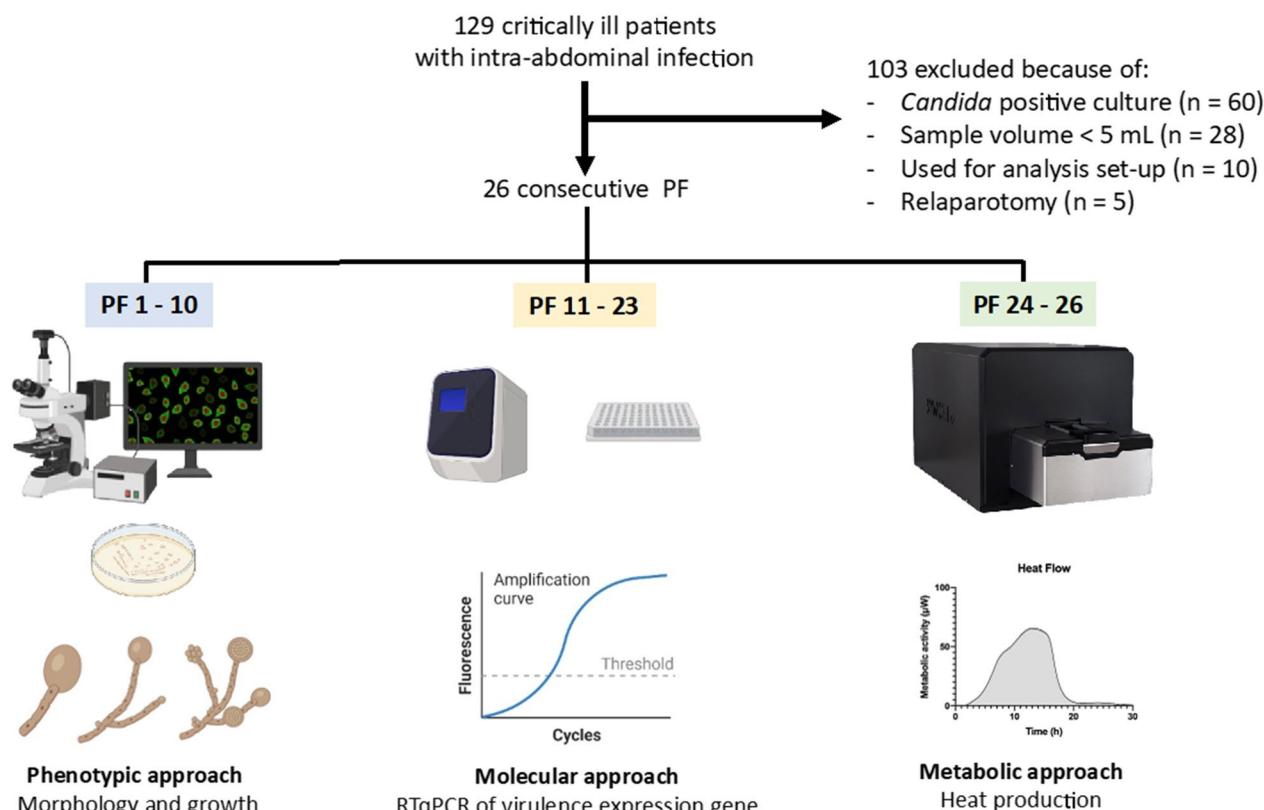


Fig. 1 Peritoneal fluid selection and type of analysis. Metabolic approach has been performed with the calScreener™, picture of the equipment was reproduced with permission from Symcel AB (Solna, Sweden). PF: peritoneal fluid; RTqPCR: reverse transcription quantitative polymerase chain reaction

inoculum. Each culture was then appropriately diluted, either 1/100 or 1/1000, in each medium as per the recommendations provided by Symcel. Subsequently, 200 μ L of each medium, in duplicate, were transferred to the calScreener™ sample handling system. Real-time measurement of the heat produced from each calWells was carried out at 37 ± 0.001 °C in the calScreener™ up to 48 h. The presence of an active pathogen is associated with a metabolic activity > 5 microW, according to the manufacturer. The remaining samples in the microtitre plate were incubated at 37 °C for 24 h to ensure the presence of expected pathogens.

Statistical analysis

Due to the exploratory and observational nature of this study, a predetermined calculation of the required sample size was not performed. The sample size was based on the availability of PF samples during the study period. Descriptive statistics were computed using GraphPad Prism version 9 (Boston, Massachusetts, United States). The statistics included counts, means, standard

deviation, medians, quartiles, and interquartile ranges (IQR), as deemed appropriate for the analysis.

To compare the heat production between samples during the metabolic evaluation, ordinary one-way ANOVA and Mann–Whitney test were employed. This statistical analysis was used to assess any significant differences in heat production among the samples. A *p* value < 0.05 was considered significant.

Results

During the designated study period, a total of 129 critically ill patients who underwent intra-abdominal surgery were enrolled as participants. Among these patients, 26 PF samples met the eligibility criteria for inclusion in the study. Details regarding patient characteristics are provided in Table 1. PF characteristics' (macroscopic aspect and bacterial culture) are provided in Table 2 and Additional file 1: Table S2. Overall, patients with intra-abdominal infections were mostly male [$n=19$ (73%)] with a median age of 58 years admitted for urgent surgery [$n=20$ (78%)]. All the PF samples were associated with cases of secondary peritonitis, including 13 post-operative peritonitis (50%).

Table 1 Characteristics of critically ill patients sampled for peritoneal and ascitic fluids

	Peritoneal fluid	Ascites
Variable	N=26	N=10
<i>Demographic data</i>		
Sex (Male)	19 (73)	7 (70)
Age (years)	58 [52–77]	59 [46–66]
Body mass index (kg/m ²)	26 [23–32]	28 [25–33]
Mac Cabe 1/2/3	10 (38)–14 (54)–2 (8)	1 (10)–7 (70)–2 (20)
Knauss A/B/C	3 (11)–14 (54)–9 (35)	0–5 (50)–5 (50)
<i>Comorbidities</i>		
Cardio-vascular disease	5 (19)	1 (10)
Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease	3 (11)	1 (10)
Diabetes	9 (35)	5 (50)
Chronic kidney disease	5 (19)	3 (30)
Immunosuppression condition	12 (46)	4 (40)
Organ or bone-marrow transplantation	2 (16)	4 (100)
Solid tumour (active)	7 (58)	
Haematological malignancy	1 (8)	
Systemic inflammatory disease	2 (16)	
Cirrhosis A/B/C	0	3 (30)–3 (30)–4 (40)
<i>Intra-abdominal infection</i>		
Secondary peritonitis	26 (100)	NA
Hospital-acquired	21 (81)	NA
Post-operative peritonitis	13 (50)	
Community-acquired	5 (19)	
Anatomical source		NA
Stomach	4 (15)	NA
Biliary tract	2 (8)	
Pancreas	2 (8)	
Small bowel	6 (23)	
Colon	12 (46)	
<i>ICU data</i>		
Type of ICU admission		
Medical	3 (11)	4 (40)
Scheduled surgery	3 (11)	6 (60)
Urgent surgery	20 (78)	0
Admission SAPS II score	46 [31–57]	49 [47–56]
IAI SOFA score	6 [4–]	NA
Septic shock (Sepsis-3 definition)	14 (54)	2 (20)
Norepinephrine infusion	25 (96)	5 (50)
Norepinephrine duration (days)	2 [1–3]	4 [4–9]
Invasive mechanical ventilation (>48 h)	8 (31)	4 (40)
Duration of invasive mechanical ventilation (days)	3.4±6.3	9.8±5.6
Renal failure (according to KDIGO—AKI definition)	17 (65)	7 (70)
Renal replacement therapy	4 (15)	2 (20)
ICU length of stay (days)	7 [5–12]	10 [5–19]
ICU mortality	5 (19)	3 (30)

Data are presented as Median [interquartile range] or number (percentage) or mean±SD

NA: not applicable. AKI: Acute Kidney Injury; IAI: Intra-abdominal infection; ICU: Intensive Care Unit; SAPS: Simplified Acute Physiology Score; SOFA: Sequential organ failure assessment

The infected PF samples predominantly exhibited polymicrobial composition. The majority of patients from whom AF samples were collected were post-operative decompensated cirrhosis [*n*=6 (60%)].

Different PF samples were utilized for the three distinct approaches due to the step-by-step nature of the study, limited volume of collected samples per patient, and availability of the calScreener™.

Table 2 Bacterial composition, macroscopic examination of the peritoneal fluid, and observed morphology and growth of *C. albicans* in peritoneal fluids 1 to 10

Characteristics	PF-1	PF-2	PF-3	PF-4	PF-5	PF-6	PF-7	PF-8	PF-9	PF-10
Germs identified in routine microbiology	<i>S. constellatus</i> <i>E. coli</i> <i>B. fragilis</i>	<i>Poly-microbial flora</i>	<i>S. anginosus</i> <i>E. coli</i>	<i>P. aeruginosa</i> <i>E. faecalis</i>	<i>E. coli</i> <i>P. vulgaris</i>	<i>E. coli</i> <i>K. pneumoniae</i>	<i>M. morganii</i> <i>E. coli</i> <i>E. faecalis</i>	<i>Poly-microbial flora</i>	<i>E. faecalis</i>	
Macroscopic examination of PFF										
<i>C. albicans/ml</i> at H0	3 030 000	1 570 000	3 125 000	2 650 000	3 040 000	3 115 000	3 265 000	3 000 000	3 100 000	3 955 000
<i>C. albicans/ml</i> at H24	181 800	32 060 000	14 875 000	9 081 000	4 986 000	3 177 000	816 000	28 000 000	15 400 000	3 283 000
Ratio of <i>C. albicans/ml</i> at H24 and H0	0.06	20.42	4.76	3.43	1.64	1.02	0.25	9.33	4.97	0.83
Microscopic examination of <i>C. albicans</i> at H24	Yeast	Pseudohyphae	Hyphae without conglomerates					Hyphae with conglomerates		

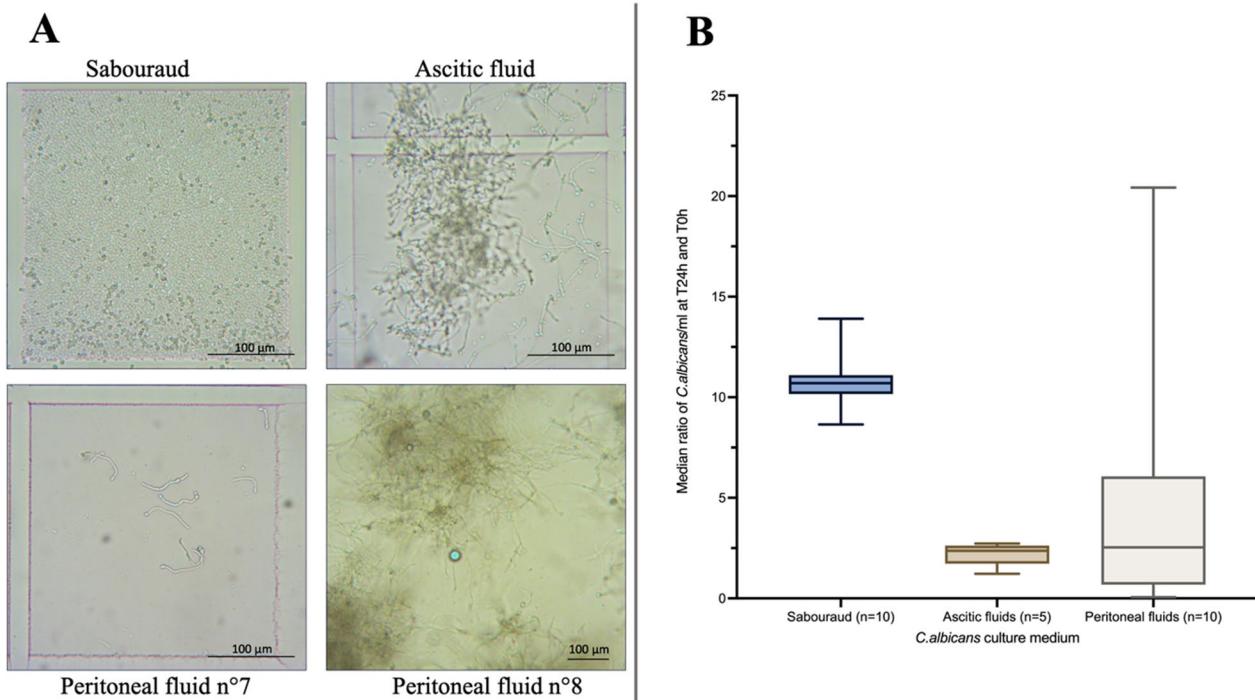


Fig. 2 Phenotypic approach: morphology and growth of *C. albicans* according to the media. **A** morphology of *C. albicans* depending on the media, after 24 h. **B** Growth of *C. albicans* depending on the media, after 24 h (Box plot showing median, interquartile range and min–max value). More images are available in the supplementary materials (Additional file 1: Figure S1)

Figure 1 provides a visual representation of the sample selection and allocation process for the three different analyses conducted in the study.

Phenotypic approach

Figure 2A illustrates the morphology of *C. albicans* in the different media used in the study. The SBD medium served as the control for each plate layout. No contamination was observed. The microscopic examination of *C. albicans* after growth in SBD ($n=10$) revealed a consistent presence of unicellular ovoid yeast forms without any hyphae. This morphology remained unchanged throughout the various manipulations.

After inoculating *C. albicans* from the SBD wells onto SBD dextrose agar, the colony count results demonstrated a consistent increase in the number of *C. albicans* colonies from H0 to H24, as shown in Fig. 2B. At H0, the median number of colonies of *C. albicans* per mL at H0 was 3,010,000 ($n=10$, IQR=2.5), which then increased to 32,150,000 ($n=10$, IQR=173.2) at H24. This indicates a 10.7-fold median increase in the number of *C. albicans* colonies from H0 to H24 (IQR=0.44).

In AF, no contamination was observed. The microscopic examination of *C. albicans* after growth in AF revealed a transition from oval yeast forms to filamentous

hyphae forms. The hyphae tended to form conglomerates. After inoculating *C. albicans* from AF wells onto SBD dextrose agar, the colony count results showed a consistent increase in the number of *C. albicans* colonies from H0 to H24, as depicted in Fig. 2B. The median number of *C. albicans* colonies per mL at H0 was 2,770,000 ($n=5$, IQR=25.0), which then increased to 7,500,000 ($n=10$, IQR=94.0) at H24. This represents a 2.37-fold median increase in the number of *C. albicans* colonies from H0 to H24 (IQR=0.28).

In PF, no contamination was observed. Table 2 provides an overview of the phenotypes of *C. albicans* observed in PF samples 1 to 10. The microscopic examination of *C. albicans* after growth in PF exhibited variability, with observations of yeasts alone, hyphae, and both with and without conglomerates (Fig. 2A). After inoculating *C. albicans* from PF wells onto SBD dextrose agar, the colony count results demonstrated variable changes in the number of *C. albicans* colonies from H0 to H24 (Fig. 2B). For instance, the number of *C. albicans* colonies per mL could be up to 21 times higher at H24 compared to H0 in PF2, while in PF7, the number decreased between H0 and H24. The median number of *C. albicans* colonies per mL at H0 was 2,557,000 ($n=10$, IQR=155), and at H24, it was 2,325,000 ($n=10$, IQR=309.87). In summary,

there was a 1.48-fold median increase ($n=10$, IQR = 3.11) in the number of *C. albicans* colonies per mL from H0.

Composition of fluid used for the phenotypic approach

In case of PF ($n=10/10$), we noted a median/IQR count of leucocytes of 42.9 [13.2–72.8] G/L mostly consisting of neutrophils (median 39.0 [13.0–72.9] G/L), a median protein of 38.0 [29.7–44.7] g/l, a median glucose of 0.30 [0.22–0.47] mmol/L, and a median pH of 8.50 [8.25–8.67]. As for AF ($n=5/10$), the median count of leucocytes was 0.12 [0.08–0.16] G/L, the median protein was 12.0 [12.0–17.0] g/l, the median glucose was 6.50 [5.9–7.9] mmol/L, and the median pH was 7.50 [7.50–7.70]. For a comprehensive breakdown of these measurements, refer to the Additional file 1: Table S3.

Molecular approach

The expression of *C. albicans* genes was analysed and log-transformed in 13 different PFs. Figure 3 depicts the heatmap of ECE1 HWP1, UME6, ALS3, and SFL2 expression in the different PFs compared to those in AF. The heat map showed the highly variable expression of these five genes, reflecting the different impacts of each PF on *C. albicans* gene expression.

Metabolic approach

In Fig. 4A, the total heat production was compared between different media when the same amount of *C.*

albicans was inoculated alone. It was observed that SBD medium produced the highest amount of heat, with a mean of 18.03 J, which was statistically significant compared to other media ($p<0.0001$). The heat production in AF was lower than in PF, and there was a statistically significant difference between AF and PF25 as well as PF26 ($p<0.001$). Among the three different PFs evaluated, there was also a statistically significant difference in heat production: PF24 had a mean of 3.83 J, PF25 had a mean of 6.62 J, and PF26 had a mean of 15.37 J ($p=0.0261$, $p<0.0001$, $p<0.0001$).

In Fig. 4B–D, the heat production was analysed for samples combining *C. albicans* and bacteria. Apart from one combination (PF25, *C. albicans* with *E. cloacae*), the differences in metabolic production between *C. albicans* alone and in conjunction with bacteria were statistically significant across all other combinations. These associations yielded both increased metabolic rates (notably with *E. coli*, *S. aureus*, and *B. fragilis*) and decreased metabolic rates (particularly with *P. aeruginosa* and *E. cloacae*).

In terms of comparing pathogen associations within the same PF (Additional file 1: Figure S2), the combination of *C. albicans* with *S. aureus* generated a higher heat production than the combination of *C. albicans* with *E. coli* ($p<0.01$) in PF24. Similarly, in PF25, the combination of *C. albicans* with *E. cloacae* resulted in higher heat production than the combination of *C. albicans* with *P. aeruginosa* ($p<0.05$).

The difference between samples heat production, time to activity, time to peak, time to decay, metabolic activity between samples and pathogen combination are described in supplementary materials (Additional file 1: Table S4, Figure S3). No contamination and survival of all involved yeast and bacterial strains were confirmed after inoculation of the remaining sample on culture plates.

Discussion

This study represents the first reported investigation into the expression of *C. albicans* virulence in human peritoneal fluid using three distinct approaches that consistently yielded similar results. The findings of this study could challenge the notion that *C. albicans* should be solely regarded as a harmless colonizer in PF and highlight its potential pathogenic role. Moreover, the study demonstrates that the expression of *C. albicans* virulence factors in PF seems to be highly variable and influenced by the specific characteristics of the fluid as well as the presence of bacteria.

The phenotype approach confirmed the presence of hyphae forms of *C. albicans* in the PF. The ability of *C. albicans* to transition from yeast to hyphal forms is considered a crucial virulence attribute [20]. This transition

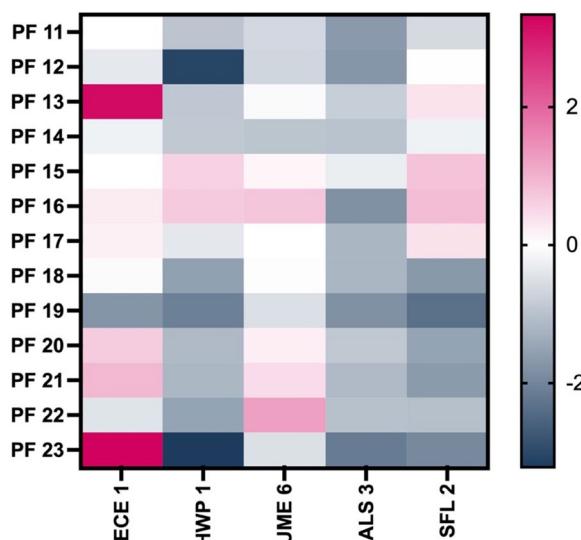


Fig. 3 Heat map of virulence expression gene in PF 11 to 23. Legend: heat map showing log-transformed quantitative genes expression of *C. albicans* grown in different peritoneal fluids. Gene expression of *C. albicans* in peritoneal fluids is compared with ascitic fluid. Relative gene expression was measured by RTqPCR using the $\Delta\Delta CT$ method. PF: peritoneal fluid

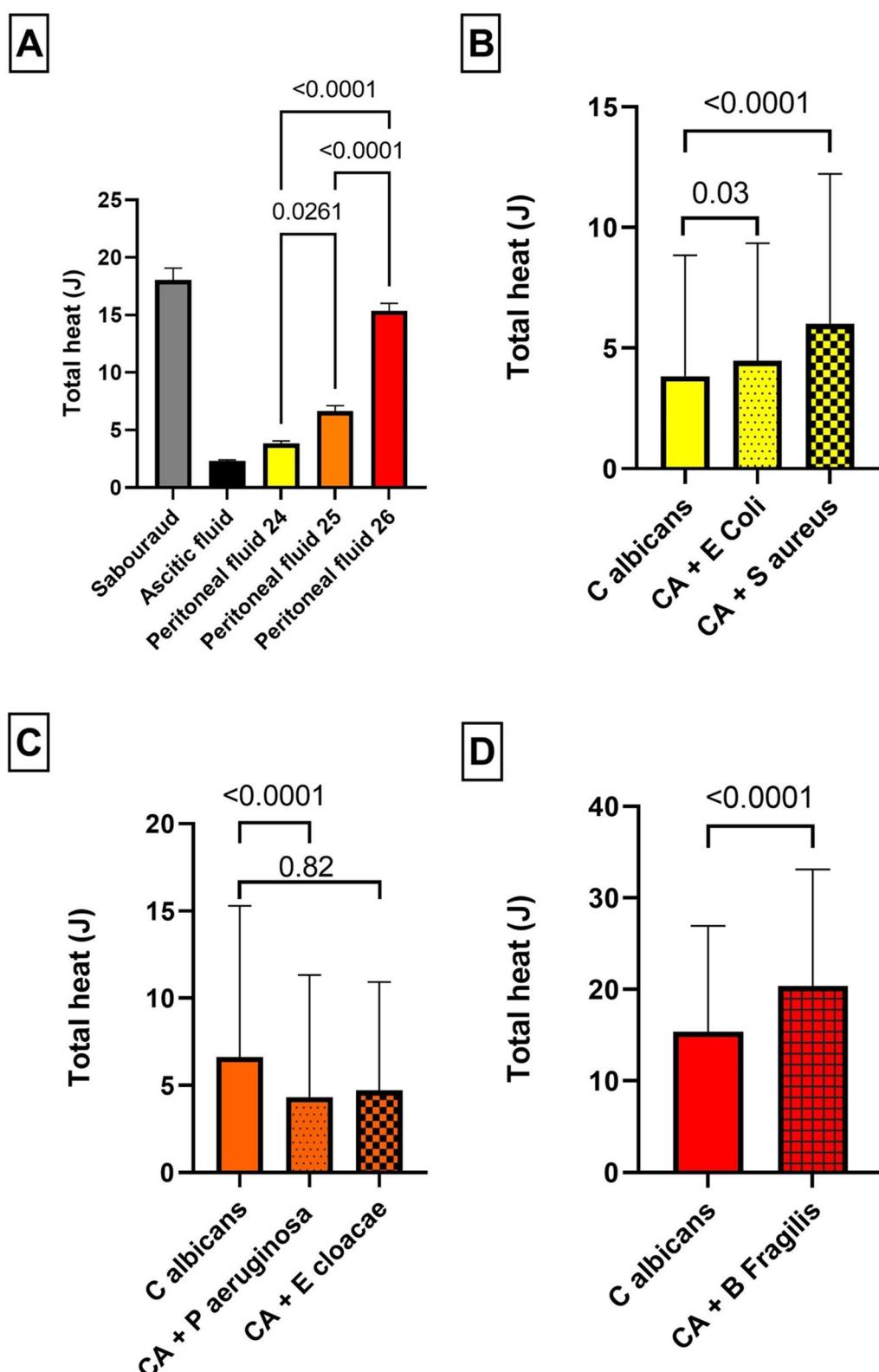


Fig. 4 Heat production of *C. albicans* alone and combined with different bacteria, according to the media. Heat production is expressed as mean and standard deviation. **A** Total heat production after 48 h of *C. albicans* depending on the type of media (Sabouraud, ascitic fluid, peritoneal fluid number 24–26). **B–D** Total heat production after 48 h of *C. albicans* with different bacteria (**B** *Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus* in PF24; **C** *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Enterobacter cloacae* in PF25; **D** *Bacteroides fragilis*, in PF26). PF: peritoneal fluid

confers *C. albicans* with the potential to penetrate epithelial and intestinal barriers and evade the immune system [19] which are well-established mechanisms in candidemia [26]. However, in the present study, the presence of hyphal forms was observed in the PF without the requirement of barrier crossing. The switch to hyphal forms is known to be triggered by various factors, including interactions with bacteria, immune cells, and environmental conditions, such as temperature and pH [27–29]. The variability in the composition of PF may explain the observed variation in *C. albicans* forms.

In this context, it remains challenging to pinpoint specific parameters within the PF that are accountable for the observed variability. The composition of the PF in secondary peritonitis predominantly featured a significant presence of immune cells, primarily neutrophils, alongside relatively elevated protein levels and diminished glucose concentrations. Despite our efforts, we were unable to detect a discernible pattern in the PF composition that correlated with a higher occurrence of virulence expression. This could be attributed to the limitations imposed by the sample size. Consequently, the need for further investigations becomes apparent, necessitating a larger sample pool and a more comprehensive analysis that encompasses factors, such as the specific types of proteins (such as immunoglobulins), sources of carbon (for instance, lactate), and the immune components (comprising cell types and cytokines) at play. In addition, some PF samples exhibited a mixture of hyphal and yeast forms, a phenomenon previously reported. The yeast form is believed to facilitate dissemination, while the hyphal form is associated with tissue damage [30].

The evaluation of different genes involved in the mechanisms of virulence in *C. albicans* revealed that the hyphal switch is not the sole mechanism contributing to its virulence [31]. For instance, HWP1, an adhesin gene, is essential for mucosal epithelial cell adhesion and biofilm formation [32]. ECE1 is essential for the synthesis of candidalysin, a cytolytic peptide toxin that directly damages host epithelial membranes [33]. Molecular analyses confirmed the observations made during the phenotypic experiments, indicating that the expression of these five *C. albicans* virulence genes was highly variable depending on the composition of the PF. The PF components appear to influence both the phenotype of *C. albicans* and the expression of its virulence genes.

The metabolic analyses conducted in the study revealed significant variability in heat production depending on the composition of the PF and the presence of bacteria. Heat production is known to be associated with microbial growth and activities, and it is considered to be more accurate and sensitive compared to standard culture

methods [34, 35]. Interactions between *Candida* and bacteria have been previously demonstrated [36]. In animal model, the intra-peritoneal co-injection of *C. albicans* and *Staphylococcus aureus* led to higher mortality in mice compared to single infections [37]. Co-infection with *E. coli* and *C. albicans* resulted in higher mortality in mice compared to mono-infection [38]. Regarding heat production, the presence of bacteria yielded diverse outcomes in terms of metabolic rates. Combinations with *E. coli*, *S. aureus*, and *B. fragilis* led to heightened metabolic rates, while pairings with *P. aeruginosa* and *E. cloacae* resulted in reduced metabolic rates. Analysing the area under the curve of metabolic production (refer to Additional file 1: Figure S3), only the association with *B. fragilis* demonstrated a sustained signal at 24 h, indicating a potential synergistic activity that might be attributed to biofilm formation. Previous experimental studies have demonstrated that *C. albicans* contributes to the survival of *B. fragilis* through biofilm formation, creating an anaerobic microenvironment that promotes the growth and persistence of *B. fragilis* [39].

The findings of this study are consistent with two recent animal studies conducted in mice, which also explored the influence of PF on the virulence of *C. albicans* [40, 41]. Lima et al. reported that the presence of fecal material in the peritoneal cavity reduced the invasiveness of *C. albicans* [40]. Cheng et al. demonstrated that the PF composition, including local pH and molecular signatures, influenced the expression of virulence genes, indicating a role in modulating *C. albicans* virulence during abscess formation [41].

Major strength of this study is its unique approach in assessing the pathogenicity of *C. albicans* using PF obtained from human intra-abdominal infections, which provides more relevant insights compared to animal models, which have certain limitations. For instance, these models often involve immunosuppressed mice, which may not fully represent the immune status of human patients with intra-abdominal infections. In addition, the administration of *C. albicans* through intra-peritoneal injection in animal models does not replicate the complete spectrum of pathogenesis observed in human cases, including the interactions between the gut microbiota and the host before the breach of the intestinal barrier. Finally, the immune, inflammatory, and metabolic responses to infection in mice differ significantly from the human phenotype of sepsis [42].

Limitations

We acknowledge limitations in our study. First, the sample size was relatively small, and we were unable to perform combined analyses using the triple approach on

the same sample. This limitation arose due to the step-wise approach of the study, limited sample volume, and restricted access to the calScreener™ equipment. Second, the extraction of RNA from human PF was particularly challenging and had not been previously attempted. Overcoming these technical difficulties was a notable achievement of our study. Finally, the use of the calScreener™ for PF and *Candida* species was a novel application. Indeed, previous studies have been conducted using the calScreener™ equipment with bacteria [25], but its application to PF or *Candida* species has not been explored before. We had to dedicate some PF samples to test its feasibility and reliability, as well as to configure the inoculum accurately for ensuring comparability between samples.

This study was observational, and it revealed a high variability in the expression of *C. albicans* virulence and metabolic profiles. Additional investigations are necessary to uncover the precise factors contributing to the variation in *C. albicans* virulence expression. While bacteria were introduced as a modifiable element, it remains challenging to pinpoint the exact constituents of the peritoneal fluid responsible for driving this virulence expression.

It is important to note that this study focused specifically on *C. albicans*, and the results may not be applicable to other *Candida* species with different virulence mechanisms, such as *C. glabrata*. In addition, the study only examined samples from secondary peritonitis, limiting conclusions regarding primary and tertiary peritonitis. Spontaneous fungal peritonitis is a primary peritonitis which shares commonalities with IAC. Of note, the treatment necessity, especially in cirrhotic patients with acute-on-chronic liver failure is debated [43, 44]. Spontaneous fungal peritonitis necessitates a translocation of *Candida* across the gastrointestinal tract mucosa into the peritoneal cavity, a process exacerbated by factors, such as immunosuppression or malnutrition. The evaluation of virulence expression of *Candida* during spontaneous fungal peritonitis may help to address the question regarding treatment.

Certainly, the next step would involve assessing the virulence of clinical strains of *Candida* obtained from critically ill patients with IAC and correlating the expression of virulence factors with clinical outcomes. However, before conducting these analyses, further optimization is necessary for the molecular and metabolic evaluations. RNA extraction from PF proved to be challenging, as did ensuring an adequate quantity of inoculum for metabolic assessment. One advantage of this experimental study was the ability to control both the inoculum and the experimental conditions.

Conclusion

This study provides the first evidence of *C. albicans* virulence in human peritoneal fluid. The expression of *C. albicans* virulence was found to be highly variable in PF samples from critically ill patients with intra-abdominal infection. These findings could challenge the current understanding of IAC, which primarily relies on clinical signs of infection and positive *Candida* cultures. Further research is needed to identify the specific components of PF that promote *C. albicans* virulence. The next important step is to determine the factors that trigger the transition of *Candida* from a harmless colonizer to a life-threatening pathogen, allowing for targeted treatment in critically ill patients with invasive candidiasis. In addition, there is a need for studies investigating the immune response in the context of IAC involving the human population. Indeed, the ability of the immune system to clear the peritoneum from pathogen including *Candida* is of high interest to understand clinical outcomes, such as mortality. Besides, *Candida* can escape the immune system among other with hyphae transformation and biofilm formation. Thus, to better understand changes in *Candida* virulence, all components (media, bacteria, immunity) must be evaluated. These studies will contribute to the development of personalized medicine approaches for managing invasive candidiasis in critically ill patients.

Abbreviations

ACT	Actin
ALS	Agglutinin-like sequence
AF	Ascitic fluid
ECE	Extent of cell elongation
HWP	Hyphal wall protein
IAC	Intra-abdominal candidiasis
ICU	Intensive care unit
IQR	Interval quartile range
OD	Optical density
PBS	Phosphate-buffered saline
PF	Peritoneal fluid
RTqPCR	Reverse transcriptase quantitative polymerase chain reaction
SBD	Sabouraud medium
SIMPA	Stress, Immunité, Pathogènes
TEF	Translation elongation factor

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40635-023-00552-0>.

