

Ampicillin/Sulbactam in Combination: A Review of its Use in the Treatment of Severe Bacterial Infections

A. Rodríguez-Guardado¹, A. Blanco² and J.A. Cartón¹

¹Infectious Diseases Unit, ²Intensive Care Unit, Hospital Universitario Central de Asturias.
Corresponding author email: azucenarodriguez@telecable.es

Abstract: Ampicillin/Sulbactam is a combination of antibiotics made up of ampicillin, a betalactam and Sulbactam, a betalactamase inhibitor introduced in the eighties. The most frequent used combination is Ampicillin/Sulbactam (ratio 2:1) although the two agents are not synergetic. Ampicillin/Sulbactam has a wide range of antibacterial activity that includes Gram-positive and Gram-negative aerobic and anaerobic bacteria. However, the drug is not active against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and pathogens producing extended-spectrum β -lactamases. The combination could be considered particularly active against *Acinetobacter baumannii* infections due to the intrinsic activity of Sulbactam. In clinical trials, sultamicillin has proved clinically and bacteriologically effective against a severe bacterial infections, including mild upper and lower respiratory tract infections, meningitis, intra-abdominal, diabetic foot and skin and soft tissue infections, etc. Furthermore, adverse effects rarely occur with the diarrhoea to represent the most commonly reported. Moreover, it seems to represent the alternative of choice for the treatment of *A. baumannii* infections for carbapenem-resistant strains in the nosocomial setting. This review focuses on the efficacy of the β -lactam ampicillin co-administered with the β -lactamase inhibitor sulbactam, parenterally (Ampicillin/Sulbactam), for the treatment of bacterial infections.

Keywords: ampicillin/sulbactam, acinetobacter baumannii, respiratory tract infections, meningitis



Introduction

Ampicillin/Sulbactam is a combination of the common penicillin-derived antibiotic ampicillin and sulbactam, an inhibitor of bacterial β -lactamase developed in the eighties.^{1,2} Ampicillin/Sulbactam combination is the most frequently used although both agents are not synergetic. Studies have been conducted to examine its effectiveness in several types of infection.^{3–6} From the past decade, conducted clinical findings confirm the results of numerous older studies and together provide good evidence to support the frequent use of Ampicillin/Sulbactam in hospital- and community-acquired infections in both, adults and children.

On the other hand, the multidrug-resistant microorganism appearance, especially multidrug-resistant *Acinetobacter spp*, makes the treatment of nosocomial infections more difficult being imperative a new agent search and old drugs use as optimal treatment of these multidrug-resistant organisms.

Ampicillin/Sulbactam may represent the alternative choice for the treatment of *A. baumannii* infections for carbapenem-resistant strains in the nosocomial setting. This paper focuses on the efficacy of the β -lactam ampicillin co-administered with the β -lactamase inhibitor sulbactam, parenterally (Ampicillin/Sulbactam), for severe bacterial infection with specially attention in multidrug resistant infections treatment.

Mechanism of Action and Antimicrobial Spectrum

Ampicillin inhibits bacterial cell wall synthesis by binding Penicillin Binding Proteins (PBPs) which are the enzymes responsible for the cell wall structure formation. It acts as a structural analogue of acyl-D-alanyl-D alanine and acylates the transpeptidase enzyme responsible for the final stage in the peptidoglycan formation, the main component of the cell wall.⁷

Sulbactam is a potent, highly specific inhibitor of β -lactamases (most plasma-mediated and some chromosomal β -lactamases) obtained by the oxidation of thiazolidine sulfur of penicillanic acid.⁸ Sulbactam doesn't enhance bactericidal activity of Ampicillin but prevents it from being destroyed by β -lactamase producing bacteria as it inhibits hydrolysis of the latter by β -lactamases. As a result, the antimicrobial activity of ampicillin, when combined with sulbactam

increases by 4–32 folds and its spectrum is extended to include β -lactamase-producing strains of many common pathogens⁶ because it protects ampicillin from hydrolysis by β -lactamases.⁹ Sulbactam joins with the β -lactamases forming an acyl enzyme for reaction with the active site serine hydroxyl group. This intermediate can undergo (a) deacylation and hydrolysis of the enamine liberated, which leads to the formation of smaller products; (b) a tautomerisation to enamine leading to a transiently inhibited form of the enzyme and; (c) a transamination reaction or reaction with serine 130 that leads to an irreversibly inhibited enzyme form.^{3,10}

Sulbactam distinguishes from other available β -lactamase inhibitors due to the high level of antimicrobial activity against *Neisseria spp*, *Bacteroides fragilis* and *Acinetobacter species*, organisms against which most cephalosporins display little or no activity. In addition, the antimicrobial spectrum of Ampicillin/Sulbactam included gram positive coccus and rods aerobic gram negative and some anaerobes like *Peptococcus* and *Peptostreptococcus spp*, *Group B Streptococcus*, *E. faecalis*, *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, *Streptococcus pyogenes*, *Streptococcus viridans*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, coagulase-negative *Staphylococci*, *C. diphtheriae*, *Listeria monocytogenes*, *Haemophilus influenzae*, *Moraxella catarrhalis*, *E. coli* (over 50% of the strains may be resistant), *K. pneumoniae* (30% of strains may be resistant), *P. mirabilis*, *Salmonella spp* (*S. typhimurium* may be 30% to 40% resistant), *Shigella flexneri*, *Fusobacterium spp*, *Bacteroides spp*, and *Clostridium spp*. However for most of these target organisms, the minimum bactericidal concentration of Ampicillin/Sulbactam is only one dilution greater than its minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC).⁶

The susceptibility rates showed to *E. coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Citrobacter spp* and *Proteus spp* are less active than carbapenems, 3rd and 4th generation cephalosporins, aminoglycosides or piperacillin/tazobactam³ and the resistance in gram negative bacilli as *E. coli* increased in the last time. In a study analysing about 3,004 gram-negative bacilli collected from intraabdominal infections in the Asia Pacific region during 2007 a decline in ampicillin sulbactam susceptibility was noted with only 34.5% of all *Enterobacteriaceae* inhibited.¹¹ In another study¹² on the antimicrobial resistance of *E. coli* bloodstream isolated from tertiary care centres, the Ampicillin/Sulbactam resistance rates



increased from 23% to 45%. Another gram negative bacillus like *Morganella spp*, *Enterobacter spp* and *Serratia spp*, have higher resistance rates against Ampicillin/Sulbactam.¹³ It has no activity against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and extended-spectrum β -lactamases *Enterobacters*. The Ampicillin/Sulbactam resistance rates against imipenem-susceptible and -resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii* were 23.5 and 30%, respectively.¹⁴

Ampicillin/Sulbactam Pharmacokinetics and Pharmacodynamics

Intravenous or oral sulbactam has a similar pharmacokinetic profile than i.v. or oral ampicillin, which favours their combination into a single formulation.^{3,5,15,16} The ampicillin and sulbactam pharmacokinetics are linear up to at least 1000 mg and the profile of i.v. ampicillin is unaffected co-administered with sulbactam. On the other hand, sulbactam profile remains unchanged after co-administration of ampicillin. Both drugs have a half life of 1 hour, and >75% is excreted unchanged in the urine in both cases.^{3,5}

Ampicillin is partially (40%) absorbed after oral administration, and Sulbactam oral absorption is very poor. Ampicillin/Sulbactam is not well absorbed after oral administration. This problem was overcome with the combination of ampicillin and sulbactam in one oral prodrug, sultamicillin. This double ester is well absorbed in the intestine (80% bioavailability) and rapidly hydrolysed during absorption from the gastrointestinal tract to provide high levels (in equimolar quantities) of ampicillin and sulbactam and increases the bioavailability of ampicillin when administered as sultamicillin than when administered alone.^{3,5,6} Comparative data suggest that there is a prolongation of Ampicillin/Sulbactam antimicrobial activity as age increases due to the area under the serum concentration-time curve half life, serum maximum concentration and decreased total clearance in older age groups.¹⁷ The pharmacokinetic profiles of ampicillin and sulbactam in children are the same as those in adults. In children, age appeared to have no effect on the pharmacokinetics of Ampicillin or Sulbactam and the results were also independent of dose and gender.⁶

Although the elimination half-lives of both ampicillin and sulbactam take 1 h, sultamicillin has the advantage that it can be given twice or three times a day.

