

Time to Appropriate Antibiotic Therapy is an Independent Indicator of Poor Outcome in Children with Nosocomial *Klebsiella Pneumoniae* Bloodstream Infection

Jie Cheng

Chongqing Medical University Affiliated Children's Hospital

Qinyuan Li

Chongqing Medical University Affiliated Children's Hospital

Guangli Zhang

Chongqing Medical University Affiliated Children's Hospital

Huiting Xu

Chongqing Medical University Affiliated Children's Hospital

Yuanyuan Li

Chongqing Medical University Affiliated Children's Hospital

Xiaoyin Tian

Chongqing Medical University Affiliated Children's Hospital

Dapeng Chen

Chongqing Medical University Affiliated Children's Hospital

Zhengxiu Luo (✉ luozhengxiu816@163.com)

Chongqing Medical University Affiliated Children's Hospital

Research Article

Keywords: *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, Delayed therapy, Time to appropriate therapy, Nosocomial bloodstream infection, Children.

Posted Date: August 4th, 2021

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-332633/v1>

License:   This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

[Read Full License](#)

Abstract

We aim to evaluate the effects of time to appropriate therapy (TTAT) on outcomes in children with nosocomial *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection, and to find an optimal time window for empiric antibiotics administration. Children with nosocomial *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection hospitalized in Children's Hospital of Chongqing Medical University from April 2014 to December 2019 were enrolled retrospectively. TTAT cutoff point and risk factors were determined and analyzed by Classification and Regression Tree (CART) analysis and Logistic Regression analysis. Overall, sixty-seven patients were enrolled. The incidence of septic shock and mortality was 17.91% (12/67) and 13.43% (9/67), respectively. The CART-derived TTAT cutoff point was 10.7 hours. The multivariate logistic regression analysis indicated delayed therapy (TTAT \geq 10.7 h), PRISM III scores \geq 10, early TTP (TTP \leq 13 h), and need for invasive mechanical ventilation were independent risk factors of septic shock (OR 9.87, 95% CI 1.46-66.59, P = 0.019; OR 9.69, 95% CI 1.15-81.39, P = 0.036; OR 8.28, 95% CI 1.37-50.10, P = 0.021; OR 6.52, 95% CI 1.08-39.51, P = 0.042; respectively) and in-hospital mortality (OR 22.19, 95% CI 1.25-393.94, P = 0.035; OR 40.06, 95% CI 2.32-691.35, P = 0.011; OR 22.60, 95% CI 1.78-287.27, P = 0.016; OR 12.21, 95% CI 1.06-140.67, P = 0.045; respectively).

Conclusions: TTAT is an independent predictor of poor outcome in children with nosocomial *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection. Initial appropriate antibiotic therapy should begin within 10.7 hours from the onset of bloodstream infection.

Introduction

Klebsiella pneumoniae (*K. pneumoniae*) is one of leading gram-negative pathogens of bloodstream infection in hospitalized children [1], also a major worldwide source and shuttle for antibiotic resistance [2], and with high morbidity and mortality. Antibiotic therapy plays a crucial role in the treatment of bloodstream infection, and the time of initiating appropriate antibiotic has significant effects on the prognosis [3–9]. The Surviving Sepsis Campaign in 2020 [10] recommends that the antibiotic should be administrated within 1 hour after the recognition of septic shock, and within 3 hours after the recognition of sepsis-associated organ dysfunction without shock. The 1-hour and 3-hour goals are strongly recommended, while with low quality of evidence and remains controversial [10, 11]. Meanwhile, our previous study showed that the delayed appropriate antibiotic therapy \geq 13.6 hours, not \geq 1 or 3 hours, was associated with the highest sepsis-related mortality in children with *Streptococcus pneumoniae* sepsis [7]. Furthermore, the 1-hour and 3-hour goals are sometimes unrealistic to be achieved due to limitations in identification and diagnosis of sepsis-associated organ dysfunction and septic shock [11]. Immediate antibiotic treatment is lifesaving for some patients, while, the overdiagnosis of sepsis and aggressive time-to-antibiotic targets may lead to antibiotic overuse and antibiotic-associated harms [8, 12]. The Infectious Diseases Society of America states the administration time of antibiotic varies with different pathogens and populations [13]. In adult patients, the optimal appropriate therapy time was 24 hours for *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection [3], 48.1 hours for *Enterococci* bloodstream infection [4], 52 hours for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* bloodstream infection [5] and 44.75 hours for *Staphylococcus*

aureus bacteremia [6]. The appropriate antibiotic time may be different in bacteremia patients with different pathogens and it still remains unknown in pediatric patients with *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection. Therefore, more studies are needed to explore the appropriate antibiotics administration time in different populations. We aimed to evaluate an optimal time window for appropriate antibiotic administration, to determine the effects of time to appropriate therapy (TTAT) on outcomes in children with nosocomial *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection.

Patients And Methods

Study designs and patients

This was a retrospective, observational cohort study conducted in Children's Hospital of Chongqing Medical University, a 2000-bed tertiary teaching hospital in Chongqing, China, ranked the top two domestic children's hospitals (rank list: <http://top100.imicams.ac.cn/home>). Patients hospitalized between April 2014 and December 2019 with *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection were enrolled. The inclusion criteria were of the following: (i) inpatients, (ii) aged 1 month to 18 years, (iii) diagnosed with monomicrobial *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection. The exclusion criteria included any of the following: (i) patients diagnosed with community-acquired *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection, (ii) patients with incomplete clinical information and (iii) patients received appropriate antibiotics against *K. pneumoniae* prior to blood culture. This retrospective study was approved by the Ethics Committee of Children's Hospital of Chongqing Medical University. Informed consent was waived from the parents/guardians owing to the retrospective design of this study.

Data Collection And Definitions

The collected data included demographic characteristics (age and gender), underlying conditions, axillary temperature, serum albumin level, sources of infection, severity of illness, antibiotic susceptibility testing, antibiotic therapy during hospitalization, TTAT, time to positivity (TTP) and clinical outcomes (septic shock and mortality).