Additional file 1. Provides the qPCR protocol for the expression of *C. albicans* virulence gene with details regarding each genes (Table S1), the bacterial composition and macroscopic examination of the peritoneal fluids 11 to 26 (Table S2), the cytology, protein and glucose concentrations of included PF 1 to 10 and AF 1 to 5 (Table S3), additional metabolic parameters depending on the peritoneal fluid (24 to 26) and the presence of bacteria (Table S4), enlarged photo from the phenotypic approach (Figure S1), and the heat production profile of *C. albicans* combined with different bacteria in different peritoneal fluids (Figure S2).

Acknowledgements

The authors thank Pr Dalle Frederic, from Dijon University Hospital, and Dr Znaidi Sadri, from Paris Institut Pasteur, for their technical advice, and helping establish the method of the molecular experiments. The authors thank Ganna Oliynyck, from Symcel AB (Solna, Sweden), for her technical support during the calScreener™ installation and help for setup and analysis. The authors thank all the staff of the laboratory "Stress, Immunité, Pathogènes", for their advice and help regarding laboratory experiments.

Author contributions

EN: conceptualization, methodology, investigation, formal analysis, writing—original draft, writing—review and editing. ME: methodology, investigation, formal analysis, writing—original draft. JB: investigation, data curation, writing—review and editing. AG: investigation, data curation. MRL: formal analysis, writing—review and editing. MM: conceptualization, methodology, supervision. PG: methodology, formal analysis, writing—original draft, writing—review and editing.

Funding

No specific grant was used. This work was supported by the department of Anaesthesiology, critical care and peri-operative medicine of the University Hospital of Nancy which allows the rental cost of the calScreener™ for a 6-month period. The experiments performed at the laboratory "Stress, Immunité, Pathogènes" were made by EN (PhD graduant) and ME (Master 2) and required no additional specific material or equipment than those already available.

Availability of data and materials

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author, but some restrictions apply to the availability of these data, which were used under license for the current study (calScreener™), and so are not publicly available. Data are, however, available from the authors upon reasonable request and with permission of all authors.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

The present study was classified as non-interventional, hence only patient or substitute decision-makers "decline to participate" was requested. The study received approval from the local ethics committee of Nancy (Number 234).

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

All authors declare no competing interests regarding the present work.

Author details

¹Service d'anesthésie-Réanimation et Médecine Péri-Opératoire, CHRU Nancy, Hôpitaux de Brabois, 54500 Vandœuvre-Lès-Nancy, France. ²SIMPA, UR7300, Université de Lorraine, 54500 Vandœuvre-Lès-Nancy, France. ³Service de Chirurgie Digestive, CHRU Nancy, Hôpitaux de Brabois, 54500 Vandœuvre-Lès-Nancy, France. ⁴NGERE, U1256, Université de Lorraine, 54500 Vandœuvre-Lès-Nancy, France. ⁵DCAC, INSERM 1116, Université de Lorraine, 54500 Vandœuvre-Lès-Nancy, France. ⁶Service de Mycologie et Parasitologie, CHRU Nancy, Hôpitaux de Brabois, 54500 Vandœuvre-Lès-Nancy, France.

Received: 17 July 2023 Accepted: 22 September 2023

Published online: 30 September 2023

References

- Vincent J-L, Sakr Y, Singer M et al (2020) Prevalence and outcomes of infection among patients in intensive care units in 2017. *JAMA* 323:1478–1487. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.2717>
- Blot S, Antonelli M, Arvaniti K et al (2019) Epidemiology of intra-abdominal infection and sepsis in critically ill patients: "AbSeS", a multinational observational cohort study and ESICM Trials Group Project. *Intensive Care Med* 45:1703–1717. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-019-05819-3>
- Montravers P, Dupont H, Eggimann P (2013) Intra-abdominal candidiasis: the guidelines—forgotten non-candidemic invasive candidiasis. *Intensive Care Med* 39:2226–2230. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-013-3134-2>
- Bassetti M, Azoulay E, Kullberg B-J et al (2021) EORTC/MSGERC definitions of invasive fungal diseases: summary of activities of the intensive care unit working group. *Clin Infect Dis* 72:S121–S127. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciaa175>
- Bassetti M, Giacobbe DR, Vena A et al (2019) Incidence and outcome of invasive candidiasis in intensive care units (ICUs) in Europe: results of the EUCAINDICU project. *Crit Care* 23:219. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13054-019-2497-3>
- Nourry É, Wallet F, Darien M et al (2023) Use of 1,3-beta-D-glucan concentration in peritoneal fluid for the diagnosis of intra-abdominal candidiasis in critically ill patients. *Med Mycol* 61:myad029. <https://doi.org/10.1093/myco/myad029>
- Bassetti M, Vena A, Giacobbe DR et al (2022) Risk factors for intra-abdominal candidiasis in intensive care units: results from EUCAINDICU study. *Infect Dis Ther* 11:827–840. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40121-021-00585-6>
- Leroy O, Bailli S, Gangneux J-P et al (2016) Systemic antifungal therapy for proven or suspected invasive candidiasis: the AmarCAND 2 study. *Ann Intensive Care* 6:2. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13613-015-0103-7>
- De Waele J, Lipman J, Sakr Y et al (2014) Abdominal infections in the intensive care unit: characteristics, treatment and determinants of outcome. *BMC Infect Dis* 14:420. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2334-14-420>
- Sandven P, Qvist H, Skovlund E et al (2002) Significance of Candida recovered from intraoperative specimens in patients with intra-abdominal perforations. *Crit Care Med* 30:541–547. <https://doi.org/10.1097/0000000000000246>
- Garnacho-Montero J, Díaz-Martín A, Cantón-Bulnes L et al (2018) Initial antifungal strategy reduces mortality in critically ill patients with candidemia: a propensity score-adjusted analysis of a multicenter study. *Crit Care Med* 46:384–393. <https://doi.org/10.1097/CCM.0000000000002867>
- Bassetti M, Vena A, Meroni M et al (2020) Factors associated with the development of septic shock in patients with candidemia: a post hoc analysis from two prospective cohorts. *Crit Care*. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13054-020-2793-y>
- Sartelli M, Coccolini F, Kluger Y et al (2021) WSES/GAIS/SIS-E/WSIS/AAST global clinical pathways for patients with intra-abdominal infections. *World J Emerg Surg* 16:49. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13017-021-00387-8>
- de Ruiter J, Weel J, Manusama E et al (2009) The epidemiology of intra-abdominal flora in critically ill patients with secondary and tertiary abdominal sepsis. *Infection* 37:522–527. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s15010-009-8249-6>
- Dupont H, Paugam-Burtz C, Muller-Serieys C et al (2002) Predictive factors of mortality due to polymicrobial peritonitis with *Candida* isolation in peritoneal fluid in critically ill patients. *Arch Surg* 137:1341–1346
- Lagunes L, Rey-Pérez A, Martín-Gómez MT et al (2017) Association between source control and mortality in 258 patients with intra-abdominal candidiasis: a retrospective multi-centric analysis comparing intensive care versus surgical wards in Spain. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 36:95–104. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10096-016-2775-9>
- Vergidis P, Clancy CJ, Shields RK et al (2016) Intra-abdominal candidiasis: the importance of early source control and antifungal treatment. *PLoS ONE* 11:e0153247. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0153247>
- Montravers P, Dupont H, Gauzit R et al (2006) Candida as a risk factor for mortality in peritonitis. *Crit Care Med* 34:646–652. <https://doi.org/10.1097/CCM.0000000000001889>
- Galocha M, Pais P, Cavalheiro M et al (2019) Divergent approaches to virulence in *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*: two sides of the same coin. *Int J Mol Sci* 20:2345. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms20092345>
- Calderone RA, Fonzi WA (2001) Virulence factors of *Candida albicans*. *Trends Microbiol* 9:327–335. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0966-842x\(01\)02094-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0966-842x(01)02094-7)
- Hoyer LL, Cota E (2016) *Candida albicans* agglutinin-like sequence (Als) family vignettes: a review of Als protein structure and function. *Front Microbiol* 7:280. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2016.00280>
- Jones T, Fedderspiel NA, Chibana H et al (2004) The diploid genome sequence of *Candida albicans*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 101:7329–7334. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0401648101>

23. dMIQE Group, Huggett JF (2020) The digital MIQE guidelines update: minimum information for publication of quantitative digital PCR experiments for 2020. *Clin Chem* 66:1012–1029. <https://doi.org/10.1093/clinchem/hvaa125>
24. Wadsö I, Hallén D, Jansson M et al (2017) A well-plate format isothermal multi-channel microcalorimeter for monitoring the activity of living cells and tissues. *Thermochim Acta* 652:141–149. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tca.2017.03.010>
25. Beilharz K, Kragh KN, Fritz B et al (2023) Protocol to assess metabolic activity of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* by measuring heat flow using isothermal calorimetry. *STAR Protoc* 4:102269. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.xpro.2023.102269>
26. Goyer M, Loiselet A, Bon F et al (2016) Intestinal cell tight junctions limit invasion of *Candida albicans* through active penetration and endocytosis in the early stages of the interaction of the fungus with the intestinal barrier. *PLoS ONE* 11:e0149159. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0149159>
27. Höfs S, Mogavero S, Huber B (2016) Interaction of *Candida albicans* with host cells: virulence factors, host defense, escape strategies, and the microbiota. *J Microbiol* 54:149–169. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12275-016-5514-0>
28. Paroli M, Caccavale R, Fiorillo MT et al (2022) The double game played by Th17 cells in infection: host defense and immunopathology. *Pathogens* 11:1547. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pathogens11121547>
29. Ballou ER, Avelar GM, Childers DS et al (2016) Lactate signalling regulates fungal β-glucan masking and immune evasion. *Nat Microbiol* 2:16238. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nmicrobiol.2016.238>
30. Saville SP, Lazzell AL, Monteagudo C, Lopez-Ribot JL (2003) Engineered control of cell morphology in vivo reveals distinct roles for yeast and filamentous forms of *Candida albicans* during infection. *Eukaryot Cell* 2:1053–1060. <https://doi.org/10.1128/EC.25.1053-1060.2003>
31. Naglik J, Albrecht A, Bader O, Huber B (2004) *Candida albicans* proteinases and host-pathogen interactions. *Cell Microbiol* 6:915–926. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1462-5822.2004.00439.x>
32. Fan Y, He H, Dong Y, Pan H (2013) Hyphae-specific genes HGC1, ALS3, HWP1, and ECE1 and relevant signaling pathways in *Candida albicans*. *Mycopathologia* 176:329–335. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11046-013-9684-6>
33. Allert S, Förster TM, Svensson C-M et al (2018) *Candida albicans*-induced epithelial damage mediates translocation through intestinal barriers. *MBio* 9:e00915-e918. <https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.00915-18>
34. Maskow T, Paufler S (2015) What does calorimetry and thermodynamics of living cells tell us? *Methods* 76:3–10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/jymeth.2014.10.035>
35. Braissant O, Wirz D, Göpfert B, Daniels AU (2010) Use of isothermal microcalorimetry to monitor microbial activities. *FEMS Microbiol Lett* 303:1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6968.2009.01819.x>
36. Krüger W, Vielreicher S, Kapitan M et al (2019) Fungal-bacterial interactions in health and disease. *Pathogens* 8:70. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pathogens8020070>
37. Peters BM, Noverr MC (2013) *Candida albicans*-*Staphylococcus aureus* polymicrobial peritonitis modulates host innate immunity. *Infect Immun* 81:2178–2189. <https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.00265-13>
38. Klaerner HG, Uknis ME, Acton RD et al (1997) *Candida albicans* and *Escherichia coli* are synergistic pathogens during experimental microbial peritonitis. *J Surg Res* 70:161–165. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jsre.1997.5110>
39. Valentine M, Benadé E, Mouton M et al (2019) Binary interactions between the yeast *Candida albicans* and two gut-associated *Bacteroides* species. *Microb Pathog* 135:103619. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micpath.2019.103619>
40. Lima WG, Campos ABC, Brito JCM et al (2022) Study of the influence of fecal material on the prognosis of intra-abdominal candidiasis using a murine model of technetium-99 m (99 mTc)-*Candida albicans*. *Microbiol Res* 263:127132. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micres.2022.127132>
41. Cheng S, Clancy CJ, Xu W et al (2013) Profiling of *Candida albicans* gene expression during intra-abdominal candidiasis identifies biologic processes involved in pathogenesis. *J Infect Dis* 208:1529–1537. <https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/jit335>
42. Vintrych P, Al-Obeidallah M, Horák J et al (2022) Modeling sepsis, with a special focus on large animal models of porcine peritonitis and bacteremia. *Front Physiol* 13:1094199. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fphys.2022.1094199>
43. Tariq T, Irfan FB, Farishta M et al (2019) Spontaneous fungal peritonitis: micro-organisms, management and mortality in liver cirrhosis-a systematic review. *World J Hepatol* 11:596–606. <https://doi.org/10.4254/wjh.v11.i7.596>
44. Marao AE, Buonomo AR, Zappalà E et al (2019) Unsolved issues in the treatment of spontaneous peritonitis in patients with cirrhosis: nosocomial versus community-acquired infections and the role of fungi. *Rev Recent Clin Trials* 14:129–135. <https://doi.org/10.2174/1574887114666181204102516>

Publisher's Note

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

Submit your manuscript to a SpringerOpen® journal and benefit from:

- Convenient online submission
- Rigorous peer review
- Open access: articles freely available online
- High visibility within the field
- Retaining the copyright to your article

Submit your next manuscript at ► springeropen.com

3.1. Synthèse de l'étude expérimentale

Cette recherche expérimentale est la première à décrire la virulence de *C. albicans* dans le liquide péritonéal humain en utilisant une approche tri-modale. Les trois approches ont montré une virulence variable chez *C. albicans* selon les liquides péritonéaux.

La formation d'hyphes et l'expression de gène d'adhésion et de filamentation sont des facteurs de virulence reconnus de *C. albicans*.²¹² Précédemment, l'influence du liquide péritonéal avait été démontrée dans deux modèles murins. Lima *et al.* ont rapporté que l'aspect fécal du liquide réduisait les capacités d'invasion de *C. albicans*.²⁶⁸ Cheng *et al.* démontrent que la composition du liquide (notamment son pH) influençait l'expression de virulence et jouait un rôle dans la formation d'abcès.²⁶⁹

Désormais il convient d'identifier quels sont les facteurs à l'origine de l'expression de virulence de *Candida*. Le milieu joue probablement un rôle puisque le pH et la température ont été associés au switch de la forme levure à hyphe.²²⁵ Dans notre étude, nous avons constaté une variation plus élevée de formes dans le liquide péritonéal où le pH était alcalin en comparaison avec le liquide d'ascite qui avait un pH plus proche de celui du plasma. Les cellules immunitaires ont probablement aussi un rôle important. Comme nous l'avons rapporté précédemment, le switch levure vers hyphe est un moyen d'échappement au système immunitaire.^{225,239} Enfin, les bactéries et les réactions bactéries-*Candida* influencent probablement sa virulence. Nous avons pu en effet constater différentes productions de chaleur selon l'association bactérie-*Candida* au sein d'un même liquide péritonéal.

Cette étude expérimentale rapporte donc les premières preuves d'une virulence variable de *C. albicans* selon la composition bactérienne, cellulaire et biochimique du liquide péritonéal. Sa principale limite reste le nombre d'échantillons analysés et l'absence d'analyse de l'ensemble des échantillons avec les trois approches. En effet, un certain nombre d'échantillons ont servi à la configuration des différentes méthodes notamment l'extraction d'ARN qui était particulièrement difficile. Comme il n'existe aucune donnée avec le calScreener™ pour *Candida* à la période de l'étude, il a fallu utiliser certaines souches et liquides pour identifier le profil de courbe et la taille de l'inoculum permettant les analyses.

Il faut désormais confirmer ces observations en analysant la virulence de *C. albicans* mais aussi des autres espèces de *Candida* sur des isolats issus de patients avec une candidose intra-abdominale. Ensuite, il conviendra de corrélérer ces observations avec le statut immunitaire du patient et son devenir (statut vital).

Enfin, bien que prometteuse, cette approche ne nous permettait pas d'étudier l'activation de mécanismes de virulence en préouverture du tube digestif où il peut exister différents stress sur *Candida* comme les interactions avec les bactéries.

4. Immunité péritonéale

L'immunité joue probablement un rôle important dans le contrôle de l'infection à *Candida*. Comme pour d'autres infections, la réponse immunitaire peut être classée en localisée ou régionale et systémique ou globale. Peu de données existent quant à l'immunité péritonéale lors des péritonites.

Pour rappel, la péritonite est une inflammation du péritoine qui peut être localisée ou généralisée. Trois phases se succèdent²⁷⁰ :

- Phase 1 : l'ensemble des contaminants sont retirés de la cavité péritonéale. Les liquides sont absorbés au niveau du péritoine diaphragmatique par le système lymphatique. C'est à cette phase que peut survenir une bactériémie et/ou une candidémie.
- Phase 2 : l'immunité innée et adaptative sont stimulées afin de recruter les phagocytes dans la cavité péritonéale. Afin d'éviter des dégâts collatéraux en rapport avec une inflammation excessive, une réponse anti-inflammatoire est déclenchée médiée entre autres par IL-10.²⁷¹
- Phase 3 : afin de contenir l'infection, de la fibrine est produite, pouvant conduire à la formation d'abcès. Cette fibrino-formation est principalement médiée par l'inhibiteur de l'activateur du plasminogène 1 (PAI-1) qui est stimulé par la production de TNF-α. La production de PAI-1 par les cellules péritonéales mésothéliales empêche la dégradation de la fibrine par le contrôle de l'activation de la fibrinolyse.²⁷¹

4.1. Composants de l'immunité péritonéale

▪ La reconnaissance de *Candida* :

Elle passe par la détection des PAMPs au niveau des levures et hyphes par les récepteurs PRRs.²⁷² Les PRRs sont exprimés sur les phagocytes myéloïdes et sont principalement représentés par les Toll-like receptors (TLR) et les léctines de type C (CLR).²⁷³ L'activation de l'inflammation passe également par des inflammasomes de type NLRP3 et 10 qui favorisent la production de cytokines pro-inflammatoires de type IL-1β, IFN gamma et IL-17.^{274,275} Les autres cytokines et chémokines pro-inflammatoires impliquées sont IL-6, la protéine inflammatoire des macrophages 1α (MIP-1α) et le TNF.²⁷⁶ Ces dernières favorisent le recrutement et la faculté de lyse cellulaire de phagocytes vers la cavité péritonéale.²⁷²

▪ Le rôle des polynucléaires neutrophiles

Les neutrophiles ont un rôle majeur dans l'immunité antifongique, en particulier à la phase aiguë de l'infection.^{277,278} La neutropénie est un facteur de risque reconnu d'infection invasive

à *Candida*. Les neutrophiles sont recrutés via le récepteur CXC-chemokine 2 (CXCR2) à la phase aiguë puis le récepteur CC-chemokine 1 (CCR1) à la phase tardive. Leur activité fongicide dépend de mécanismes oxydatifs et non oxydatifs. Le mécanisme oxydatif est médié par le complexe NADPH et l'activation de la calcineurine dectine 1.²⁷⁹ Les mécanismes non oxydatifs sont médiés par les Neutrophils traps (NETs), qui contiennent une élastase antifongique, et la dégranulation neutrophilique.²⁸⁰

- **Rôle des phagocytes mononucléés**

Monocytes, macrophages et cellules dendritiques ont également un rôle fondamental dans l'immunité anti-*Candida*.^{281,282} Ces cellules favorisent le recrutement des neutrophiles et leur activation. Elles ont également des capacités de lyse de *Candida* médiée par la production de peroxy nitrites.²⁷³ De plus, au décours d'une infection à *Candida*, elles permettent une protection « longue durée » via un reprogrammation monocyttaire à l'origine d'une immunité mémoire indépendante des lymphocytes.²⁸³ Enfin, les macrophages ont également un rôle dans le contrôle de l'inflammation par le biais de cytokines anti-inflammatoires et par la dégradation des molécules d'alarme.²⁸⁴

4.2. La réponse immunitaire locale et générale

- **Appart des modèles animaux :**

Un premier modèle murin de péritonite s'est intéressé aux péritonites post-opératoire afin d'étudier l'influence de l'immunosuppression post-opératoire sur la mortalité des IIA.²⁸⁵ Les auteurs rapportaient une augmentation de la mortalité chez les souris sujettes à une immunosuppression secondaire à une première chirurgie. Pour induire l'immunosuppression post-opératoire, une laparotomie médiane était réalisée et l'intestin grêle était sujet à trois séquences « d'écrasement » intestinal entre deux compresses afin d'imiter les manipulations digestives (méthode dite « Surgically induced immune dysfunction »²⁸⁶). Pour provoquer la PPO, les auteurs utilisaient la méthode reconnue du « colon ascendens stent peritonitis ».²⁸⁷ Après laparotomie médiane, une canule de 18G était insérée dans le colon ascendant de façon à extraire le contenu intestinal dans la cavité péritonéale qui était ensuite enrichie de sérum salé. Il existait une réaction inflammatoire différente en cas de PPO et une fréquence plus élevée de bactériémie. La production d'IL-10 notamment était plus faible en cas de PPO. De plus, au niveau intestinal, il existait une infiltration de cellules pro-inflammatoires pouvant favoriser la translocation bactérienne. Au niveau péritonéal, les macrophages et les lymphocytes B CD19+ étaient eux moins présents en cas de PPO.

Une autre étude animale utilisant le même modèle pour induire la péritonite avait évalué le rôle du nerf vague dans le contrôle de l'inflammation péritonéale. Dans cette étude on observait une mortalité plus élevée et une concentration plasmatique plus élevée de cytokines telles que TNF, IL-6, IL-10 et MCP-1 chez les souris ayant subi une vagotomie pré péritonite.²⁸⁸ Il est important de souligner que ces deux études animales concernaient des péritonites bactériennes. Néanmoins, les conséquences d'une immunosuppression secondaire à une première chirurgie et le rôle immunitaire du nerf vague confirment l'importance de l'immunité dans le contrôle local et général de l'infection.

■ **Les études chez l'homme :**

Peu d'études ont évalué l'immunité péritonéale chez l'homme.^{120,289-291} La première étude à comparer l'immunité locale et systémique chez 66 patients de réanimation avec une péritonite secondaire est celle de Riché *et al.*²⁹¹ Les auteurs rapportaient une concentration de cytokines bien plus élevée dans le liquide péritonéal que dans le plasma, sauf pour IL-10. De plus, les concentrations plasmatiques de TNF- α , IL-6, IFN- γ et IL-10 étaient plus élevées chez les patients en choc septique et chez ceux qui décédaient. Cette étude démontrait la présence d'une forte réaction locale péritonéale lors d'une péritonite secondaire, avec une production simultanée de médiateurs pro- et anti-inflammatoires. Récemment, Zhao *et al.* confirmaient les résultats précédents chez 97 patients de réanimation avec un sepsis abdominal.¹²⁰ Les concentrations dans le liquide péritonéal d'IL-1 β , IL-2, IL-6, IL-8, IL-17, TNF- α et MCP-1 étaient significativement plus élevées chez les patients en choc septique. Les concentrations péritonéales d'IL-6 et plasmatiques d'IL-8, IL-10 et MCP-1 étaient corrélées à la sévérité du sepsis.

Comme pour les modèles animaux, les études chez l'homme ne concernaient pas spécifiquement les CIA. *Candida* était isolé pour seulement neuf patients dans l'étude de Riché contre deux pour celle de Zhao *et al.*

5. Messages clés concernant la pathogénicité de *C. albicans* et le rôle de l'immunité

- Il semble probable que la prise en compte de *Candida* dans la décision thérapeutique doit se prendre au cas par cas et que la définition actuelle fondée uniquement sur une culture positive et des signes cliniques est insuffisante,
- Il semble probable qu'il existe une influence du milieu (cellularité, bactéries, pH, température, nutriments) sur l'expression de virulence chez *C. albicans*,
- Il convient désormais de travailler sur des outils capables d'évaluer la virulence chez *Candida* lorsque ce dernier est isolé dans le liquide péritonéal. Si l'analyse de la morphologie de *Candida* (présence d'hyphes) semble accessible partout, la biologie moléculaire et l'approche métabolique sont plus du domaine de la recherche actuellement en raison des protocoles de réalisation et des coûts,
- Le rôle de l'immunité dans la décision de traiter ou non reste à définir,
- L'objectif est de tendre vers une médecine personnalisée.

Conclusions et perspectives

Au cours de ce travail nous avons étudié les aspects diagnostiques, thérapeutiques et physiopathologiques de la candidose intra-abdominale.

D'un point de vue diagnostique, il n'existe pas à ce jour de méthode de diagnostic microbiologique rapide pour confirmer ou écarter la présence de *Candida* dans le liquide péritonéal. Nous avons testé une méthode de microcalorimétrie prometteuse par sa rapidité de détection mais qui requiert énormément de données afin de caractériser le profil métabolique de l'ensemble des espèces de *Candida* seules ou combinées à différentes bactéries. Les techniques de PCR constituent probablement une technique d'avenir du fait de leur sensibilité et spécificité. L'étude DIRECTABDO (NCT04925388) qui évaluera une PCR multiplex incluant la détection de différentes espèces de *Candida* dans les périctonites post-opératoires apportera les premiers éléments de réponse. Les autres méthodes dites « non basées sur la culture » ont principalement démontré une bonne valeur prédictive négative pour écarter la présence de *Candida*. A ce titre, le 1,3 beta-D-glucan est probablement le biomarqueur de choix par sa disponibilité dans la plupart des institutions. Afin d'optimiser ses performances diagnostiques, nous avons rapporté que sa mesure dans le liquide péritonéal combinée avec sa valeur dans le sang avait les meilleures performances diagnostiques. Nous avons soumis un PHRC évaluant l'efficacité d'un algorithme basé sur le dosage du BDG péritonéal et sanguin pour réduire l'exposition aux antifongiques dans les infections intra-abdominales graves à risque fongique (Étude ESPIAC).

L'hétérogénéité des populations incluses dans les études s'intéressant à la candidose intra-abdominale est une problématique pour étudier des méthodes diagnostiques ou l'impact d'un traitement sur la mortalité. Nous avons rapporté que les infections intra-abdominales nécessitant une chirurgie en urgence, en particulier les périctonites post-opératoires, représenteraient une population d'intérêt.

A ce jour, la définition de la candidose intra-abdominale repose sur une culture du liquide péritonéal positive à *Candida* avec des signes d'infection intra-abdominale. Les études expérimentales et animales suggèreraient que la CIA ne peut se résumer à une culture positive. Nous avons montré que les contenus cellulaire, microbien et biochimique du liquide péritonéal semblent influencer l'expression de virulence chez *Candida*. Les études animales ont montré le rôle de l'immunité sur la mortalité et le risque de translocation bactérienne. Ainsi, les futures

études devront s'attacher à évaluer l'expression de virulence parmi les souches de *Candida* isolées chez les patients de réanimation pour ensuite la corréler à la mortalité.

Enfin, une fois que *Candida* est détecté dans le liquide péritonéal et que l'on aura la preuve de sa virulence, se posera la question de son traitement. Les données PK/PD actuelles, bien qu'issues principalement de petites cohortes, rapportent de façon unanime un risque de sous-dosage et une mauvaise diffusion abdominale des antifongiques de première ligne. Ainsi, l'utilisation de fortes doses doit pour l'instant être encouragée, ce d'autant que les échinocandines ont peu d'effets secondaires. Par ailleurs, l'immunité innée et l'immunité adaptative jouent un rôle fondamental dans le contrôle de l'infection. A ce jour, nous manquons de données décrivant l'immunité cellulaire et humorale chez l'homme avec une candidose intra-abdominale avérée.

Qualité du contrôle de la source, traitement antifongique adapté et statut immunitaire sont trois éléments à prendre en considération pour la durée du traitement antifongique. De façon schématique, contrôle précoce de la source, bonnes posologies d'antifongique et absence d'immunodépression devraient justifier une durée de traitement court, probablement < 7 jours. En revanche, si un des trois éléments est défaillant, les antifongiques devront probablement être prolongés. En cas d'immunosuppression avérée, d'autres études sont nécessaires pour démontrer l'intérêt d'une immunomodulation.

Ce travail pose donc les bases de futures études pour la candidose intra-abdominale : typologie de patients à inclure, analyse de la virulence de *Candida*, adéquation du traitement antifongique et évaluation du statut immunitaire. L'objectif *in fine* est de tendre vers une médecine personnalisée afin d'administrer un traitement antifongique au patient qui le nécessite, à bonne posologie et pour une durée adaptée.

Patient	Culture <i>Candida</i> positive Confirmation virulence	Immunité locale et systémique	Traitements antifongiques ?
	 Color key: Red Yellow White Labels: Label A Label B Label C Label D Label E Label F Label 1 Label 2 Label 3 Label 4 Label 5 Label 6	 	
Identifier précocement	Qui faut-il traiter ?	Immunomodulation ?	Approche PK/PD Doses optimisées Durée ?
			Décision collégiale Bon usage antifongique

Prise en charge personnalisée de la candidose intra-abdominale

Références

1. Vincent J-L, Sakr Y, Singer M, *et al.* Prevalence and Outcomes of Infection Among Patients in Intensive Care Units in 2017. *JAMA* 2020; **323**: 1478–87.
2. Bassetti M, Vena A, Giacobbe DR, *et al.* Risk Factors for Intra-Abdominal Candidiasis in Intensive Care Units: Results from EUCANDICU Study. *Infect Dis Ther* 2022; **11**: 827–40.
3. Montravers P, Dupont H, Gauzit R, *et al.* Candida as a risk factor for mortality in peritonitis. *Crit Care Med* 2006; **34**: 646–52.
4. Montravers P, Dupont H, Eggimann P. Intra-abdominal candidiasis: the guidelines—forgotten non-candidemic invasive candidiasis. *Intensive Care Med* 2013; **39**: 2226–30.
5. Bassetti M, Azoulay E, Kullberg B-J, *et al.* EORTC/MSGERC Definitions of Invasive Fungal Diseases: Summary of Activities of the Intensive Care Unit Working Group. *Clin Infect Dis* 2021; **72**: S121–7.
6. Vergidis P, Clancy CJ, Shields RK, *et al.* Intra-Abdominal Candidiasis: The Importance of Early Source Control and Antifungal Treatment. *PLoS ONE* 2016; **11**: e0153247.
7. Bassetti M, Giacobbe DR, Vena A, *et al.* Incidence and outcome of invasive candidiasis in intensive care units (ICUs) in Europe: results of the EUCANDICU project. *Crit Care* 2019; **23**: 219.
8. Leroy O, Bailly S, Gangneux J-P, *et al.* Systemic antifungal therapy for proven or suspected invasive candidiasis: the AmarCAND 2 study. *Ann Intensive Care* 2016; **6**: 2.
9. Peçanha-Pietrobom PM, Colombo AL. Mind the gaps: challenges in the clinical management of invasive candidiasis in critically ill patients. *Curr Opin Infect Dis* 2020; **33**: 441–8.
10. Alves J, Alonso-Tarrés C, Rello J. How to Identify Invasive Candidemia in ICU-A Narrative Review. *Antibiotics (Basel)* 2022; **11**: 1804.
11. Kritikos A, Poissy J, Croxatto A, Bochud P-Y, Pagani J-L, Lamoth F. Impact of the Beta-Glucan Test on Management of Intensive Care Unit Patients at Risk for Invasive Candidiasis. *J Clin Microbiol* 2020; **58**: e01996-19.
12. Mikulska M, Magnasco L, Signori A, *et al.* Sensitivity of Serum Beta-D-Glucan in Candidemia According to Candida Species Epidemiology in Critically Ill Patients Admitted to the Intensive Care Unit. *J Fungi (Basel)* 2022; **8**: 921.
13. Tissot F, Lamoth F, Hauser PM, *et al.* β -glucan antigenemia anticipates diagnosis of blood culture-negative intraabdominal candidiasis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2013; **188**: 1100–9.
14. Bloos F, Held J, Kluge S, *et al.* (1 → 3)- β -D-Glucan-guided antifungal therapy in adults with sepsis: the CandiSep randomized clinical trial. *Intensive Care Med* 2022; **48**: 865–75.
15. Novy E, Laithier F-X, Machouart M-C, Albuisson E, Guerci P, Losser M-R. Determination of 1,3- β -D-glucan in the peritoneal fluid for the diagnosis of intra-abdominal candidiasis in critically ill patients: a pilot study. *Minerva Anestesiol* 2018; **84**: 1369–76.