This leads to high serum and tissue concentrations sustained above MICs of many common pathogens.^{15,16}

The protein binding of ampicillin and sulbactam in serum is moderate (38% for sulbactam and 28% for ampicillin). Both ampicillin and sulbactam are arranged extensively to a variety of tissues and body fluids (e.g. intestinal mucosa, prostatic and appendiceal tissue, sputum, peritoneal fluid, peritonsillar abscess pus, and cerebrospinal fluid in the presence of inflamed meninges).^{6,18} Data on sulbactam penetration into tissues/fluids include: intraperitoneal fluid (60%), sputum (12%–14%), cerebrospinal fluid (11%–34%), intestinal mucosa (0.7%–0.8%) and myometrium (64%).^{15,16}

Approximately 75 to 85% of both ampicillin and sulbactam are primarily eliminated by renal excretion and the half-life and serum concentrations in patients with impaired renal function are increased. Accordingly, the frequency of dosing is reduced routinely (from three or four times daily to twice or once daily) in patients with renal impairment.³ It should be administered with caution to infants aged <1 week and to premature neonates as half-time is significantly increased for both because of the immature renal function in neonates and newborn.¹⁹

Clinical Trials and Efficacy

Classical indications of Ampicillin/Sulbactam are upper (e.g. sinusitis, otitis media, tonsillitis) and lower (e.g. bacterial pneumonias, bronchitis) respiratory tract infections (RTIs), urinary tract infections (UTIs) and pyelonephritis, skin and soft-tissue infections (SSTIs), gonococcal infections, intra-abdominal infections such as peritonitis, cholecystitis, endometritis and pelvic cellulitis, and bacterial septicaemia. It may also be used preoperatively for prophylaxis in abdominal or pelvic surgery. The usual dosage of i.v./intramuscular (i.m.) Ampicillin/Sulbactam is 1.5–12 gr. per day in adults and 150 mg/kg/day i.v./i.m. in children, infants and neonates, given in three or four doses per day in a 2:1 ampicillin: sulbactam ratio. The focus of this review is to make an overview of the clinical usefulness of Ampicillin/Sulbactam for the treatment of severe bacterial infections.

Lower respiratory tract infections and aspiration pneumonia

Bacterial respiratory tract infections continue to represent a major source of morbidity and mortality,



despite continuing improvements in diagnosis and the development of new kinds of antibiotic. Unfortunately, the emergence of β -lactamase-mediated bacterial resistance among many common pathogens has threatened the usefulness of β -lactam agents.^{6,20,21}

In the case of IV Ampicillin/Sulbactam, many clinical trials have shown its effectiveness in the treatment in adults with serious non-specific lower respiratory tract infections (LRTIs) (Table 1).

Ampicillin/sulbactam (2–12 gr./day), followed by oral sultamicillin in some cases, has been compared with imipenem/cilastatin, second and third generation cephalosporins, ticarcillin/clavulanic, clindamycin (with or without cephalosporin), or moxifloxacin for the treatment of community- or hospital-acquired lower respiratory tract infections without significantly differences.^{22–36} In the review made by Lode⁶ in 2001 on the role of Ampicillin/Sulbactam in the treatment of bacterial respiratory tract infections in adult patients, based on 20 researches comparatives and two meta-analyses published in the 1980s and 1990s, the clinical success rates were in the range of 84%–100% and bacteriological eradication rates ranged from 44% to 100%. In recent studies (mainly comparative, prospective and randomised) the clinical efficacy (cure or improvement) rates are ranged from 62% to 100% and bacteriological efficacy rates from 58%–100%.^{27–29} These response rates are generally compared with the clinical and bacteriological response rates for the comparators, cefuroxime (41%–95% and 50%–93%),^{32,34,36} cefotaxime (81 and 48%),³³ ceftiofur (81 and 76%)²⁵ and mezlocillin (83 and 89%),³⁵ imipenem (83%),³⁰ clindamycin (67%)²⁷ or moxifloxacin (66.7%)²⁶ (Table 1). In an open-label, comparative study Ampicillin/Sulbactam and cefuroxime yielded similar clinical responses (98 and 95%, respectively) but the eradication rate for Ampicillin/Sulbactam was significantly superior (95 versus 50%, $P=0.001$).²² However, only the metaanalysis carried out by Zervos et al on the efficacy and safety of Ampicillin/Sulbactam (2/1 or 1/0.5 g IV four times daily) versus second- or third-generation cephalosporins (ceftiofur, cefotaxime, cefuroxime, or cefamandole) showed that the observed rate of clinical cure or improvement was greater for Ampicillin/Sulbactam than for comparators (93.3 versus 86.6%, $P=0.019$), being the rate of clinical cure 60.3 versus 54.6%, $P=0.055$. The bacteriological eradication

rate was similar for Ampicillin/Sulbactam (85.3%) and comparators (83.5%).

Regarding the efficacy of Ampicillin/Sulbactam compared to another β -lactam/ β -lactamase inhibitor combination, a clinical trial of Ampicillin/Sulbactam versus ticarcillin/clavulanic acid recorded a satisfactory clinical response in 83 and 78% of patients with respiratory tract infections, respectively. The corresponding rates of bacteriological efficacy were 62 and 71%.³¹ These data suggest that Ampicillin/Sulbactam is as effective as another β -lactam/ β -lactamase inhibitor combination in the treatment of lower respiratory tract infection.

Aspiration pneumonia and primary lung abscess are diseases following aspiration of infectious material from the oropharynx or stomach. An antibiotic therapy, also covering anaerobic pathogens, is the chosen treatment. Ampicillin/Sulbactam has been compared to antimicrobials with antianaerobic activity such as clindamycin and imipenem/cilastatin. Cure rates with Ampicillin/Sulbactam in aspiration pneumonia were relatively low in comparison with the cure improvement rates of Ampicillin/Sulbactam in clinical trials of lower respiratory tract infections without aspiration (i.e. 66.7% in two studies).^{26,27} In the prospective, open-label, randomized, multicenter trial of Ott et al²⁶ the efficacy of Ampicillin/Sulbactam vs. moxifloxacin in these entities were compared. 139 patients were studied, 96 of them were evaluable for efficacy, 48 patients in each treatment group. The overall clinical response rates in both groups were numerically similar (66.7%). Both treatments seem to be clinically effective and safe; however, moxifloxacin shows the additional benefit of a more convenient (400 mg qd) treatment.