K. pneumoniae bloodstream infection was defined as at least 1 blood culture positive for *K. pneumoniae* associate with related clinical manifestations of infection [14]. Nosocomial bloodstream infection was defined as positive blood culture obtained > 48 hours after admission, while signs and symptoms of infection were absent at admission [14]. The immunosuppression patients were defined as patients who received immunosuppressive chemotherapy or high dose steroid therapy more than 2 weeks, or with primary immunodeficiency diseases. Hypoalbuminemia was defined as intravascular albumin level < 2.5 g/dL for children younger than 7 months and < 3.4 g/dL for children 7 months or older [15]. Source of infection was defined according to the CDC /NHSN surveillance guidelines [16]. The severity of illness was assessed by the Pediatric Risk of Mortality (PRISM) III score [17]. TTP was defined as the time span between incubation of blood and detection of bacterial growth. Our previous study demonstrated that

TTP \leq 13 hours and a PRISM III score \geq 10 indicated poor outcomes in children with *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection [18]. Empiric antibiotic treatment was defined as initial antimicrobial therapy for suspected infection without definitive microbiologic pathogen identification [10]. The appropriate antibiotic therapy was defined as the patients received at least one intravenous antibiotic documented in vitro susceptibility according to the breakpoint established according to the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) guideline [19]. Multi-drug resistant (MDR) was defined according to the European Centers for Diseases Prevention and Control (ECDC) international expert proposal [20]. The TTAT was defined as the time duration from onset of bloodstream infection to receive initial appropriate antibiotic therapy [3]. The onset of bloodstream infection was identified by no less than two senior infectious disease physicians according to clinical manifestations (e. g. fever, chill and so on) and biomarkers (e. g. C-reactive protein, procalcitonin and so on), and approved by the subsequent positive blood culture result. Sepsis was defined as infection complicated by one or more organ dysfunctions [21]. Organ system dysfunctions are assessed with an increase in the pediatric Sequential Organ Failure Assessment (pSOFA) score by 2 or more points [22]. Septic shock was defined as patients with sepsis and hypotension requiring vasopressor therapy and lactate greater than 2 mmol/L despite adequate fluid resuscitation [21]. Hypotension was diagnosed according to cutoffs of the age-adapted mean arterial blood pressure in pSOFA score system [22].

Clinical Outcomes

The primary outcome was in-hospital mortality, the second outcome was incidence of septic shock.

Statistical analysis

Classification and regression tree (CART) analysis [23], which included optimal tree selection based on pruning and 10-fold cross-validation, was used to find the optimal cutoff point of TTAT, and the patients at highest risk for in-hospital mortality. The CART-derived TTAT cutoff point was also assessed by receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve analysis [24]. Hazard curves were generated by the Kaplan–Meier method, and differences in survival were compared using the log-rank test. The corresponding in-hospital mortality of different cutoff points of TTAT were assessed by the χ^2 test for a linear trend. Categorical variables were compared by χ^2 test or Fisher's exact test, and continuous variables were compared by Student's t test or Mann-Whitney *U* test. Univariate and multivariate logistic regression test were constructed to explore independent risk factors of septic shock and in-hospital mortality. Variables with P-level $<$ 0.10 in univariate analysis were further included in multivariate models, with forward likelihood ratio selection. Odds ratio (OR) and the corresponding 95% confidence interval (CI) were calculated. All statistical analyses performed using SPSS software for Windows, v.23 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). The level of significance was set at P-value $<$ 0.05 (two-sided).

Results

Study population

One hundred and thirty-two patients were retrospectively enrolled at the beginning. Sixty-five of them were excluded: sixty cases were classified as community-acquired infection, three cases with incomplete clinical information, and two cases received effective antibiotic against *K. pneumoniae* isolates prior to blood culture. Finally, sixty-seven cases were enrolled in this study (Fig. 1).

Clinical characteristic of *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection in children

The median age was 4.33 (IQR 0.76–10.67) years, and the male accounted for 61.69% (42/67). More than half of the patients had hematologic malignancy or immunosuppression (44/67, 65.67%; 41/67, 61.19%, respectively). The most common source of bloodstream infections originated from respiratory tract (55.22%), followed by gastrointestinal tract (20.90%) and unknown source (14.93%). There were 32 (47.76%) extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL) positive and 6 (8.96%) multidrug resistant (MDR) *K. pneumoniae* isolates. More than half of the *K. pneumoniae* isolates resistant to sulbactam (40/67, 59.70%). The resistant rate of cephalosporin and tazobactam was 22.39% (15/67) and 20.90% (14/67), respectively. There were 28 (41.79%) patients receiving antibiotic therapy prior to blood culture. While, thirty-eight (56.72%) patients were treated with carbapenem empirically before the susceptibility tests. The median TTP and TTAT was 14.12 (IQR 12.72–16.22) hours and 4.52 (IQR 0.97–14.18) hours, respectively. Twenty-two (32.84%) patients had secondary hypoalbuminemia and eleven (16.42%) patients administered with invasive mechanical ventilation during hospitalization. The median length of stay before the onset of bloodstream infection was 13.68 (IQR 6.59–17.53) days, the median length of whole hospitalization stay was 28.96 (IQR 20.04–42.75) days. Septic shock occurred in 17.91% (12/67) of patients. The in-hospital mortality was 13.43% (9/67). The detailed characteristics of those patients are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Clinical characteristics of 67 children with nosocomial *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection

Characteristics	Number/median	Percent/IQR
Demographic characteristics		
Male (n, %)	42	61.69
Age (years) (median, IQR)	4.33	0.76–10.67
Underlying conditions		
Hematologic malignancy (n, %)	44	65.67
Immunosuppression (n, %)	41	61.19
Congenital heart disease (n, %)	14	20.90
Sources of infection		
Respiratory tract (n, %)	37	55.22
Gastrointestinal tract (n, %)	14	20.90
Unknown source (n, %)	10	14.93
Invasive operation (n, %)	5	7.46
Urinary tract (n, %)	1	1.49
Drug resistant bacteria phenotypes		
Sulbactam resistant (n, %)	40	59.70
Extended spectrum beta-lactamase (n, %)	32	47.76
Cephalosporin resistant (n, %)	15	22.39
Tazobactam resistant (n, %)	14	20.90
Carbapenem resistant (n, %)	7	10.45
Multidrug resistant (n, %)	6	8.96
Aminoglycoside resistant (n, %)	4	5.97
Empiric antibiotic treatment		
Carbapenem (n, %)	38	56.72
Fourth-generation cephalosporin (n, %)	9	13.43
Third-generation cephalosporin (n, %)	8	11.94

Abbreviations: IQR, inter-quartile range; PRISM, pediatric risk of mortality; TTAT, time to appropriate therapy; TTP, time to positivity.

Characteristics	Number/median	Percent/IQR
Tazobactam (n, %)	7	10.45
Second-generation cephalosporin (n, %)	3	4.48
Sulbactam (n, %)	2	2.99
Length of stay before the onset of bloodstream infection (days) (median, IQR)	13.68	6.59–17.53
Length of hospitalization stay (days) (median, IQR)	28.96	20.04–42.75
The peak of temperature (centigrade) (median, IQR)	39.8	39.3–40.1
Antibiotics administration prior to blood culture (n, %)	28	41.79
With secondary hypoalbuminemia during hospitalization (n, %)	22	32.84
PRISM III score (median, IQR)	8	3–9
TTP (h) (median, IQR)	14.12	12.72–16.22
TTAT (h) (median, IQR)	4.52	0.97–14.18
Need for invasive mechanical ventilation (n, %)	11	16.42
Septic shock (n, %)	12	17.91
In-hospital mortality (n, %)	9	13.43
Abbreviations: IQR, inter-quartile range; PRISM, pediatric risk of mortality; TTAT, time to appropriate therapy; TTP, time to positivity.		