16. Dupont H, Malaquin S, Villeret L, *et al.* Is β-d-glucan Relevant for the Diagnosis and Follow-Up of Intensive Care Patients with Yeast-Complicated Intra-Abdominal Infection? *J Fungi (Basel)* 2022; **8**: 487.
17. Nourry É, Wallet F, Darien M, *et al.* Use of 1,3-beta-d-glucan concentration in peritoneal fluid for the diagnosis of intra-abdominal candidiasis in critically ill patients. *Medical Mycology* 2023; **61**: myad029.
18. Novy E, Rivière J, Nguyen M, *et al.* Combination of serum and peritoneal 1.3-beta-D-glucan can rule out intra-abdominal candidiasis in surgical critically ill patients: a multicenter prospective study. *Crit Care* 2023; **30**: 27(1): 470.
19. Evans L, Rhodes A, Alhazzani W, *et al.* Surviving sepsis campaign: international guidelines for management of sepsis and septic shock 2021. *Intensive Care Med* 2021; **47**: 1181–247.
20. Pristov KE, Ghannoum MA. Resistance of Candida to azoles and echinocandins worldwide. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2019; **25**: 792–8.
21. Sartelli M, Coccolini F, Kluger Y, *et al.* WSES/GAIS/SIS-E/WSIS/AAST global clinical pathways for patients with intra-abdominal infections. *World J Emerg Surg* 2021; **16**: 49.
22. Basmaciyan L, Bon F, Paradis T, Lapaquette P, Dalle F. “Candida Albicans Interactions With The Host: Crossing The Intestinal Epithelial Barrier”. *Tissue Barriers* 2019; **7**: 1612661.
23. Calandra T, Schneider R, Bille J, Mosimann F, Francioli P. CLINICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF CANDIDA ISOLATED FROM PERITONEUM IN SURGICAL PATIENTS. *The Lancet* 1989; **334**: 1437–40.
24. Blot S, Antonelli M, Arvaniti K, *et al.* Epidemiology of intra-abdominal infection and sepsis in critically ill patients: ‘AbSeS’, a multinational observational cohort study and ESICM Trials Group Project. *Intensive Care Med* 2019; **45**: 1703–17.
25. Montravers P, Blot S, Dimopoulos G, *et al.* Therapeutic management of peritonitis: a comprehensive guide for intensivists. *Intensive Care Med* 2016; **42**: 1234–47.
26. Sartelli M, Catena F, Ansaldi L, *et al.* Complicated intra-abdominal infections worldwide: the definitive data of the CIAOW Study. *World Journal of Emergency Surgery* 2014; **9**: 37.
27. Bassetti M, Eckmann C, Giacobbe DR, Sartelli M, Montravers P. Post-operative abdominal infections: epidemiology, operational definitions, and outcomes. *Intensive Care Med* 2020; **46**: 163–72.
28. Bensignor T, Lefevre JH, Creavin B, *et al.* Postoperative Peritonitis After Digestive Tract Surgery: Surgical Management and Risk Factors for Morbidity and Mortality, a Cohort of 191 Patients. *World J Surg* 2018; **42**: 3589–98.
29. Fried E, Weissman C, Sprung C. Postoperative sepsis. *Curr Opin Crit Care* 2011; **17**: 396–401.
30. Hogan BV, Peter MB, Shenoy HG, Horgan K, Hughes TA. Surgery induced immunosuppression. *Surgeon* 2011; **9**: 38–43.

31. Kullberg BJ, Arendrup MC. Invasive Candidiasis. *N Engl J Med* 2015; **373**: 1445–56.
32. Rex JH. Candida in the peritoneum: passenger or pathogen? *Crit Care Med* 2006; **34**: 902–3.
33. Montravers P, Leroy O, Eckmann C. Intra-abdominal candidiasis: it's still a long way to get unquestionable data. *Intensive Care Med* 2015; **41**: 1682–4.
34. Bassetti M, Marchetti M, Chakrabarti A, et al. A research agenda on the management of intra-abdominal candidiasis: results from a consensus of multinational experts. *Intensive Care Med* 2013; **39**: 2092–106.
35. Sandven P, Qvist H, Skovlund E, Giercksky KE, NORGAS Group and the Norwegian Yeast Study Group. Significance of Candida recovered from intraoperative specimens in patients with intra-abdominal perforations. *Crit Care Med* 2002; **30**: 541–7.
36. de Ruiter J, Weel J, Manusama E, Kingma WP, van der Voort PHJ. The epidemiology of intra-abdominal flora in critically ill patients with secondary and tertiary abdominal sepsis. *Infection* 2009; **37**: 522–7.
37. Bassetti M, Scudeller L, Giacobbe DR, et al. Developing definitions for invasive fungal diseases in critically ill adult patients in intensive care units. Protocol of the FUNgal infections Definitions in ICU patients (FUNDICU) project. *Mycoses* 2019; **62**: 310–9.
38. Bassetti M, Giacobbe DR, Agvald-Ohman C, et al. Invasive Fungal Diseases in Adult Patients in Intensive Care Unit (FUNDICU): 2024 consensus definitions from ESGCIP, EFISG, ESICM, ECMM, MSGERC, ISAC, and ISHAM. *Intensive Care Med* 2024.
39. Leroy O, Gangneux J-P, Montravers P, et al. Epidemiology, management, and risk factors for death of invasive Candida infections in critical care: a multicenter, prospective, observational study in France (2005-2006). *Crit Care Med* 2009; **37**: 1612–8.
40. Bassetti M, Righi E, Ansaldi F, et al. A multicenter multinational study of abdominal candidiasis: epidemiology, outcomes and predictors of mortality. *Intensive Care Med* 2015; **41**: 1601–10.
41. Soulountsi V, Schizodimos T, Kotoulas SC. Deciphering the epidemiology of invasive candidiasis in the intensive care unit: is it possible? *Infection* 2021; **49**: 1107–31.
42. Klingspor L, Tortorano AM, Peman J, et al. Invasive Candida infections in surgical patients in intensive care units: a prospective, multicentre survey initiated by the European Confederation of Medical Mycology (ECMM) (2006-2008). *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2015; **21**: 87.e1-87.e10.
43. Yan T, Li S-L, Ou H-L, Zhu S-N, Huang L, Wang D-X. Appropriate Source Control and Antifungal Therapy are Associated with Improved Survival in Critically Ill Surgical Patients with Intra-abdominal Candidiasis. *World J Surg* 2020; **44**: 1459–69.
44. Habighorst K, Sanders JM, Hennessy SA, Goff K, Wan B, Johns M. Identification of Risk Factors for Intra-Abdominal Candidiasis. *Surg Infect (Larchmt)* 2023; **24**: 910–5.

45. Corrales I, Giménez E, Aguilar G, *et al.* Detection of fungal DNA in peritoneal fluids by a PCR DNA low-density microarray system and quantitation of serum (1-3)- β -D-glucan in the diagnosis of peritoneal candidiasis. *Med Mycol* 2015; **53**: 199–204.
46. Oviaño M, Rodríguez-Sánchez B. MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry in the 21st century clinical microbiology laboratory. *Enferm Infect Microbiol Clin (Engl Ed)* 2021; **39**: 192–200.
47. Robert M-G, Cornet M, Hennebique A, *et al.* MALDI-TOF MS in a Medical Mycology Laboratory: On Stage and Backstage. *Microorganisms* 2021; **9**: 1283.
48. Barantsevich N, Barantsevich E. Diagnosis and Treatment of Invasive Candidiasis. *Antibiotics (Basel)* 2022; **11**: 718.
49. Clancy CJ, Nguyen MH. Diagnosing Invasive Candidiasis. *J Clin Microbiol* 2018; **56**: e01909-17.
50. Augustin P, Tran-Dinh A, Desmard M, *et al.* Usefulness of Gram stain examination of peritoneal fluid in postoperative peritonitis to guide empirical antibiotherapy. *Eur J Trauma Emerg Surg* 2020; **46**: 1335–40.
51. Xie M, Shao J, Wan Z, *et al.* Detection of Candida DNA in peritoneal fluids by PCR assay optimizing the diagnosis and treatment for intra-abdominal candidiasis in high-risk ICU patients: A prospective cohort study. *Front Microbiol* 2022; **13**: 1070688.
52. Ciesielczuk H, Wilks M, Castelain S, *et al.* Multicenter performance evaluation of the Unyvero IAI cartridge for detection of intra-abdominal infections. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 2018; **37**: 2107–15.
53. Ahamefula Osibe D, Lei S, Wang B, Jin C, Fang W. Cell wall polysaccharides from pathogenic fungi for diagnosis of fungal infectious disease. *Mycoses* 2020; **63**: 644–52.
54. Wagener J, Striegler K, Wagener N. α - and β -1,3-Glucan Synthesis and Remodeling. *Curr Top Microbiol Immunol* 2020; **425**: 53–82.
55. Ruiz-Herrera J, Ortiz-Castellanos L. Cell wall glucans of fungi. A review. *The Cell Surface* 2019; **5**: 100022.
56. Cortés JCG, Curto M-Á, Carvalho VSD, Pérez P, Ribas JC. The fungal cell wall as a target for the development of new antifungal therapies. *Biotechnol Adv* 2019; **37**: 107352.
57. Ma J, Underhill DM. β -glucan signaling connects phagocytosis to autophagy. *Glycobiology* 2013; **23**: 1047–51.
58. Brandenburg K, Howe J, Gutsman T, Garidel P. The expression of endotoxic activity in the Limulus test as compared to cytokine production in immune cells. *Curr Med Chem* 2009; **16**: 2653–60.
59. Kawabata S, Muta T. Sadaaki Iwanaga: discovery of the lipopolysaccharide- and β -1,3-d-glucan-mediated proteolytic cascade and unique proteins in invertebrate immunity. *The Journal of Biochemistry* 2010; **147**: 611–8.

60. Finkelman MA. Specificity Influences in (1→3)- β -d-Glucan-Supported Diagnosis of Invasive Fungal Disease. *J Fungi (Basel)* 2020; **7**: 14.
61. Wright WF, Overman SB, Ribes JA. (1–3)- β -D-Glucan Assay: A Review of its Laboratory and Clinical Application. *Laboratory Medicine* 2011; **42**: 679–85.
62. De Carolis E, Marchionni F, Torelli R, *et al.* Comparative performance evaluation of Wako β -glucan test and Fungitell assay for the diagnosis of invasive fungal diseases. *PLoS One* 2020; **15**: e0236095.
63. Sanada Y, Urahashi T, Ihara Y, *et al.* Impact of 3-D glucan during liver transplantation. *Hepatogastroenterology* 2014; **61**: 1368–73.
64. Farooqi J, Niamatullah H, Irfan S, Zafar A, Malik F, Jabeen K. Comparison of β -D-Glucan levels between *Candida auris* and other *Candida* species at the time of candidaemia: a retrospective study. *Clinical Microbiology and Infection* 2021; **27**: 1519.e1-1519.e5.
65. Szyszkowitz A, Zurl C, Herzeg A, *et al.* Serum 1,3-Beta-D-Glucan Values During and After Laparoscopic and Open Intestinal Surgery. *Open Forum Infect Dis* 2018; **5**: ofy296.
66. Cabanilla MG, Briski MJ, Bruss Z, *et al.* The influence of continuous renal replacement therapy on 1,3- β -d-glucan levels in critically ill patients: a single-center retrospective propensity score study. *Ren Fail* 2023; **45**: 2255680.
67. Novy E, Laithier F-X, Riviere J, *et al.* Protocol for the pBDG2 Study: Prospective Evaluation of 1.3- β -D-Glucan in the Peritoneal Fluid for the Diagnosis of Intra-Abdominal Candidiasis in Critically Ill Patients. *Microbiology Research* 2021; **12**: 196–203.
68. Thomas-Rüddel DO, Schlattmann P, Pletz M, Kurzai O, Bloos F. Risk Factors for Invasive Candida Infection in Critically Ill Patients: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *Chest* 2022; **161**: 345–55.
69. Christner M, Abdennadher B, Wichmann D, *et al.* The added value of (1,3)- β -D-glucan for the diagnosis of Invasive Candidiasis in ICU patients: a prospective cohort study. *Infection* 2024; **52**: 73–81.
70. De Pascale G, Martin-Loches I, Nseir S. Antifungal stewardship in critically ill patients. *Intensive Care Med* 2023; 1–4.
71. Wadsö I, Hallén D, Jansson M, Suurkuusk J, Wenzler T, Braissant O. A well-plate format isothermal multi-channel microcalorimeter for monitoring the activity of living cells and tissues. *Thermochimica Acta* 2017; **652**: 141–9.
72. Lopatkin AJ, Stokes JM, Zheng EJ, *et al.* Bacterial metabolic state more accurately predicts antibiotic lethality than growth rate. *Nat Microbiol* 2019; **4**: 2109–17.
73. Beilharz K, Kragh KN, Fritz B, *et al.* Protocol to assess metabolic activity of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* by measuring heat flow using isothermal calorimetry. *STAR Protoc* 2023; **4**: 102269.

74. Braissant O, Keiser J, Meister I, *et al.* Isothermal microcalorimetry accurately detects bacteria, tumorous microtissues, and parasitic worms in a label-free well-plate assay. *Biotechnol J* 2015; **10**: 460–8.
75. Novy E, Collot M, Chevallier P, Cunat L, Machouart M. Interest of a metabolic approach using the calScreenerTM technology to detect Candida in the peritoneal fluid: a pilot study. *Journal of Medical Mycology* 2023; **33**(4): 101418.
76. Mikulska M, Calandra T, Sanguinetti M, Poulain D, Viscoli C. The use of mannan antigen and anti-mannan antibodies in the diagnosis of invasive candidiasis: recommendations from the Third European Conference on Infections in Leukemia. *Crit Care* 2010; **14**: R222.
77. León C, Ruiz-Santana S, Saavedra P, *et al.* Contribution of Candida biomarkers and DNA detection for the diagnosis of invasive candidiasis in ICU patients with severe abdominal conditions. *Crit Care* 2016; **20**: 149.
78. Haydour Q, Hage CA, Carmona EM, *et al.* Diagnosis of Fungal Infections. A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis Supporting American Thoracic Society Practice Guideline. *Ann Am Thorac Soc* 2019; **16**: 1179–88.
79. Clancy CJ, Nguyen MH. Non-Culture Diagnostics for Invasive Candidiasis: Promise and Unintended Consequences. *J Fungi (Basel)* 2018; **4**: 27.
80. Karageorgopoulos DE, Vouloumanou EK, Ntziora F, Michalopoulos A, Rafailidis PI, Falagas ME. β -D-glucan assay for the diagnosis of invasive fungal infections: a meta-analysis. *Clin Infect Dis* 2011; **52**: 750–70.
81. Fortún J, Buitrago MJ, Gioia F, *et al.* Roles of the multiplex real-time PCR assay and β -D-glucan in a high-risk population for intra-abdominal candidiasis (IAC). *Med Mycol* 2020; **58**: 789–96.
82. Martin-Loches I, Antonelli M, Cuenca-Estrella M, *et al.* ESICM/ESCMID task force on practical management of invasive candidiasis in critically ill patients. *Intensive Care Med* 2019; **45**: 789–805.
83. Dupuis C, Le Bihan C, Maubon D, *et al.* Performance of Repeated Measures of (1-3)- β -D-Glucan, Mannan Antigen, and Antimannan Antibodies for the Diagnosis of Invasive Candidiasis in ICU Patients: A Preplanned Ancillary Analysis of the EMPIRICUS Randomized Clinical Trial. *Open Forum Infect Dis* 2021; **8**: ofab080.
84. Hanson KE, Pfeiffer CD, Lease ED, *et al.* β -D-glucan surveillance with preemptive anidulafungin for invasive candidiasis in intensive care unit patients: a randomized pilot study. *PLoS One* 2012; **7**: e42282.
85. Mylonakis E, Clancy CJ, Ostrosky-Zeichner L, *et al.* T2 magnetic resonance assay for the rapid diagnosis of candidemia in whole blood: a clinical trial. *Clin Infect Dis* 2015; **60**: 892–9.
86. Clancy CJ, Pappas PG, Vazquez J, *et al.* Detecting Infections Rapidly and Easily for Candidemia Trial, Part 2 (DIRECT2): A Prospective, Multicenter Study of the T2Candida Panel. *Clin Infect Dis* 2018; **66**: 1678–86.

87. Krifors A, Ullberg M, Castegren M, *et al.* T2Candida Assay in the Diagnosis of Intraabdominal Candidiasis: A Prospective Multicenter Study. *J Fungi (Basel)* 2022; **8**: 86.
88. Lamoth F, Clancy CJ, Tissot F, *et al.* Performance of the T2Candida Panel for the Diagnosis of Intra-abdominal Candidiasis. *Open Forum Infect Dis* 2020; **7**: ofaa075.
89. Krifors A, Ullberg M, Castegren M, *et al.* Combining T2Bacteria and T2Candida Panels for Diagnosing Intra-Abdominal Infections: A Prospective Multicenter Study. *J Fungi (Basel)* 2022; **8**: 832.
90. Avni T, Leibovici L, Paul M. PCR diagnosis of invasive candidiasis: systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Clin Microbiol* 2011; **49**: 665–70.
91. Nguyen MH, Wissel MC, Shields RK, *et al.* Performance of Candida real-time polymerase chain reaction, β-D-glucan assay, and blood cultures in the diagnosis of invasive candidiasis. *Clin Infect Dis* 2012; **54**: 1240–8.
92. Montravers P, Dupont H, Leone M, *et al.* Guidelines for management of intra-abdominal infections. *Anaesth Crit Care Pain Med* 2015; **34**: 117–30.
93. Dupont H, Bourichon A, Paugam-Burtz C, Mantz J, Desmonts J-M. Can yeast isolation in peritoneal fluid be predicted in intensive care unit patients with peritonitis? *Crit Care Med* 2003; **31**: 752–7.
94. Bailly S, Leroy O, Dupont H, Timsit J-F. Secondarily documented invasive candidiasis is unpredictable using traditional risk factors in non transplant - non-neutropenic adult ICU patients. *Int J Infect Dis* 2017; **54**: 31–3.
95. Giacobbe DR, Asperges E, Cortegiani A, *et al.* Performance of existing clinical scores and laboratory tests for the diagnosis of invasive candidiasis in critically ill, nonneutropenic, adult patients: A systematic review with qualitative evidence synthesis. *Mycoses* 2022; **65**: 1073–111.
96. Pappas PG, Kauffman CA, Andes DR, *et al.* Clinical Practice Guideline for the Management of Candidiasis: 2016 Update by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Clin Infect Dis* 2016; **62**: e1-50.
97. Ebihara F, Maruyama T, Kikuchi K, Kimura T, Hamada Y. Antifungal Stewardship Task Shifting Required of Pharmacists. *Med Mycol J* 2022; **63**: 109–17.
98. Hart E, Nguyen M, Allen M, Clark CM, Jacobs DM. A systematic review of the impact of antifungal stewardship interventions in the United States. *Ann Clin Microbiol Antimicrob* 2019; **18**: 24.
99. Kriegl L, Boyer J, Egger M, Hoenigl M. Antifungal stewardship in solid organ transplantation. *Transpl Infect Dis* 2022; **24**: e13855.
100. Kapoor MR, Subudhi CP, Collier A, Bal AM. Antifungal stewardship with an emphasis on candidaemia. *J Glob Antimicrob Resist* 2019; **19**: 262–8.
101. Playford EG, Lipman J, Sorrell TC. Prophylaxis, empirical and preemptive treatment of invasive candidiasis. *Curr Opin Crit Care* 2010; **16**: 470–4.

102. Dupont H, Mahjoub Y, Chouaki T, Lorne E, Zogheib E. Antifungal Prevention of Systemic Candidiasis in Immunocompetent ICU Adults: Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Clinical Trials. *Crit Care Med* 2017; **45**: 1937–45.
103. Eggimann P, Francioli P, Bille J, et al. Fluconazole prophylaxis prevents intra-abdominal candidiasis in high-risk surgical patients. *Crit Care Med* 1999; **27**: 1066–72.
104. Ostrosky-Zeichner L, Shoham S, Vazquez J, et al. MSG-01: A randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial of caspofungin prophylaxis followed by preemptive therapy for invasive candidiasis in high-risk adults in the critical care setting. *Clin Infect Dis* 2014; **58**: 1219–26.
105. Timsit J-F, Azoulay E, Schwebel C, et al. Empirical Micafungin Treatment and Survival Without Invasive Fungal Infection in Adults With ICU-Acquired Sepsis, Candida Colonization, and Multiple Organ Failure: The EMPIRICUS Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA* 2016; **316**: 1555–64.
106. Rouzé A, Estella Á, Timsit J-F. Is (1,3)- β -D-glucan useless to guide antifungal therapy in ICU? *Intensive Care Med* 2022; **48**: 930–2.
107. Garnacho-Montero J, Díaz-Martín A, Cantón-Bulnes L, et al. Initial Antifungal Strategy Reduces Mortality in Critically Ill Patients With Candidemia: A Propensity Score-Adjusted Analysis of a Multicenter Study. *Crit Care Med* 2018; **46**: 384–93.
108. Vazquez J, Reboli AC, Pappas PG, et al. Evaluation of an early step-down strategy from intravenous anidulafungin to oral azole therapy for the treatment of candidemia and other forms of invasive candidiasis: results from an open-label trial. *BMC Infect Dis* 2014; **14**: 97.
109. Bailly S, Leroy O, Montravers P, et al. Antifungal de-escalation was not associated with adverse outcome in critically ill patients treated for invasive candidiasis: post hoc analyses of the AmarCAND2 study data. *Intensive Care Med* 2015; **41**: 1931–40.
110. Moreno-García E, Puerta-Alcalde P, Gariup G, et al. Early Stepdown From Echinocandin to Fluconazole Treatment in Candidemia: A Post Hoc Analysis of Three Cohort Studies. *Open Forum Infect Dis* 2021; **8**: ofab250.
111. Maseda E, Martín-Loeches I, Zaragoza R, et al. Critical appraisal beyond clinical guidelines for intraabdominal candidiasis. *Critical Care* 2023; **27**: 382.
112. Roberts JA, Lipman J. Pharmacokinetic issues for antibiotics in the critically ill patient. *Crit Care Med* 2009; **37**: 840–51; quiz 859.
113. Udy AA, Baptista JP, Lim NL, et al. Augmented Renal Clearance in the ICU: Results of a Multicenter Observational Study of Renal Function in Critically Ill Patients With Normal Plasma Creatinine Concentrations*. *Critical Care Medicine* 2014; **42**: 520–7.
114. Chen IH, Nicolau DP. Augmented Renal Clearance and How to Augment Antibiotic Dosing. *Antibiotics (Basel)* 2020; **9**: 393.
115. Patel JS, Kooda K, Igneri LA. A Narrative Review of the Impact of Extracorporeal Membrane Oxygenation on the Pharmacokinetics and Pharmacodynamics of Critical Care Therapies. *Ann Pharmacother* 2022; 10600280221126438.

116. Hoff BM, Maker JH, Dager WE, Heintz BH. Antibiotic Dosing for Critically Ill Adult Patients Receiving Intermittent Hemodialysis, Prolonged Intermittent Renal Replacement Therapy, and Continuous Renal Replacement Therapy: An Update. *Ann Pharmacother* 2020; **54**: 43–55.
117. Jendoubi A, Pressiat C, De Roux Q, *et al*. The impact of extracorporeal membrane oxygenation on antifungal pharmacokinetics: A systematic review. *Int J Antimicrob Agents* 2023; 107078.
118. Shan C-X, Ni C, Qiu M, Jiang D-Z, Li M. Influence of laparoscopy vs. laparotomy on bacterial translocation and systemic inflammatory responses in a porcine model with peritonitis. *J Invest Surg* 2014; **27**: 73–80.
119. Evans C, Galustian C, Kumar D, *et al*. Impact of surgery on immunologic function: comparison between minimally invasive techniques and conventional laparotomy for surgical resection of colorectal tumors. *Am J Surg* 2009; **197**: 238–45.
120. Zhao J, Zhang T, Deng Z, Han X, Ma T, Xie K. Evaluation of Biomarkers from Peritoneal Fluid as Predictors of Severity for Abdominal Sepsis Patients Following Emergency Laparotomy. *J Inflamm Res* 2023; **16**: 809–26.
121. Jacobs R, Wise RD, Myatchin I, *et al*. Fluid Management, Intra-Abdominal Hypertension and the Abdominal Compartment Syndrome: A Narrative Review. *Life* 2022; **12**: 1390.
122. Wiedermann CJ. Phases of fluid management and the roles of human albumin solution in perioperative and critically ill patients. *Current Medical Research and Opinion* 2020; **36**: 1961–73.
123. Connolly CM, Kramer GC, Hahn RG, *et al*. Isoflurane but not mechanical ventilation promotes extravascular fluid accumulation during crystalloid volume loading. *Anesthesiology* 2003; **98**: 670–81.
124. Hahn RG. Understanding volume kinetics. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* 2020; **64**: 570–8.
125. Gawria L, Jaber A, Ten Broek RPG, *et al*. Appraisal of Intraoperative Adverse Events to Improve Postoperative Care. *J Clin Med* 2023; **12**: 2546.
126. Kennedy JM, Van Riji AM. Effects of Surgery on the Pharmacokinetic Parameters of Drugs. *Clin Pharmacokinet* 1998; **35**: 293–312.
127. Adnan S, Li JX, Wallis SC, *et al*. Pharmacokinetics of meropenem and piperacillin in critically ill patients with indwelling surgical drains. *Int J Antimicrob Agents* 2013; **42**: 90–3.
128. Pea F, Lewis RE. Overview of antifungal dosing in invasive candidiasis. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2018; **73**: i33–43.
129. Zhao Y, Prideaux B, Nagasaki Y, *et al*. Unraveling Drug Penetration of Echinocandin Antifungals at the Site of Infection in an Intra-abdominal Abscess Model. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2017; **61**: e01009-17.

130. Cheng S, Clancy CJ, Hartman DJ, Hao B, Nguyen MH. Candida glabrata intra-abdominal candidiasis is characterized by persistence within the peritoneal cavity and abscesses. *Infect Immun* 2014; **82**: 3015–22.
131. Shields RK, Nguyen MH, Press EG, Clancy CJ. Abdominal Candidiasis Is a Hidden Reservoir of Echinocandin Resistance. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2014; **58**: 7601–5.
132. van Till JWO, van Veen SQ, van Ruler O, Lamme B, Gouma DJ, Boermeester MA. The innate immune response to secondary peritonitis. *Shock* 2007; **28**: 504–17.
133. Novy E, Roger C, Roberts JA, Cotta MO. Pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic considerations for antifungal therapy optimisation in the treatment of intra-abdominal candidiasis. *Critical Care* 2023; **27**(1): 449.
134. Roberts JA, Paul SK, Akova M, et al. DALI: defining antibiotic levels in intensive care unit patients: are current β -lactam antibiotic doses sufficient for critically ill patients? *Clin Infect Dis* 2014; **58**: 1072–83.
135. Bailly S, Gautier-Veyret E, Lê MP, et al. Impact of Loading Dose of Caspofungin in Pharmacokinetic-Pharmacodynamic Target Attainment for Severe Candidiasis Infections in Patients in Intensive Care Units: the CASPOLOAD Study. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2020; **64**: e01545-20.
136. Garbez N, Mbatchi LC, Wallis SC, et al. Caspofungin Population Pharmacokinetic Analysis in Plasma and Peritoneal Fluid in Septic Patients with Intra-Abdominal Infections: A Prospective Cohort Study. *Clin Pharmacokinet* 2022; **61**:673-686.
137. Agrifoglio A, Cachafeiro L, Herrero E, Sánchez M, García de Lorenzo A. Are we near to the end of the standard dose of micafungin? *Crit Care* 2018; **22**: 149.
138. Garbez N, Mbatchi L, Wallis SC, et al. Prospective Cohort Study of Micafungin Population Pharmacokinetic Analysis in Plasma and Peritoneal Fluid in Septic Patients with Intra-abdominal Infections. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **65**: e0230720.
139. Maertens J, Pagano L, Azoulay E, Warris A. Liposomal amphotericin B-the present. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2022; **77**: ii11–20.
140. Van Daele R, Wauters J, Elkayal O, et al. Liposomal amphotericin B exposure in critically ill patients: a prospective pharmacokinetic study. *Med Mycol* 2022; **60**: myac074.
141. Rinaldi M, Bartoletti M, Bonazzetti C, et al. Tolerability of pulse high dose L-AmB as pre-emptive therapy in patients at high risk for intra- abdominal candidiasis: A phase 2 study (LAMBDA Study). *Int J Antimicrob Agents* 2023: 106998.
142. Lamoth F. Novel Therapeutic Approaches to Invasive Candidiasis: Considerations for the Clinician. *Infect Drug Resist* 2023; **16**: 1087–97.
143. Roepcke S, Passarell J, Walker H, Flanagan S. Population pharmacokinetic modeling and target attainment analyses of rezafungin for the treatment of candidemia and invasive candidiasis. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2023: e0091623.

144. Sinnollareddy MG, Roberts JA, Lipman J, *et al.* Pharmacokinetic variability and exposures of fluconazole, anidulafungin, and caspofungin in intensive care unit patients: Data from multinational Defining Antibiotic Levels in Intensive care unit (DALI) patients Study. *Crit Care* 2015; **19**: 33.
145. Gómez-López A. Antifungal therapeutic drug monitoring: focus on drugs without a clear recommendation. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2020; **26**: 1481–7.
146. Sinnollareddy M, Peake SL, Roberts MS, Lipman J, Roberts JA. Using pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics to optimise dosing of antifungal agents in critically ill patients: a systematic review. *International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents* 2012; **39**: 1–10.
147. Bellmann R, Smuszkeiwicz P. Pharmacokinetics of antifungal drugs: practical implications for optimized treatment of patients. *Infection* 2017; **45**: 737–79.
148. Watt KM, Gonzalez D, Benjamin DK, *et al.* Fluconazole population pharmacokinetics and dosing for prevention and treatment of invasive Candidiasis in children supported with extracorporeal membrane oxygenation. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2015; **59**: 3935–43.
149. Watt KM, Benjamin DK, Cheifetz IM, *et al.* Pharmacokinetics and safety of fluconazole in young infants supported with extracorporeal membrane oxygenation. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 2012; **31**: 1042–7.
150. Dhanani JA, Lipman J, Pincus J, *et al.* Pharmacokinetics of fluconazole and ganciclovir as combination antimicrobial chemotherapy on ECMO: a case report. *Int J Antimicrob Agents* 2021; **58**: 106431.
151. Sandaradura I, Marriott DJE, Day RO, *et al.* Current fluconazole treatment regimens result in under-dosing of critically ill adults during early therapy. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 2021; **40**: 1521–8.
152. Shekar K, Roberts JA, Welch S, *et al.* ASAP ECMO: Antibiotic, Sedative and Analgesic Pharmacokinetics during Extracorporeal Membrane Oxygenation: a multi-centre study to optimise drug therapy during ECMO. *BMC Anesthesiol* 2012; **12**: 29.
153. Novy E, Abdul-Aziz MH, Cheng V, *et al.* Population pharmacokinetics of fluconazole in critically ill patients receiving extracorporeal membrane oxygenation and continuous renal replacement therapy: an ASAP ECMO study. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2024; **68**(1): e0120123.
154. Clancy CJ, Yu VL, Morris AJ, Snydman DR, Nguyen MH. Fluconazole MIC and the Fluconazole Dose/MIC Ratio Correlate with Therapeutic Response among Patients with Candidemia. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy* 2005; **49**: 3171–7.
155. Felton T, Troke PF, Hope WW. Tissue penetration of antifungal agents. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 2014; **27**: 68–88.
156. Sinnollareddy MG, Roberts MS, Lipman J, *et al.* In Vivo Microdialysis To Determine Subcutaneous Interstitial Fluid Penetration and Pharmacokinetics of Fluconazole in Intensive Care Unit Patients with Sepsis. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2016; **60**: 827–32.