With respect to the treatment doses, some authors have used higher doses of Ampicillin/Sulbactam in aspiration pneumonia. Kadowaki et al²⁸ administered Ampicillin/Sulbactam in two different dosages protocols: 3 gr. twice a day and 1.5 gr. twice a day and compared them with clindamycin and imipenem cilastatin in 100 elderly patients with aspiration pneumonia. Cure rates in patients receiving Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr. were higher (84%) than the rates in patients treated with half dose and comparable with those in the imipenem group (88%) which seemed to be the most effective regimen.

The Infectious Diseases Society of America (IDSA) and the American Thoracic Society (ATS)

Table 1. Role of Ampicillin/Sulbactam in lower respiratory tract infections (LRTIs).

Reference	Design	Patients	Treatments/dosing		Cure rate (%)	
			Ampicillin/Sulbactam	Comparator	Treatment	Comparator
Ozday et al ²²	Prospective Randomized	98 infections	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 1 gr i.v/12 hours; n = 56	Cefuroxime 750 mg/12 h i.v; n = 42	27%	24%
Yanahigara et al ²³	Prospective Randomized	67 CAP	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/twice day; n = 35	Imipenem 500 mg/12 h i.v; n = 32	91%	87.5%
Castellano et al ²⁵	Prospective Randomized	75 Pneumonia	52 Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 h; n = 52	Cefoxitin 2 gr/6 h i.v; n = 23	92%	87%
Allewelt et al ²⁷	Prospective Randomized	70 Aspiration pneumonia	37 Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v every 8 hours	Clindamycin 600 mg/8 h i.v; n = 33	73%	66.7%
Kadowaki et al ²⁸	Prospective Randomizes	100 Aspiration pneumonia	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 1.5 gr/12 hours i.v; n = 25	Clindamycin 600 mg/12 h i.v	1.5 gr 76% 3 gr 84%	76% 88%
Betrosian et al ²⁹	Prospective Randomized	27 MDR <i>A. baumannii</i> VAP	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 27 gr i.v/day (in three doses)	Imipenem 500 mg/12 h i.v	64.3%	69.2%
Wood et al ³⁰	Retrospective	75 <i>A. baumannii</i> VAP	36 gr i.v/day (in three doses) 14 Ampicillin/Sulbactam Not reported	Imipenem. Dose not reported n = 63	93%	83%
McKinnon et al ³¹	Retrospective	200 LRTIs	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 82 patients 1.5 gr/6 hours i.v Ampicillin/Sulbactam 49 patients 3 gr/6 hours i.v	Ticarcillin/clavulanic acid 3.1 gr/6 h i.v; n = 69	83% 70%	78%
Geckler et al ³²	Retrospective	32 Pneumonia 5 AECB	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 1.5–3 gr/6 hours i.v	Cefuroxime 750 mg ⁻¹ qd 8 h	100%	95%
Jauregui et al ³³	Randomized	53 LRTIs	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr/6 hours i.v; n = 36	Cefotaxime 2 g/6 h i.v; n = 17	85.3%	81.3%
Rossoff et al ³⁴	Randomized	Pneumonia 41 Bronchitis 6	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 hours i.v; n = 25	Cefuroxime 1.5 g/8 h i.v; n = 22	88%	81%
Schwigon et al ³⁶	Randomized Prospective	Pneumonia 46 Acute purulent bronchitis 27	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/8 hours i.v; n = 36	Cefuroxime 1.5 g/8 h i.v; n = 37	89%	80%
Schwigon et al ³⁵	Comparative	Pneumonia 65 AECB 31	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr/8 hours i.v	Mezlocillin 4 g/8 h i.v	84%	82.6%
Ott et al ²⁶	Prospective Randomized	139 patients Aspiration pneumonia and primary lung abscess	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 2 gr/8 h i.v	Mxifloxacin 400 mg/24 i.v	66.7%	66.7%
Okimoto N et al ²⁴		83 CAP	Ampicillin/Sulbactam dose not reported.		Mild 86% Moderate 67.5%	

Abbreviations: CAP, Community-acquired pneumonia; NS, not significant; MDR, multidrug-resistant; VAP, ventilator-associated pneumonia; AECB, acute exacerbation of chronic bronchitis.



guidelines said that Ampicillin/Sulbactam can be used in patients with community-acquired pneumonia who are not at risk for pseudomonas infections, in combination with a macrolide or fluorquinolone. IDSA/ATS guidelines (2005) for hospital-acquired pneumonia suggest that Ampicillin/Sulbactam may be administered to patients without risk factors for multidrug resistance pathogens and in early hospital-acquired pneumonia.^{38,39}

Intra-abdominal infections

The first treatment of intra-abdominal infections is the combination of surgical debridement and antimicrobial treatment against polymicrobial flora. Antibiotics used for empiric treatment of community-acquired intra-abdominal infection should be active against gram-negative aerobic enteric facultative bacilli and gram-positive enteric *Streptococci*.⁴⁰

Ampicillin/Sulbactam has been compared in patients with intra-abdominal infections versus clindamycin plus gentamicin, cefoxitin, and ampicillin plus clindamycin (Table 2). The differences between the cure rates achieved with each treatment were comparable except in the study conducted by Yellin et al that showed significantly lower results for Ampicillin/Sulbactam vs. clindamycin plus gentamicin.^{41–43} Another study⁴⁴ assessed the efficacy and cost of Ampicillin/Sulbactam versus cefoxitin or clindamycin plus gentamicin in patients with various bacterial infections. The study conducted by Messick CR et al⁴⁴ compared Ampicillin/Sulbactam (96 patients) and cefoxitin (101) in the treatment of intraabdominal infections and

find approximately 9% of greater frequency of failure with cefoxitin relative to Ampicillin/Sulbactam.

A review^{3,6,45} of randomised controlled trials of various antibiotics in IAI and/or peritonitis included two studies of Ampicillin/Sulbactam published in the 1980s/1990s.^{41,42} The clinical success rate (87%) was similar to the most widely studied antibiotics: gentamicin/clindamycin 80%; tobramycin/clindamycin 83%; meropenem 89%; imipenem 85%; aztreonam/clindamycin 89%; cefoxitin 88%; cefotetan 92%; moxalactam 83%; cefotaxime/metronidazole 87%; and piperacillin/tazobactam 90%.

A Cochrane systematic review⁴⁶ of antibiotics for the treatment of secondary peritonitis of gastrointestinal origin showed that there were no differences between treatments in comparison with gentamicin/clindamycin⁴⁷ and cefoxitin;⁴² however whilst Ampicillin/Sulbactam and gentamicin/clindamycin were equally effective for anaerobe infections, gentamicin/clindamycin was more effective for *Pseudomonas* infections.⁴¹ The Cochrane review⁴⁶ concluded that no specific recommendation could be made in favour of one antibiotic for the first-line treatment of secondary peritonitis.

However, the current Infectious Diseases Society of America (IDSA) guidelines⁴¹ did not recommend the use of Ampicillin/Sulbactam in intra-abdominal infections because of high rates of resistance to this agent among community-acquired *E. coli* (B-II).⁴⁸

Gynaecological/obstetrical infections

Pelvic inflammatory disease includes endometritis, salpingitis, tuboovarian abscess and pelvic peritonitis.

Table 2. Principal studies about Ampicillin/Sulbactam in intra-abdominal infections.