TTAT of *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection in children

The TTAT cutoff point derived by CART to delineate the risk of in-hospital mortality was 10.7 hours. Patients were classified into early (TTAT < 10.7 h) and delayed therapy group (TTAT ≥ 10.7 h) according to TTAT cutoff point. Twenty-three (34.33%) patients received delayed therapy. The in-hospital mortality in delayed therapy group was significantly higher than that in early therapy group (29.17% vs 4.65%, $P = 0.028$). In the subgroup of patients with early therapy, the in-hospital mortality was significantly higher in patients with PRISM III scores ≥ 10 than those with PRISM III scores < 10 (33.33% vs 2.50%, $P = 0.008$). In the subgroup of patients with early therapy and PRISM III scores < 10, patients with TTP ≤ 13 h had remarkably higher in-hospital mortality than those with TTP > 13 h (10.00% vs 0.00%, $P = 0.002$) (Fig. 2). In ROC curve analysis, the CART-derived TTAT cutoff point had the best predict value of in-hospital mortality (AUC [95% confidence interval (CI)], 0.721 [0.564–0.879], 77.78% sensitivity and 70.69% specificity), with moderate predictive efficacy [25]. The Kaplan–Meier survival curve of these patients is shown in Fig. 3. In χ^2 test for a linear trend, patients in TTAT ≥ 10.7 h group had the highest in-hospital

mortality when compared to those in TTAT < 3 h and 3 h ≤ TTAT < 10.7 h periods groups. (P = 0.008) (Fig. 4).

Comparisons of clinical characteristics between the early and delayed therapy groups

Characteristics of two TTAT groups were shown in Table 2. When compared with the delay therapy group (TTAT ≥ 10.7 h), more patients in early therapy (TTAT < 10.7 h) group had hematologic malignancy (84.09% vs 30.43%, P < 0.001) and immunosuppression (72.73% vs 39.13%, P = 0.007). There were prominently more early therapy patients administrated with carbapenem empirically before the susceptibility tests than delayed therapy patients (68.18% vs 34.78%, P = 0.009). Meanwhile, patients received delayed therapy may attribute to the notably higher proportion of empirical third-generation cephalosporin therapy (26.09% vs 4.55%, P = 0.029) and cephalosporin resistant isolates (39.13% vs 13.64%, P = 0.017) than those received early therapy. Accordingly, the delayed therapy patients had significantly higher incidence of secondary hypoalbuminemia (56.52% vs 20.45%, P = 0.002) and septic shock (39.13% vs 6.82%, P = 0.003), higher proportion of requiring invasive mechanical ventilation (34.78% vs 6.82%, P = 0.010), higher in-hospital mortality (30.43% vs 4.55%, P = 0.010) than those early therapy patients. While, the PRISM III scores, the length of stay before the onset of bloodstream infection and length of the whole hospitalization stay were with no differences between the two groups.

Table 2
Comparison of clinical characteristics in early and delayed therapy groups in 67 nosocomial *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection children

Characteristics	TTAT \geq 10.7 h (n = 23)	TTAT < 10.7 h (n = 44)	P
Demographic characteristics			
Male (n, %)	13 (56.52%)	29 (65.91%)	0.451
Age (median, IQR)	0.85 (0.52–9.75)	5.75 (2.50–11.05)	0.070
Underlying conditions			
Hematologic malignancy (n, %)	7 (30.43%)	37 (84.09%)	0.000*
Immunosuppression (n, %)	9 (39.13%)	32 (72.73%)	0.007*
Congenital heart disease (n, %)	8 (34.78%)	6 (13.64%)	0.088
Sources of infection			
Respiratory tract (n, %)	11 (47.83%)	26 (59.09%)	0.379
Gastrointestinal tract (n, %)	5 (21.74%)	9 (20.45%)	1.000
Unknown source (n, %)	5 (21.74%)	5 (11.36%)	0.441
Invasive operation (n, %)	2 (8.70%)	3 (6.82%)	1.000
Urinary tract (n, %)	0 (0.00%)	1 (2.27%)	1.000
Drug resistant bacteria phenotypes			
Sulbactam resistant (n, %)	16 (69.57%)	24 (54.55%)	0.234
Extended spectrum beta-lactamase (n, %)	14 (60.87%)	18 (40.91%)	0.120
Cephalosporin resistant (n, %)	9 (39.13%)	6 (13.64%)	0.017*
Tazobactam resistant (n, %)	6 (26.09%)	8 (18.18%)	0.660
Carbapenem resistant (n, %)	3 (13.04%)	4 (9.09%)	0.935
Multidrug resistant (n, %)	2 (8.70%)	4 (9.09%)	1.000
Aminoglycoside resistant (n, %)	2 (8.70%)	2 (4.55%)	0.890
Empiric antibiotic treatment (n, %)			
Carbapenem (n, %)	8 (34.78%)	30 (68.18%)	0.009*

*Statistical significance, $P < 0.05$. Abbreviations: IQR, inter-quartile range; PRISM, pediatric risk of mortality; TTAT, time to appropriate therapy; TTP, time to positivity.

Characteristics	TTAT \geq 10.7 h (n = 23)	TTAT < 10.7 h (n = 44)	P
Fourth-generation cephalosporin (n, %)	3 (13.04%)	6 (13.64%)	1.000
Third-generation cephalosporin (n, %)	6 (26.09%)	2 (4.55%)	0.029*
Tazobactam (n, %)	4 (17.39%)	3 (6.82%)	0.356
Second-generation cephalosporin (n, %)	0 (0.00%)	3 (6.82%)	0.510
Sulbactam (n, %)	2 (8.70%)	0 (0.00%)	0.114
Length of stay before the onset of bloodstream infection (median, IQR)	11.75 (7.14–23.13)	14.42 (10.50–17.19)	0.561
Length of hospitalization stay (median, IQR)	24.00 (12.92–38.88)	30.90 (22.98–46.93)	0.080
The peak of temperature (median, IQR)	39.6 (39.1–40.0)	39.9 (39.3–40.4)	0.135
Antibiotics administration prior to blood culture (n, %)	14 (60.87%)	14 (31.82%)	0.022*
With secondary hypoalbuminemia during hospitalization (n, %)	13 (56.52%)	9 (20.45%)	0.002*
PRISM score \geq 10 (n, %)	3 (13.04%)	3 (6.82%)	0.692
TTP \leq 13 h (n, %)	7 (30.43%)	12 (27.27%)	0.785
Need for invasive mechanical ventilation (n, %)	8 (34.78%)	3 (6.82%)	0.010*
Septic shock (n, %)	9 (39.13%)	3 (6.82%)	0.003*
In-hospital mortality (n, %)	7 (30.43%)	2 (4.55%)	0.010*
*Statistical significance, P < 0.05. Abbreviations: IQR, inter-quartile range; PRISM, pediatric risk of mortality; TTAT, time to appropriate therapy; TTP, time to positivity.			