157. Pea F, Righi E, Cojutti P, *et al.* Intra-abdominal penetration and pharmacodynamic exposure to fluconazole in three liver transplant patients with deep-seated candidiasis. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2014; **69**: 2585–6.
158. Shrikhande S, Friess H, Issenegger C, *et al.* Fluconazole penetration into the pancreas. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2000; **44**: 2569–71.
159. Debruyne D, Ryckelynck J-P. Clinical Pharmacokinetics of Fluconazole. *Clin Pharmacokinet* 1993; **24**: 10–27.
160. Kably B, Launay M, Derobertmasure A, Lefevre S, Dannaoui E, Billaud EM. Antifungal Drugs TDM: Trends and Update. *Therapeutic Drug Monitoring* 2022; **44**: 166.
161. Olkkola KT, Ahonen J, Neuvonen PJ. The effects of the systemic antimycotics, itraconazole and fluconazole, on the pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of intravenous and oral midazolam. *Anesth Analg* 1996; **82**: 511–6.
162. Ahonen J, Olkkola KT, Takala A, Neuvonen PJ. Interaction between fluconazole and midazolam in intensive care patients. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* 1999; **43**: 509–14.
163. Osowski CL, Dix SP, Lin LS, Mullins RE, Geller RB, Wingard JR. Evaluation of the drug interaction between intravenous high-dose fluconazole and cyclosporine or tacrolimus in bone marrow transplant patients. *Transplantation* 1996; **61**: 1268–72.
164. Chang S-H, Chou I-J, Yeh Y-H, *et al.* Association Between Use of Non-Vitamin K Oral Anticoagulants With and Without Concurrent Medications and Risk of Major Bleeding in Nonvalvular Atrial Fibrillation. *JAMA* 2017; **318**: 1250–9.
165. Lippi G, Favaloro EJ, Mattiuzzi C. Combined administration of antibiotics and direct oral anticoagulants: a renewed indication for laboratory monitoring? *Semin Thromb Hemost* 2014; **40**: 756–65.
166. Cadle RM, Zenon GJ, Rodriguez-Barradas MC, Hamill RJ. Fluconazole-induced symptomatic phenytoin toxicity. *Ann Pharmacother* 1994; **28**: 191–5.
167. Nicolau DP, Crowe HM, Nightingale CH, Quintiliani R. Rifampin-fluconazole interaction in critically ill patients. *Ann Pharmacother* 1995; **29**: 994–6.
168. Abdul-Aziz MH, Alffenaar J-WC, Bassetti M, *et al.* Antimicrobial therapeutic drug monitoring in critically ill adult patients: a Position Paper. *Intensive Care Med* 2020; **46**: 1127–53.
169. Vena A, Muñoz P, Mateos M, *et al.* Therapeutic Drug Monitoring of Antifungal Drugs: Another Tool to Improve Patient Outcome? *Infect Dis Ther* 2020; **9**: 137–49.
170. Barchiesi F, Spreghini E, Tomassetti S, *et al.* Effects of caspofungin against *Candida guilliermondii* and *Candida parapsilosis*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2006; **50**: 2719–27.
171. Walker LA, Gow NAR, Munro CA. Fungal echinocandin resistance. *Fungal Genet Biol* 2010; **47**: 117–26.

172. Baracaldo-Santamaría D, Cala-Garcia JD, Medina-Rincón GJ, Rojas-Rodriguez LC, Calderon-Ospina C-A. Therapeutic Drug Monitoring of Antifungal Agents in Critically Ill Patients: Is There a Need for Dose Optimisation? *Antibiotics (Basel)* 2022; **11**: 645.
173. Wasmann RE, Ter Heine R, van Dongen EP, et al. Pharmacokinetics of Anidulafungin in Obese and Normal-Weight Adults. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2018; **62**: e00063-18.
174. Maseda E, Grau S, Luque S, et al. Population pharmacokinetics/pharmacodynamics of micafungin against Candida species in obese, critically ill, and morbidly obese critically ill patients. *Crit Care* 2018; **22**: 94.
175. Liu X, Liu D, Pan Y, Li Y. Pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamics variability of echinocandins in critically ill patients: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Clinical Pharmacy and Therapeutics* 2020; **45**: 1207–17.
176. Kim HY, Baldelli S, Märtsönen A-G, et al. Therapeutic Drug Monitoring of the Echinocandin Antifungal Agents: Is There a Role in Clinical Practice? A Position Statement of the Anti-Infective Drugs Committee of the International Association of Therapeutic Drug Monitoring and Clinical Toxicology. *Ther Drug Monit* 2022; **44**: 198–214.
177. Garbez N, Mbatchi LC, Wallis SC, et al. Caspofungin Population Pharmacokinetic Analysis in Plasma and Peritoneal Fluid in Septic Patients with Intra-Abdominal Infections: A Prospective Cohort Study. *Clin Pharmacokinet* 2022; **61**: 673–86.
178. Grau S, Luque S, Campillo N, et al. Plasma and peritoneal fluid population pharmacokinetics of micafungin in post-surgical patients with severe peritonitis. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2015; **70**: 2854–61.
179. Pérez Civantos DV, Robles Marcos M, Azanza Perea JR, Pazos Pacheco C, García-Montoto Pérez F, Jerez Gómez-Coronado V. Pharmacokinetics of anidulafungin in critically ill patients with Candida peritonitis. *Int J Infect Dis* 2019; **86**: 142–6.
180. Gioia F, Gomez-Lopez A, Alvarez ME, et al. Pharmacokinetics of echinocandins in suspected candida peritonitis: A potential risk for resistance. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases* 2020; **101**: 24–8.
181. Welte R, Oberacher H, Gasperetti T, et al. Pharmacokinetics and Antifungal Activity of Echinocandins in Ascites Fluid of Critically Ill Patients. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2021; **65**: e0256520.
182. Dupont H, Massias L, Jung B, Ammenouche N, Montravers P. Pharmacokinetic study of anidulafungin in ICU patients with intra-abdominal candidiasis. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2017; **72**: 1429–32.
183. Montravers P, Perrigault PF, Timsit JF, et al. Antifungal therapy for patients with proven or suspected Candida peritonitis: Amarcand2, a prospective cohort study in French intensive care units. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2017; **23**: 117.e1-117.e8.
184. Rouzé A, Loridant S, Poissy J, et al. Biomarker-based strategy for early discontinuation of empirical antifungal treatment in critically ill patients: a randomized controlled trial. *Intensive Care Med* 2017; **43**: 1668–77.

185. Valerio M, Vena A, Rodríguez-González CG, *et al.* Repeated antifungal use audits are essential for selecting the targets for intervention in antifungal stewardship. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 2018; **37**: 1993–2000.
186. Montravers P, Tubach F, Lescot T, *et al.* Short-course antibiotic therapy for critically ill patients treated for postoperative intra-abdominal infection: the DURAPOP randomised clinical trial. *Intensive Care Med* 2018; **44**: 300–10.
187. Bassetti M, Giacobbe DR, Berruti M, Del Puente F, Vena A. Adequate duration of therapy in severe fungal infections. *Curr Opin Crit Care* 2020; **26**: 466–72.
188. Bergamasco MD, Pereira CAP, Arrais-Rodrigues C, *et al.* Epidemiology of Invasive Fungal Diseases in Patients with Hematologic Malignancies and Hematopoietic Cell Transplantation Recipients Managed with an Antifungal Diagnostic Driven Approach. *J Fungi (Basel)* 2021; **7**: 588.
189. Papadopoulos P, Pistiki A, Theodorakopoulou M, *et al.* Immunoparalysis: Clinical and immunological associations in SIRS and severe sepsis patients. *Cytokine* 2017; **92**: 83–92.
190. Joshi I, Carney WP, Rock EP. Utility of monocyte HLA-DR and rationale for therapeutic GM-CSF in sepsis immunoparalysis. *Front Immunol* 2023; **14**: 1130214.
191. Delsing CE, Gresnigt MS, Leentjens J, *et al.* Interferon-gamma as adjunctive immunotherapy for invasive fungal infections: a case series. *BMC Infect Dis* 2014; **14**: 166.
192. Qadri H, Shah AH, Alkhanani M, Almilaibary A, Mir MA. Immunotherapies against human bacterial and fungal infectious diseases: A review. *Front Med (Lausanne)* 2023; **10**: 1135541.
193. Dyar OJ, Huttner B, Schouten J, Pulcini C, ESGAP (ESCMID Study Group for Antimicrobial stewardshiP). What is antimicrobial stewardship? *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2017; **23**: 793–8.
194. Murphy CV, Reed EE, Herman DD, Magrum B, Beatty JJ, Stevenson KB. Antimicrobial Stewardship in the ICU. *Semin Respir Crit Care Med* 2022; **43**: 131–40.
195. Cortegiani A, Antonelli M, Falcone M, *et al.* Rationale and clinical application of antimicrobial stewardship principles in the intensive care unit: a multidisciplinary statement. *Journal of Anesthesia, Analgesia and Critical Care* 2023; **3**: 11.
196. Luyt C-E, Bréchet N, Trouillet J-L, Chastre J. Antibiotic stewardship in the intensive care unit. *Crit Care* 2014; **18**: 480.
197. Mokrani D, Chommeloux J, Pineton de Chambrun M, Hékimian G, Luyt C-E. Antibiotic stewardship in the ICU: time to shift into overdrive. *Ann Intensive Care* 2023; **13**: 39.
198. Denny KJ, De Waele J, Laupland KB, Harris PNA, Lipman J. When not to start antibiotics: avoiding antibiotic overuse in the intensive care unit. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2020; **26**: 35–40.
199. Urbancic KF, Thursky K, Kong DCM, Johnson PDR, Slavin MA. Antifungal stewardship: developments in the field. *Curr Opin Infect Dis* 2018; **31**: 490–8.

200. Khanina A, Tio SY, Ananda-Rajah MR, *et al.* Consensus guidelines for antifungal stewardship, surveillance and infection prevention, 2021. *Intern Med J* 2021; **51 Suppl 7**: 18–36.
201. Johnson MD, Lewis RE, Dodds Ashley ES, *et al.* Core Recommendations for Antifungal Stewardship: A Statement of the Mycoses Study Group Education and Research Consortium. *J Infect Dis* 2020; **222**: S175–98.
202. Vena A, Bassetti M, Mezzogori L, *et al.* Laboratory and clinical management capacity for invasive fungal infections: the Italian landscape. *Infection* 2024; **52**(1): 197-198.
203. Riché FC, Dray X, Laisné M-J, *et al.* Factors associated with septic shock and mortality in generalized peritonitis: comparison between community-acquired and postoperative peritonitis. *Crit Care* 2009; **13**: R99.
204. Sharma M, Chakrabarti A. Candidiasis and Other Emerging Yeasts. *Curr Fungal Infect Rep* 2023; **17**: 15–24.
205. Galocha M, Pais P, Cavalheiro M, Pereira D, Viana R, Teixeira MC. Divergent Approaches to Virulence in *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*: Two Sides of the Same Coin. *Int J Mol Sci* 2019; **20**: 2345.
206. Hassan Y, Chew SY, Than LTL. *Candida glabrata*: Pathogenicity and Resistance Mechanisms for Adaptation and Survival. *J Fungi (Basel)* 2021; **7**: 667.
207. Brunke S, Hube B. Two unlike cousins: *Candida albicans* and *C. glabrata* infection strategies. *Cell Microbiol* 2013; **15**: 701–8.
208. Yu S-J, Chang Y-L, Chen Y-L. Deletion of ADA2 Increases Antifungal Drug Susceptibility and Virulence in *Candida glabrata*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2018; **62**: e01924-17.
209. Zuza-Alves DL, Silva-Rocha WP, Chaves GM. An Update on *Candida tropicalis* Based on Basic and Clinical Approaches. *Front Microbiol* 2017; **8**: 1927.
210. Boutin C-A, Luong M-L. Update on therapeutic approaches for invasive fungal infections in adults. *Ther Adv Infect Dis* 2024; **11**: 20499361231224980.
211. Díaz-García J, Machado M, Alcalá L, *et al.* Antifungal resistance in *Candida* spp within the intra-abdominal cavity: study of resistance acquisition in patients with serial isolates. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2023; S1198-743X(23)00404-4.
212. Calderone RA, Fonzi WA. Virulence factors of *Candida albicans*. *Trends Microbiol* 2001; **9**: 327–35.
213. Hoyer LL, Cota E. *Candida albicans* Agglutinin-Like Sequence (Als) Family Vignettes: A Review of Als Protein Structure and Function. *Front Microbiol* 2016; **7**: 280.
214. Ghannoum MA. Potential role of phospholipases in virulence and fungal pathogenesis. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 2000; **13**: 122–43, table of contents.
215. Uwamahoro N, Verma-Gaur J, Shen H-H, *et al.* The pathogen *Candida albicans* hijacks pyroptosis for escape from macrophages. *mBio* 2014; **5**: e00003-00014.

216. Cavalheiro M, Teixeira MC. Candida Biofilms: Threats, Challenges, and Promising Strategies. *Front Med (Lausanne)* 2018; **5**: 28.
217. Yan L, Yang C, Tang J. Disruption of the intestinal mucosal barrier in *Candida albicans* infections. *Microbiol Res* 2013; **168**: 389–95.
218. Goyer M, Loiselet A, Bon F, *et al.* Intestinal Cell Tight Junctions Limit Invasion of *Candida albicans* through Active Penetration and Endocytosis in the Early Stages of the Interaction of the Fungus with the Intestinal Barrier. *PLoS One* 2016; **11**: e0149159.
219. Dalle F, Wächtler B, L'Ollivier C, *et al.* Cellular interactions of *Candida albicans* with human oral epithelial cells and enterocytes. *Cell Microbiol* 2010; **12**: 248–71.
220. Phan QT, Myers CL, Fu Y, *et al.* Als3 is a *Candida albicans* invasin that binds to cadherins and induces endocytosis by host cells. *PLoS Biol* 2007; **5**: e64.
221. Allert S, Förster TM, Svensson C-M, *et al.* *Candida albicans*-Induced Epithelial Damage Mediates Translocation through Intestinal Barriers. *mBio* 2018; **9**: e00915-18.
222. Li Z, Nielsen K. Morphology Changes in Human Fungal Pathogens upon Interaction with the Host. *J Fungi (Basel)* 2017; **3**: 66.
223. Zeidler U, Lettner T, Lassnig C, *et al.* UME6 is a crucial downstream target of other transcriptional regulators of true hyphal development in *Candida albicans*. *FEMS Yeast Res* 2009; **9**: 126–42.
224. Saville SP, Lazzell AL, Monteagudo C, Lopez-Ribot JL. Engineered control of cell morphology *in vivo* reveals distinct roles for yeast and filamentous forms of *Candida albicans* during infection. *Eukaryot Cell* 2003; **2**: 1053–60.
225. Höfs S, Mogavero S, Hube B. Interaction of *Candida albicans* with host cells: virulence factors, host defense, escape strategies, and the microbiota. *J Microbiol* 2016; **54**: 149–69.
226. Richardson JP, Ho J, Naglik JR. Candida-Epithelial Interactions. *J Fungi (Basel)* 2018; **4**: 22.
227. Younes S, Bahnan W, Dimassi HI, Khalaf RA. The *Candida albicans* Hwp2 is necessary for proper adhesion, biofilm formation and oxidative stress tolerance. *Microbiol Res* 2011; **166**: 430–6.
228. Lohse MB, Gulati M, Johnson AD, Nobile CJ. Development and regulation of single- and multi-species *Candida albicans* biofilms. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 2018; **16**: 19–31.
229. Douglas LJ. Candida biofilms and their role in infection. *Trends Microbiol* 2003; **11**: 30–6.
230. Ponde NO, Lortal L, Ramage G, Naglik JR, Richardson JP. *Candida albicans* biofilms and polymicrobial interactions. *Crit Rev Microbiol* 2021; **47**: 91–111.
231. Taff HT, Mitchell KF, Edward JA, Andes DR. Mechanisms of *Candida* biofilm drug resistance. *Future Microbiol* 2013; **8**: 10.2217/fmb.13.101.

232. Kernien JF, Johnson CJ, Bayless ML, Chovanec JF, Nett JE. Neutrophils From Patients With Invasive Candidiasis Are Inhibited by *Candida albicans* Biofilms. *Front Immunol* 2020; **11**: 587956.
233. Medzhitov R. Recognition of microorganisms and activation of the immune response. *Nature* 2007; **449**: 819–26.
234. Brown GD, Gordon S. Immune recognition. A new receptor for beta-glucans. *Nature* 2001; **413**: 36–7.
235. Tomalka J, Azodi E, Narra HP, *et al.* β -Defensin 1 plays a role in acute mucosal defense against *Candida albicans*. *J Immunol* 2015; **194**: 1788–95.
236. Järvå M, Phan TK, Lay FT, Caria S, Kvansakul M, Hulett MD. Human β -defensin 2 kills *Candida albicans* through phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate-mediated membrane permeabilization. *Sci Adv* 2018; **4**: eaat0979.
237. Hardison SE, Brown GD. C-type lectin receptors orchestrate antifungal immunity. *Nat Immunol* 2012; **13**: 817–22.
238. Acosta-Rodriguez EV, Rivino L, Geginat J, *et al.* Surface phenotype and antigenic specificity of human interleukin 17-producing T helper memory cells. *Nat Immunol* 2007; **8**: 639–46.
239. Paroli M, Caccavale R, Fiorillo MT, *et al.* The Double Game Played by Th17 Cells in Infection: Host Defense and Immunopathology. *Pathogens* 2022; **11**: 1547.
240. Ballou ER, Avelar GM, Childers DS, *et al.* Lactate signalling regulates fungal β -glucan masking and immune evasion. *Nat Microbiol* 2016; **2**: 16238.
241. Pradhan A, Avelar GM, Bain JM, *et al.* Hypoxia Promotes Immune Evasion by Triggering β -Glucan Masking on the *Candida albicans* Cell Surface via Mitochondrial and cAMP-Protein Kinase A Signaling. *mBio* 2018; **9**: e01318-18.
242. Kenno S, Speth C, Rambach G, *et al.* *Candida albicans* Factor H Binding Molecule Hgt1p - A Low Glucose-Induced Transmembrane Protein Is Trafficked to the Cell Wall and Impairs Phagocytosis and Killing by Human Neutrophils. *Front Microbiol* 2018; **9**: 3319.
243. Svoboda E, Schneider AE, Sándor N, *et al.* Secreted aspartic protease 2 of *Candida albicans* inactivates factor H and the macrophage factor H-receptors CR3 (CD11b/CD18) and CR4 (CD11c/CD18). *Immunol Lett* 2015; **168**: 13–21.
244. Vylkova S, Lorenz MC. Modulation of phagosomal pH by *Candida albicans* promotes hyphal morphogenesis and requires Stp2p, a regulator of amino acid transport. *PLoS Pathog* 2014; **10**: e1003995.
245. Vylkova S, Carman AJ, Danhof HA, Collette JR, Zhou H, Lorenz MC. The fungal pathogen *Candida albicans* autoinduces hyphal morphogenesis by raising extracellular pH. *mBio* 2011; **2**: e00055-00011.

246. Tucey TM, Verma J, Harrison PF, *et al.* Glucose Homeostasis Is Important for Immune Cell Viability during Candida Challenge and Host Survival of Systemic Fungal Infection. *Cell Metab* 2018; **27**: 988-1006.e7.
247. Brogden KA, Guthmiller JM, Taylor CE. Human polymicrobial infections. *Lancet* 2005; **365**: 253–5.
248. Krüger W, Vielreicher S, Kapitan M, Jacobsen ID, Niemiec MJ. Fungal-Bacterial Interactions in Health and Disease. *Pathogens* 2019; **8**: 70.
249. Mason KL, Erb Downward JR, Mason KD, *et al.* Candida albicans and bacterial microbiota interactions in the cecum during recolonization following broad-spectrum antibiotic therapy. *Infect Immun* 2012; **80**: 3371–80.
250. Coco BJ, Bagg J, Cross LJ, Jose A, Cross J, Ramage G. Mixed Candida albicans and Candida glabrata populations associated with the pathogenesis of denture stomatitis. *Oral Microbiology and Immunology* 2008; **23**: 377–83.
251. Olson ML, Jayaraman A, Kao KC. Relative Abundances of Candida albicans and Candida glabrata in In Vitro Coculture Biofilms Impact Biofilm Structure and Formation. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 2018; **84**: e02769-17.
252. Fox EP, Cowley ES, Nobile CJ, Hartooni N, Newman DK, Johnson AD. Anaerobic bacteria grow within Candida albicans biofilms and induce biofilm formation in suspension cultures. *Curr Biol* 2014; **24**: 2411–6.
253. Peters BM, Noverr MC. Candida albicans-Staphylococcus aureus polymicrobial peritonitis modulates host innate immunity. *Infect Immun* 2013; **81**: 2178–89.
254. Todd OA, Fidel PL, Harro JM, *et al.* Candida albicans Augments Staphylococcus aureus Virulence by Engaging the Staphylococcal agr Quorum Sensing System. *mBio* 2019; **10**: e00910-19.
255. Cruz MR, Graham CE, Gagliano BC, Lorenz MC, Garsin DA. Enterococcus faecalis inhibits hyphal morphogenesis and virulence of Candida albicans. *Infect Immun* 2013; **81**: 189–200.
256. Henry-Stanley MJ, Hess DJ, Erickson EA, Garni RM, Wells CL. Effect of lipopolysaccharide on virulence of intestinal candida albicans. *J Surg Res* 2003; **113**: 42–9.
257. Klaerner HG, Uknis ME, Acton RD, Dahlberg PS, Carbone-Jambor C, Dunn DL. Candida albicans and Escherichia coli are synergistic pathogens during experimental microbial peritonitis. *J Surg Res* 1997; **70**: 161–5.
258. De Brucker K, Tan Y, Vints K, *et al.* Fungal β-1,3-glucan increases ofloxacin tolerance of Escherichia coli in a polymicrobial E. coli/Candida albicans biofilm. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2015; **59**: 3052–8.
259. Allison DL, Willems HME, Jayatilake JAMS, Bruno VM, Peters BM, Shirtliff ME. Candida–Bacteria Interactions: Their Impact on Human Disease. *Microbiology Spectrum* 2016; **4**: 4.3.14.

260. Méchaï F, Kolakowska A, Carbonnelle E, Bouchaud O, Tresallet C, Jaureguy F. Intra-abdominal abscesses: Microbiological epidemiology and empirical antibiotherapy. *Infect Dis Now* 2023; **53**: 104604.
261. Valentine M, Benadé E, Mouton M, Khan W, Botha A. Binary interactions between the yeast *Candida albicans* and two gut-associated *Bacteroides* species. *Microb Pathog* 2019; **135**: 103619.
262. Novy E, Esposito M, Birckner J, et al. Reappraisal of intra-abdominal candidiasis: insights from peritoneal fluid analysis. *Intensive Care Med Exp* 2023; **11**: 67.
263. Pappas PG, Lionakis MS, Arendrup MC, Ostrosky-Zeichner L, Kullberg BJ. Invasive candidiasis. *Nat Rev Dis Primers* 2018; **4**: 18026.
264. Dupont H, Paugam-Burtz C, Muller-Serieys C, et al. Predictive factors of mortality due to polymicrobial peritonitis with *Candida* isolation in peritoneal fluid in critically ill patients. *Arch Surg* 2002; **137**: 1341–6; discussion 1347.
265. Montravers P, Dupont H, Eggimann P. Intra-abdominal candidiasis: the guidelines—forgotten non-candidemic invasive candidiasis. *Intensive Care Med* 2013; **39**: 2226–30.
266. Jones T, Federspiel NA, Chibana H, et al. The diploid genome sequence of *Candida albicans*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2004; **101**: 7329–34.
267. dMIQE Group, Huggett JF. The Digital MIQE Guidelines Update: Minimum Information for Publication of Quantitative Digital PCR Experiments for 2020. *Clin Chem* 2020; **66**: 1012–29.
268. Lima WG, Campos AB do C, Brito JCM, Cardoso VN, Fernandes SOA. Study of the influence of fecal material on the prognosis of intra-abdominal candidiasis using a murine model of technetium-99 m (99 mTc)-*Candida albicans*. *Microbiol Res* 2022; **263**: 127132.
269. Cheng S, Clancy CJ, Xu W, et al. Profiling of *Candida albicans* gene expression during intra-abdominal candidiasis identifies biologic processes involved in pathogenesis. *J Infect Dis* 2013; **208**: 1529–37.
270. Skipworth RJE, Fearon KCH. Acute abdomen: peritonitis. *Surgery* 2008; **26**: 98–101.
271. Yao V, Platell C, Hall JC. Role of peritoneal mesothelial cells in peritonitis. *Br J Surg* 2003; **90**: 1187–94.
272. Netea MG, Joosten LAB, van der Meer JWM, Kullberg B-J, van de Veerdonk FL. Immune defence against *Candida* fungal infections. *Nat Rev Immunol* 2015; **15**: 630–42.
273. Brown GD. Innate antifungal immunity: the key role of phagocytes. *Annu Rev Immunol* 2011; **29**: 1–21.
274. Gross O, Poeck H, Bscheider M, et al. Syk kinase signalling couples to the Nlrp3 inflammasome for anti-fungal host defence. *Nature* 2009; **459**: 433–6.
275. Joly S, Eisenbarth SC, Olivier AK, et al. Cutting edge: Nlrp10 is essential for protective antifungal adaptive immunity against *Candida albicans*. *J Immunol* 2012; **189**: 4713–7.

276. Yao V, Platell C, Hall JC. Peritoneal mesothelial cells produce inflammatory related cytokines. *ANZ Journal of Surgery* 2004; **74**: 997–1002.
277. Desai JV, Lionakis MS. The role of neutrophils in host defense against invasive fungal infections. *Curr Clin Microbiol Rep* 2018; **5**: 181–9.
278. Lionakis MS, Lim JK, Lee C-CR, Murphy PM. Organ-specific innate immune responses in a mouse model of invasive candidiasis. *J Innate Immun* 2011; **3**: 180–99.
279. Reeves EP, Lu H, Jacobs HL, et al. Killing activity of neutrophils is mediated through activation of proteases by K⁺ flux. *Nature* 2002; **416**: 291–7.
280. Swamydas M, Gao J-L, Break TJ, et al. CXCR1-mediated neutrophil degranulation and fungal killing promote *Candida* clearance and host survival. *Sci Transl Med* 2016; **8**: 322ra10.
281. Lionakis MS, Swamydas M, Fischer BG, et al. CX3CR1-dependent renal macrophage survival promotes *Candida* control and host survival. *J Clin Invest* 2013; **123**: 5035–51.
282. Ngo LY, Kasahara S, Kumasaka DK, Knoblaugh SE, Jhingran A, Hohl TM. Inflammatory monocytes mediate early and organ-specific innate defense during systemic candidiasis. *J Infect Dis* 2014; **209**: 109–19.
283. Quintin J, Saeed S, Martens JHA, et al. *Candida albicans* infection affords protection against reinfection via functional reprogramming of monocytes. *Cell Host Microbe* 2012; **12**: 223–32.
284. Hamidzadeh K, Christensen SM, Dalby E, Chandrasekaran P, Mosser DM. Macrophages and the Recovery from Acute and Chronic Inflammation. *Annu Rev Physiol* 2017; **79**: 567–92.
285. Menz J, Hundt L, Schulze T, Schmoeckel K, Menges P, Domanska G. Increased mortality and altered local immune response in secondary peritonitis after previous visceral operations in mice. *Sci Rep* 2021; **11**: 16175.
286. Koerner P, Busemann A, Traeger T, et al. Postoperative immune suppression in visceral surgery: characterisation of an intestinal mouse model. *Eur Surg Res* 2011; **47**: 260–6.
287. Traeger T, Koerner P, Kessler W, et al. Colon ascendens stent peritonitis (CASP)--a standardized model for polymicrobial abdominal sepsis. *J Vis Exp* 2010: 2299.
288. Kessler W, Traeger T, Westerholt A, et al. The vagal nerve as a link between the nervous and immune system in the instance of polymicrobial sepsis. *Langenbecks Arch Surg* 2006; **391**: 83–7.
289. Tsukada K, Katoh H, Shiojima M, Suzuki T, Takenoshita S, Nagamachi Y. Concentrations of cytokines in peritoneal fluid after abdominal surgery. *Eur J Surg* 1993; **159**: 475–9.
290. Tsukada K, Takenoshita S, Nagamachi Y. Peritoneal interleukin-6, interleukin-8 and granulocyte elastase activity after elective abdominal surgery. *APMIS* 1994; **102**: 837–40.
291. Riché F, Gayat E, Collet C, et al. Local and systemic innate immune response to secondary human peritonitis. *Crit Care* 2013; **17**: R201.

Annexes

Annexe 1 : Current trends in epidemiology and management of intra-abdominal candidiasis in the critically ill patient (SFAR 2021)



le CONGRÈS

du 23 au 25
Septembre 2021

PALAIS
DES CONGRÈS
DE PARIS

#SFAR202100315 CL10 - 25/09/2021 08h30 - 10h00 Salle 353

Current trends in epidemiology of intra-abdominal candidiasis (IAC) in critically ill patients requiring abdominal surgery: preliminary results of a prospective multicenter study

E. Novy¹, J. Riviere¹, F.X. Laithier¹, T. Remen², M. Machouart³, P. Guerci¹

¹Chru Nancy-Service Anesthésie Réanimation et Médecine Péri-Opératoire, ²Chru Nancy-Unité Méthodologie Data Management et Statistiques, ³Chru Nancy-Laboratoire De Mycologie - Vandoeuvre Lès Nancy (France)

Introduction:

IAC : 1.84 episodes / 1000 ICU admissions

Prevalence of IAC among intra-abdominal infection: 20 – 30 %

High variability in studies involving IAC regarding:

- Included population
- Surgical and ICU management



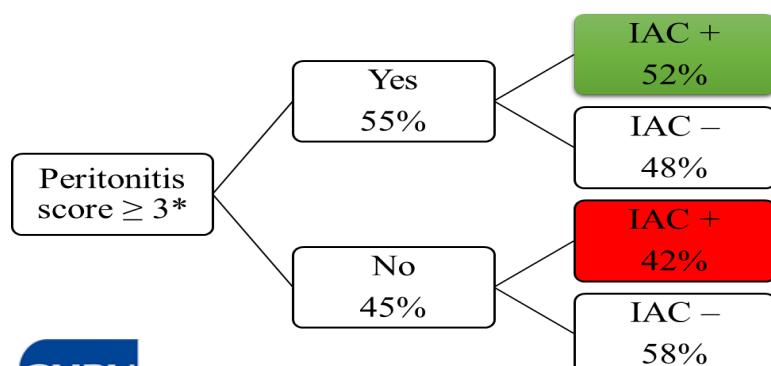
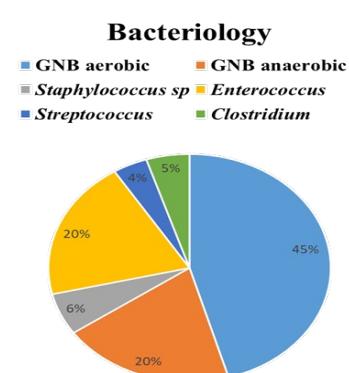
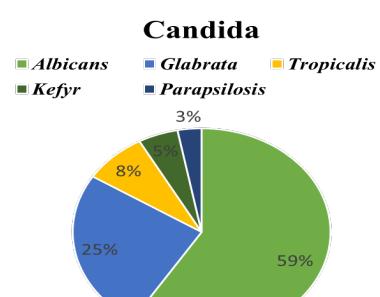
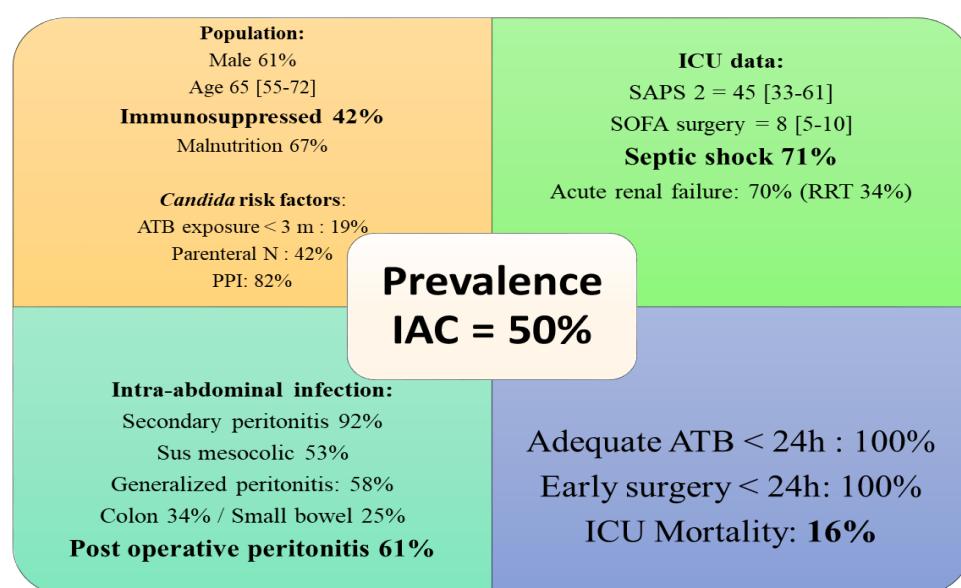
Methodology:

Non-interventional multicentre prospective study (Besançon – Dijon – Metz – Nancy – Strasbourg)

Critically ill patients (n=88) with **intra-abdominal infection** as well as **Candida risk factors** indicated for **abdominal surgery**

Objectives: IAC prevalence / IAC risk factors

Results:



Conclusion:
 IAC prevalence 50%
 Post-operative peritonitis +++
Candida albicans > non albicans

Early antifungal therapy
 Early source control

Low ICU mortality 16%

Annexe 2 : Protocol for the pBDG2 study : prospective evaluation of the peritoneal 1,3 beta-D-glucan for the diagnosis of intra-abdominal candidiasis



Protocol

Protocol for the pBDG2 Study: Prospective Evaluation of 1.3- β -D-Glucan in the Peritoneal Fluid for the Diagnosis of Intra-Abdominal Candidiasis in Critically Ill Patients

Emmanuel Novy ^{1,2,*}, François-Xavier Laithier ¹, Jeremie Riviere ¹, Thomas Remen ³, Marie-Reine Losser ^{1,4}, Philippe Guerci ^{1,4} and Marie Machouart ^{2,5}

¹ Department of Anesthesiology and Intensive Care Medicine, University Hospital of Nancy, F-54511 Vandoeuvre-Lès-Nancy, France; fxlaithier@yahoo.fr (F.-X.L.); j.riviere@chru-nancy.fr (J.R.); mr.losser@chru-nancy.fr (M.-R.L.); p.guerci@chru-nancy.fr (P.G.)