Reference	Infections	Treatments		Cure rate (%)		
		Treatment/dosing	Comparator	Cure	Comparator	P-value
Yellin et al ⁴¹	105 Perforated or gangrenous appendicitis	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 hours	Clindamycin (600 mg/6 h i.v) +gentamicin (1.5 m/Kg/8 h)	88%	100%	0.03
Walker et al ⁴²	197 Severe intra-abdominal infections	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 h	Cefoxitin 2 gr/8 h i.v	86%	78%	ND
Collins et al ⁴³	114 Intra-abdominal infections	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 150–300 mg/Kg/day/6 h ±gentamicin or tobramycin (6–7.5 mg/Kg/d)	Ampicillin (200 mg/Kg/day every 6–8 h) + clindamycin (20–40 mg/Kg/d every 6–8 h) ±gentamicin or tobramycin (6–7.5 mg/Kg/d)	97.3%	97.4%	ND



Pathogens commonly responsible for pelvic inflammatory disease are sexually transmitted, such as *N. gonorrhoeae* and *C. trachomatis* or belong to the vaginal flora i.e. anaerobes, *Gardnerella vaginalis*, *H. influenzae*, or gram-negative bacteria.^{3,5}

Ampicillin/Sulbactam has been compared with cefoxitin in various studies^{49–53} with clinical efficacy rates between 85%–90% in the group of Ampicillin/Sulbactam without significantly differences with the group of cefoxitin (clinical cure rates 85%–95%). In another study clindamycin alone or with gentamicin, cefotetan or cefoxitin and metronidazole with or without gentamicin were compared^{54–59} (Table 3). Cure and/or improvement rates ranged from 82% to 100%. Clinical efficacy with Ampicillin/Sulbactam was higher than or equal to cefoxitin, but was inferior to clindamycin plus gentamicin in all relevant

studies. Cefotetan and metronidazol plus gentamicin were found to have the same clinical efficacy as ampicillin/sulbactam in two studies.^{55,56} However, the differences between therapeutic treatments in cure/improvement rates were not statistically significant.

Ampicillin/Sulbactam is an effective therapy for the treatment of post-operative infections, pelvic inflammatory disease and post-Caesarean and post-partum endometritis, with equivalent clinical efficacy to other agents, including metronidazole/gentamicin, cefoxitin, cefoxitin/doxycycline, gentamicin/clindamycin and clindamycin.

Diabetic foot infections

Serious lower-limb infections treatment in diabetics can be difficult. Factors such as the presence of polymicrobial infection, underlying or contiguous

Table 3. Principal studies about Ampicillin/Sulbactam in gynaecological and obstetric infections.

Reference	Infections	Treatments		Cure rate (%)		
	Design	Treatment/dosing	Comparator	Cure	Comparator	P-value
Gunning et al ⁵⁴	60 PID	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 h	Clindamycin (600 mg/6 h) +gentamicin (1.5 m/Kg/8 h)	85.7%	94.4%	ND
Crombleholme et al ⁵⁹	41 Severe PID, tuboovarian absceso, endomyometritis	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 h	Metronidazole (7.5 mg/Kg/6 h) +gentamicin (1.5 m/Kg/8 h)	95%	86%	ND
Hamsell et al ⁴⁹	22 Complicated/ Uncomplicated PID	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 h	Cefoxitin 2 gr/6 h	100%	100%	ND
Scalambrino et al ⁵⁵	95 Gynaecological/ Obstetrical infections	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 h	Cefotetan 2 gr/12 h	89%	89%	ND
Martens et al ⁵⁶	65 Postcaesarean endometritis	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 h	Metronidazole (500 mg/6 h) +gentamicin 80 mg/8 h	91%	91%	ND
Martens et al ⁵⁷	68 Postpartum endomyometritis	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 h	Clindamycin (900 mg/8 h)	83%	88%	ND
Hemsell et al ⁵⁰	54 Acute salpingitis	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 h	Cefoxitin 2 gr/6 h	94%	89%	ND
McGregor et al ⁵¹	103 PID	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 h	Cefoxitin 2 gr/6 h	85.5%	89.6%	ND
Gall et al ⁵⁸	107 Postpartum endometritis	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 h	Clindamycin (900 mg/8 h) +gentamicin (1.5 m/Kg/8 h)	82%	84%	NS
Stiglmayer et al ⁵²	76 Endometritis, salpingitis, tubo-ovarian absceso	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/8 h	Cefoxitin 2 gr/8 h	97.5%	89.5%	ND
Jemsek et al ⁵³	93 PID	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 h	Cefoxitin 2 gr/6 h	97%	92%	0.67

Abbreviation: PID, pelvic inflammatory disease.



osteomyelitis, hyperglycemia and diabetic sequelae commonly influence their medical and surgical management.⁶⁰

Akova et al⁶¹ studied seventy-four patients with diabetic foot infections treated with parenteral Ampicillin/Sulbactam (1.5 g, q.i.d.). The result were clinical cure rates of 86% and 100% in patients with osteomyelitis and with soft tissue infection, respectively which indicates that Ampicillin/Sulbactam is safe and effective in the treatment of diabetic foot infections.

A randomized double-blind study compared imipenem 0.5 gr/6 hours and Ampicillin/Sulbactam (3 gr/6 hours) in limb-threatening infections in diabetic patients showed comparable outcomes. Cure rates were 81% for the Ampicillin/Sulbactam group versus 85% for the imipenem group, failure rates were 17% for Ampicillin/Sulbactam versus 13% for imipenem and bacterial eradication was 67% and 75% for Ampicillin/Sulbactam and imipenem respectively.^{3,60}

Ampicillin/Sulbactam has been compared with piperacillin/tazobactam, clyndamycin, cefoxitin and linezolid. In the case of piperacillin/tazobactam the clinical efficacy was comparable (83.1% for Ampicillin/Sulbactam vs. 81% for piperacillin/tazobactam). A higher bacteriological success rate was achieved by piperacillin/tazobactam as the most common gram-negative bacterium in this study was *P. aeruginosa*.⁶² Cindamycin compared to cefoxitin showed similar results.^{63,64}

Ampicillin/Sulbactam has been compared with linezolid in a randomised, open-label trial, without significantly statistically differences. Higher cure rates

were achieved in the linezolid treatment arm than in the Ampicillin/Sulbactam treatment arm in patients with infected ulcers (81% vs. 68% $P = 0.018$) and in patients without osteomyelitis (87% vs. 72%, $P = 0.003$).⁶⁵

Skin and soft tissue infections

Ampicillin/Sulbactam has been compared with cefoxitin,⁶⁶ cefazolin⁶⁷ or clindamycin. Parenteral Ampicillin/Sulbactam was effective in treating various skin and soft tissue infections (Table 4).

Ampicillin/Sulbactam and cefoxitin were compared in a randomised, double-blind trial in patients with or without history of injection drug abuse who presented skin or another soft tissue infections. These two agents were equally effective for the empirical treatment of skin or another soft tissue infections in both patients. Cure occurred in 89.8% of Ampicillin/Sulbactam treated patients compared with 93.6% of cefoxitin treated patients.⁶⁶

A randomized double blind study in 58 hospitalized patients compared intravenous Ampicillin/Sulbactam (1 gr/6 hours) with cefazolin 500 mg/6 hours in the treatment of cellulitis and with cefoxitin (1 gr/6 hours). In other skin infections, no statistically significant differences in efficacy or safety were detected. In patients with cellulitis, Ampicillin/Sulbactam and cefazolin produced a clinical cure or improvement in 100% and 91.7% of patients respectively.⁶⁷ In other infections the result for Ampicillin/Sulbactam and cefoxitin were 80 and 64.7% respectively.