Comparisons of clinical characteristics between the survival and non-survival groups

The clinical characteristics of the survival and non-survival patients were compared in the Table 3. The non-survival patients had significantly higher proportion of cephalosporin resistant and extended spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL) positive isolates, higher proportion of PRISM III scores \geq 10, TTP \leq 13 h and TTAT \geq 10.7 h, higher incidence of requiring invasive mechanical ventilation and septic shock when compared to those in survival group. (P < 0.05). The length of stay before the onset of bloodstream infection and length of the whole hospitalization stay were with no significant differences between two groups.

Table 3

Comparison of clinical characteristics in survival and non-survival groups in 67 nosocomial *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection children

Characteristics	Non-survival (n = 9)	Survival (n = 58)	P
Demographic characteristics			
Male (n, %)	4 (44.44%)	38 (65.52%)	0.398
Age (median, IQR)	9.75 (1.72–12.13)	4.29 (0.73–9.69)	0.316
Underlying conditions			
Hematologic malignancy (n, %)	5 (55.56%)	39 (67.24%)	0.757
Immunosuppression (n, %)	5 (55.56%)	36 (62.07%)	0.996
Congenital heart disease (n, %)	1 (11.11%)	13 (22.41%)	0.737
Sources of infection			
Respiratory tract (n, %)	5 (55.56%)	32 (55.17%)	1.000
Gastrointestinal tract (n, %)	2 (22.22%)	12 (20.69%)	1.000
Unknown source (n, %)	2 (22.22%)	8 (13.79%)	0.875
Invasive operation (n, %)	0 (0.00%)	5 (8.62%)	1.000
Urinary tract (n, %)	0 (0.00%)	1 (1.72%)	1.000
Drug resistant bacteria phenotypes			
Sulbactam resistant (n, %)	8 (88.89%)	32 (55.17%)	0.120
Extended spectrum beta-lactamase (n, %)	8 (88.89%)	24 (41.38%)	0.022*
Cephalosporin resistant (n, %)	5 (55.56%)	10 (17.24%)	0.033*
Tazobactam resistant (n, %)	3 (33.33%)	11 (18.97%)	0.585
Carbapenem resistant (n, %)	2 (22.22%)	5 (8.62%)	0.235
Multidrug resistant (n, %)	2 (22.22%)	4 (6.90%)	0.181
Aminoglycoside resistant (n, %)	2 (22.22%)	2 (3.45%)	0.084
Empiric antibiotic treatment			
Carbapenem (n, %)	6 (66.67%)	32 (55.17%)	0.775

*Statistical significance, $P < 0.05$. Abbreviations: IQR, inter-quartile range; PRISM, pediatric risk of mortality; TTAT, time to appropriate therapy; TTP, time to positivity.

Characteristics	Non-survival (n = 9)	Survival (n = 58)	P
Fourth-generation cephalosporin (n, %)	0 (0.00%)	9 (15.52%)	0.456
Third-generation cephalosporin (n, %)	1 (11.11%)	7 (12.07%)	1.000
Tazobactam (n, %)	1 (11.11%)	6 (10.34%)	1.000
Second-generation cephalosporin (n, %)	0 (0.00%)	3 (5.17%)	1.000
Sulbactam (n, %)	1 (11.11%)	1 (1.72%)	0.252
Length of stay before the onset of bloodstream infection (median, IQR)	16.76 (8.88–33.00)	13.23 (8.47–17.28)	0.211
Length of hospitalization stay (median, IQR)	24.00 (10.63–52.65)	29.46 (22.59–43.74)	0.594
The peak of temperature (median, IQR)	39.6 (39.0–40.0)	39.8 (39.3–40.2)	0.407
Antibiotics administration prior to blood culture (n, %)	8 (88.89%)	20 (34.48%)	0.007*
With secondary hypoalbuminemia during hospitalization (n, %)	6 (66.67%)	16 (27.59%)	0.052
PRISM score ≥ 10 (n, %)	3 (33.33%)	3 (5.17%)	0.028*
TTP ≤ 13 h (n, %)	6 (66.67%)	13 (22.41%)	0.019*
TTAT ≥ 10.7 h (n, %)	7 (77.78%)	16 (27.59%)	0.010*
Need for invasive mechanical ventilation (n, %)	5 (55.56%)	6 (10.34%)	0.003*
Septic shock (n, %)	9 (100.00%)	3 (5.17%)	0.000*
*Statistical significance, P < 0.05. Abbreviations: IQR, inter-quartile range; PRISM, pediatric risk of mortality; TTAT, time to appropriate therapy; TTP, time to positivity.			

Risk Factors Of In-hospital Mortality

Univariate and multivariate analyses were conducted to find independent risk factors of in-hospital mortality, and the results were presented in Table 4. In univariate analysis, patients with PRISM III scores ≥ 10 , early TTP (TTP ≤ 13 h), delayed therapy (TTAT ≥ 10.7 h), need for invasive mechanical ventilation, with secondary hypoalbuminemia during hospitalization, ESBL positive isolates, and cephalosporin resistant isolates were related to in-hospital mortality. According to the multivariate analysis, PRISM III scores ≥ 10 (OR 40.06, 95% CI 2.32-691.35, P = 0.011), early TTP (OR 22.60, 95% CI 1.78-287.27, P = 0.016), delayed therapy (OR 22.19, 95% CI 1.25-393.94, P = 0.035), and need for invasive mechanical ventilation (OR 12.21, 95% CI 1.06-140.67, P = 0.045) were independent risk factors of in-hospital mortality.

Table 4

Logistic regression analysis of risk factors of in-hospital mortality among 67 *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection children.

Variables	Univariate analysis			Multivariate analysis		
	OR	95%CI	P	OR	95%CI	P
PRISM III scores ≥ 10	9.17	1.50-55.93	0.016*	40.06	2.32-691.35	0.011*
TTP ≤ 13 h	6.92	1.52-31.56	0.012*	22.60	1.78-287.27	0.016*
TTAT ≥ 10.7 h	9.19	1.72-48.98	0.009*	22.19	1.25-393.94	0.035*
Need for invasive mechanical ventilation	10.83	2.27-51.71	0.003*	12.21	1.06-140.67	0.045*
Extended spectrum beta-lactamase bacteria	11.33	1.33-96.67	0.026*			
Cephalosporin resistant bacteria	6.00	1.37-26.38	0.018*			
With secondary hypoalbuminemia during hospitalization	3.73	1.03-13.59	0.046*			

* indicates statistical significance, $P < 0.05$. Abbreviations: PRISM, pediatric risk of mortality; TTAT, time to appropriate therapy; TTP, time to positivity.