² Stress Immunity Pathogens Unit, Université de Lorraine, SIMPA, EA 7300, F-54000 Nancy, France; m.machouart@chru-nancy.fr

³ Clinical Research and Innovation Delegation (DRCI), MPI Department, Methodology Unit, Data Management and Statistics UMDS, Nancy University Hospital, F-54500 Vandoeuvre-Lès-Nancy, France; t.remen@chru-nancy.fr

⁴ Acute and Chronic Cardiovascular Deficiency (DCAC), Université de Lorraine, Inserm, F-54500 Vandoeuvre-Les-Nancy, France

⁵ Laboratory of Mycology, University Hospital of Nancy, F-54511 Vandoeuvre-Lès-Nancy, France

* Correspondence: e.novy@chru-nancy.fr



Citation: Novy, E.; Laithier, F.-X.; Riviere, J.; Remen, T.; Losser, M.-R.; Guerci, P.; Machouart, M. Protocol for the pBDG2 Study: Prospective Evaluation of 1.3- β -D-Glucan in the Peritoneal Fluid for the Diagnosis of Intra-Abdominal Candidiasis in Critically Ill Patients. *Microbiol. Res.* **2021**, *12*, 196–203. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microbiolres12010015>

Academic Editor:
Beniamino T. Cenci-Goga

Received: 12 February 2021
Accepted: 15 March 2021
Published: 17 March 2021

Publisher's Note: MDPI stays neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.



Copyright: © 2021 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

Abstract: Background: The delayed diagnosis of the presence of *Candida* in severe intra-abdominal infections exposes patients to an increased risk of mortality. The prevalence of intra-abdominal candidiasis (IAC) varies with the type of intra-abdominal infection, the underlying conditions and the presence of risk factors for *Candida* infection. This study aims to evaluate the interest of the measure of 1.3- β -D-glucan (BDG) in the peritoneal fluid for the early diagnosis of IAC. Methods and analysis: This is a prospective multicenter ($n = 5$) non-interventional study, focusing on all critically ill patients with an intra-abdominal infection requiring intra-abdominal surgery. The primary objective is to assess the diagnostic performance of the BDG measured in the peritoneal fluid for the early detection of IAC using the *Candida* culture as the gold standard. The secondary objective is to report the prevalence of IAC in the selected population. This study aims to enroll 200 patients within 48 months. By estimating the prevalence of IAC in the selected population at 30%, 50 patients with IAC (cases) are expected. These 50 IAC cases will be matched with 50 non-IAC patients (as a control group). The peritoneal BDG will be measured a posteriori in all of these 100 selected patients. This article presents the protocol and the current status of the study. Only the prevalence of IAC is reported as preliminary result.

Keywords: intra-abdominal candidiasis; critically ill; abdominal surgery; 1.3- β -D-Glucan; diagnosis; protocol

Highlights

- This is the first prospective multicenter trial to investigate the interest of the measure of peritoneal BDG for the early diagnosis of intra-abdominal candidiasis (IAC).
- The known prevalence of IAC in critically ill patients with an intra-abdominal infection requiring abdominal surgery means that 200 patients should be enrolled to obtain at least 50 confirmed IACs.
- Fifty critically ill patients with a confirmed IAC will be compared to 50 patients with non-IAC intra-abdominal infection after matching and the random selection of cases.
- Matching factors include the known confounding factors for the measure of BDG.

1. Introduction

Recently, in a narrative review on intra-abdominal infection, the European Society of Intensive Care Medicine highlighted the “peculiar challenges” regarding fungal infections and the “need for more solid evidence to firmly guide the use of rapid fungal diagnostics” [1].

Because of the heterogeneity in patient characteristics, clinical presentations and therapeutic management, intra-abdominal infections are not well defined. Regarding fungal infections in this setting, the term intra-abdominal candidiasis (IAC) is widely used and is defined by steriley collected peritoneal fluid (PF) cultures that are positive for *Candida* spp., as determined by the signs and symptoms consistent with an active infection [2]. Considered to be the most common type of invasive candidiasis in critically ill patients [3], IAC is associated with mortality rates of approximately 25–60% [4,5]. This high variability in mortality could be explained by the heterogeneity of studying populations [3]. Because of the time needed for the PF yeast culture (3 to 5 days) to develop, a delayed introduction of antifungal treatment may occur [6,7]. Thus, the decision to start an empirical antifungal treatment is based on predictive scores such as the *Candida* score [8], the *Candida* colonization index [9] or the peritonitis score [10]. These scores must be integrated in a global evaluation of risk factors and the patient’s underlying conditions. These clinical scores and traditional risk factors of invasive candidiasis were unable to identify patients at risk for IAC [11].

In this context, biomarkers such as serum 1.3-β-D-glucan (BDG) have emerged. This non-culture-based method has primarily been performed in the serum of patients with invasive fungal infections or candidemia [12–15]. However, candidemia is present in only 10–20% of patients with IAC [5,16]. Moreover, up to 17% of candidemic adults had persistently negative BDG during their episode of candidemia [17]. The usage of serum BDG to guide the continuation or interruption of antifungal treatment should be performed twice with a 48-h interval. In the presence of two serum measures <80 pg/mL, the clinician should stop the empirical antifungal therapy [18]. Moreover, as highlighted by experts, to be useful, testing for BDG should be performed on homogeneous high-risk patients with invasive candidiasis, accompanied by specific clinical questions [19].

A retrospective pilot study was conducted, evaluating the diagnostic performance of BDG in the PF in comparison to the peritonitis score, direct examination and peritoneal fungal polymerase chain reaction of the same sample [20]. The study indicates a negative predictive value of 100% with one measure of peritoneal BDG. In a population of secondary peritonitis ($n = 38$), a peritoneal measurement of BDG ≤ 310 pg/mL could rule out an IAC. Regarding the measurement of BDG in the PF (compared with serum assay, which is the only technique validated by the US Food and Drug Administration), no technical issues were noted. Moreover, this diagnostic strategy was independent of the underlying conditions as well as *Candida* risk factors; it could predict the diagnosis of IAC in comparison with culture-based methods.

Hypothesis 1. We hypothesize that the measure of BDG in the PF could be used for the early detection of IAC. Considering the small sample and the retrospective nature of the pilot study, we aim to confirm these preliminary results in a prospective study by enrolling 200 critically ill patients.

The present article reports the protocol of the study. No results will be presented, except for the current number of included patients and the prevalence of IAC observed in the first inclusions.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Study Design

This multicenter prospective study is being conducted in five centers in France in tertiary teaching hospitals (Besançon, Dijon, Metz, Nancy and Strasbourg).

The study is classified as non-interventional; thus, the intensive care unit (ICU) management and anti-infective strategies (choice of antibiotics or antifungal treatment) is left to the discretion of the clinicians.

This article was written according to STROBE (strengthening the reporting of observational studies in epidemiology) and STARD (studies of diagnostic accuracy) guidelines.

2.2. Patients

The targeted population is all adult patients satisfying the following inclusion criteria (Table 1): (i) covered by health insurance, (ii) admitted in participating ICUs, (iii) presented with intra-abdominal infection as well as *Candida* risk factors (according to French recommendations [21]—these include patients with septic shock, immunosuppressive conditions, organ transplants, inflammatory bowel disease or healthcare-associated peritonitis) and (iv) indicated for abdominal surgery. Intra-abdominal infection, which requires abdominal surgery, are abdominal abscess, peritonitis, purulent or necrotic infection in patients having recent abdominal surgery or intra-abdominal events complicated by gastrointestinal perforation or anastomotic leak.

Table 1. Inclusion and non-inclusion criteria. ICU: intensive care unit.

Inclusion Criteria	Non-Inclusion Criteria
Adult Covered by health insurance	Death within the first 24 h of ICU admission Pregnant or lactating woman
Admitted in participating ICUs with intra-abdominal infection requiring abdominal surgery	Patient deprived of liberty after administration of juridical decisionPatient under psychiatric care Patient under supervision or legal guardianship
After information has been provided and non-opposition has been granted by patient or substitute decision-maker	

2.3. Objectives and Endpoints

The primary objective is to compare the measure of the BDG in the PF in the IAC population (cases) and the non-IAC population (controls).

The secondary objectives are (i) to measure the prevalence of IAC in critically ill patients with *Candida* risk factors and an intra-abdominal infection requiring an abdominal surgery, (ii) to identify the risk factors for IAC, (iii) to assess the diagnostic performance of the BDG measured in the PF for early detection of IAC using *Candida* culture as the gold standard and (iv) to compare peritoneal and serum BDG in the same patient.

2.4. Gold Standard Test

An IAC is defined by steriley collected PF cultures that are positive for *Candida* spp., as determined by the signs and symptoms consistent with an active infection. The *Candida* growth should be performed on mycological media (Sabouraud), at 37 °C. A first result (positive or negative) is given to clinicians after five days. All cultures are stored until 21 days. Species of *Candida* are identified using MALDI-Tof technique.

Accordingly, the case group is composed of critically ill patients who underwent abdominal surgery with pre-operative signs consistent with intra-abdominal infection as well as a positive *Candida* culture. The control group is composed of critically ill patients who underwent abdominal surgery with pre-operative signs consistent with intra-abdominal infection and a negative *Candida* culture.

2.5. Enrolment

In each participating center, all consecutive patients who fulfilled the inclusion criteria are being enrolled in the study. The Figure 1 depicts the flow-chart of the protocol. In the five centers currently participating in the pBDG2 study, 70 patients have been included in the trial to date.

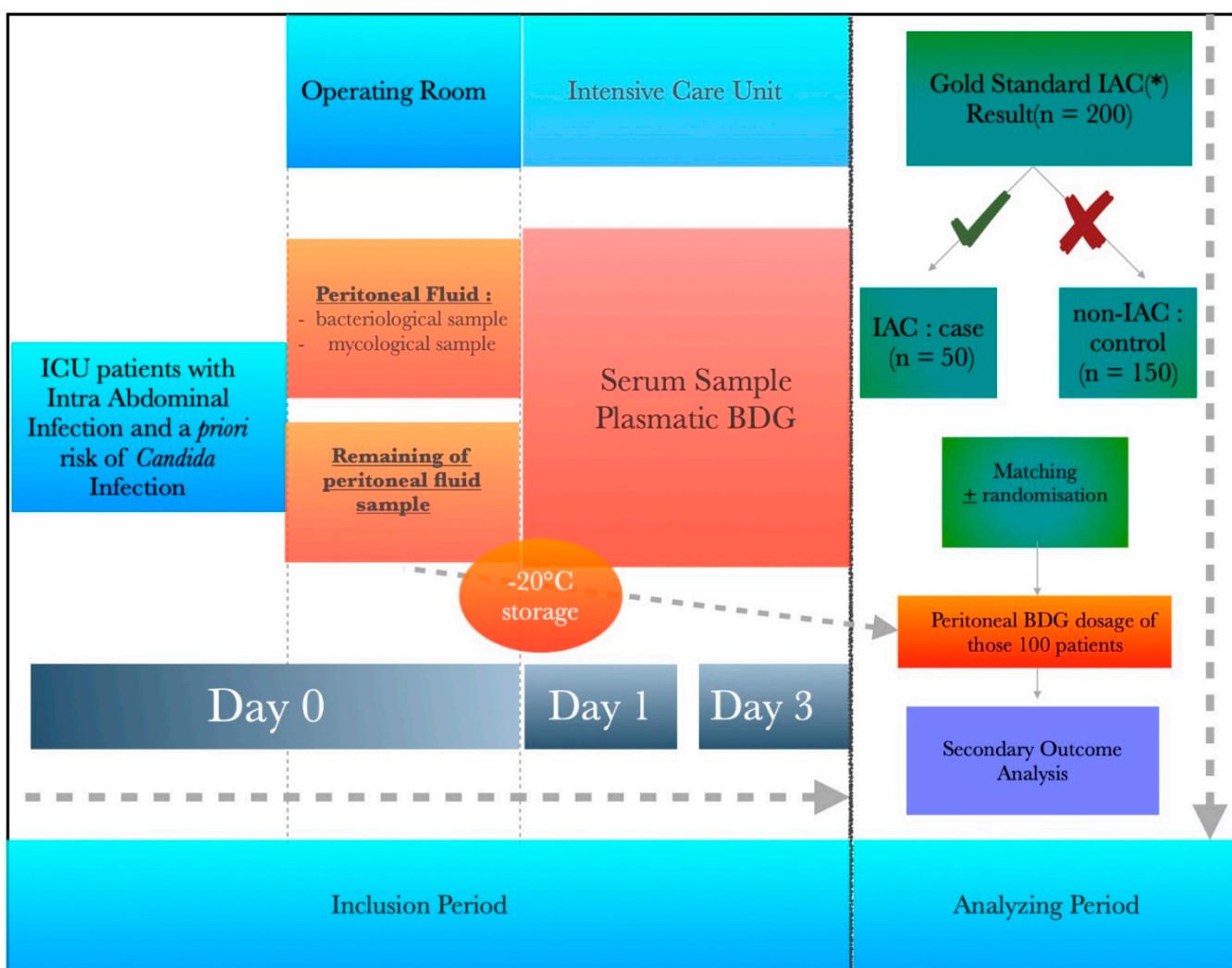


Figure 1. Flowchart of the study: from inclusion to analysis. Gold standard IAC: Intra-abdominal Candidiasis (IAC) is defined by steriley collected peritoneal fluid cultures that are positive for *Candida* spp., as determined by the signs and symptoms consistent with an active infection. BDG: 1.3 Beta D Glucan.

PF samples are being steriley collected by the surgeon after peritoneal incision with aspiration of 5 mL of peritoneal exudate. This sample is sent to the local microbiological laboratory for routine analysis:

- Laboratory of bacteriology: direct examination (gram stain), culture and antibiotic susceptibility test.
- Laboratory of mycology: direct examination with microscopy, culture and antifungal susceptibility test in cases of non-albicans *Candida*. Indeed, based on the local ecology of *Candida albicans* resistance in the five centers with no current resistance with fluconazole, antifungal susceptibility test would not be performed in this case.

Then, the remainder of the PF will be stored until the end of the study in a BDG-free device at -20 °C. Fungitell kits (Associates of Cape Cod, Inc., East Falmouth, MA, USA) are already used for serum and will be used for peritoneal BDG measurements. Serum BDG is sampled during the ICU stay on days 1 and 3, according to guidelines [18]. Concerning the measure of the peritoneal 1.3BDG: at the end of the study, if more than 50 patients of the case group are identified, then a random selection will be performed to obtain 50 cases only for further analyses. Each of the 50 remaining patients will be matched with one patient from the control group. The matching criteria are the following: Sepsis-Related Organ Failure Assessment (SOFA) score on the day of the surgery for intra-abdominal infection

(± 2), the presence of more than four *Candida* risk factors (parenteral nutrition, pump proton inhibitors, pancreatitis, prior antibiotic exposure <72 h, corticosteroids, renal replacement therapy or *Candida* colonization) and, as a BDG test confounder, the coinfection with documented bacteria. If more than one matching control per case is available, a random selection will be performed to retain one control only per case. All of the 100 peritoneal samples (50 for cases and 50 for controls) will be sent to and analyzed by the laboratory of mycology at the university hospital of Nancy.

2.6. Follow-Up

The following baseline characteristics and medical-related variables of patients are being collected from electronic health records during patients' ICU stay: age, sex, body mass index, comorbidities, Knauss and McCabe scores at admission, *Candida* risk factors and surgery data (type of surgery and presence of signs of peritonitis), BDG test confounders [22] (β -lactam exposure, human albumin administration, red blood cell transfusion and renal replacement therapy). The supplementary variables collected are the following: simplified acute physiological score (SAPS II) at admission; SOFA score at admission and at diagnosis of peritonitis; and life-support therapies (vasopressors, renal replacement therapy or invasive mechanical ventilation) as well as their duration of usage and the ICU mortality rate. We are additionally collecting microbiological data, types of antibiotics and types of antifungals used.

2.7. Information Provided to Patients

The pBDG2 study is classified as non-interventional. Consequently, the need for informed consent is being waived, and only the "decline to participate" is being requested from patients or substitute decision-makers.

2.8. Data Quality, Regulatory Issues and Confidentiality

All personal and medical information is being collected and shared in accordance with medical confidentiality as well as French and European regulations regarding data protection. Furthermore, all data are being recorded in a secured database for statistical analysis with pseudonymization (number of the center, first letter of name and last name). The study data are being collected by each investigator site and are being reported in an electronic case report form. At the end of the trial, the study database and documents will be archived by investigator sites and sponsors in accordance with French and European regulations.

2.9. Number of Patients to Include

According to the literature, the prevalence of IAC in severe intra-abdominal infection is estimated to be between 1.5% and 41%. [1] In the pilot study, the rate was 21%. [20] Consequently, the inclusion criteria of severe intra-abdominal infection requiring abdominal surgery and possible *Candida* coinfection indicates an estimate for attempt prevalence of 30%. To obtain at least 50 cases, 165 patients should be enrolled. This number was extended to 200 to facilitate the matching process.

2.10. Missing Data

In case of missing data regarding the peritoneal BDG measurements, the baseline and demographics data will be used to study prevalence. If the attempted prevalence in the whole population is less than 30%, then an extension of the number of patients will be requested.

2.11. Limitations

For financial reasons, the peritoneal BDG measure could not be performed for all the included patients. Nevertheless, with the inclusion criteria, we hope to obtain a homogenous population of ICU patients with intra-abdominal infection which could limit

the selection bias. Moreover, the process of matching and selection includes a random selection in case of more cases (patients with IAC) than expected.

We fully acknowledged that a recent major surgery is a BDG confounder [23], in particular for its measurement in the serum. Nevertheless, this factor concerns all of the included patients. Moreover, especially in this high-risk post-operative population, the need for a diagnostics biomarker to early identify the presence of fungi is urgently warranted. Lastly, we could hypothesize that the measure of BDG directly in the peritoneal fluid could be less influenced by confounders than its measure in the serum.

2.12. Statistical Analysis

2.12.1. For the Primary Endpoint

Student t-tests (parametric) or Mann–Whitney tests (non-parametric) are being utilized to compare BDG concentrations between IAC and non-IAC groups.

2.12.2. For the Secondary Endpoints

The baseline characteristics of the study population are presented as numbers and percentages (qualitative variables including the prevalence of IAC) with the mean and standard deviation or median and extreme values (quantitative variables), depending on the nature of their distribution.

The risk factors of IAC are being explored by employing a univariate and then multivariate logistic regression utilizing a stepwise variable selection ($sle = 0.20$, $sls = 0.05$).

The threshold of BDG to obtain the optimal specificity and sensitivity is determined by the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve.

The concordance between peritoneal and serum BDG levels measured in the same patients is explored through the Bland and Altman method (graphical method). Intraclass correlation coefficients between these variables is also being calculated.

3. Trial Status

This trial is registered with clinicalTrial.gov (accessed on 5 September 2019) since 5 September 2019, with the last protocol version 1 dated 3 May 2019. Inclusion started in January 2020 and is expected to end in January 2022. The study was interrupted between March and May 2020 because of the COVID-19 outbreak. Four additional months will be necessary to perform matching, peritoneal sample analysis and statistical evaluation.

In the five centers currently participating in the pBDG2 study, 72 patients have been included in the trial to date. Among these 72 patients, the prevalence of IAC is 47% ($n = 34/72$) with a majority of *Candida Albicans* (60%) species.

4. Discussion and Conclusions

This study concerns two areas of research in intra-abdominal infections suggested by international experts in the field:

- The definition and classification of intra-abdominal infection to identify a selected population with high risk of intra-abdominal candidiasis [24].
- As a diagnostic tool, a novel application (peritoneal measurement) of an already existing assay (BDG), which, if proved reliable, could be very useful for early diagnosis of intra-abdominal candidiasis [25].

Indeed, if the peritoneal measure of BDG could confirm or rule out the diagnosis of IAC, then this strategy would allow the rapid introduction of an antifungal treatment or limit excessive exposure. We acknowledge that, currently, routine BDG results are not rapidly available. One of the explanations is the lack of prescription of the BDG test, the cost of the test and the result's delays. Indeed, the real time need for BDG measurement is short. However, because the low number of routine demand and its current cost, most of the analyses are pooled. If we could demonstrate that one test, the day of the surgery, could rule out an IAC and lead to less anti-fungal prescription that are quite expansive, we believe that the routine use of BDG will increase.

Author Contributions: Conceptualization: E.N., F.-X.L., T.R., M.M.; methodology, validation: T.R.; data curation: J.R., E.N., F.-X.L.; writing—original draft preparation: J.R., E.N.; writing—review and editing: M.-R.L., M.M.; supervision: P.G. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: This work was supported by the Department of Anesthesiology, Critical Care and Perioperative Medicine of the University Hospital of Nancy (1000 euros) and a donation from the MSD Laboratory (7000 euros).

Institutional Review Board Statement: The study was conducted according to the guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the ethics committee of Nancy. The study was registered with ClinicalTrials.gov (accessed on 5 September 2019) with the identification number 03997929.

Informed Consent Statement: Non-opposition consent is obtained from all subjects involved in the study. In the case of the inability to obtain the patient consent (coma, death before end of participation), non-opposition to participate would be asked to its substitute decision-maker.

Data Availability Statement: The current study did not report any data.

Acknowledgments: ICU physicians involved in the participating centers: BELLAID Bouhemad (University hospital of Dijon), PILI-FLOURY Sébastien (University hospital of Besançon), POTTECHER Julien (University Hospital of Strasbourg), LOUIS Guillaume (Regional Hospital of Metz-Mercy), Mycologists involved in the participating centers: DALLE Frédéric (University hospital of Dijon), GRENOUILLET Frédéric (University hospital of Besançon), Valérie BRU (University Hospital of Strasbourg), HOCHARD Hélène (Regional Hospital of Metz-Mercy)

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

1. Bassetti, M.; Eckmann, C.; Giacobbe, D.R.; Sartelli, M.; Montravers, P. Post-Operative Abdominal Infections: Epidemiology, Operational Definitions, and Outcomes. *Intensive Care Med.* **2020**, *46*, 163–172. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
2. Bassetti, M.; Righi, E.; Ansaldi, F.; Merelli, M.; Scarparo, C.; Antonelli, M.; Garnacho-Montero, J.; Diaz-Martin, A.; Palacios-Garcia, I.; Luzzati, R.; et al. A Multicenter Multinational Study of Abdominal Candidiasis: Epidemiology, Outcomes and Predictors of Mortality. *Intensive Care Med.* **2015**, *41*, 1601–1610. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
3. Bassetti, M.; Marchetti, M.; Chakrabarti, A.; Colizza, S.; Garnacho-Montero, J.; Kett, D.H.; Munoz, P.; Cristini, F.; Andoniadou, A.; Viale, P.; et al. A Research Agenda on the Management of Intra-Abdominal Candidiasis: Results from a Consensus of Multinational Experts. *Intensive Care Med.* **2013**, *39*, 2092–2106. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
4. Montravers, P.; Blot, S.; Dimopoulos, G.; Eckmann, C.; Eggimann, P.; Guirao, X.; Paiva, J.A.; Sganga, G.; De Waele, J. Therapeutic Management of Peritonitis: A Comprehensive Guide for Intensivists. *Intensive Care Med.* **2016**, *42*, 1234–1247. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
5. Montravers, P.; Dupont, H.; Gauzit, R.; Veber, B.; Auboyer, C.; Blin, P.; Hennequin, C.; Martin, C. Candida as a Risk Factor for Mortality in Peritonitis. *Crit. Care Med.* **2006**, *34*, 646–652. [[CrossRef](#)]
6. Carneiro, H.A.; Mavrakis, A.; Mylonakis, E. Candida Peritonitis: An Update on the Latest Research and Treatments. *World J. Surg.* **2011**, *35*, 2650–2659. [[CrossRef](#)]
7. Horvath, L.L.; George, B.J.; Murray, C.K.; Harrison, L.S.; Hospenthal, D.R. Direct Comparison of the BACTEC 9240 and BacT/ALERT 3D Automated Blood Culture Systems for Candida Growth Detection. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* **2004**, *42*, 115–118. [[CrossRef](#)]
8. León, C.; Ruiz-Santana, S.; Saavedra, P.; Almirante, B.; Nolla-Salas, J.; Alvarez-Lerma, F.; Garnacho-Montero, J.; León, M.A. EPCAN Study Group A Bedside Scoring System (“Candida Score”) for Early Antifungal Treatment in Nonneutropenic Critically Ill Patients with Candida Colonization. *Crit. Care Med.* **2006**, *34*, 730–737. [[CrossRef](#)]
9. Eggimann, P.; Pittet, D. Candida Colonization Index and Subsequent Infection in Critically Ill Surgical Patients: 20 Years Later. *Intensive Care Med.* **2014**, *40*, 1429–1448. [[CrossRef](#)]
10. Dupont, H.; Guilbart, M.; Ntouba, A.; Perquin, M.; Petiot, S.; Regimbeau, J.-M.; Chouaki, T.; Mahjoub, Y.; Zogheib, E. Can Yeast Isolation Be Predicted in Complicated Secondary Non-Postoperative Intra-Abdominal Infections? *Crit. Care* **2015**, *19*, 60. [[CrossRef](#)]
11. Bailly, S.; Leroy, O.; Dupont, H.; Timsit, J.-F. Secondarily Documented Invasive Candidiasis Is Unpredictable Using Traditional Risk Factors in Non Transplant—Non-Neutropenic Adult ICU Patients. *Int. J. Infect. Dis.* **2017**, *54*, 31–33. [[CrossRef](#)]
12. Karageorgopoulos, D.E.; Vouloumanou, E.K.; Ntziora, F.; Michalopoulos, A.; Rafailidis, P.I.; Falagas, M.E. β -D-Glucan Assay for the Diagnosis of Invasive Fungal Infections: A Meta-Analysis. *Clin. Infect. Dis.* **2011**, *52*, 750–770. [[CrossRef](#)]
13. Cento, V.; Alteri, C.; Mancini, V.; Gatti, M.; Lepera, V.; Mazza, E.; Moioli, M.C.; Merli, M.; Colombo, J.; Orcese, C.A.; et al. Quantification of 1,3- β -d-Glucan by Wako β -Glucan Assay for Rapid Exclusion of Invasive Fungal Infections in Critical Patients: A Diagnostic Test Accuracy Study. *Mycoses* **2020**, *63*, 1299–1310. [[CrossRef](#)]

14. De Pascale, G.; Posteraro, B.; D'Arrigo, S.; Spinazzola, G.; Gaspari, R.; Bello, G.; Montini, L.M.; Cutuli, S.L.; Grieco, D.L.; Di Gravio, V.; et al. (1,3)- β -D-Glucan-Based Empirical Antifungal Interruption in Suspected Invasive Candidiasis: A Randomized Trial. *Crit. Care* **2020**, *24*, 550. [[CrossRef](#)]
15. Zubkowicz, M.; Held, J.; Baier, M.; Pletz, M.W.; Kesselmeier, M.; Hagel, S.; Bahrs, C. Clinical Evaluation of Two Different (1,3)- β -D-Glucan Assays for Diagnosis of Invasive Fungal Diseases: A Retrospective Cohort Study. *Mycoses* **2020**, *64*, 212–219. [[CrossRef](#)]
16. Vergidis, P.; Clancy, C.J.; Shields, R.K.; Park, S.Y.; Wildfeuer, B.N.; Simmons, R.L.; Nguyen, M.H. Intra-Abdominal Candidiasis: The Importance of Early Source Control and Antifungal Treatment. *PLoS ONE* **2016**, *11*, e0153247. [[CrossRef](#)]
17. Agnelli, C.; Bouza, E.; Del Carmen Martínez-Jiménez, M.; Navarro, R.; Valerio, M.; Machado, M.; Guinea, J.; Sánchez-Carrillo, C.; Alonso, R.; Muñoz, P. Clinical Relevance and Prognostic Value of Persistently Negative (1,3)- β -D-Glucan in Adults With Candidemia: A 5-Year Experience in a Tertiary Hospital. *Clin. Infect. Dis.* **2020**, *70*, 1925–1932. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
18. Martin-Loeches, I.; Antonelli, M.; Cuenca-Estrella, M.; Dimopoulos, G.; Einav, S.; De Waele, J.J.; Garnacho-Montero, J.; Kanj, S.S.; Machado, F.R.; Montravers, P.; et al. ESICM/ESCMID Task Force on Practical Management of Invasive Candidiasis in Critically Ill Patients. *Intensive Care Med.* **2019**, *45*, 789–805. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
19. Clancy, C.J.; Nguyen, M.-H. Rapid Diagnosis of Invasive Candidiasis: Ready for Prime-Time? *Curr. Opin. Infect. Dis.* **2019**, *32*, 546–552. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
20. Novy, E.; Laithier, F.-X.; Machouart, M.-C.; Albuisson, E.; Guerci, P.; Losser, M.-R. Determination of 1,3- β -D-Glucan in the Peritoneal Fluid for the Diagnosis of Intra-Abdominal Candidiasis in Critically Ill Patients: A Pilot Study. *Minerva Anestesiol.* **2018**, *84*, 1369–1376. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
21. Montravers, P.; Dupont, H.; Leone, M.; Constantin, J.-M.; Mertes, P.-M.; Société française d'anesthésie et de réanimation (Sfar); Société de réanimation de langue française (SRLF); Laterre, P.-F.; Misset, B.; Société de pathologie infectieuse de langue française (SPILF); et al. Guidelines for Management of Intra-Abdominal Infections. *Anaesth Crit. Care Pain Med.* **2015**, *34*, 117–130. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
22. Finkelman, M.A. Specificity Influences in (1→3)- β -d-Glucan-Supported Diagnosis of Invasive Fungal Disease. *J. Fungi* **2020**, *7*, 14. [[CrossRef](#)]
23. Prattes, J.; Hoenigl, M.; Rabensteiner, J.; Raggam, R.B.; Pruegger, F.; Zollner-Schwetz, I.; Valentin, T.; Höniogl, K.; Fruhwald, S.; Krause, R. Serum 1,3-Beta-d-Glucan for Antifungal Treatment Stratification at the Intensive Care Unit and the Influence of Surgery. *Mycoses* **2014**, *57*, 679–686. [[CrossRef](#)]
24. Logan, C.; Martin-Loeches, I.; Bicanic, T. Invasive Candidiasis in Critical Care: Challenges and Future Directions. *Intensive Care Med.* **2020**, *46*, 2001–2014. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
25. White, S.K.; Schmidt, R.L.; Walker, B.S.; Hanson, K.E. (1→3)- β -D-Glucan Testing for the Detection of Invasive Fungal Infections in Immunocompromised or Critically Ill People. *Cochrane Database Syst. Rev.* **2020**, *7*, CD009833. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]

Annexe 3 : Point-of-care testing for peritoneal and serum 1.3 beta-d-glucan to rule out intra-abdominal candidiasis in critically ill patients (ECCMID 2024)

Point-of-care testing for peritoneal and serum 1.3 beta-d-glucan to rule out intra-abdominal candidiasis in critically ill patients

Emmanuel Novy, Maxime Nguyen, Frédéric Dalle, Gaëlle Arfeuille, Valérie Bru, Guillaume Louis, Jérémie Rivière, Pascale Perez, Amandine Luc, Philippe Guerci, Anne Debourgogne



Background:

Intra-abdominal candidiasis (IAC): a life-threatening condition in critically ill patients.