Table 4. Principal studies about Ampicillin/Sulbactam in skin and soft-tissue infections.

Reference	Design	Patients	Treatments	Comparator	Cure rate (%)		
			Treatment/dosing		Cure	Comparator	P-value
Talan et al ⁶⁶	Prospective Randomized	96 soft tissue infections	49 Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 h	Cefoxitin 2 gr/6 h	89.8	93.6	NS
Harkless et al ⁶²	Prospective Randomized	289 diabetic foot infection	150 Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 h	Piperacillin/Tazobactam	83%	81%	NS
Stridde et al ⁶³	Prospective Randomized	36 diabetic foot infection	17 Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/8 h	Clindamycin	82%	83%	NS
Erstad et al ⁶⁴	Prospective Randomized	36 diabetic foot infection	18 Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 h		83%		
Lipsky et al ⁶⁵	Prospective Randomized	88 diabetic foot infection	41 Ampicillin/Sulbactam 1.5–3 gr/iv every 6 h	Linezolid 600 mg/12 h	83%		
Grayson et al ⁶⁰	Randomized Double blind	Diabetic foot Infection	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr i.v/6 h	Imipenem 500 mg i.v/6 h	81%	85%	NS

Abbreviation: NS, not significative.



In the case of clindamycin, sixty patients with soft tissue infections received Ampicillin/Sulbactam (2 gr/6 h, n = 30) or clindamycin (600 mg/6 h) plus tobramycin (1.5 mg/Kg/8 h, n = 30). A 93% cure or improvement rate was shown with Ampicillin/Sulbactam compared with 81% in the clindamycin group.⁶⁸

Infections due to *A. baumannii*

Ampicillin/Sulbactam may be an effective and safely used therapeutic option to treat severe nosocomial infections caused by multidrug-resistant (MDR) *A. baumannii* given Sulbactam *in-vitro* activity against the organism including some carbapenems-resistant strains.⁶⁹ Its mechanism of antimicrobial activity against *A. baumannii* strains is related to its intrinsic affinity for essential penicillin-binding proteins (PBPs) of these organisms and to alter the permeability of the outer membrane of gram-negative bacilli resulting in the leakage of β -lactamases and thus better penetration by other antibacterial agents.³

Ampicillin/Sulbactam has been used in meningitis, bacteraemia, ventilator-associated pneumonia with different results (Table 5). Levin et al⁴ studied 40 patients with nosocomial infections caused by MDR *A. baumannii* treated with intravenous Ampicillin/Sulbactam. The average daily dose of

Ampicillin/Sulbactam was 6 gr and 3 gr respectively and six patients received 12 g and 6 g respectively. The infections were primary bacteraemia (32.5%), pneumonia (30%), urinary tract infection (15%), peritonitis (7.5%) surgical site (7.5%), meningitis (5%) and sinusitis (2.5%). In this case, 67.5% of patients were improved/cured and 17.5% experienced treatment failure. The patients with meningitis did not respond to the treatment.

The intravenous Sulbactam penetrates about 1% through the blood brain barrier, which will increase to 32% in the meningeal inflammation.^{2,18} Ampicillin/Sulbactam combination has been used to treat MDR *A. baumannii* meningitis by some authors in doses of 2 gr/6–8 hours with a mortality of 20%–25%.^{4,18,70,71} In our experience of 4 cases treated with 3 gr/8 hour, mortality was 33% without lower evidence than in other treatments except intrathecal colistin intravenously.¹⁸ Within the eight cases published by Jimenez Mejias et al⁷⁰ doses of 1 gr/6–8 hours were used producing the death of patients receiving treatment every 8 hours. Nowadays the dose of 2 gr/6 hours is considered to be more suitable for the treatment of meningitis.⁷¹

The efficacy and safety of Ampicillin/Sulbactam for MDR *Acinetobacter baumannii* ventilator-associated pneumonia (VAP) has been assessed in several researches with clinical improvement of 67%.^{72–74} and

Table 5. Main clinical studies on *A. baumannii* infections.

Reference	Design	Patients	Treatment	Cure rate (%)
Levin et al ⁴	Prospective nonrandomized	2 CNS infections Bloodstream 13 Pneumonia 5 Urinary tract 6 Surgical site 3 Peritonitis 3 Sinusitis 1	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 6 gr/day in 3 doses Six patients 12 gr/day in 3 doses.	67.5% cure None meningitis
Jimenez-Mejias et al ⁷⁰	Retrospective	8 postsurgical meningitis	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 2 gr i.v/6–8 hours	75% cure
Cawley et al ⁷¹	Case report	Meningitis	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 2 gr i.v every 3 hours	Cure
Rodriguez-Guardado et al ¹⁸	Retrospective	51 postsurgical meningitis	Ampicillin/Sulbactam 3 gr/8 hours (7 cases)	57%
Jellison et al ⁷⁶	Retrospective observacional	48 bacteremias	Group 1: Ampicillin Sulbactam 1–2 gr/6 h, n = 30 Group 2: Imipenem 0.5–1/6–8 h, n = 18	Group 1, 97% Group 2, 100%
Smolyajov et al ⁷⁸	Retrospective analysis	94 bacteremias	Ampicillin/Sulbactam	65% AMS reduced mortality P = 0.02, R = 7.64

Principio del formulario.



high-dose Ampicillin/Sulbactam were comparably safe and effective treatments respect to colistin for critically ill patients with MDR *A. baumannii* VAP.⁷⁴ The safety and efficacy of Ampicillin/Sulbactam was compared with colistin in the treatment of MDR *A. baumannii* ventilator-associated pneumonia (VAP).⁷⁵ The patients received doses of Ampicillin/Sulbactam 9 gr/8 hours (n = 13) or colistin 3 MIU/8 hours intravenously (n = 15). Resolution of symptoms and signs occurred in 60% of the colistin group and 61.5% of the Ampicillin/Sulbactam group without any significant difference. Additionally, no significant differences in the mortality rates and in the side effects were shown.

In the Oliveira et al⁷³ research, 82 patients were treated with polymyxins and 85 with Ampicillin/Sulbactam. Multiple logistic regression analysis revealed that independent predictors of mortality during treatment were the treatment with polymyxins. In this research, Ampicillin/Sulbactam appears to be more effective than polymyxins, which was an independent factor associated with mortality during treatment.

Data evaluating the safety of high dose or non-traditional dosage of Ampicillin/Sulbactam are limited.^{71,74,75} Betrosian et al⁷⁴ conducted a randomised non-comparative, prospective trial to assess the efficiency of two high-dose treatments of Ampicillin/Sulbactam in patients with ventilator associated pneumonia due to MDR *A. baumannii*. Group A of patients received Ampicillin/Sulbactam 18/9 gr/day and group B received 24/12 gr/day. Clinical improvement and bacteriological success rates were 64.3% and 84.7% in group A and B respectively and 69.2 and 69.2 in group B respectively without side effects reported.