Risk Factors Of Septic Shock

The univariate and multivariate logistic regression analysis of risk factors of septic shock were shown in Table 5. In univariate analysis, patients with PRISM III scores ≥ 10 , early TTP (TTP ≤ 13 h), delayed therapy (TTAT ≥ 10.7 h), need for invasive mechanical ventilation, with secondary hypoalbuminemia during hospitalization and ESBL positive isolates were related to septic shock. Multivariate analysis demonstrated that delayed therapy (OR 9.87, 95% CI 1.46-66.59, $P = 0.019$), PRISM III scores ≥ 10 (OR 9.69, 95% CI 1.15-81.39, $P = 0.036$), early TTP (OR 8.28, 95% CI 1.37-50.10, $P = 0.021$) and need for invasive mechanical ventilation (OR 6.52, 95% CI 1.08-39.51, $P = 0.042$) were independent risk factors of septic shock.

Table 5
 Logistic regression analysis of risk factors of septic shock among 67 nosocomial *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection children.

Variables	Univariate analysis			Multivariate analysis		
	OR	95%CI	P	OR	95%CI	P
TTAT \geq 10.7 h	8.79	2.08–37.11	0.003*	9.87	1.46–66.59	0.019*
PRISM III scores \geq 10	5.78	1.00–33.24	0.049*	9.69	1.15–81.39	0.036*
TTP \leq 13 h	5.02	1.35–18.67	0.016*	8.28	1.37–50.10	0.021*
Need for invasive mechanical ventilation	10.00	2.33–42.97	0.002*	6.52	1.08–39.51	0.042*
With secondary hypoalbuminemia during hospitalization	5.25	1.17–23.55	0.030*			
Extended spectrum beta-lactamase bacteria	4.17	1.02–17.13	0.047*			
Cephalosporin resistant bacteria	3.21	0.84–12.23	0.087			

* indicates statistical significance, P < 0.05. Abbreviations: PRISM, pediatric risk of mortality; TTAT, time to appropriate therapy; TTP, time to positivity.

Discussion

In this study, we demonstrated that patients with PRISM III scores \geq 10, early TTP (TTP \leq 13 h), requiring for invasive mechanical ventilation were independent factors associated with poor outcomes, which were in accordance with our previous study [18, 26]. Furthermore, we also showed that delayed therapy (TTAT \geq 10.7 h) was risk factor of septic shock and in-hospital mortality, which was consistent with the results of previous studies indicating delayed appropriate antibiotic therapy was associated with poor outcomes [6, 5, 4, 3, 27–29]. Falcone et al. [3] indicated that appropriate antibiotic therapy should begin within 24 h from the collection of blood culture in adult carbapenemase-producing *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection patients. In this study, we found TTAT \geq 10.7 h increased 22.19-fold risk of in-hospital mortality and 9.87-fold risk of septic shock in nosocomial *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection children. The difference of TTAT thresholds between our and Falcone et al. [3] may be as follows. First, we used different definition of the start point of TTAT. It is more accurate to define the start point of TTAT as onset of bloodstream infection. To obtain the accurate TTAT for community-acquired infection patients may be difficult, while it's feasible to gain the data of onset of bloodstream infection and accurate TTAT for nosocomial infection patients. Second, the optimal TTAT cutoff point (10.7 h) in our study was derived by CART analysis and demonstrated by using ROC curve analysis and χ^2 test for a linear trend. While, Falcone et al. [3] didn't explore the optimal TTAT cutoff point. Third, although we both enrolled patients

with *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection, the patients enrolled in our study were children rather than adult. Two studies [8, 9] stated that TTAT > 3 h was related to higher mortality, which was much shorter than that in our study. The explanations may as the following. First, patients with septic shock should administrate appropriate antibiotic more aggressively than those with sepsis-associated organ dysfunction but without shock [10]. There were 17.91% (12/67) patients with septic shock in our study. While, there were 78.13% (125/160) and 79.23% (103/130) patients with septic shock in Han's [8] study and Weiss's [9] study, respectively. The lower proportion of septic shock patients in our study may explain the longer TTAT cutoff point. Second, the methods of defining TTAT cutoff points were different. We used the CART analysis while the other two studies used multivariate analysis.

We found that the secondary hypoalbuminemia during hospitalization may be associated with delayed appropriate antibiotic therapy. The delayed antibiotic therapy may lead to persistent bloodstream infection, which resulted in increased capillary permeability, escape of serum albumin, and shorten the half-time of albumin [30]. Low albumin levels may indicate severe condition and poor outcomes [31]. Moreover, our results indicated that patients in delayed therapy group had significantly higher proportion of empiric third-generation cephalosporin administration prior to blood culture than that in early therapy groups. The explanation may as the following. The third-generation cephalosporin is one of the most recommended empiric broad-spectrum antibiotic therapies for patients with nosocomial infection [32]. However, with increased of third-generation resistant *K. pneumoniae* isolates [2], empirical third-generation cephalosporin administration may result in delaying appropriate antibiotic therapy. *K. pneumoniae* is a major worldwide source and shuttle for antibiotic resistance [2], and the nosocomial gram-negative bacteria bloodstream infection patients had higher proportion of inappropriate antibiotic therapy [33]. Therefore, it is very important for clinicians to evaluate whether the empiric antibiotic therapy is appropriate or not. More than half (38/67, 56.72%) of patients in our study had been empirically treated with carbapenem. And the prevalence of carbapenem-resistant *K. pneumoniae* in this study (7/67, 10.45%) was higher than that in many European countries according to the data from the European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control (website: <http://atlas.ecdc.europa.eu/public/index.aspx?Instance=GeneralAtlas>). We consumed that frequently using carbapenem may contribute to carbapenem-resistant *K. pneumoniae* isolate.

Appropriate antibiotic therapy can improve the clinical outcomes in children with severe bloodstream infection. However, to avoid the overuse or misuse of antibiotic, it is very important for clinician to recognize the bloodstream infection and identify the correct pathogen. In high-income countries, some rapid diagnostic testing technologies can help the clinician to identify *K. pneumoniae* quickly. However, in some low-income countries, the clinical experiences and education level of recognizing *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection may be more important. Furthermore, building susceptibility databases of *K. pneumoniae* isolates may help guiding clinicians to choose more appropriate and timely empiric antibiotic therapy.

This study has some limitations. Firstly, this is a single-center, retrospective study with relatively small sample size, and multi-center, larger sample size, prospective study is expected to strength the results of

this study. Secondly, we only enrolled patients with nosocomial *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection, and this may influence the extrapolation of our data to other populations. Thirdly, when applied our results to clinical practice, we should pay attention to the difference of definitions of the start point of TTAT between us and other studies.