High mortality (> 60%) ⇔ delay in antifungal introduction ⇔ antifungal overuse.

Observational studies suggest an interest of peritoneal 1.3 beta-d-glucan to rule out IAC.

Wako® β-glucan test (Fujifilm Wako, Germany) for 1.3 beta-d-glucan dosage:

- Allows individual testing
- Never tested in the peritoneal fluid before
- Uses a method that could better suit the peritoneal fluid media ?



Materials :

Sub-analysis of a prospective multicentre noninterventional study (NCT03997929).

Inclusion of critically ill patients with high risk of intra-abdominal candidiasis undergoing abdominal surgery for abdominal sepsis.

Primary objective: to explore whether peritoneal (pBDG) and serum (sBDG) 1.3 beta-d-glucan could be used to diagnose IAC.

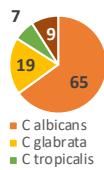
Results:



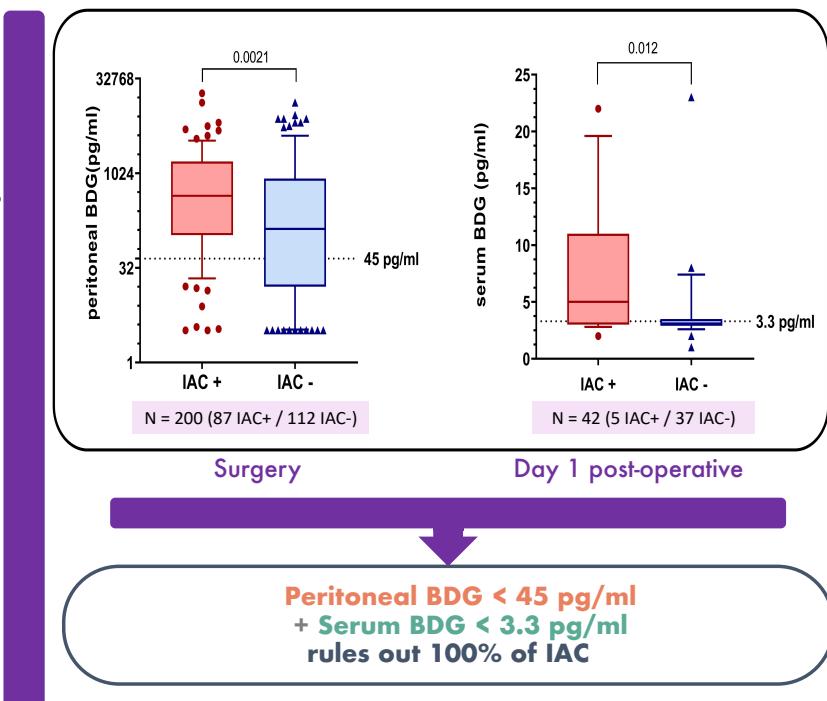
199 Adult critically ill patients with secondary peritonitis

Postoperative	57%
Gastrointestinal Tract	85%
Septic shock	62%

IAC prevalence = 44%
Polymicrobial = 72%



NPV sBDG: 79.2%
NPV pBDG: 82.3%
(as standalone biomarker)



Conclusion:

Peritoneal measurement of 1.3 beta-d-glucan was **feasible** and **reliable** using the Wako® β-glucan test.

Combining sBDG < 3.3 pg/ml (or lower limit of quantification) and pBDG < 45 pg/ml **excluded IAC in 100% of cases** and could limit unnecessary antifungal agent exposure

Future direction: algorithm using pBDG and sBDG to stop empirical antifungal ?



e.novy@chru-nancy.fr

34th **ECCMID** EUROPEAN CONGRESS OF CLINICAL MICROBIOLOGY AND INFECTIOUS DISEASES

Barcelona, Spain
27 – 30 April 2024

Annexe 4 : Étude ESPIAC (Early stop of antifungal using serum and peritoneal 1.3 beta-d-glucan in critically ill patient with suspected intra-abdominal candidiasis



**PROGRAMME HOSPITALIER
DE RECHERCHE CLINIQUE
INTERRÉGIONAL**

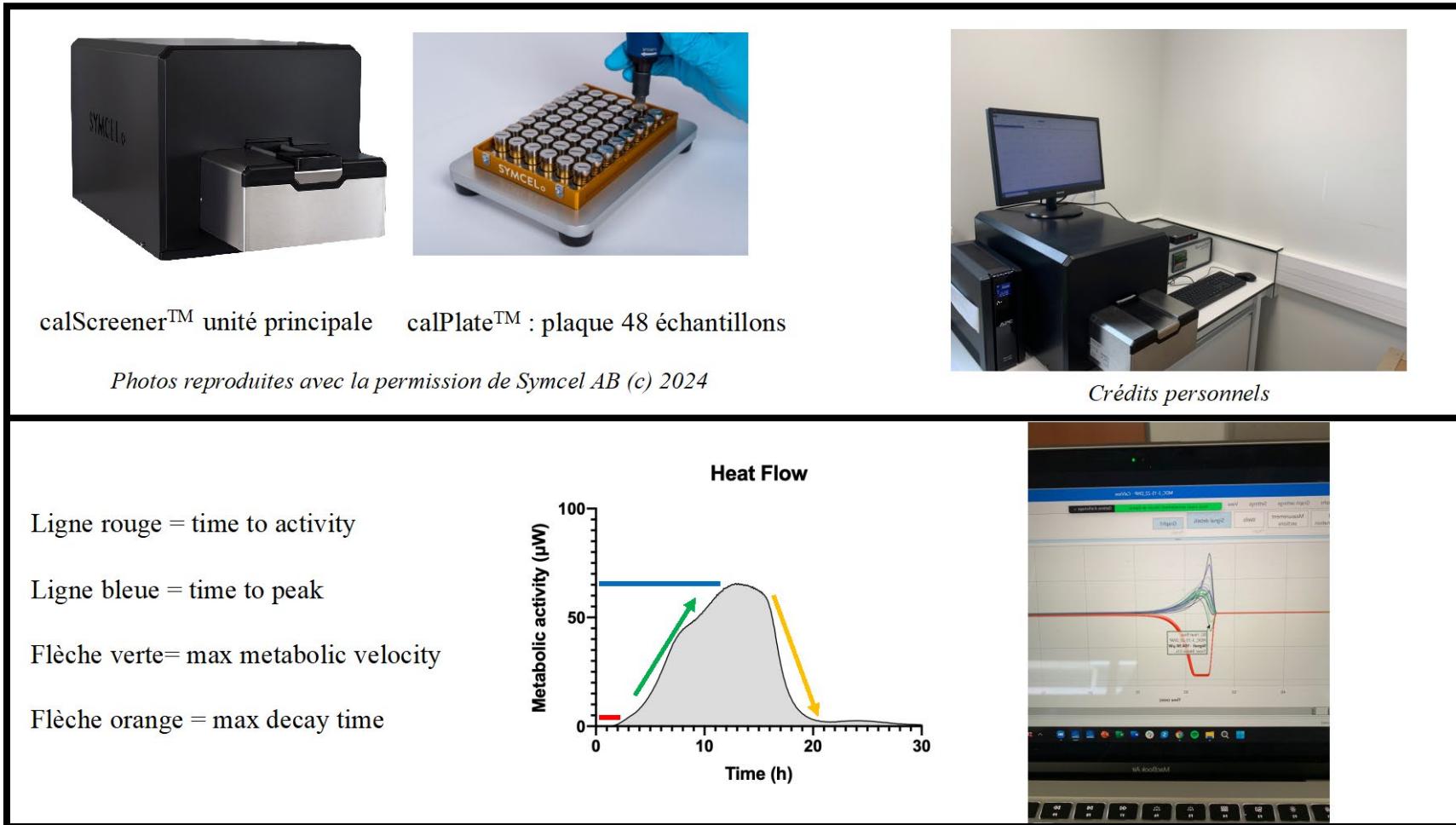
ONGLET 0 – RESUME DU PROJET

0.1 Résumé en français (Texte - max. 2000 caractères)	
Contexte	La candidose intra-abdominale est associée à une mortalité >50% en réanimation. C'est une infection difficile à prédire car son diagnostic repose sur la culture fongique qui peut nécessiter >5j. Du fait d'une surmortalité en cas d'introduction retardée d'antifongique (ATF), ces derniers sont introduits avant l'obtention des résultats de la culture entraînant une surutilisation des ATF (>40%). Cette exposition inutile est associée à une résistance accrue aux ATF. Le 1.3 beta-d-glucan (BDG) est un biomarqueur de candidose mesurable dans le sang et le liquide péritonéal où sa valeur prédictive négative pour écarter une candidose abdominale est >90%. Ainsi, un algorithme basé sur le BDG pourrait être utile pour limiter une surexposition aux ATF.
Objectifs	Principal: évaluer l'efficacité d'un algorithme basé sur les dosages du BDG péritonéal et sanguin pour arrêter précocement un ATF probabiliste, en comparaison à la stratégie standard basée sur les seuls résultats de la culture fongique. Secondaire 1: confirmer la validité des seuils utilisés de BDG péritonéal et sanguin. Secondaire 2: déterminer l'apport de la mesure de BDG péritonéal dans la décision d'interrompre à raison le traitement. Secondaire 3: vérifier l'absence de surmortalité dans le groupe « BDG ».
Méthodes	Étude interventionnelle, prospective, multicentrique, randomisée, contrôlée en ouvert, incluant des patients de réanimation avec une infection intra-abdominale nécessitant une chirurgie en urgence. Tous les patients bénéficient d'un dosage du BDG péritonéal à J0 et du BDG sanguin à J1 et J3. La poursuite des ATF est basée sur les résultats des BDG pour le groupe « BDG » et uniquement sur la culture fongique dans le groupe « standard ». Les dosages du groupe « standard » seront réalisés de manière centralisée à la fin de l'étude. Critère de jugement principal: nombre de jour sous ATF.
Perspectives	Cette étude novatrice permettra d'optimiser l'utilisation des antifongiques chez les patients présentant une infection intra-abdominale grave.

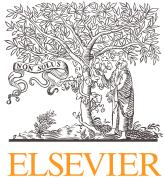
Annexe 5 : Étude ICCA (early Identification of Candida in intra-abdominal Candidiasis)

NCT Number			
NCT05264571			
Study Title			
<p>Early Identification of Candida in Intra-abdominal Candidiasis</p> <p>Intra-abdominal candidiasis remains the first origin of invasive candidiasis in critically ill patients with a mortality up to 60%. This high mortality is partly related to delay of anti-fungal treatment administration. According to experts in the field, new diagnostic methods to rapidly detect Candida in intra-abdominal infections is mandatory because the current strategies suffer from a lack of both sensitivity and specificity.</p> <p>The calscreener (SYMCEL®) is a new diagnostic tool to rapidly identify the presence of pathogens in biological samples based on micrometabolic activity detection. This technology also allows to measure the metabolic activity of pathogens.</p> <p>The ICCA project will test the feasibility, the accuracy and the diagnostic performance of the calscreener on an existing biological collection of peritoneal fluid. This collection came from a cohort of critically ill patients with intra-abdominal infection which required abdominal surgery. Intra-abdominal infections consist of bacterial peritonitis and intra-abdominal candidiasis. The presence of pathogens (bacteria and yeast) is already known, the peritoneal fluid being stored after routine analysis (bacteriology / mycology).</p> <p>In addition to the detection / identification of yeast will be investigated in this project, the cal screener will be used to evaluate the metabolic profile of <i>Candida albicans</i> in the peritoneal fluid, alone and with bacteria. This objective aims to evaluate the virulence of <i>Candida</i> in the peritoneal fluid from a metabolic perspective. The results will be compared to phenotypic and molecular evaluation.</p>			
Conditions	Interventions	Primary Outcome Measures	Secondary Outcome Measures
Candida Sepsis Candidiasis, Invasive Peritonitis Infectious Critically Ill	DIAGNOSTIC TEST: calscreener OTHER: Metabolic profile OTHER: optical microscopy OTHER: RTqPCR	Detection (Yes/No) of the presence of <i>Candida</i> in the peritoneal fluid, Detection by the calscreener : detection of metabolic activity $\geq 5 \mu\text{W}$ (according to SYMCEL recommendation), Day 1 - 3	Delay (in hours) of detection, Delay (in hours) from the start of calscreener analysis to first detection of heat flow $\geq 5 \mu\text{W}$, Day 1 - 3
Study Type			
OBSERVATIONAL			
Other Outcome Measures			
<p>Heat production (Joule), Heat production depending on the peritoneal fluid and the presence or absence of bacteria, Day 1 - 3 <i>Candida</i> morphology, <i>C. albicans</i> SC5314 strain will be inoculated in triplicate into one mL of the different peritoneal fluid, as well as control media (Sabouraud and ascitic fluid) at an optical density (OD) of 0.3 nm, corresponding to approximately 3.10^6 colonies of <i>C. albicans</i> per millilitre (<i>C. albicans</i>/mL) of media. Control wells containing only the media without <i>C. albicans</i> were also included on the same 24-well plate to confirm the absence of contamination.</p> <p>The 24-well plate will be inoculated and incubated at 37°C with shaking at 300 RPM for 24 hours.</p> <p>The morphology of <i>C. albicans</i> (yeast or pseudo-hyphae or hyphae) was observed under a light microscope at hourly intervals for the initial eight hours, followed by observations at H16 and H24., Day 1 <i>Candida</i> growth, <i>C. albicans</i> SC5314 strain will be inoculated in triplicate into one mL of the different peritoneal fluid, as well as control media (Sabouraud and ascitic fluid) at an optical density (OD) of 0.3 nm, corresponding to approximately 3.10^6 colonies of <i>C. albicans</i> per millilitre (<i>C. albicans</i>/mL) of media. Control wells containing only the media without <i>C. albicans</i> were also included on the same 24-well plate to confirm the absence of contamination.</p> <p>The 24-well plate will be inoculated and incubated at 37°C with shaking at 300 RPM for 24 hours.</p> <p><i>C. albicans</i> growth was assessed by inoculating 10 µL from each well onto SBD dextrose agar, and the colonies were counted after 24 hours of incubation at 37°C. To facilitate counting, 1000-fold dilutions of each inoculated well were prepared beforehand., Day 1 <i>Candida</i> virulence gene expression, <i>C. albicans</i> inoculation in the different media followed the same protocol as for phenotypic evaluation, with an overnight culture of 24h before gene expression analysis. The five virulence genes of interest are UME6, ALS3, SFL2, HWP1 and ECE1. After the 24-hour overnight culture, the samples will be centrifuged to retain only the cell pellet. The cell pellet was then washed twice with 10 mL of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Subsequently, the PBS was removed, leaving behind only the cell pellet. RNA extraction will be performed using the FASTPREP® lysis technology. Reverse transcription will be performed using the QuantiTect Reverse Transcription kit from Qiagen® (Germantown, Maryland, United States) following the manufacturer's instructions. The qPCR was performed in MicroAmp Optical 96-Well Reaction Plates (Applied Biosystems) using the CFX96 Real-Time PCR System (Bio-Rad, Marnes-la Coquette, France)., Day 1</p>			

Annexe 6 : L'appareil calScreener™ (SYMCEL®, Solna, Suède)



Annexe 7 : Interest of a metabolic approach using the calScreenerTM technology to detect Candida in the peritoneal fluid: a pilot study



Letter to the editor

Interest of a metabolic approach using the calScreener™ technology to detect *Candida* in the peritoneal fluid: A pilot study

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Candida
Peritoneal fluid
Isothermal microcalorimetry

Intra-abdominal candidiasis is associated with high mortality particularly in critically ill patients where mortality can be as high as 50% [1]. The delay in antifungal prescription is one of the main problems associated with intra-abdominal candidiasis management [2]. This delay is directly linked with the identification of *Candida* spp. in peritoneal samples. However, mycological culture, which is the standard of care for diagnosis, is time-consuming and may require several days to yield results [3]. Alternative techniques, such as serum 1.3-beta-D-glucan or serum polymerase chain reaction assays for *Candida* have shown good negative predictive value, but their specificity has been consistently low [4]. Same results were reported with peritoneal 1.3-beta-D-glucan with a negative predictive value of 100% to rule out the presence of *Candida*, but a positive predictive value of only 23% [5].

In the present study, we used for the first time, a metabolic approach to detect the presence of *Candida* in peritoneal fluid samples. The study was registered with ClinicalTrials.gov (ID number 05264571). All experiments were performed at the laboratory of mycology of the university hospital of Nancy. The metabolic evaluation used the calScreener™ technology from Symcel AB (Sweden) [6,7]. The calScreener™ measures the heatflow from living cells in real time. The device is based on isothermal calorimetry. It can be used on different types of microorganisms and in different types of media, including blood. The calScreener™ provides real-time data over a prolonged time period. Basically, after stabilization of the signal, a lag phase (plateau) occurs before the metabolic activity raises. Then the metabolic activity reaches a peak followed by a decline. Different parameters can be evaluated directly from the curve such as time to activity. Each specific pathogen gives rise to a unique growth pattern in the kinetic data, which allows its identification. Presently, available data pertains to bacteria [8,9], and there is a lack of kinetic data for *Candida*. The technology uses cell growth plates: 48 well micro titer cell culture plates with 32 biological samples and 16 thermodynamic internal reference position. Samples were referral and clinical strains of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata*. Referral strains were ATCC90028 for *C. albicans* and ATCC66032 for *C. glabrata*. Media were Sabouraud(SBD), ascitic(AF), and peritoneal fluid(PF) issued from a biological collection (the pBDG2 study, NCT03997929, which enrolled

patients with suspected or confirmed intra-abdominal infections). All selected samples were pathogen-free using a microbiological analysis (direct examination and culture) to look for the presence of bacteria and fungi, to avoid contamination.

An overnight culture was prepared at 30 °C and shaken at 150 RPM for 24 h at 0.5 Mcfarland in each media corresponding to 1.5×10^6 UFC/mL. Each culture was then diluted 1/100 or 1/1000 in each medium, according to Symcel® recommendations. Then, 200 μL of each media in duplicates were transferred to sterile plastic inserts designed to fit in titanium measurement vials (calWell; Symcel®). The calWells serving as thermodynamic references were loaded with 200 μL of each media. Real-time measurement of the heat produced from each calWell was carried out at 37 ± 0.001 °C in the calScreener™ for 48 h. The presence of an active pathogen is associated with a metabolic activity >5 microW, according to the manufacturer. The remaining samples in the microtitre plate were incubated at 37 °C for 24 h.

Considering the exploratory and observational nature of this study, the number of samples required was not calculated. We only computed descriptive statistics using GraphPad Prism version 9. The study was conducted between February and July 2022.

First, the feasibility and repeatability of metabolic measurements in the different media were tested. The referral strains ($n = 12$, in duplicates) were used to set-up the calScreener™, to test different dilutions and to obtain the typical shape of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* (Fig. 1A). The aspect of the shape was consistent between duplicates and metabolic activity was detectable with a dilution of 1/100 in Sabouraud, in 3.93 h for *C. albicans* and 2.94 h for *C. glabrata* and, in ascitic fluid in 3.07 h for *C. albicans* and 4.73 h for *C. glabrata*. In both experiments using the 1/10 dilution, we didn't observe a lag phase before the metabolic activity raises. This was explained by the high inoculum [7]. If the detection of *Candida* wasn't impacted, the absence of slope from zero (baseline) didn't allow to obtain interesting parameters such as time to activity. Therefore, the dilution of 1/10 was abandoned for the next experiments and the dilution of 1/100 was used for *C. albicans* and 1/1000 for *C. glabrata*, accordingly. Besides, the total heat was different between the two media with dilution of 1/100 for *C. albicans* (total heat 2.38 J vs 0.26 J, $p < 0.0001$) and for *C. glabrata* (total heat 2.68 vs 0.13 J, $p < 0.0001$), the Sabouraud media allowed more heat production.

Secondly, we evaluated clinical strains of *C. albicans* 1/100 ($n = 8$, in duplicates) and *C. glabrata* 1/1000 ($n = 8$, in duplicates) with two different peritoneal fluids. Fig. 1B depicts the heat flow in two different PF. The aspect of the shape was still consistent between duplicates. However, time to activity and total heat flow was different between species and PF. Total heat for *C. albicans* was 0.38 J in PF1 compared to 0.63 J in the PF2 ($p = 0.0339$) and was 1.67 J in PF1 compared to 0.47 J in the PF2 for *C. glabrata* ($p < 0.0001$). The metabolic

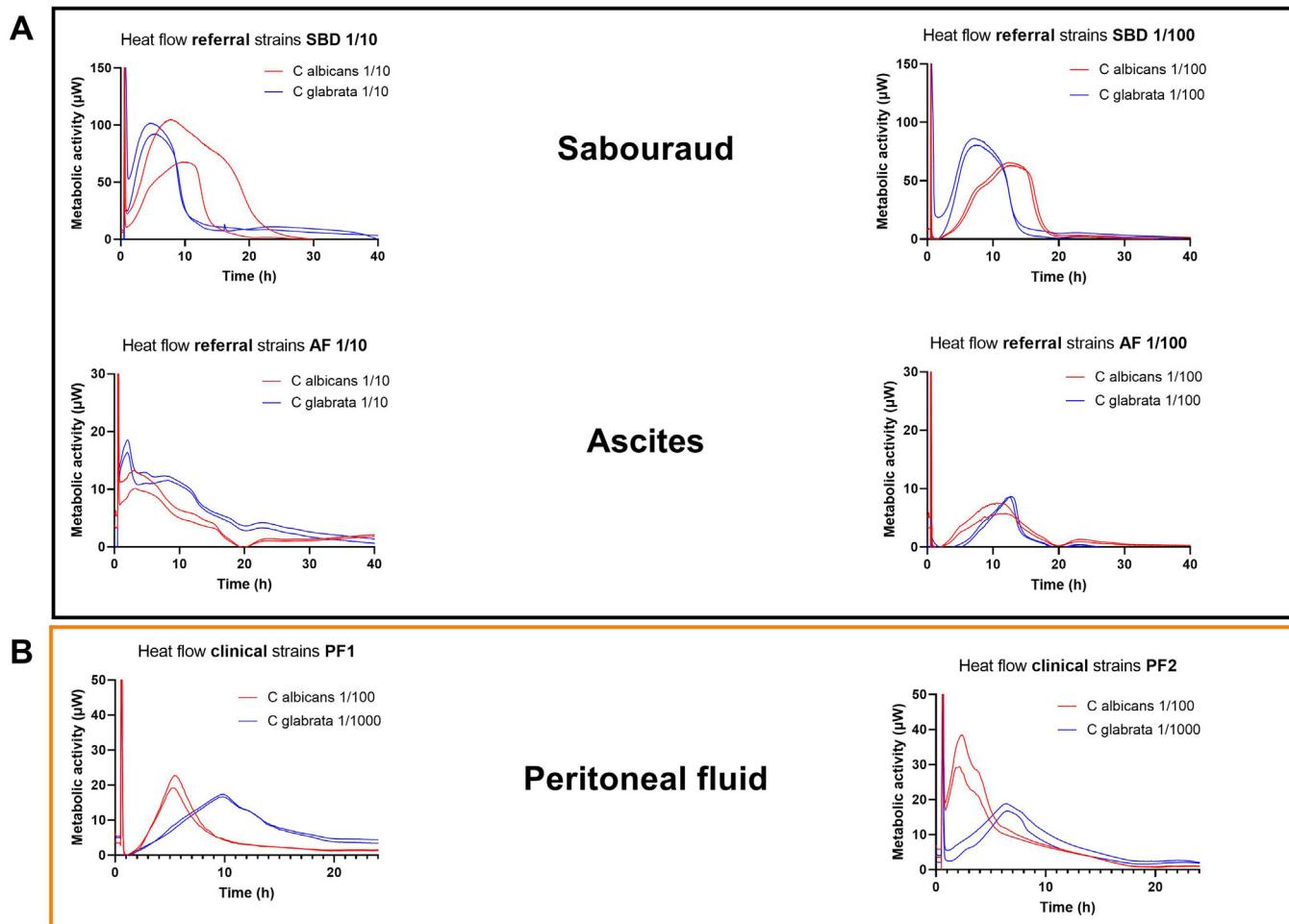


Fig. 1. Metabolic activity of *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* in different media.
SBD: Sabouraud media; AF: ascitic fluid; PF: peritoneal fluid; CA: *Candida albicans*; CG: *Candida glabrata*.

activity of both species was detectable in 2.16 h for *C. albicans* and 2.4 h for *C. glabrata* in PF1, and 1.16 h for *C. albicans* and 2 h for *C. glabrata* in PF2. The aspect of the shape was still consistent between duplicates and time to metabolic activity of *C. albicans* was systematically shorter. These results pointed toward the high sensibility of the calScreener™ to identify different species of *Candida* in different media and to detect different metabolic activity depending on the species, the strains, and the media.

Then, bacteria species were added in human PF samples to reproduce polymicrobial infections. Clinical strains ($n = 16$) of *C. albicans* and *glabrata* were used with clinical strains of *Escherichia coli*, and *Staphylococcus aureus* in PF2, then *Enterobacter cloacae* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in PF3. Experiments were conducted in both SBD and PF, each bacteria and yeast alone to obtain their own shape, and then combined. Only the PF results were described here (Fig. 2). The calScreener™ only provides one metabolic curve per analysis. Therefore, the obtained curve results from a merging of metabolic activity produced by each pathogen present in the sample. Interestingly, in PF3 (Fig. 2B), in the combined yeast/bacteria experiment, we noted two different observations: for *C. albicans* combinations, the shape of the curve looked like the shape of the yeast, but for *C. glabrata* the shape was similar to the bacteria's shape. According to data from bacterial infections, the shape of the curve could reflect a higher growth and/or activity of one of the two pathogens. Nevertheless, the combination of metabolic profiles and activities may obviously challenge the identification of pathogens in polymicrobial infection. Indeed, to

identify which pathogens are present, a huge bank of metabolic shapes with various pathogens and combinations are mandatory.

Lastly, we tested three actual samples from critically ill patients with intra-abdominal candidiasis in duplicate (data not shown) without bacterial coinfection. A metabolic signal was detected at 18 h and was very weak ($< 2 \mu\text{W}$). Thus, it did not allow any analysis nor pathogen identification. The low inoculum attested by the time to detection of the conventional culture (> 4 days) of these three samples probably explained this result.

This is the first study to evaluate the interest of a metabolic approach to optimize the detection of fungal pathogen in human peritoneal samples. The technology calScreener™ was able to detect very quickly the presence of the yeast in human peritoneal fluid samples. The technology was feasible, repeatable, and very sensitive to various changes (inoculum, media, pathogens). Besides, once calibrated, the technology was not time-consuming, and results were available in real time. Obviously, this approach looks promising, but several issues must be resolved before translated it in the clinical practice:

- to identify the shape of the metabolic curve for each *Candida* spp, with and without combination of other yeast and bacteria,
- to test very low inoculum: herein, we used a control amount of yeast and could test inoculum ranging from 1.6×10^3 to 1.6×10^6 UFC/mL which is quite high, especially in the peritoneal fluid. For actual sample, one solution could be to add yeast

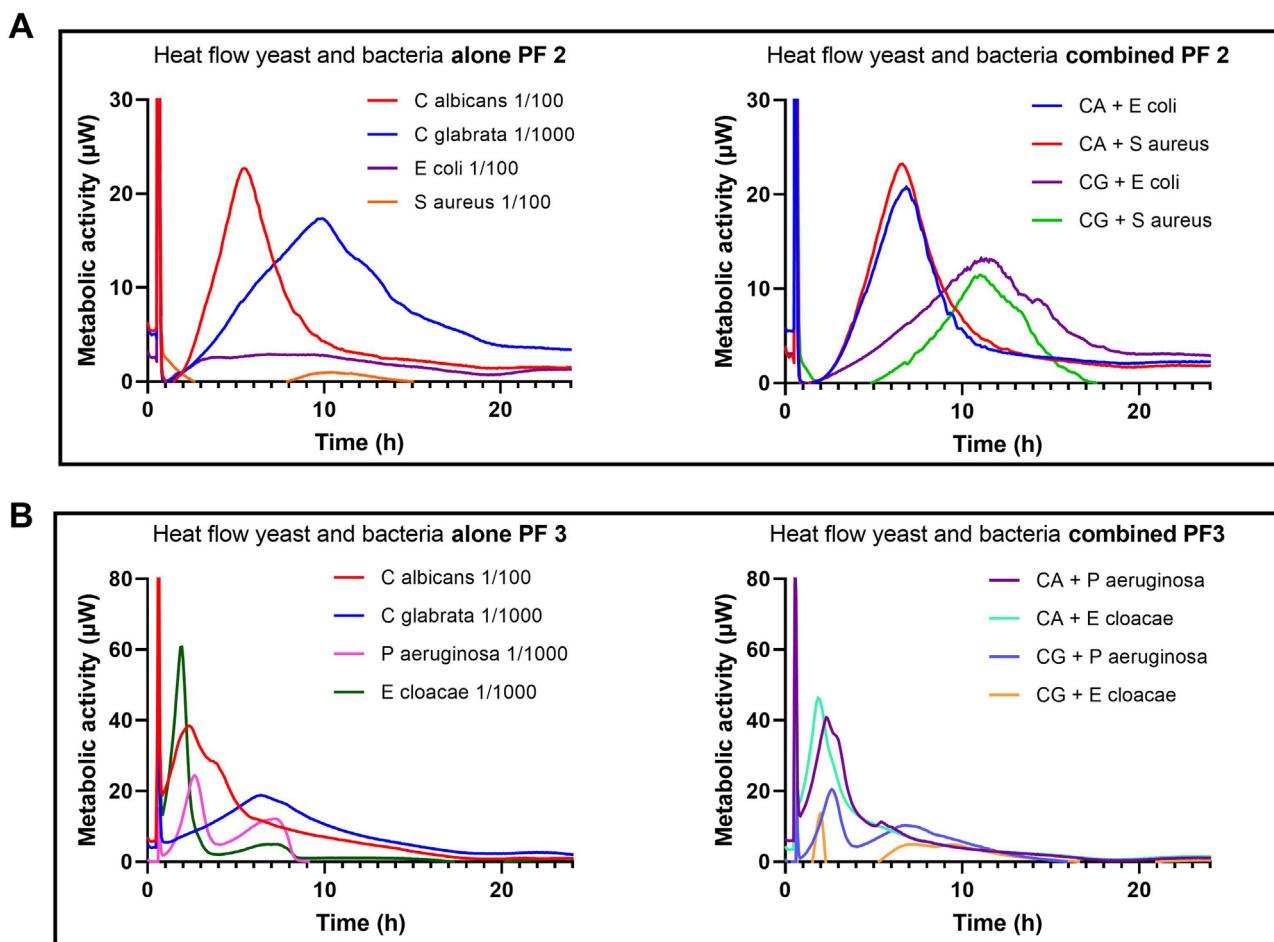


Fig. 2. Metabolic activity of clinical strains yeasts with and without bacteria - 2 different peritoneal fluids.
SBD: Sabouraud media; AF: ascitic fluid; PF: peritoneal fluid; CA: *Candida albicans*; CG: *Candida glabrata*.

nutrients (i.e., YPD) in the wells to promote *Candida* growth, and thereby enhancing the metabolic signal.

- to search for an alternative control for human samples: indeed, to compare the metabolic signals between samples, the technology needs control samples with the same media but without any pathogen inside. We were able to control that point in this pilot study, because we used pathogen-free peritoneal samples, which were then incubated with pathogens. This would be challenging in the clinical setting.