Ampicillin/Sulbactam has been assessed in the bacteraemia due to *A. baumannii*. It was compared with imipenem in various studies without any significant difference.^{76–78}

Side Effects

The adverse event profile of Ampicillin/Sulbactam is similar to the favourable profile of Ampicillin alone.⁷⁹ The most frequent adverse reaction is site pain after intramuscular injection. Another adverse reactions reported are: diarrhoea (3%), phlebitis (1.2%), and rash (<2%). Laboratory changes most

commonly reported are high hepatic enzymes (serum aspartate aminotransferase, 6.2%; serum alanine aminotransferase, 6.9%).⁸⁰ Haematologic abnormalities (decreased haematocrit/haemoglobin, leukopenia, lymphopenia, thrombocytopenia or increases lymphocytes, monocytes, basophils, eosinophils and platelets) decreases albumin and total proteins, increased creatinine, and the presence of red blood cells and hyaline casts in the urine are less frequent.^{3,5}

Clostridium difficile-associated disease is a significant nosocomial infection and is common in hospitalised patients receiving broad-spectrum antibiotics.⁸¹ It has been reported after almost all antibiotic agents, including Ampicillin/Sulbactam, and clinicians should be aware of the possibility of *C. difficile* in patients presenting diarrhoea after antibiotic use.

Place of Ampicillin/Sulbactam in the Treatment of Severe Infections

Ampicillin/Sulbactam is comparable to second and third-generation cephalosporins in the treatment of lower respiratory infections. However, it is not effective against *Ps. aeruginosa* or intracellular bacteria that are common pathogens and must be accompanied by a macrolide or quinolone. Ampicillin/sulbactam can be used in ICU patients with community-acquired pneumonia who are not at risk for *Pseudomonas* infection, in combination with a macrolide or a fluorquinolone according to IDSA/ATS guidelines (2007).^{38,39}

The recent guidelines about intra-abdominal do not recommend the use of Ampicillin/Sulbactam as empiric treatment due the emergence of resistant strains of *E. coli*.⁴⁰

Ampicillin/Sulbactam has been shown not to be inferior to imipenem as well as piperacillin/tazobactam in the treatment of diabetic foot infections.^{60–62} In a comparative research of Ampicillin/Sulbactam vs. linezolid there was not statistically difference between both treatments although linezolid achieved higher cure rates in patients with infected ulcers and in patients without osteomyelitis.⁶⁵ However there are important limitations in the management of diabetic foot infection when the disease is due to *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* or Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

Ampicillin/Sulbactam may be an effective and safely used therapeutic option to treat severe nosocomial infections caused by multidrug-resistant (MDR)

bacteria, lthough probably it needs higher doses than normally used.

Conclusions

Ampicillin/Sulbactam has a wide range of antibacterial activity that includes Gram-positive and Gram-negative aerobic and anaerobic bacteria. However, the drug is not active against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and pathogens producing extended-spectrum β -lactamases. The combination could be considered particularly active against *Acinetobacter baumannii* infections due to the intrinsic activity of Sulbactam. In clinical trials, sultamicillin has proved to be clinically and bacteriologically effective in adults with severe bacterial infections, bacterial infection of the lower respiratory tract, meningitis, urinary tract infections, intra-abdominal infections, diabetic foot and skin and soft tissue infections. Furthermore, side effects rarely occur being the diarrhoea the most commonly reported. Moreover, it seems to represent the alternative choice for the treatment of *A. baumannii* infections for carbapenem-resistant strains in the nosocomial setting.

Disclosure

This manuscript has been read and approved by all authors. This paper is unique and is not under consideration by any other publication and has not been published elsewhere. The authors and peer reviewers of this paper report no conflicts of interest. The authors confirm that they have permission to reproduce any copyrighted material.

References

1. Levin AS. Multiresistant *Acinetobacter* infections. A role for sulbactam combinations in overcoming an emerging worldwide problem. *Clinical and Microbiological Infection*. 2002;8:144–53.
2. Kim RN, Peleg AY, Lodise TP, Lipman J, Nation RL, Paterson DL. Management of meningitis due to antibiotic-resistant *Acinetobacter* species. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2009;9:245–55.
3. Rafailidis PI, Ioannidou EN, Falagas ME. Ampicillin/Sulbactam: current status in severe bacterial infections. *Drugs*. 2007;67:1829–49.
4. Levin AS, Levy CE, Manrique A, Medeiros E, Costa SF. Severe nosocomial infections with imipenem-resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii* treated with Ampicillin/Sulbactam. *Intern J Antimicrob Agents*. 2003;21:58–62.
5. Lode H. Rational antibiotic therapy and the position of Ampicillin/Sulbactam. *Intern J Antimicrob Agents*. 2008;32:10–28.
6. Lode H. Role of sultamicillin and Ampicillin/Sulbactam in the treatment of upper and lower bacterial respiratory tract infections. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*. 2001;18:199–209.
7. McKinnon P, Freeman C. Beta-lactam and Beta-lactamase inhibitor combinations. In: Yu VI editor. *Antimicrobial therapy and vaccines*. Pittsburgh (PA): ESun Technologies LLC. 2005;55–9.
8. Williams JD. Beta-lactamase inhibition and in vitro activity of sulbactam and sulbactam/cefoperazone. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1997;24:494–7.
9. Labia R, Morand A, Lelievre V, et al. Sulbactam: biochemical factors involved in its synergy with ampicillin. *Rev Infect Dis*. 1986;Suppl 5: S496–502.
10. Sandanayaka VP, Prashad AS. Resistance to β -lactam antibiotics: structure and mechanism based design of β -lactamase inhibitors. *Curr Med Chem*. 2002;9:1145–65.
11. Hawser SP, Bouchillon SK, Hoban DJ, Badal RE, Hsueh PR, Paterson DL. Emergence of high levels of extended-spectrum- β -lactamase-producing gram-negative bacilli in the Asia-Pacific region: data from the Study for Monitoring Antimicrobial Resistance Trends (SMART) program, 2007. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2009;53:3280–4.
12. Al-Hasan MN, Lahr BD, Eckel-Passow JE, Baddour LM. Antimicrobial resistance trends of *Escherichia coli* bloodstream isolates: a population-based study, 1998–2007. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2009;64:169–74.
13. Chow JW, Satishchandran V, Snyder TA, Harvey CM, Friedland IR, Dinubile MJ. In vitro susceptibilities of aerobic and facultative gram-negative bacilli isolated from patients with intra-abdominal infections worldwide: the 2002 Study for Monitoring Antimicrobial Resistance Trends (SMART). *Surg Infect (Larchmt)*. 2005;6:439–48.
14. Wang F, Lin M, Lee W, Liu CY. In vitro activities of β -lactam antibiotics alone and in combination with sulbactam against Gram-negative bacteria. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*. 2004;23:590–595.
15. Lode H, Hampel B, Bruckner G, et al. The pharmacokinetics of sultamicillin. *APMIS Suppl*. 1989;5:17–22.
16. Foulds G. Pharmacokinetics of sulbactam/ampicillin in humans: a review. *Rev Infect Dis*. 1986;8 Suppl 5:S503–11.
17. Meyers Br, Wilkinson P, Mendelson Mh, et al. Pharmacokinetics of ampicillin-sulbactam in healthy elderly and young volunteers. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 1991;35:2098–101.
18. Rodriguez-Guardado A, Blanco A, Asensi V, et al. Multidrug-resistant *Acinetobacter* meningitis in neurosurgical patients with intraventricular catheters: assessment of different treatments. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2008;61:908–13.
19. Nahata WC, Vashi VI, Swanson RN, et al. Pharmacokinetics of ampicillin and sulbactam in paediatrics patients. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 1999;43:1225–9.
20. Williams JD. β -lactamases and β -lactamase inhibitors. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*. 1999;12 Suppl 1:S3–7.
21. Felmingham D, Washington J. Trends in the antimicrobial susceptibility of bacterial respiratory tract pathogens—findings of the Alexander Project 1992–1996. *J Chemother*. 1999;11 Suppl 1:5–21.
22. Ozbay B, Uzun K. A comparison of Ampicillin/Sulbactam versus cefuroxime in the therapy of lower respiratory tract infections. *Eur Respir J*. 1997;10:383S.
23. Yanagihara K, Fukuda Y, Seki M, Izumikawa K, Higashiyama Y, Miyazaki Y, et al. Clinical comparative study of sulbactam/ampicillin and imipenem/cilastatin in elderly patients with community-acquired pneumonia. *Intern Med*. 2006;45:995–9.
24. Okimoto N, Kurihara T, Honda N, Asaoka N, Fujita K, Ohba H, et al. Clinical effect of ampicillin with β -lactamase inhibitor (sulbactam/ampicillin) on community-acquired pneumonia in the elderly. *J Infect Chemother*. 2003;9:183–6.
25. Castellano MA, Maniatis T. Treatment of LRTIs: two antimicrobials compared. *Infect Dis*. 1998;15:259–63.
26. Ott SR, Allewelt M, Lorenz J, Reimnitz P, Lode H; The German Lung Abscess Study Group. Moxifloxacin vs. Ampicillin/Sulbactam in aspiration pneumonia and primary lung abscess. *Infection*. 2008;36:23–30.
27. Allewelt M, Schuler P, Bolcskei PL, Mauch H, Lode H; Study Group on Aspiration Pneumonia. Ampicillin + sulbactam vs. clindamycin cephalosporin for the treatment of aspiration pneumonia and primary lung abscess. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2004;10:163–70.
28. Kadowaki M, Demura Y, Mizuno S, et al. Reappraisal of clindamycin IV monotherapy for treatment of mild-to-moderate aspiration pneumonia in elderly patients. *Chest*. 2005;127:1276–82.
29. Betrosian AP, Frantzeskaki F, Xanthaki A, Georgiadis G. High-dose Ampicillin/Sulbactam as an alternative treatment of late-onset VAP from multidrug-resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii*. *Scand J Infect Dis*. 2007;39:38–43.