Conclusions

Our study demonstrated that TTAT may serve as an independent risk factor of septic shock and in-hospital mortality in children with nosocomial *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection. The clinicians should initiate appropriate antibiotic within 10.7 hours of the onset of the *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection.

Abbreviations

<i>CI</i>	Confidence interval
ESBLs	Extended spectrum beta-lactamases
<i>IQR</i>	Inter-quartile range
<i>OR</i>	Odds ratio
<i>PRISM</i>	Pediatric risk of mortality
<i>pSOFA</i>	Pediatric sequential organ failure assessment
<i>TTAT</i>	Time to appropriate therapy

Declarations

Funding: This study was supported by the Science and Technology Department of Chongqing (cstc2018jscx-msybX0021).

Conflict of interest: All authors declare that they have no conflict of interest, and they have no financial relationship with the organization that sponsored the research.

Availability of data and material:

The data and material which support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author, upon reasonable request.

Code availability: N/A.

Author's contributions

JC, QYL, GLZ, HTX, YYL, XYT, DPC, ZXL- Substantial contributions to the conception or design of the work, or the acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data for the work; Drafting the work or revising it critically for important intellectual content; Final approval of the version to be published; Agreement to be accountable for all aspects of the work; All authors discussed the results and commented on the manuscript.

Ethical approval: This study does not contain any studies with human participants or animals performed by any of the author.

Consent for participate: N/A.

Consent for publication: N/A.

References

1. Larru B, Gong W, Vendetti N, Sullivan KV, Localio R, Zaoutis TE, Gerber JS (2016) Bloodstream Infections in Hospitalized Children: Epidemiology and Antimicrobial Susceptibilities. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 35 (5):507-510. <https://doi.org/10.1097/inf.0000000000001057>
2. Navon-Venezia S, Kondratyeva K, Carattoli A (2017) *Klebsiella pneumoniae*: a major worldwide source and shuttle for antibiotic resistance. *FEMS microbiology reviews* 41 (3):252-275. <https://doi.org/10.1093/femsre/fux013>
3. Falcone M, Bassetti M, Tiseo G, Giordano C, Nencini E, Russo A, Graziano E, Tagliaferri E, Leonildi A, Barnini S, Farcomeni A, Menichetti F (2020) Time to appropriate antibiotic therapy is a predictor of outcome in patients with bloodstream infection caused by KPC-producing *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. *Critical care (London, England)* 24 (1):29. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13054-020-2742-9>
4. Zasowski EJ, Claeys KC, Lagnf AM, Davis SL, Rybak MJ (2016) Time Is of the Essence: The Impact of Delayed Antibiotic Therapy on Patient Outcomes in Hospital-Onset Enterococcal Bloodstream Infections. *Clinical infectious diseases : an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America* 62 (10):1242-1250. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciw110>
5. Lodise TP, Jr., Patel N, Kwa A, Graves J, Furuno JP, Graffunder E, Lomaestro B, McGregor JC (2007) Predictors of 30-day mortality among patients with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* bloodstream infections: impact of delayed appropriate antibiotic selection. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy* 51 (10):3510-3515. <https://doi.org/10.1128/aac.00338-07>
6. Lodise TP, McKinnon PS, Swiderski L, Rybak MJ (2003) Outcomes analysis of delayed antibiotic treatment for hospital-acquired *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteremia. *Clinical infectious diseases : an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America* 36 (11):1418-1423. <https://doi.org/10.1086/375057>

7. Li Q, Cheng J, Wu Y, Wang Z, Luo S, Li Y, Tian X, Zhang G, Chen D, Luo Z (2019) Effects of Delayed Antibiotic Therapy on Outcomes in Children with Streptococcus pneumoniae Sepsis. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy* 63 (9). <https://doi.org/10.1128/aac.00623-19>
8. Han M, Fitzgerald JC, Balamuth F, Keele L, Alpern ER, Lavelle J, Chilutti M, Grundmeier RW, Nadkarni VM, Thomas NJ, Weiss SL (2017) Association of Delayed Antimicrobial Therapy with One-Year Mortality in Pediatric Sepsis. *Shock* 48 (1):29-35. <https://doi.org/10.1097/shk.0000000000000833>
9. Weiss SL, Fitzgerald JC, Balamuth F, Alpern ER, Lavelle J, Chilutti M, Grundmeier R, Nadkarni VM, Thomas NJ (2014) Delayed antimicrobial therapy increases mortality and organ dysfunction duration in pediatric sepsis. *Critical care medicine* 42 (11):2409-2417. <https://doi.org/10.1097/ccm.0000000000000509>
10. Weiss SL, Peters MJ, Alhazzani W, Agus MSD, Flori HR, Inwald DP, Nadel S, Schlapbach LJ, Tasker RC, Argent AC, Brierley J, Carcillo J, Carrol ED, Carroll CL, Cheifetz IM, Choong K, Cies JJ, Cruz AT, De Luca D, Deep A, Faust SN, De Oliveira CF, Hall MW, Ishimine P, Javouhey E, Joosten KFM, Joshi P, Karam O, Kneyber MCJ, Lemson J, MacLaren G, Mehta NM, Møller MH, Newth CJL, Nguyen TC, Nishisaki A, Nunnally ME, Parker MM, Paul RM, Randolph AG, Ranjit S, Romer LH, Scott HF, Tume LN, Verger JT, Williams EA, Wolf J, Wong HR, Zimmerman JJ, Kisson N, Tissieres P (2020) Surviving sepsis campaign international guidelines for the management of septic shock and sepsis-associated organ dysfunction in children. *Intensive care medicine* 46 (Suppl 1):10-67. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00134-019-05878-6>
11. Filbin MR, Thorsen JE, Zachary TM, Lynch JC, Matsushima M, Belsky JB, Heldt T, Reisner AT (2020) Antibiotic Delays and Feasibility of a 1-Hour-From-Triage Antibiotic Requirement: Analysis of an Emergency Department Sepsis Quality Improvement Database. *Annals of emergency medicine* 75 (1):93-99. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annemergmed.2019.07.017>
12. Weinberger J, Rhee C, Klompas M (2020) A Critical Analysis of the Literature on Time-to-Antibiotics in Suspected Sepsis. *The Journal of infectious diseases* 222 (Supplement_2):S110-s118. <https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/jiaa146>
13. Rhee C, Chiotos K, Cosgrove SE, Heil EL, Kadri SS, Kalil AC, Gilbert DN, Masur H, Septimus EJ, Sweeney DA, Strich JR, Winslow DL, Klompas M (2020) Infectious Diseases Society of America Position Paper: Recommended Revisions to the National Severe Sepsis and Septic Shock Early Management Bundle (SEP-1) Sepsis Quality Measure. *Clinical infectious diseases : an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America*. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciaa059>
14. Treocarichi EM, Pagano L, Martino B, Candoni A, Di Blasi R, Nadali G, Fianchi L, Delia M, Sica S, Perriello V, Busca A, Aversa F, Fanci R, Melillo L, Lessi F, Del Principe MI, Cattaneo C, Tumbarello M (2016) Bloodstream infections caused by Klebsiella pneumoniae in onco-hematological patients: clinical impact of carbapenem resistance in a multicentre prospective survey. *American journal of hematology* 91 (11):1076-1081. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ajh.24489>