In conclusion, the identification of *Candida* in case of high inoculum in the PF was relatively faster (<3 h) with calScreener™ when compared with currently available tools. Of note, conventional culture performed in parallel are still mandatory to obtain the antifungal susceptibility testing. However, considering the number of wells available (32) we can run several samples simultaneously and add in some wells several antifungals with different concentrations to determine MICs. The feasibility of the determination of the MIC and susceptibility to antibiotic with the calScreener™ has already been demonstrated with bacteria [9].

This study emphasizes that with set-up optimization, the calScreener™ can become an alternative detection method for *Candida* detection in peritoneal sample.

Funding

The university hospital of Nancy paid the rental cost of the calScreener™ for a 6-month period.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Emmanuel Novy: Investigation, Data curation, Writing – original draft. **Marie Collot:** Investigation, Data curation. **Paul Chevallier:** Data curation. **Lisiane Cunat:** Data curation. **Marie Machouart:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank Ganna Oliynyk from Symcel Sverige AB (Solna, Sweden) for her technical support during the calScreener™ installation and help for set-up and analysis.

The authors thank Julie Lecomte-Lehmann from the “direction de la recherche et de l’innovation” of the university hospital of Nancy for her administrative support.

References

- [1] Vincent J-L, Sakr Y, Singer M, Martin-Loches I, Machado FR, et al. Prevalence and Outcomes of Infection Among Patients in Intensive Care Units in 2017. *JAMA* 2020;323:1478–87.

- [2] Peçanha-Pietrobom PM, Colombo AL. Mind the gaps: challenges in the clinical management of invasive candidiasis in critically ill patients. *Curr Opin Infect Dis* 2020;33:441–8.
- [3] Alves J, Alonso-Tarrés C, Rello J. How to Identify Invasive Candidemia in ICU-A Narrative Review. *Antibiotics (Basel)* 2022;11:1804.
- [4] Giacobbe DR, Asperges E, Cortegiani A, Greccchi C, Rebuffi C, et al. Performance of existing clinical scores and laboratory tests for the diagnosis of invasive candidiasis in critically ill, nonneutropenic, adult patients: a systematic review with qualitative evidence synthesis. *Mycoses* 2022;65:1073–111.
- [5] Nourry É, Wallet F, Darien M, Menotti J, Dupont D, et al. Use of 1,3-beta-D-glucan concentration in peritoneal fluid for the diagnosis of intra-abdominal candidiasis in critically ill patients. *Med. Mycol.* 2023;61:myad029.
- [6] Wadsö I, Hallén D, Jansson M, Suurküusk J, Wenzler T, et al. A well-plate format isothermal multi-channel microcalorimeter for monitoring the activity of living cells and tissues. *Thermochim Acta* 2017;652:141–9.
- [7] Beilharz K, Kragh KN, Fritz B, Kirkegaard JB, Tolker-Nielsen T, et al. Protocol to assess metabolic activity of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* by measuring heat flow using isothermal calorimetry. *STAR Protoc* 2023;4:102269.
- [8] Braissand O, Keiser J, Meister I, Bachmann A, Wirz D, et al. Isothermal microcalorimetry accurately detects bacteria, tumorous microtissues, and parasitic worms in a label-free well-plate assay. *Biotechnol J* 2015;10:460–8.
- [9] Tellapragada C, Hasan B, Antonelli A, Maruri A, de Vogel C, et al. Isothermal microcalorimetry minimal inhibitory concentration testing in extensively drug resistant Gram-negative bacilli: a multicentre study. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2020;26:1413.e1–.

Emmanuel Novy*
Marie Collot

Paul Chevallier
Lisiane Cunat
Marie Machouart
*Department of anaesthesiology, critical care and peri-operative medicine,
University Hospital of Nancy, F-54500, Vandoeuvre-Les-Nancy, France
UR 7300, SIMPA, Université de Lorraine, F-54000, Nancy, France
Laboratory of mycology and parasitology, University Hospital of Nancy,
F-54500, Vandoeuvre-Les-Nancy France*

*Corresponding author at: Department of anaesthesiology, critical care and peri-operative medicine, University Hospital of Nancy. UR 7300
SIMPA, Université de Lorraine.
E-mail addresses: e.novy@chru-nancy.fr, emmanuel.novy@univ-lorraine.fr (E. Novy), m.collot@chru-nancy.fr (M. Collot), p.chevallier@chru-nancy.fr (P. Chevallier), lisiane.cunat@univ-lorraine.fr, m. fr (L. Cunat), marie-claire.machouart@univ-lorraine.fr, m. machouart@chru-nancy.fr (M. Machouart).

Received 3 April 2023

Revised 17 July 2023

Accepted 28 July 2023

Available online 1 August 2023

Annexe 8 : Population pharmacokinetics of fluconazole in critically ill patients receiving extracorporeal membrane oxygenation and continuous renal replacement therapy: an ASAP ECMO study

Antimicrobial Chemotherapy | Full-Length Text

Population pharmacokinetics of fluconazole in critically ill patients receiving extracorporeal membrane oxygenation and continuous renal replacement therapy: an ASAP ECMO study

Emmanuel Novy,^{1,2,3} Mohd H. Abdul-Aziz,¹ Vesa Cheng,¹ Fay Burrows,⁴ Hergen Buscher,^{5,6} Amanda Corley,⁷ Arne Diehl,⁸ Eileen Gilder,⁹ Bianca J. Levkovich,¹⁰ Shay McGuinness,⁹ Jenny Ordonez,¹ Rachael Parke,^{9,11} Suzanne Parker,¹ Vincent Pellegrino,⁸ Claire Reynolds,⁵ Sam Rudham,⁵ Steven C. Wallis,¹ Susan A. Welch,⁴ John F. Fraser,^{7,12,13,14} Kiran Shekar,^{7,13,14} Jason A. Roberts^{1,15,16}

AUTHOR AFFILIATIONS See affiliation list on p. 11.

ABSTRACT This multicenter study describes the population pharmacokinetics (PK) of fluconazole in critically ill patients receiving concomitant extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO) and continuous renal replacement therapy (CRRT) and includes an evaluation of different fluconazole dosing regimens for achievement of target exposure associated with maximal efficacy. Serial blood samples were obtained from critically ill patients on ECMO and CRRT receiving fluconazole. Total fluconazole concentrations were measured in plasma using a validated chromatographic assay. A population PK model was developed and Monte Carlo dosing simulations were performed using Pmetrics in R. The probability of target attainment (PTA) of various dosing regimens to achieve fluconazole area under the curve to minimal inhibitory concentration ratio (AUC_{0-24}/MIC) >100 was estimated. Eight critically ill patients receiving concomitant ECMO and CRRT were included. A two-compartment model including total body weight as a covariate on clearance adequately described the data. The mean (\pm standard deviation, SD) clearance and volume of distribution were 2.87 ± 0.63 L/h and 15.90 ± 13.29 L, respectively. Dosing simulations showed that current guidelines (initial loading dose of 12 mg/kg then 6 mg/kg q24h) achieved >90% of PTA for a MIC up to 1 mg/L. None of the tested dosing regimens achieved 90% of PTA for MIC above 2 mg/L. Current fluconazole dosing regimen guidelines achieved >90% PTA only for *Candida* species with MIC <1 mg/L and thus should be only used for *Candida*-documented infections in critically ill patients receiving concomitant ECMO and CRRT. Total body weight should be considered for fluconazole dose.

KEYWORDS extracorporeal membrane oxygenation, continuous renal replacement therapy, pharmacokinetics, fluconazole, critically ill patients

Critically ill patients often manifest extreme inter- and intraindividual pharmacokinetic (PK) variability (1). The use of extracorporeal support devices, namely continuous renal replacement therapy (CRRT) and extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO), may exacerbate this PK variability (2). Both devices are frequently used concomitantly in critically ill patients (3) and have different consequences on drug PK depending on drugs' physicochemical properties. Drugs that are hydrophilic, have low protein-binding properties, and possess small molecular weights are likely to be significantly dialyzed during CRRT (4). However, ECMO, because of the large volume of fluids (crystalloid, albumin, or exogenous blood) required to prime the ECMO circuit and the circuit's sequestration propensity, can also affect the volume of distribution and clearance of hydrophilic drugs (5, 6). Therefore, concomitant use of ECMO and CRRT is thought to lead to unpredictable drug concentrations exposing patients to under- or

Editor James E. Leggett, Providence Portland Medical Center, Portland, Oregon, USA

Address correspondence to Mohd H. Abdul-Aziz, h.abdulaziz@uq.edu.au.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

See the funding table on p. 12.

Received 20 September 2023

Accepted 7 November 2023

Published 8 December 2023

Copyright © 2023 American Society for Microbiology. All Rights Reserved.

overdosage of hydrophilic drugs which in the case of antifungals could lead to treatment failure, antifungal resistance, or drug toxicity (2).

During the last decade, both venoarterial (7) and venovenous ECMO (8) have been increasingly used in critically ill patients to support refractory cardiovascular and/or respiratory failure. The clinical course of ECMO patients is commonly complicated by nosocomial infections, particularly fungal infections (9–11). During the recent coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic, the use of ECMO was associated with a higher incidence of candidemia in critically ill patients (12). Candida infections, especially candidemia, were associated with increased mortality in patients receiving ECMO (13). Among the *Candida* spp., *Candida albicans* was the most encountered in ECMO patients with fungal infections (14).

Fluconazole is the first-line antifungal agent for the prophylaxis and treatment of *Candida albicans* infections (15, 16). Fluconazole exhibits concentration- and time-dependent antifungal activity with a prolonged post-antifungal effect, and the ratio of the area under the concentration-time curve during a 24-hour period to minimum inhibitory concentration (AUC_{0-24}/MIC) of >100 has been correlated with maximal clinical efficacy (17). Fluconazole is a hydrophilic (LogP of 0.5) drug with a low plasma protein binding property (12%) and possesses a low molecular weight (306.2 Da) (18). It is predominantly cleared by renal elimination, *via* both glomerular filtration and active tubular secretion (19). In critically ill adult patients receiving CRRT, the clearance of fluconazole is reported to increase relative to patients without renal dysfunction and therefore, higher dosing regimens are advocated to achieve exposures associated with maximal activity (20).

To date, except for one case report by Dhanani et al. (21), there is no study describing the PK of fluconazole in critically ill adult patients receiving ECMO. Therefore, there are no robust data to guide effective dosing in this specific population (5). The Antibiotic and Analgesic Pharmacokinetics during Extracorporeal Membrane Oxygenation (ASAP ECMO) study (22) was designed to describe the PK of commonly used drugs in critically ill adult patients receiving ECMO. The objective of the current analysis is to describe the population PK of fluconazole in critically ill adult patients receiving concomitant ECMO and CRRT and to identify dosing strategies that provide maximal exposures for clinical efficacy.

RESULTS

Population characteristics

In all, 10 patients were enrolled, two of whom did not receive CRRT and were excluded from the analysis. The final population included eight patients who contributed 67 plasma samples collected over one dosing interval. Table 1 summarizes the baseline demographic and clinical characteristics of the study population. The median (interquartile range; IQR) age was 43 years (41–49) and patients were predominantly male ($n = 6/8$; 75%). The median (IQR) total body weight was 95 kg (75–103). CVVHDF was the most common CRRT modality used in this study population ($n = 6/8$; 75%). Most patients ($n = 5/8$; 65%) received a dosing regimen of 800 mg as an initial loading dose on Day 1, followed by 400 mg q24h. The median (IQR) minimum (trough) drug concentration (C_{\min}) was 6.8 (5.7–7.9) mg/L and the maximum drug concentration (C_{\max}) was 16.6 (12.1–19.9) mg/L.

PK model building

The final population PK model that adequately described the plasma concentration-time data was a two-compartment model with total body weight as a covariate on CL (normalized to the median total body weight of 95 kg). Neither ECMO-related nor CRRT-related variables significantly improved the PK model. The following equation is the mathematical calculation used to generate the individual TBW-scaled CL:

$$CL_{tbw} = CLx\left(\frac{tbw}{95}\right)^{0.75}$$

Table 2 presents the PK parameter estimates of the final population PK model. Figure 1 shows the diagnostic plots for the final model for total fluconazole serum concentrations. The model produced acceptable fits in the diagnostic plots (Fig. 2).

TABLE 1 Baseline characteristics, clinical information of the studied population, and relevant ECMO and RRT data^a

Demographic and ECMO data	Result ^a (n = 8)
Male	6 (75)
Age (years)	43 [41-49]
Total body weight (kg) at admission	95 [75-102]
Ideal body weight (kg)	73 [69-81]
Adjusted body weight (kg)	90 [72-94]
Lean body weight (kg)	65 [59-73]
Body mass index (kg/m ²)	27.2 [23.4-31.6]
Body surface area (m ²)	2.1 [1.9-2.3]
Indication for ECMO:	
Cardiogenic shock	2 (25)
Heart transplantation	2 (25)
Lung transplantation	2 (25)
Cardiomyopathy	1 (12.5)
Pneumonia	1 (12.5)
Type of ECMO:	
VA ECMO	4 (50)
VV ECMO	3 (38)
VA and VV ECMO	1 (12)
ECMO Flow (L/min)	3.5 [2.7-3.7]
Days under ECMO before sampling	9 [6-12]
ECMO pump:	
Josta RotaFlow	5 (62)
Cardiohelp	3 (38)
ECMO oxygenator:	
Maquet Quadrox	8 (100)
Illness severity score:	
APACHE II score (on admission)	18 [13-22]
SOFA score (on sampling day)	8 [7-16]
CRRT mode:	
CVVH	1 (12.5)
CVVHD	1 (12.5)
CVVHDF	5 (75)
Effluent rate (mL/kg/h) (n = 7)	37.6 [35.5-39.6]
Blood flow rate (mL/min) (n = 7)	200 [200-250]
Urea (mmol/L)	11.7 [10.5-16.0]
Albumin (g/L)	29 [20-33]
Bilirubin (mmol/L)	15 [13-21]
No. of patients by dosing regimen administered:	
800 mg (8–10 mg/kg) ^b Day 1 then 400 mg (4–5 mg/kg) ^b q24h	5 (62)
400 mg (6 mg/kg) ^b Day 1 then 400 mg (6 mg/kg) ^b q24h	2 (25)
100 mg (1 mg/kg) ^b Day 1 then 100 mg (6 mg/kg) ^b q24h	1 (13)

^aData displayed in median [IQR, interquartile range] or n (%), as appropriate.

^bBased on total body weight. The non-fixed dose (mg) reports the intended dose as it was prescribed, and the weight-based dose (mg/kg) reports the actual dose.

^cVA, venous arterial ECMO; VV, venovenous ECMO; APACHE II, Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation II; CRRT, continuous renal replacement therapy; CVVH, continuous venovenous hemofiltration; CVVHD, continuous venovenous hemodialysis; CVVHDF continuous venovenous hemodiafiltration; SOFA, Sequential Organ Failure Assessment.

TABLE 2 Pharmacokinetic parameter estimates for the final fluconazole pharmacokinetic model^a

Parameter	Mean	SD	CV%	Median	95% CI	Shrinkage (%)
CL (L/h)	2.87	0.63	21.84	2.6	2.38–3.46	0.12
Vc (L)	15.90	13.29	83.55	10.38	3.74–34.05	0.00
Q (L/h)	84.73	48.60	57.36	103.77	32.29–147.77	0.25
Vp (L)	36.06	13.93	38.63	38.59	22.38–49.80	0.01

^a95% CI, 95% bootstrapped confidence interval; CL, fluconazole clearance; Vc, volume of distribution of the central compartment; Vp, volume of distribution of the peripheral compartment; Q, intercompartmental clearance.

Dosing simulations

Figure 3 and 4 show the PTAs for $AUC_{0-24}/MIC > 100$ at Days 1 and 7 of various fluconazole dosing regimens across a range of MICs and various total body weights. All dosing regimens achieved 100% of PTA against *Candida* spp. with an MIC ≤ 1 mg/L. For an MIC of up to 2 mg/L, only dosing regimens including a loading dose of 18 mg/kg achieved $>90\%$ of PTA regardless of the TBW. On Day 7, only increasing the maintenance dose to 12 mg/kg q24h or reducing the dosing interval to q12h achieved $>90\%$ of PTA for an MIC up to 2 mg/L. None of the tested dosing regimens achieved efficacious PTA for MIC > 2 mg/L.

The FTAs of all simulated fluconazole dosing regimens over three different TBW and at Days 1 and 7 were $\geq 96\%$ against the empirical MIC distribution of *C. albicans* and 100% against the directed MIC distribution (Table 3).

DISCUSSION

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first paper to describe the population PK of fluconazole in critically ill adult patients receiving concomitant ECMO and CRRT. This study found that the currently recommended fluconazole dosing regimen of 12 mg/kg as an initial loading dose followed by 6 mg/kg q24h provided a high probability of efficacy only against *Candida* spp. with an MIC ≤ 1 mg/L. In *Candida* spp. which exhibits MICs of up to 2 mg/L, the use of a higher loading dose of 18 mg/kg and/or higher maintenance dose (12 mg/kg) and/or more frequent daily dosing (6 mg/kg q12h) should be recommended. We also found that total body weight (TBW) should be considered and used for weight-based dosing of fluconazole. It must be highlighted that, when using TBW for the loading dose calculation, the obese patients with a TBW greater than 100 kg, a 1,800 to 2,000 mg dose of fluconazole may be required. Very few data existed regarding fluconazole toxicity (23). Based on a small cohort of 28 patients, minor toxicity

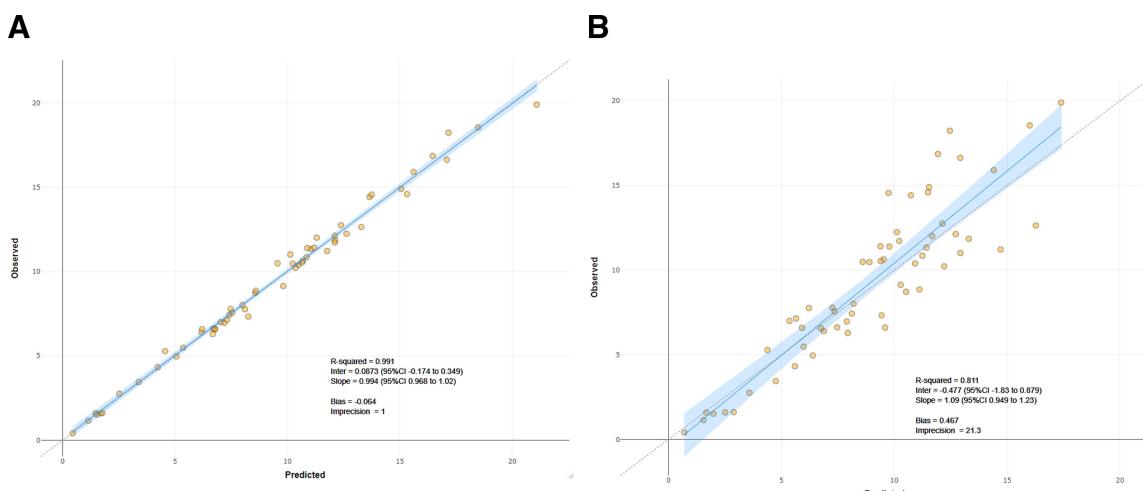


FIG 1 Diagnostic plots for the final model for total fluconazole serum concentrations. Data are presented in mg/L. (A) Observed versus individual predicted plots. (B) Population versus individual predicted plots

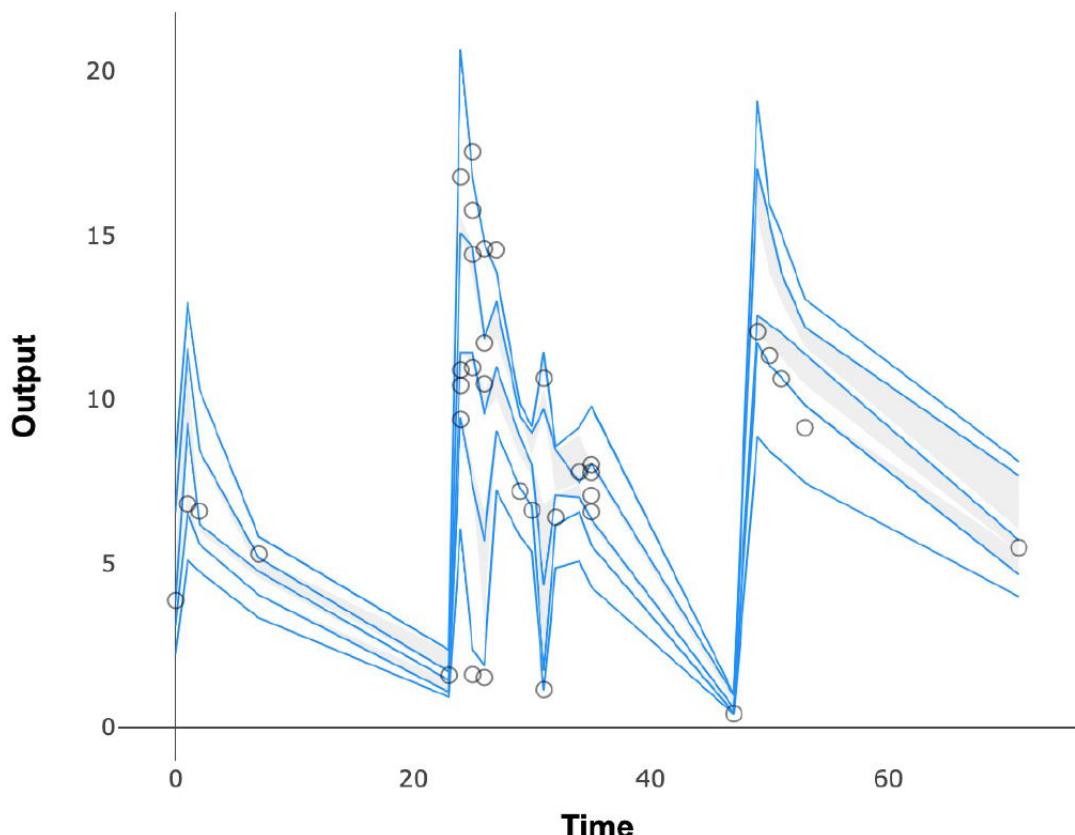


FIG 2 Visual predictive check of the final population PK model for total serum fluconazole concentrations.

(e.g., elevated liver function test results or confusion occurrence) has been reported in cases of doses greater than 2,000 mg (24). However, our simulation suggested only one initial high loading dose is required, at antifungal introduction. Thus, the likelihood of toxicity would be relatively low.

In the current study population where all patients were receiving both ECMO and CRRT, the PK of fluconazole was best described using a two-compartment model with TBW included as a covariate on CL. The central volume of distribution of fluconazole in this study was 15.90 L and the CL was 2.87 L/h. The CL was consistent with previously published data (20, 25), while the central volume of distribution was lower than the estimate reported in a previous study (15.90 vs 46.3 L (26)). It must be emphasized that the data regarding PK of fluconazole in patients receiving ECMO are scarce and come mostly from pediatric populations (27, 28). One study has been performed in 30 critically ill adult patients of which five were receiving ECMO and six CRRT (26). However, these PK studies used a one-compartment model which precludes compara-

TABLE 3 Empirical and directed FTA for evaluated dosing regimens against *C. albicans*^{a,b}

	Empirical				Directed		
	TBW 75 kg		TBW 95 kg		TBW 102 kg		All TBW
	Day 1	Day 7	Day 1	Day 7	Day 1	Day 7	Days 1 and 7
LD 12 mg/kg then 6 mg/kg q24h	96.54	96.35	96.69	96.44	96.73	96.45	100.0
LD 18 mg/kg then 6 mg/kg q24h	96.94	96.35	97.20	96.44	97.25	96.45	100.0
LD 18 mg/kg then 12 mg/kg q24h	96.94	97.09	97.20	97.21	97.25	97.24	100.0
LD 12 mg/kg then 6 mg/kg q12h	96.54	97.15	96.72	97.29	96.79	97.30	100.0

^aLD: loading dose; TBW: total body weight.

^bThe fractional target attainment using intermittent administration for various fluconazole doses based on the MIC (EUCAST, accessed 30 October 2023) for *Candida albicans*. The FTA assessed whether simulated patients maintained fluconazole serum concentrations above the MIC at Day 1 and Day 7.

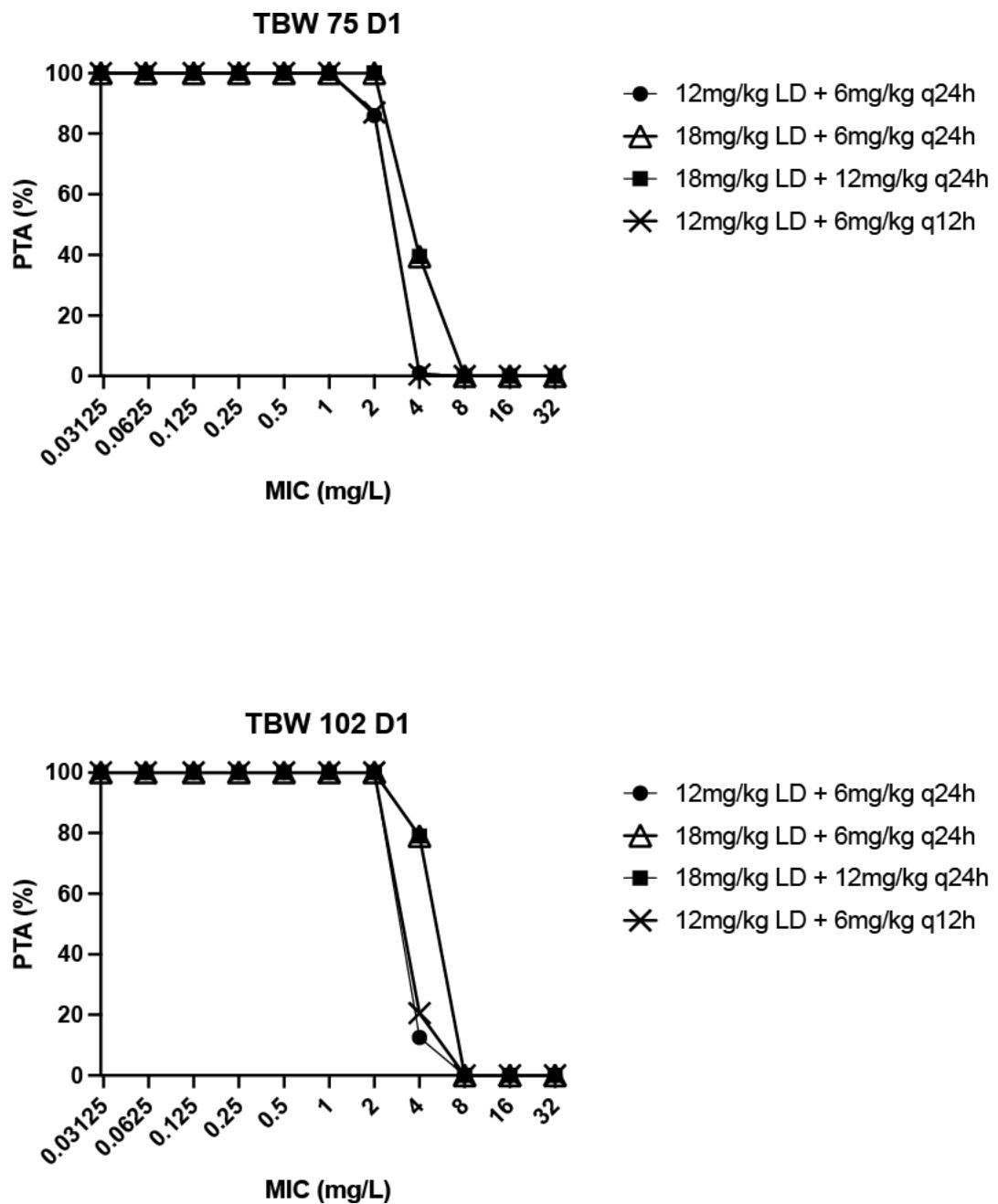


FIG 3 Monte Carlo simulations ($n = 1,000$) and probability of target attainment for achieving total serum fluconazole concentrations at target $AUC_{0-24}/MIC > 100$ at Day 1 for various dosing regimens according to the total body weight (TBW >75 kg and TBW >102 kg).

bility to our results. Lastly, one case report involving a critically ill patient receiving fluconazole while on ECMO and CRRT was published in 2021 (21). In this paper, the authors reported a higher volume of distribution (0.98 L/kg, ~40% higher) compared to patients not receiving ECMO. The PK differences between the current and previous studies can be potentially explained by the population that was included. All patients in this study were receiving both ECMO and CRRT. Seventy-five percent of the study cohort received the same CRRT modality (i.e., CVVHDF) and the CL was in accordance with previously published data (20). The difference in the central volume of distribution could be explained by two mechanisms. First, the specificity of the included cohort. Indeed, the most frequent indication for ECMO was cardiovascular insufficiency in different

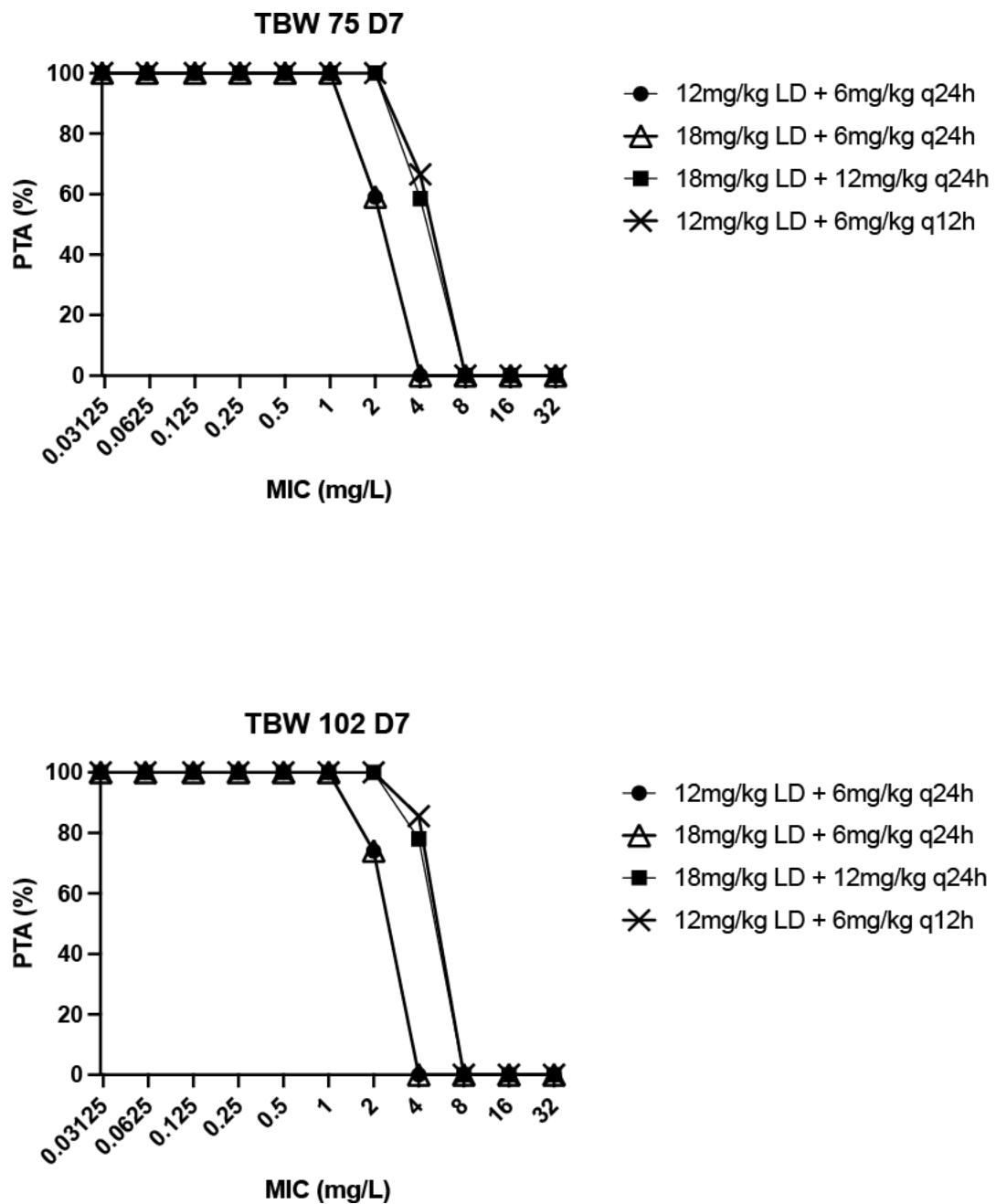


FIG 4 Monte Carlo simulations ($n = 1,000$) and probability of target attainment for achieving total serum fluconazole concentrations at target $AUC_{0-24}/MIC > 100$ at Day 7 for various dosing regimens according to the total body weight (TBW >75 kg and TBW >102 kg).

contexts with no septic shock, which could explain the lower volume of distribution in our study. Indeed, cardiovascular insufficiency is associated with less capillary leakage or restrictive vascular filling compared to septic shock (29). Second, the change in central volume of distribution because of ECMO is more likely to occur on the introduction of ECMO because of hemodilution from priming solution and ECMO-related physiological changes such as systemic inflammatory response syndrome (30). However, in our study, the median number of days under ECMO before sampling was 9 days (IQR 6–12), which was later than the early resuscitation phase.