30. Wood GC, Hanes SD, Croce MA, Fabian TC, Boucher BA. Comparison of ampicillin-sulbactam and imipenem-cilastatin for the treatment of *Acinetobacter* ventilator-associated pneumonia. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2002;34:1425–30.
31. McKinnon PS, Neuhauser MM. Efficacy and cost of ampicillin-sulbactam and ticarcillin-clavulanate in the treatment of hospitalized patients with bacterial infections. *Pharmacotherapy*. 1999;19:724–33.
32. Geckler RW. A comparison of Ampicillin/Sulbactam and cefuroxime in the treatment of patients with bacterial infections of the lower respiratory tract. *Clin Ther*. 1994;16:662–72.
33. Jauregui L, Minns P, Hageage G. A comparison of Ampicillin/Sulbactam versus cefotaxime in the therapy of lower respiratory tract infections in hospitalized patients. *J Chemother*. 1995;7:153–6.
34. Rossoff L, Hilton E, Smith C, et al. Intravenous Ampicillin/Sulbactam versus cefuroxime axetil in the treatment of patients hospitalized with community-acquired lower respiratory tract infections. *Curr Ther Res*. 1995;56:852–62.
35. Schwigon CD, Gabor M, Hartmann J, et al. Which antibiotic is better for the treatment of infections of the lower respiratory tract? *Int J Antimicrob Agents*. 1996;Suppl 6:S73–7.
36. Schwigon CD, Cuhorst R, Gabor M, et al. Comparison of sulbactam/ampicillin and cefuroxime in infections of the lower respiratory tract: results of a prospective, randomized and comparative study. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*. 1996;Suppl 6:S67–72.
37. Zervos MJ, Skupien D, Dmuchowski CF. Meta-analysis of the efficacy and safety of Ampicillin/Sulbactam in the treatment of patients with bacterial infections of the lower respiratory tract. *Infect Dis Clin Pract*. 1997;6:473–81.
38. Mandell LA, Wunderink RG, Anzueto A, et al. Infectious Diseases Society of America/American Thoracic Society consensus guidelines on the management of community-acquired pneumonia in adults. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2007;44 Suppl 2:S27–72.
39. American Thoracic Society. Guidelines for the management of adults with hospital-acquired ventilator-associated and health-care-associated pneumonia [online]. Available at <http://www.thoracic.org/sections/publications/statements/pages/mtpi/guide1-29.html>. Accessed Jan 18, 2010.
40. Solomkin J, Mazuski J, Bradley J, et al. Diagnosis and management of complicated intra-abdominal infection in adults and children: Guidelines by the Surgical Infection Society and the Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2010;50:133–64.
41. Yellin AE, Heseltine PN, Berne TV, et al. The role of *Pseudomonas species* in patients treated with ampicillin and sulbactam for gangrenous and perforated appendicitis. *Surg Gynecol Obstet*. 1985;161:303–7.
42. Walker AP, Nichols RL, Wilson RF, et al. Efficacy of a β -lactamase inhibitor combination for serious intra-abdominal infections. *Ann Surg*. 1993;217:115–21.
43. Collins MD, Dajani AS, Kim KS, et al. Comparison of Ampicillin/Sulbactam plus aminoglycoside vs. ampicillin plus clindamycin plus aminoglycoside in the treatment of intraabdominal infections in children. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 1998;17:S15–21.
44. Messick CR, Mamdani M, McNicholl IR, et al. Pharmacoeconomic analysis of Ampicillin/Sulbactam versus cefoxitin in the treatment of intraabdominal infections. *Pharmacotherapy*. 1998;18:175–83.
45. Holzheimer RG, Dralle H. Antibiotic therapy in intra-abdominal infections—a review on randomised clinical trials. *Eur J Med Res*. 2001;6:277–91.
46. Wong PF, Gilliam AD, Kumar S, Shenfine J, O'Dair GN, Leaper DJ. Antibiotic regimens for secondary peritonitis of gastrointestinal origin in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2005;CD004539.
47. Study Group of Intra-Abdominal Infections. A randomized controlled trial of ampicillin plus sulbactam versus gentamicin and clindamycin in the treatment of intraabdominal infections: a preliminary report. *Rev Infect Dis*. 1986;8 Suppl 5:S583–8.
48. Paterson DL, Rossi F, Baquero F, et al. In vitro susceptibilities of aerobic and facultative Gram-negative bacilli isolated from patients with intraabdominal infections worldwide: the 2003 Study for Monitoring Antimicrobial Resistance Trends (SMART). *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2005;55:965–73.
49. Hemsell DL, Heard MC, Hemsell PG, et al. Sulbactam/ampicillin versus cefoxitin for uncomplicated and complicated acute pelvic inflammatory disease. *Drugs*. 1998;35 Suppl 7:39–42.
50. Hemsell DL, Bawdon RE, Hemsell PG, et al. Single-agent therapy for acute pelvic inflammatory disease: sulbactam/ampicillin versus cefoxitin. *J Int Med Res*. 1990;18 Suppl 4:85D–9.
51. McGregor JA, Crombleholme WR, Newton E, et al. Randomized comparison of Ampicillin/Sulbactam to cefoxitin and doxycycline or clindamycin and gentamicin in the treatment of pelvic inflammatory disease or endometritis. *Obstet Gynecol*. 1994;83:998–1004.
52. Stiglmayer R, Senft HH, Eibach HW, et al. Sulbactam/ampicillin versus cefoxitin in the treatment of gynaecological infections: an antibiotic therapeutic study. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*. 1996;6 Suppl 1:S61–65.
53. Jensek JG, Harrison F. Ampicillin/Sulbactam vs. cefoxitin for the treatment of pelvic inflammatory disease. *Infect Dis Obstet Gynecol*. 1997;5:319–25.
54. Gunning J. A comparison of parenteral sulbactam/ampicillin versus clindamycin/gentamicin in the treatment of pelvic inflammatory disease. *Drugs*. 1986;31 Suppl 2:14–7.
55. Scalabrino S, Mangioni C, Milani R, et al. Sulbactam/ampicillin versus cefotetan in the treatment of obstetric and gynecologic infections. *Int J Gynecol Obstet*. 1989;30 Suppl 2:21–7.
56. Martens MG, Faro S, Hammill HA, et al. Sulbactam/ampicillin versus metronidazole/gentamicin in the treatment of postcesarean section endometritis. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis*. 1989;12 Suppl 4:189S–94.
57. Martens MG, Faro S, Hammill HA, et al. Ampicillin/Sulbactam versus clindamycin in the treatment of postpartum endomyometritis. *South Med J*. 1990;83:408–13.
58. Gall S, Koukol DH. Ampicillin/Sulbactam vs. clindamycin/gentamicin in the treatment of postpartum endomyometritis. *J Reprod Med*. 1996;41:575–80.
59. Crombleholme WR, Ohm-Smith M, Robbie MO, DeKay V, Sweet RL. Ampicillin/Sulbactam versus metronidazole-gentamicin in the treatment of soft tissue pelvic infections. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 1987;156:507–12.
60. Grayson ML, Gibbons GW, Habershaw GM, et al. Use of Ampicillin/Sulbactam versus imipenem/cilastatin in the treatment of limb-threatening foot infections in diabetic patients. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1994;18:683–93.
61. Akova M, Ozcebe O, Gullu I, et al. Efficacy of sulbactam-ampicillin for the treatment of severe diabetic foot infections. *J Chemother*. 1996;8:284–9.
62. Harkless L, Boghossian J, Pollak R, Caputo W, Dana A, Gray S. An open-label, randomized study comparing efficacy and safety of intravenous piperacillin/tazobactam and Ampicillin/Sulbactam for infected diabetic foot ulcers. *Surg Infect (Larchmt)*. 2005;6:27–40.
63. Stridde E, Meyne K, Kluth-Pepper B, Ziegler D. Sulbactam/ampicillin or clindamycin in the treatment of foot infections in diabetic patients with polyneuropathy. *Exp Clin Endocrinol Diabetes*. 2000;108:S124.
64. Erstad BL Jr, McIntyre Ke Jr, Mills JL. Prospective, randomized comparison of Ampicillin/Sulbactam and cefoxitin for diabetic foot infections. *Vasc Surg*. 1997;31:419–26.
65. Lipsky BA, Itani K, Norden C. Linezolid Diabetic Foot Infection Study Group. Treating foot infections in diabetic patients: a randomized, multicenter, open-label trial of linezolid versus Ampicillin/Sulbactam/amoxicillin-clavulanate. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2004;38:17–24.
66. Talan DA, Summanen PH, Finegold SM. Ampicillin/Sulbactam and cefoxitin in the treatment of cutaneous and another soft-tissue abscesses in patients with or without histories of injection drug abuse. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2000;31:464–71.
67. Chan JC. Ampicillin/Sulbactam versus cefazolin or cefoxitin in the treatment of skin and skin-structure infections of bacterial etiology. *Adv Ther*. 1995;12:139–46.
68. Stromberg BV, Reines HD, Hunt P. Comparative clinical study of sulbactam and ampicillin and clindamycin and tobramycin in infections of soft tissues. *Surg Gynecol Obstet*. 1986;162:575–8.
69. Corbella X, Ariza J, Ardanuy C, et al. Efficacy of sulbactam alone and in combination with ampicillin in nosocomial infections caused by multiresistant *Acinetobacter baumannii*. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 1998;42:793–802.