15. Meites S, Buffone GJ (1989) Pediatric clinical chemistry, references values, 3rd edn. American Association for Clinical Chemistry. American Association for Clinical Chemistry, Washington
16. Horan TC, Andrus M, Dudeck MA (2008) CDC/NHSN surveillance definition of health care-associated infection and criteria for specific types of infections in the acute care setting. *Am J Infect Control* 36 (5):309-332. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajic.2008.03.002>
17. Pollack MM, Patel KM, Ruttimann UE (1996) PRISM III: an updated Pediatric Risk of Mortality score. *Critical care medicine* 24 (5):743-752. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00003246-199605000-00004>
18. Cheng J, Zhang G, Li Q, Xu H, Yu Q, Yi Q, Luo S, Li Y, Tian X, Chen D, Luo Z (2020) Time to positivity of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* in blood culture as prognostic indicator for pediatric bloodstream infections. *Eur J Pediatr*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00431-020-03675-8>
19. Performance standards for antimicrobial susceptibility testing: 24th informational supplement (2014). Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute.
20. Magiorakos AP, Srinivasan A, Carey RB, Carmeli Y, Falagas ME, Giske CG, Harbarth S, Hindler JF, Kahlmeter G, Olsson-Liljequist B, Paterson DL, Rice LB, Stelling J, Struelens MJ, Vatopoulos A, Weber JT, Monnet DL (2012) Multidrug-resistant, extensively drug-resistant and pandrug-resistant bacteria: an international expert proposal for interim standard definitions for acquired resistance. *Clinical microbiology and infection : the official publication of the European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases* 18 (3):268-281. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-0691.2011.03570.x>
21. Singer M, Deutschman CS, Seymour CW, Shankar-Hari M, Annane D, Bauer M, Bellomo R, Bernard GR, Chiche JD, Cooper-Smith CM, Hotchkiss RS, Levy MM, Marshall JC, Martin GS, Opal SM, Rubenfeld GD, van der Poll T, Vincent JL, Angus DC (2016) The Third International Consensus Definitions for Sepsis and Septic Shock (Sepsis-3). *Jama* 315 (8):801-810. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2016.0287>
22. Matics TJ, Sanchez-Pinto LN (2017) Adaptation and Validation of a Pediatric Sequential Organ Failure Assessment Score and Evaluation of the Sepsis-3 Definitions in Critically Ill Children. *JAMA pediatrics* 171 (10):e172352. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamapediatrics.2017.2352>
23. Zhang H, Singer B (1999) Recursive partitioning in the health sciences. Springer, New York, NY. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4757-3027-2>
24. Lasko TA, Bhagwat JG, Zou KH, Ohno-Machado L (2005) The use of receiver operating characteristic curves in biomedical informatics. *Journal of biomedical informatics* 38 (5):404-415. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbi.2005.02.008>
25. Faraggi D, Reiser B (2002) Estimation of the area under the ROC curve. *Statistics in medicine* 21 (20):3093-3106. <https://doi.org/10.1002/sim.1228>

26. Li Q, Li Y, Yi Q, Suo F, Tang Y, Luo S, Tian X, Zhang G, Chen D, Luo Z (2019) Prognostic roles of time to positivity of blood culture in children with *Streptococcus pneumoniae* bacteremia. *European journal of clinical microbiology & infectious diseases* : official publication of the European Society of Clinical Microbiology 38 (3):457-465. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10096-018-03443-5>
27. Osih RB, McGregor JC, Rich SE, Moore AC, Furuno JP, Perencevich EN, Harris AD (2007) Impact of empiric antibiotic therapy on outcomes in patients with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* bacteremia. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy* 51 (3):839-844. <https://doi.org/10.1128/aac.00901-06>
28. Micek ST, Lloyd AE, Ritchie DJ, Reichley RM, Fraser VJ, Kollef MH (2005) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* bloodstream infection: importance of appropriate initial antimicrobial treatment. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy* 49 (4):1306-1311. <https://doi.org/10.1128/aac.49.4.1306-1311.2005>
29. Kang CI, Kim SH, Kim HB, Park SW, Choe YJ, Oh MD, Kim EC, Choe KW (2003) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* bacteremia: risk factors for mortality and influence of delayed receipt of effective antimicrobial therapy on clinical outcome. *Clinical infectious diseases* : an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America 37 (6):745-751. <https://doi.org/10.1086/377200>
30. Soeters PB, Wolfe RR, Shenkin A (2019) Hypoalbuminemia: Pathogenesis and Clinical Significance. *JPEN Journal of parenteral and enteral nutrition* 43 (2):181-193. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jpen.1451>
31. Akirov A, Masri-Iraqi H, Atamna A, Shimon I (2017) Low Albumin Levels Are Associated with Mortality Risk in Hospitalized Patients. *The American journal of medicine* 130 (12):1465.e1411-1465.e1419. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amjmed.2017.07.020>
32. Masterton R, Drusano G, Paterson DL, Park G (2003) Appropriate antimicrobial treatment in nosocomial infections-the clinical challenges. *The Journal of hospital infection* 55 Suppl 1:1-12. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0195-6701\(03\)00294-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0195-6701(03)00294-9)
33. Moehring RW, Sloane R, Chen LF, Smathers EC, Schmader KE, Fowler VG, Jr., Weber DJ, Sexton DJ, Anderson DJ (2013) Delays in appropriate antibiotic therapy for gram-negative bloodstream infections: a multicenter, community hospital study. *PloS one* 8 (10):e76225. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0076225>