During the pharmacokinetic model-building process, lean body weight and total body weight on CL improved the model. We decided to keep TBW as a covariate on CL

because it provided more accurate goodness-of-fit plots, bias, and imprecision parameters, and the difference between models including LBW and TBW were not significantly different (please refer to supplementary materials). Moreover, TBW was already identified as a significant covariate. Indeed, a previous population PK study of fluconazole in critically ill obese patients not receiving RRT demonstrated that the loading dose should be calculated based on total body weight (i.e., 12 mg/kg) while the maintenance dose should be based on renal clearance (31). Lastly, when performing PTA with both models, the results were relatively better with TBW than LBW incorporation. As current guidelines recommend weight-based dosing for fluconazole (15, 32) and TBW is easier used during routine clinical practice, we kept TBW instead of LBW.

One of the study's originalities was that we have combined two extracorporeal modalities (CRRT and ECMO) that could both influence the PK of fluconazole, at different degrees, at least in theory. Of note, it is likely that the PK of fluconazole would be significantly influenced by the CRRT than the ECMO by itself (18). When constructing the PK model, ECMO-related variables (e.g., ECMO types, flow rates, days under ECMO) were not identified as significant predictors of the primary PK parameters. Conversely, when looking at CRRT-related variables, the effluent rate and RRT mode were correlated with CL, with an R^2 of 0.33 and 0.42, respectively. However, when we added these covariates to the structural model, the model did not significantly improve statistically. This could be explained potentially by the small sample size and limited RRT data. The use of CRRT has been shown to influence fluconazole PK in the literature (4, 25, 26, 33, 34). According to Li et al., CRRT modalities and effluent flow rates should be considered during fluconazole dosing adjustment and a higher dose and/or shorter dosing interval must be used, especially when hemodialysis is used (4). The recent study by Roberts et al. highlighted that combining convection and diffusion (i.e., CVVHDF) resulted in greater drug CL than by convection or diffusion alone (35). Therefore, they recommended a loading dose of 12 mg/kg followed by 6 mg/kg q12h as a maintenance dose in patients receiving CVVHDF. In our study population, the CVVHDF modality was most frequently used. Our dosing simulations showed that 6 mg/kg q12h was one of two dosing regimens able to demonstrate 100% target attainment at Day 7 up to a MIC of 2 mg/L. Therefore, our results are currently inline with recent data concerning the fluconazole dosing regimen during RRT (26, 36).

The current fluconazole dosing guideline for critically ill patients recommends a loading dose of 12 mg/kg followed by 6 mg/kg q24h for patients who have had no recent azole exposure and are not colonized with azole-resistant *Candida* spp. (15, 31). In the case of CRRT, recent studies suggest keeping the same loading dose but increasing the maintenance dose to 6 mg/kg q12h (35). In the present study, all dosing regimens demonstrated more than 90% of PTA only for an MIC of up to 1 mg/L, and 100% of directed FTA against *C. albicans*. Thus, in the case of local ecology with a high prevalence of *Candida albicans* infection, the current dosing regimen is efficacious and safe and avoids unnecessary echinocandin exposure. However, in the case of local ecology with *Candida* spp. exhibiting MIC of up to 2 mg/L, only increasing the maintenance dose or reducing the interval between two dosing achieved the pre-defined target. Therefore, in such a situation with a high prevalence of *Candida* spp. exhibiting an MIC of >2 mg/L (i.e., *C. glabrata*), we suggest using a different class of antifungal agent.

This study has several limitations. First, this study did not identify ECMO- or CRRT-related variables to be significant predictors of fluconazole clearance. This could be explained by the small sample size and the distribution of PK concentrations (mostly during the first 36 hours), and also by the limited data regarding CRRT. A larger sample size and more PK data are required to better describe the PK variability of this population. Nevertheless, our cohort could be considered as homogeneous population of critically ill adult patients on ECMO and CRRT and could be assumed as a good starting point for dosing regimen recommendations. Second, samples were obtained from an arterial line and not from the ECMO or the CRRT circuit. When sampling directly from the circuit in parallel to the arterial line, important information could be obtained to

better describe fluconazole PK. Lastly, no information on the type of infection, candida isolation, empirical versus prophylaxis versus directed indication for fluconazole use, and patient outcomes was collected in this study. Therefore, the proposed fluconazole dosing regimens should now be confirmed in clinical studies with outcomes such as clinical and/or microbiological cure, ICU/hospital mortality, and length of stay being evaluated.

Conclusion

This is the first study to describe the PK of fluconazole in critically ill adult patients on ECMO and CRRT. The current dosing regimen of fluconazole (a loading dose of 12 mg/kg followed by 6 mg/kg q24h) in patients on ECMO and RRT provides a high PTA against *Candida* spp. with an MIC of up to 1 mg/L. Based on our model and simulations, TBW should be considered and used to calculate fluconazole doses.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Setting

The ASAP ECMO study was a prospective, open-labeled, multi-center PK study conducted in five intensive care units (ICU) across Australia, New Zealand, South Korea, and Switzerland from November 2012 to November 2019. A detailed study protocol has been published elsewhere and is briefly discussed here (22). Ethical approval was provided by the lead site (The Prince Charles Hospital, Brisbane, Australia, HREC/11/QPCH/121) with individual institutional approvals obtained according to local protocols: Auckland City Hospital, Auckland, New Zealand—LRS/12/06/020/AM08; The Alfred Hospital, Melbourne, Australia—541/12, Bern University Hospital, Bern, Switzerland—2017-01315; Seoul National University Bundang Hospital, Seoul, Republic of Korea—B-1804/465-305; and St Vincent's Hospital, Sydney, Australia—HREC/11/SVH/97. Written informed consent was acquired from each participant's next of kin.

Study population

Patients between 18 and 90 years, hospitalized in ICU, and receiving fluconazole whilst undergoing ECMO for respiratory and/or cardiac dysfunction were eligible for inclusion. Patients who had a known allergy to the study drug, who were pregnant, who had bilirubin >150 µmol/L, received ongoing massive blood transfusion (>50% blood volume) in the previous 8 hours or who received therapeutic plasma exchange in the previous 24 hours were excluded.

Fluconazole dosing and administration

Fluconazole was reconstituted and administered intravenously as an intermittent infusion, according to local hospital protocols.

Study procedures/protocol

PK sampling was performed on one or two dosing occasions after the patient was stabilized on ECMO (i.e., not receiving ongoing acute resuscitation). Blood samples were drawn from an existing arterial line and collected into 2 mL lithium-heparinized tubes at 0, 15, 30, 45, 60, 90, 120, 180, 360, and 480 minutes post-commencement of infusion. Blood samples were centrifuged at 3,000 g for 10 minutes to separate plasma. Plasma samples were frozen at the study site at -80°C. All frozen plasma samples were then couriered to and assayed at the central bioanalysis laboratory at the University of Queensland Centre for Clinical Research (UQCCR), Brisbane, Australia. De-identified clinical and demographic data were collected by trained research staff. Each study site maintained an electronic database for its participants, which was subsequently consolidated into a single database.

Fluconazole assay

Total fluconazole concentrations were measured in plasma by a validated ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography using two mass spectrometry detectors (UHPLC-MS/MS) on a Nexera2-8030+ system (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan). Clinical samples were assayed in batches alongside calibrators and quality controls, and the results were subjected to batch acceptance criteria. Linearity was validated over the concentration range of 0.1–50 mg/L. Validation of fluconazole measurement demonstrated precision within 4.3% and accuracy within 3.6% at 0.1, 0.3, 2, and 16 mg/L.

Population pharmacokinetic analysis

Pmetrics version 2.2.1 (Laboratory of Applied Pharmacokinetics and Bioinformatics, Los Angeles, CA, USA) for R (version 4.3.1) was used to develop a population PK model for fluconazole (37). One-, and two-compartment models were first constructed using non-parametric adaptative grid (NPAG) algorithms with total plasma fluconazole concentrations. A stepwise approach was undertaken to build the fluconazole PK model to establish: (i) the structural base model, (ii) the best-fit error model, and (iii) the development of a covariate model. Elimination from the central compartment was modeled as a first-order process. Lambda (additive) and gamma (multiplicative) error models were evaluated.

The effect of several biologically plausible demographic and clinical characteristics on the PK of fluconazole was assessed for linear, exponential, or logarithmic relationships and tested for inclusion into the model. The covariates tested for inclusion were age, gender, total body weight, body surface area, body mass index, ideal body weight, adjusted body weight, lean body weight, urea, bilirubin, albumin, ECMO mode, ECMO flow rate, days on ECMO, CRRT modality (continuous venovenous hemodialysis, CVVHD; continuous venovenous hemofiltration, CVVH; and continuous venovenous hemodiafiltration, CVVHDF), CRRT effluent flow rate, CRRT blood flow rate, Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation II (APACHE II), and Sequential Organ Failure Assessment (SOFA) scores. As all patients received RRT, renal clearance was not calculated.

Population pharmacokinetic model diagnostic

The best structural model was chosen according to the goodness-of-fit of both the population- and individual-observed versus predicted concentration plots, the value of the comparative log-likelihood (-2^*LL), and the Akaike information criterion (AIC) of each run. The goodness-of-fit of the model was assessed by visual inspection of the observed versus predicted concentration plots both in population- or individual-scatter plots, the coefficient of determination (r^2), slopes, intercept, and bias of the linear regression. The predictive performance was also assessed for mean prediction error (bias) and the mean bias-adjusted squared (imprecision) of the population and individual posterior predictions. Internal validation was conducted via a visual predictive check (VPC) to evaluate the predictive performance of the final model with covariates using 1,000 simulations. The distribution of the observed concentration in this simulation was plotted and visually inspected. The final estimated PK parameters from the final model were presented as mean, standard deviation (SD), percentage coefficient of variation (%CV), median value, and percentage of shrinkage. The %CV represented the inter-individual variability. A bootstrap was performed by Pmetrics using a weighted marginal distribution of each population parameter, with the 95% confidence interval of the median calculated as a measure of the variance as a normal distribution.

Monte Carlo dosing simulations

Different fluconazole dosing regimens in patients with various total body weights (< 75 kg, 95 kg, >102 kg) were evaluated using Monte Carlo dosing simulation in Pmetrics ($n = 1,000$) using the final model against a specific *Candida* spp. MIC value ranging from

0.03 to 32 mg/L. The ratio of $AUC_{0-24}/MIC > 100$ was chosen as the efficacy target for species (38), taking into account the protein binding of fluconazole of 12%. The following dosing regimens were evaluated: (i) a loading dose of 12 mg/kg followed by 6 mg/kg q24h; (ii) a loading dose of 18 mg/kg followed by 6 mg/kg q24h; (iii) a loading dose of 18 mg/kg followed by 12 mg/kg mg q24h; and (iv) a loading dose of 12 mg/kg followed by 6 mg/kg q12h. All PTA simulations were assessed at Day 1 (to evaluate the loading dose) and at steady state (defined as the seventh day of treatment). A PTA value of $\geq 90\%$ for a particular MIC was considered optimal in our study. To calculate the fractional target attainment (FTA), the PTA of each dosing regimen was compared against the MIC distribution of *Candida albicans* obtained from the European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST) database (available from www.eucast.org; Antimicrobial wild-type distributions of microorganisms, accessed 30 October 2023). The empirical FTA was calculated considering the whole range of MIC distribution of *Candida albicans* ($n = 2,175$) while the directed FTA was calculated by considering a range of MICs of the susceptible strains of *Candida albicans*. Any dosing regimen that achieved an FTA value of $\geq 95\%$ was considered an "optimal" dosing regimen either for empirical or directed fluconazole therapy.

As there is no published threshold and specific exposure parameters (e.g., AUC and C_{min}) that have been associated with fluconazole toxicity, we were not able to incorporate this evaluation into our dosing simulations (23). Anaissie et al. reported that more adverse effects were observed in patients receiving $\geq 1,600$ mg/day and these events were classified as "possibility related" to fluconazole (24). Therefore, as the dosing regimens evaluated in our study were all lower than 1600 mg/day, we assumed that the likelihood of toxicity would be relatively low.

Statistical analysis

Descriptive analyses were performed using Excel V16.71 where categorical variables are presented as counts (percentage) and continuous variables are presented as mean (\pm SD).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by The Prince Charles Hospital Research Foundation, Australian and New Zealand Intensive Care Foundation, Australia and New Zealand College of Anaesthetists (S12/001; S13/021), Society of Hospital Pharmacists of Australia, National Health and Medical Research Council of Australia (APP1079421; APP1099452).

AUTHOR AFFILIATIONS

¹Faculty of Medicine, University of Queensland Centre for Clinical Research (UQCCR), The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia

²Université de Lorraine, SIMPA, Nancy, France

³Departement of anesthesiology, Critical care and peri-operative medicine, University hospital of Nancy, Nancy, France

⁴Department of Pharmacy, St. Vincent's Hospital, Sydney, New South Wales, Australia

⁵Department of Intensive Care Medicine, St. Vincent's Hospital, Sydney, New South Wales, Australia

⁶University of New South Wales, St Vincent's Centre for Applied Medical Research, Sydney, New South Wales, Australia

⁷The Prince Charles Hospital, Critical Care Research Group and Adult Intensive Care Services, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia

⁸Department of Intensive Care and Hyperbaric Medicine, The Alfred Hospital and School of Public Health and Preventive Medicine, Monash University, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

⁹Cardiothoracic and Vascular Intensive Care Unit, Auckland City Hospital, Auckland, New Zealand

¹⁰Experiential Development and Graduate Education and Centre for Medicines Use and Safety, Faculty of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences, Monash University, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

¹¹The University of Auckland, School of Nursing, Auckland, New Zealand

¹²Faculty of Medicine, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia

¹³Faculty of Health, Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia

¹⁴Faculty of Health Sciences and Medicine, Bond University, Gold Coast, Queensland, Australia

¹⁵Department of Intensive Care Medicine and Pharmacy, Royal Brisbane and Women's Hospital, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia

¹⁶Division of Anaesthesiology Critical Care Emergency and Pain Medicine, Nîmes University Hospital, University of Montpellier, Nîmes, France

AUTHOR ORCIDs

Mohd H. Abdul-Aziz  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-8889-5579>

Suzanne Parker  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-6124-7475>

Jason A. Roberts  <http://orcid.org/0000-0001-6218-435X>

FUNDING

Funder	Grant(s)	Author(s)
The Prince Charles Hospital Research Foundation; ANZIC Foundation; ANZ College of Anaesthetists		Kiran Shekar
SHPA; NHMRC Australia		Jason A. Roberts

ADDITIONAL FILES

The following material is available online.

Supplemental Material

Supplemental material (AAC01201-23-S0001.docx). Supplemental materials 1, 2, 3, 4.

REFERENCES

- Roberts JA, Paul SK, Akova M, Bassetti M, De Waele JJ, Dimopoulos G, Kaukonen K-M, Kouleni D, Martin C, Montravers P, Rello J, Rhodes A, Starr T, Wallis SC, Lipman J, DALI Study. 2014. DALI: defining antibiotic levels in intensive care unit patients: are current β -lactam antibiotic doses sufficient for critically ill patients? *Clin Infect Dis* 58:1072–1083. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciu027>
- Roberts JA, Abdul-Aziz MH, Lipman J, Mouton JW, Vinks AA, Felton TW, Hope WW, Farkas A, Neely MN, Schentag JJ, Drusano G, Frey OR, Theuretzbacher U, Kuti JL, International Society of Anti-Infective Pharmacology and the Pharmacokinetics and Pharmacodynamics Study Group of the European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases. 2014. Individualised antibiotic Dosing for patients who are critically ill: challenges and potential solutions. *Lancet Infect Dis* 14:498–509. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099\(14\)70036-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(14)70036-2)
- Gu M, Mei X-L, Zhao Y-N. 2021. A review on extracorporeal membrane oxygenation and kidney injury. *J Biochem Mol Toxicol* 35:e22679. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jbt.22679>
- Li L, Li X, Xia Y, Chu Y, Zhong H, Li J, Liang P, Bu Y, Zhao R, Liao Y, Yang P, Lu X, Jiang S. 2020. Recommendation of antimicrobial dosing optimization during continuous renal replacement therapy. *Front Pharmacol* 11:786. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fphar.2020.00786>
- Lyster H, Shekar K, Watt K, Reed A, Roberts JA, Abdul-Aziz M-H. 2023. Antifungal dosing in critically ill patients on extracorporeal membrane oxygenation. *Clin Pharmacokinet* 62:931–942. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40262-023-01264-0>
- Lyster H, Pitt T, Maunz O, Diamond S, Roberts JA, Brown D, Mills J, Armstrong-James D, Gerovasili V, Carby M, Dunning J, Simon A, Reed A. 2023. Variable sequestration of antifungals in an extracorporeal membrane oxygenation circuit. *ASAIO J* 69:309–314. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MAT.0000000000001802>
- Karagiannidis C, Brodie D, Strassmann S, Stoelben E, Philipp A, Bein T, Müller T, Windisch W. 2016. Extracorporeal membrane oxygenation: evolving epidemiology and mortality. *Intensive Care Med* 42:889–896. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-016-4273-z>
- Munshi L, Walkey A, Goligher E, Pham T, Uleryk EM, Fan E. 2019. Venous extracorporeal membrane oxygenation for acute respiratory distress syndrome: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Respir Med* 7:163–172. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2213-2600\(18\)30452-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2213-2600(18)30452-1)
- Li X, Wang L, Wang H, Hou X. 2022. Outcome and clinical characteristics of nosocomial infection in adult patients undergoing extracorporeal membrane oxygenation: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Front Public Health* 10:857873. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2022.857873>
- Austin DE, Kerr SJ, Al-Soufi S, Connellan M, Spratt P, Goeman E, Nair P. 2017. Nosocomial infections acquired by patients treated with extracorporeal membrane oxygenation. *Crit Care Resusc* 19:68–75.
- Cavayas YA, Yusuff H, Porter R. 2018. Fungal infections in adult patients on extracorporeal life support. *Crit Care* 22:98. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13054-018-2023-z>
- Alessandri F, Ceccarelli G, Migliara G, Baccolini V, Russo A, Marzuillo C, Ceparano M, Giordano G, Tozzi P, Galardo G, Raponi G, Mastrianni C,

- Venditti M, Pugliese F, d'Ettorre G. 2023. High incidence of candidemia in critically ill COVID-19 patients supported by veno-venous extracorporeal membrane oxygenation: a retrospective study. *J Fungi (Basel)* 9:119. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jof010119>
13. Poth JM, Schewe J-C, Putensen C, Ehrentraut SF. 2022. Impact of invasive fungal diseases on survival under veno-venous extracorporeal membrane oxygenation for ARDS. *J Clin Med* 11:1940. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm11071940>
 14. Sun H-Y, Ko W-J, Tsai P-R, Sun C-C, Chang Y-Y, Lee C-W, Chen Y-C. 2010. Infections occurring during extracorporeal membrane oxygenation use in adult patients. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* 140:1125–32. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtcvs.2010.07.017>
 15. Pappas PG, Kauffman CA, Andes DR, Clancy CJ, Marr KA, Ostrosky-Zeichner L, Reboli AC, Schuster MG, Vazquez JA, Walsh TJ, Zaoutis TE, Sobel JD. 2016. Clinical practice guideline for the management of Candidiasis: 2016 update by the infectious diseases society of America. *Clin Infect Dis* 62:e1–50. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/civ933>
 16. Martin-Lloeches I, Antonelli M, Cuena-Estrella M, Dimopoulos G, Einav S, De Waele JJ, Garnacho-Montero J, Kanj SS, Machado FR, Montravers P, Sakr Y, Sanguinetti M, Timsit J-F, Bassetti M. 2019. ESICM/ESCMID task force on practical management of invasive candidiasis in critically ill patients. *Intensive Care Med* 45:789–805. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-019-05599-w>
 17. Clancy CJ, Yu VL, Morris AJ, Snydman DR, Nguyen MH. 2005. Fluconazole MIC and the fluconazole dose/MIC ratio correlate with therapeutic response among patients with candidemia. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 49:3171–3177. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.49.8.3171-3177.2005>
 18. Sinnolareddy M, Peake SL, Roberts MS, Lipman J, Roberts JA. 2012. Using pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics to optimise dosing of antifungal agents in critically ill patients: a systematic review. *Int J Antimicrob Agents* 39:1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2011.07.013>
 19. Bellmann R, Smuszkiewicz P. 2017. Pharmacokinetics of antifungal drugs: practical implications for Optimized treatment of patients. *Infection* 45:737–779. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s15010-017-1042-z>
 20. Patel K, Roberts JA, Lipman J, Tett SE, Deldot ME, Kirkpatrick CM. 2011. Population pharmacokinetics of fluconazole in critically ill patients receiving continuous venovenous hemodiafiltration: using monte carlo simulations to predict doses for specified pharmacodynamic targets. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 55:5868–5873. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00424-11>
 21. Dhanani JA, Lipman J, Pincus J, Townsend S, Livermore A, Wallis SC, Abdul-Aziz MH, Roberts JA. 2021. Pharmacokinetics of fluconazole and ganciclovir as combination antimicrobial chemotherapy on ECMO: a case report. *Int J Antimicrob Agents* 58:106431. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2021.106431>
 22. Shekar K, Roberts JA, Welch S, Buscher H, Rudham S, Burrows F, Ghassabian S, Wallis SC, Levkovich B, Pellegrino V, McGuinness S, Parke R, Gilder E, Barnett AG, Walsham J, Mullany DV, Fung YL, Smith MT, Fraser JF. 2012. ASAP ECMO: antibiotic, sedative and analgesic pharmacokinetics during extracorporeal membrane oxygenation: a multi-centre study to Optimise drug therapy during ECMO. *BMC Anesthesiol* 12:29. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2253-12-29>
 23. Downes KJ, Goldman JL. 2021. Too much of a good thing: defining antimicrobial therapeutic targets to minimize toxicity. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 109:905–917. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cpt.2190>
 24. Anaissie EJ, Kontoyiannis DP, Huls C, Vartivarian SE, Karl C, Prince RA, Bosso J, Bodey GP. 1995. Safety, plasma concentrations, and efficacy of high-dose fluconazole in invasive mold infections. *J Infect Dis* 172:599–602. <https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/172.2.599>
 25. Muilwijk EW, de Lange DW, Schouten JA, Wasemann RE, Ter Heine R, Burger DM, Colbers A, Haas PJ, Verweij PE, Pickkers P, Brüggemann RJ. 2020. Suboptimal dosing of fluconazole in critically ill patients: time to rethink dosing. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 64:e00984-20. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00984-20>
 26. Sandaradura I, Marriott DJE, Day RO, Norris RLG, Pang E, Stocker SL, Reuter SE. 2021. Current fluconazole treatment regimens result in under-dosing of critically ill adults during early therapy. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 40:1521–1528. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10096-021-04201-w>
 27. Watt KM, Benjamin DK, Cheifetz IM, Moorthy G, Wade KC, Smith PB, Brouwer KLR, Capparelli EV, Cohen-Wolkowicz M. 2012. Pharmacokinetics and safety of fluconazole in young infants supported with extracorporeal membrane oxygenation. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 31:1042–1047. <https://doi.org/10.1097/INF.0b013e31825d3091>
 28. Watt KM, Gonzalez D, Benjamin DK, Brouwer KLR, Wade KC, Capparelli E, Barrett J, Cohen-Wolkowicz M. 2015. Fluconazole population pharmacokinetics and dosing for prevention and treatment of invasive candidiasis in children supported with extracorporeal membrane oxygenation. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 59:3935–3943. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00102-15>
 29. Krychtiuk KA, Vrints C, Wojta J, Huber K, Speidl WS. 2022. Basic mechanisms in cardiogenic shock: part 1—definition and pathophysiology. *Eur Heart J Acute Cardiovasc Care* 11:356–365. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ehjacc/zuac021>
 30. Cheng V, Abdul-Aziz M-H, Roberts JA, Shekar K. 2018. Optimising drug dosing in patients receiving extracorporeal membrane oxygenation. *J Thorac Dis* 10:S629–S641. <https://doi.org/10.21037/jtd.2017.09.154>
 31. Allobaid AS, Wallis SC, Jarrett P, Starr T, Stuart J, Lassig-Smith M, Mejia JLO, Roberts MS, Sinnolareddy MG, Roger C, Lipman J, Roberts JA. 2016. Effect of obesity on the population pharmacokinetics of fluconazole in critically ill patients. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 60:6550–6557. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01088-16>
 32. Martin-Lloeches I, Antonelli M, Cuena-Estrella M, Dimopoulos G, Einav S, De Waele JJ, Garnacho-Montero J, Kanj SS, Machado FR, Montravers P, Sakr Y, Sanguinetti M, Timsit J-F, Bassetti M. 2019. ESICM/ESCMID task force on practical management of invasive candidiasis in critically ill patients. *Intensive Care Med* 45:789–805. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-019-05599-w>
 33. Sinnolareddy MG, Roberts MS, Lipman J, Robertson TA, Peake SL, Roberts JA. 2015. Pharmacokinetics of fluconazole in critically ill patients with acute kidney injury receiving sustained low-efficiency diafiltration. *Int J Antimicrob Agents* 45:192–195. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2014.08.013>
 34. Van Daele R, Wauters J, Lagrou K, Denooz R, Hayette M-P, Gijsen M, Brüggemann RJ, Debaveye Y, Sprétal I. 2021. Pharmacokinetic variability and target attainment of fluconazole in critically ill patients. *Microorganisms* 9:2068. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms9102068>
 35. Roberts JA, Bellomo R, Cotta MO, Koch BCP, Lyster H, Ostermann M, Roger C, Shekar K, Watt K, Abdul-Aziz MH. 2022. Machines that help machines to help patients: optimising antimicrobial dosing in patients receiving extracorporeal membrane oxygenation and renal replacement therapy using dosing software. *Intensive Care Med* 48:1338–1351. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-022-06847-2>
 36. Bienvenu AL, Pradat P, Matusik E, Piriou V, Rimmelé T, Parant F, Tod M, Leboucher G, Goutelle S, Antifungal study group. 2023. Suboptimal exposure to fluconazole in critically ill patients: pharmacokinetic analysis and determinants. *Infect Dis Now* 53:104630. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.idnow.2022.10.002>
 37. Neely MN, van Guilder MG, Yamada WM, Schumitzky A, Jelliffe RW. 2012. Accurate detection of outliers and subpopulations with Pmetrics, a nonparametric and parametric pharmacometric modeling and simulation package for R. *Ther Drug Monit* 34:467–476. <https://doi.org/10.1097/FTD.0b013e31825c4ba6>
 38. EUCAST: MIC determination. 2019. Available from: http://www.eucast.org/ast_of_bacteria/mic_determination

“All we have to decide is what to do with the time that is given us”
(The Fellowship of the Ring, J.R.R. Tolkien, 1911)

Résumé de la thèse

La candidose intra-abdominale est une pathologie associée à une morbi-mortalité élevée en réanimation. A ce jour, on ne sait pas si cette mortalité élevée est directement imputable à *Candida* ou si le fait d'isoler du *Candida* dans le liquide péritonéal est un témoin indirect de la gravité sous-jacente et/ou du terrain du patient. Une des sources de la controverse relève du pathogène lui-même : *Candida* est un microorganisme de la flore commensale du tube digestif qui lui conférerait un statut de colonisant. Sur la base d'autres pathologies cliniques impliquant *Candida*, ce postulat nécessite un microbiote et des défenses immunitaires intacts. L'hypothèse de recherche est que, dans les périctonites, *Candida* passe d'un statut de pathogène colonisant à infectant sous l'influence d'un stress environnemental représenté par le liquide péritonéal et les coinfections bactériennes. L'objectif principal de cette thèse est d'objectiver la virulence de *Candida* par une approche multimodale : phénotypique, moléculaire et métabolique à partir de prélèvements microbiologiques de patients de réanimation atteints de périctonite. Les objectifs secondaires sont d'optimiser le diagnostic de cette infection par l'utilisation de méthodes dites « non basées sur la culture » et le traitement antifongique par une approche pharmacocinétique et pharmacodynamique. Au cours de ce travail, deux études évaluant des approches diagnostiques novatrices fondées sur le 1,3 beta-D-glucan péritonéal et l'approche par microcalorimétrie indirecte ont été menées. L'aspect thérapeutique comporte une revue narrative sur les particularités pharmacocinétiques et pharmacodynamiques de la candidose intra-abdominale et leurs impacts sur les posologies d'antifongique. Savoir identifier les patients qui nécessitent un traitement antifongique et optimiser ce traitement en termes de posologies et durée s'intègrent dans le cadre du « bon usage des antifongiques ». Ce concept est développé dans ce travail, avec une applicabilité pour la candidose intra-abdominale. Enfin, l'immunité locale péritonéale et systémique joue probablement un rôle important sur l'expression de virulence de *Candida*. Une revue de la littérature centrée sur l'immunité péritonéale est rapportée afin de mieux appréhender son rôle dans les candidoses intra-abdominales.

Ce travail pose donc les bases des futures études pour la candidose intra-abdominale : typologie de patients à inclure, analyse de la virulence de *Candida*, adéquation du traitement antifongique et évaluation du statut immunitaire. L'objectif *in fine* est de tendre vers une médecine personnalisée afin d'administrer un traitement antifongique au patient qui le nécessite, à la bonne posologie et pendant une durée adéquate.

Mots clés : candidose intra-abdominale ; *Candida* ; beta-d-glucan ; virulence ; réanimation.

Intra-abdominal candidiasis in the critically ill patient is a pathology burdened with high morbidity and mortality. To date, it is not known whether this high mortality is directly attributable to *Candida* or whether the fact of isolating *Candida* in the peritoneal fluid is an indirect witness to the patient's underlying conditions (severity or comorbidities). One of the sources of controversy relates to the pathogen itself: the *Candida* yeast is a pathogen of the commensal flora of the digestive tract which gives it a colonizing status. Based on other clinical pathologies involving *Candida*, this premise requires an intact microbiota and immune response. We hypothesised that, during intra-abdominal candidiasis, *Candida* changes from a colonizing pathogen to an infecting pathogen under the influence of environmental stress (peritoneal fluid, coinfection with bacteria) and in the absence of eradicator immunity. The main objective of this research is to demonstrate the change in *Candida* status by a multimodal approach. The *Candida* morphology and growth (phenotype), the expression of the gene involved in its pathogenicity (molecular) and metabolic activity (heat production) will be evaluated in peritoneal samples from critically ill patients with peritonitis. Secondary objectives encompass (i) the evaluation of “non-culture” based method to rule in or out the presence of *Candida* during severe intra-abdominal infections the 1.3 beta-d-glucan to rule out the presence of intra-abdominal candidiasis, and (ii) the optimisation of antifungal dosing using a pharmacological approach. The diagnostic optimisation will focus on the interest of peritoneal 1.3 beta-d-glucan and the evaluation of an innovative microcalorimetry method to rule out and in the presence of *Candida* in the peritoneal fluid. To optimise the drug dosing, a narrative review of all study evaluating antifungal dosing regimens and pharmacokinetic data will be performed. Diagnostic and therapeutic optimisation belong to the antifungal stewardship which will be described in the context of intra-abdominal candidiasis. Last, the immune status appears to have a major role in the control of *Candida* infection. The state of art of the immune aspects of fungal control will be performed. Thus, this study lays the groundwork for future research on intra-abdominal candidiasis, including the identification of relevant patient populations, analysis of *Candida* virulence factors, assessment of the adequacy of antifungal treatment, and evaluation of immune status. The ultimate goal is to work towards personalized medicine, aiming to provide antifungal treatment to the patients who really need it, with the right dosage and duration.

Keywords : intra-abdominal candidiasis ; *Candida* ; beta-d-glucan ; virulence ; critically ill patients.