70. Jimenez-Mejias ME, Pachon J, Becerril B, Palomino-Nicas J, Rodriguez-Corbacho A, Revuelta M. Treatment of multidrug-resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii* meningitis with Ampicillin/Sulbactam. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1997;24:932–35.
71. Cawley MJ, Suh C, Lee S, Ackerman BH. Nontraditional dosing of Ampicillin/Sulbactam for multidrug-resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii* meningitis. *Pharmacotherapy*. 2002;22:527–32.
72. Wood GC, Hanes SD, Croce MA, Fabian TC, Boucher BA. Comparison of Ampicillin/Sulbactam and imipenem-cilastatin for the treatment of *Acinetobacter* ventilator-associated pneumonia. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2002;34:1425–30.
73. Oliveira MS, Prado GV, Costa SF, Grinbaum RS, Levin AS. Ampicillin/Sulbactam compared with polymyxins for the treatment of infections caused by carbapenem-resistant *Acinetobacter* spp. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2008;61:1369–75.
74. Betrosian AP, Frantzeskaki F, Xanthaki A, Georgiadis G. High-dose Ampicillin/Sulbactam as an alternative treatment of late-onset VAP from multidrug-resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii*. *Scand J Infect Dis*. 2007;39:38–43.
75. Betrosian AP, Frantzeskaki F, Xanthaki A, Douzinas EE. Efficacy and safety of high-dose Ampicillin/Sulbactam vs. colistin as monotherapy for the treatment of multidrug resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii* ventilator-associated pneumonia. *J Infect*. 2008;56:432–6.
76. Jellison TK, Mckinnon PS, Rybak MJ. Epidemiology, resistance, and outcomes of *Acinetobacter baumannii* bacteremia treated with imipenem-cilastatin or Ampicillin/Sulbactam. *Pharmacotherapy*. 2001;21:142–8.
77. Cisneros JM, Reyes JM, Pachon J, et al. Bacteraemia due to *Acinetobacter baumannii*: epidemiology, clinical findings and prognostic features. *Clin Infect Dis*. 1996;22:1026–32.
78. Smolyakov R, Borer A, Riesenber K, et al. Nosocomial multi-drug resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii* bloodstream infection: risk factors and outcome with Ampicillin/Sulbactam treatment. *J Hosp Infect*. 2003;54:32–8.
79. Benson JM, Nahata MC. Sulbactam/ampicillin: a new β -lactamase inhibitor/ β -lactam antibiotic combination. *Drug Intell Clin Pharm*. 1988;22:534–41.
80. Lees L, Milson JA, Knirsch AK, et al. Sulbactam plus ampicillin: interim review of efficacy and safety for therapeutic and prophylactic use. *Rev Infect Dis*. 1986;8 Suppl 5:S644–50.
81. Kuijper EJ, Coignard B, Tull P, ESCMID Study Group for *Clostridium difficile*; EU Member States; European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. Emergence of *Clostridium difficile* associated disease in North America and Europe. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2006;12 Suppl 6:2–18.
82. Betrosian AP, Douzinas EE. Ampicillin/Sulbactam: an update on the use of parenteral and oral forms in bacterial infections. *Expert Opin Drug Metab Toxicol*. 2009;5:1099–112.