Figures

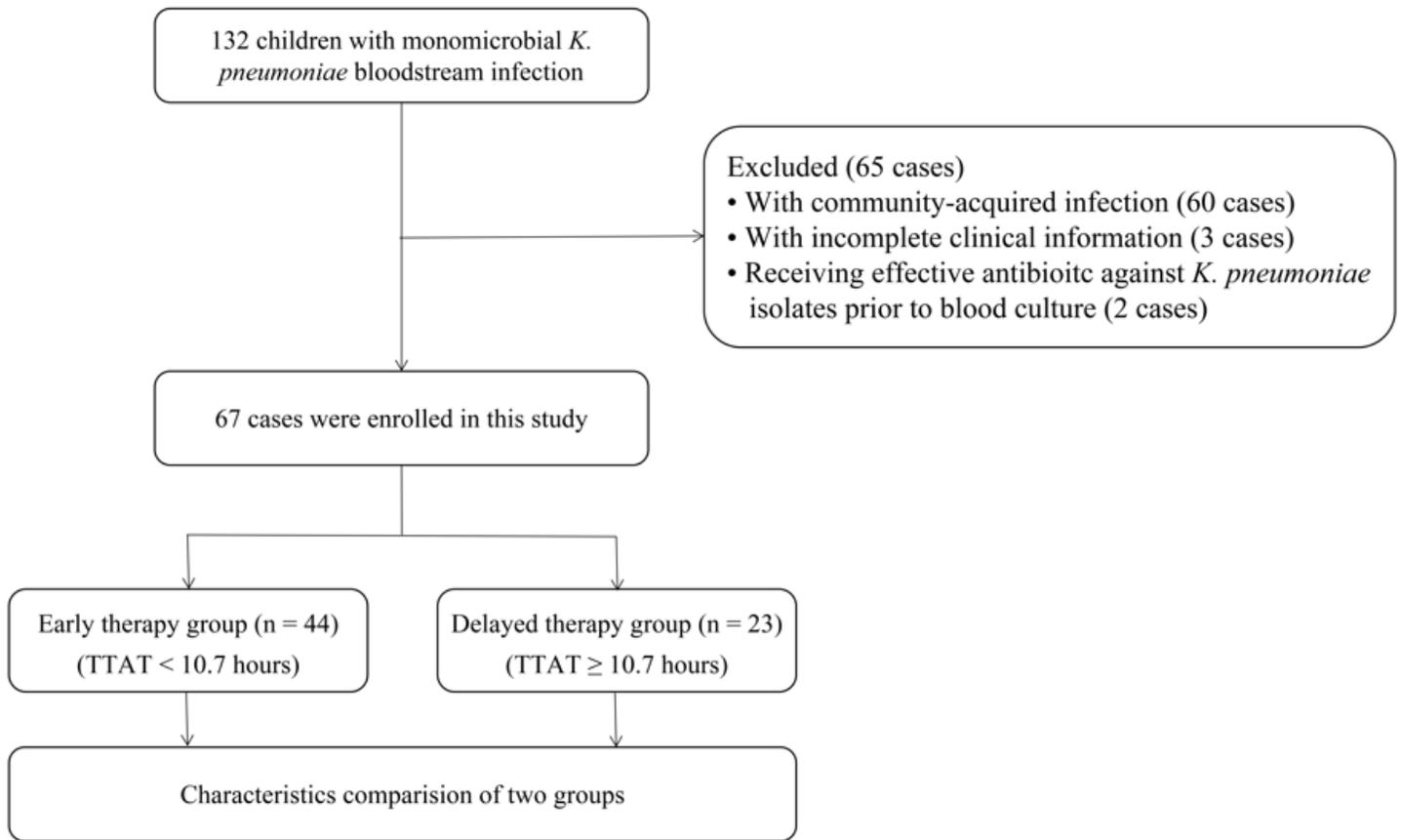


Figure 1

Flow diagram of the population

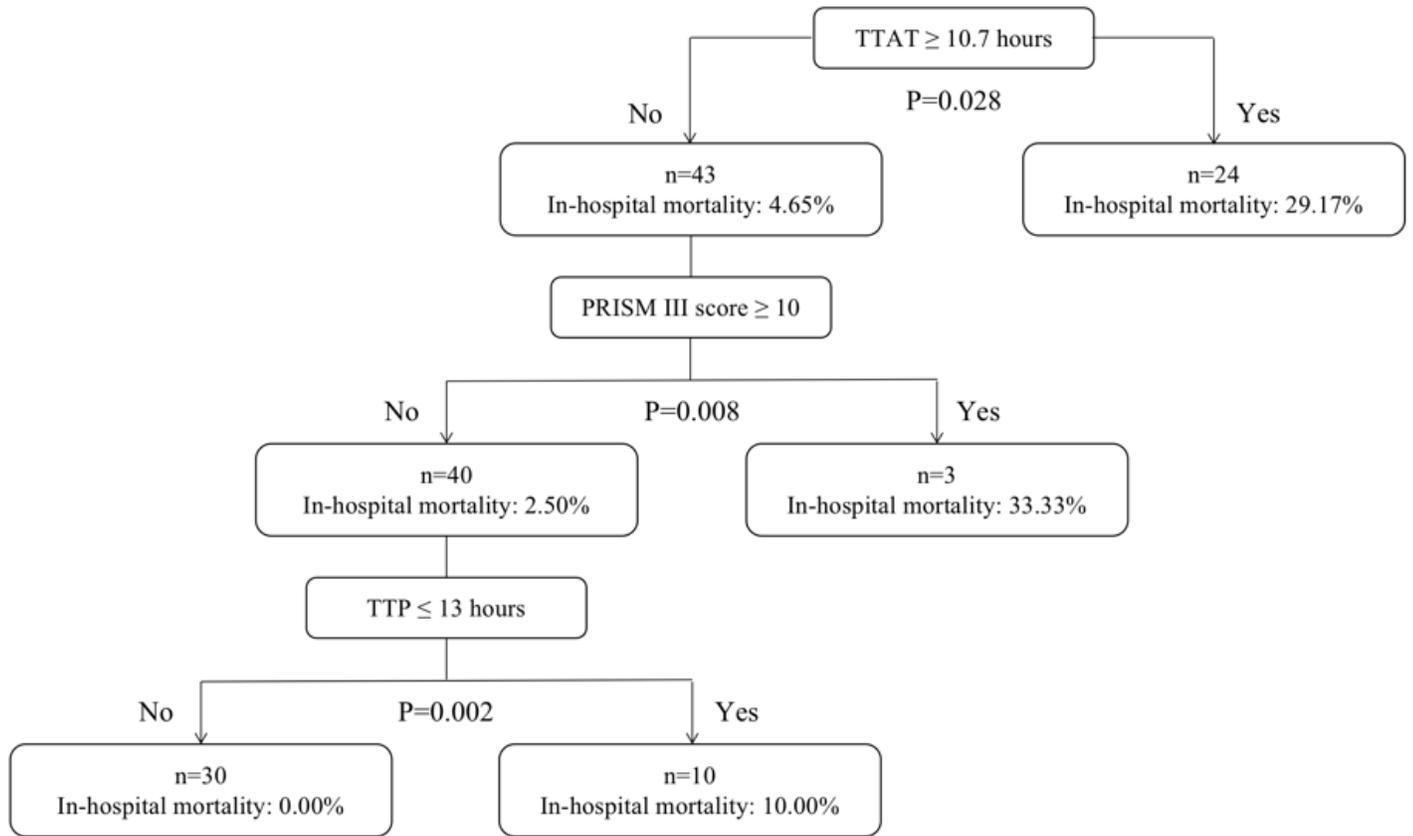


Figure 2

Classification and regression tree analysis of predictors of in-hospital mortality in children with *K. pneumoniae* bloodstream infection.

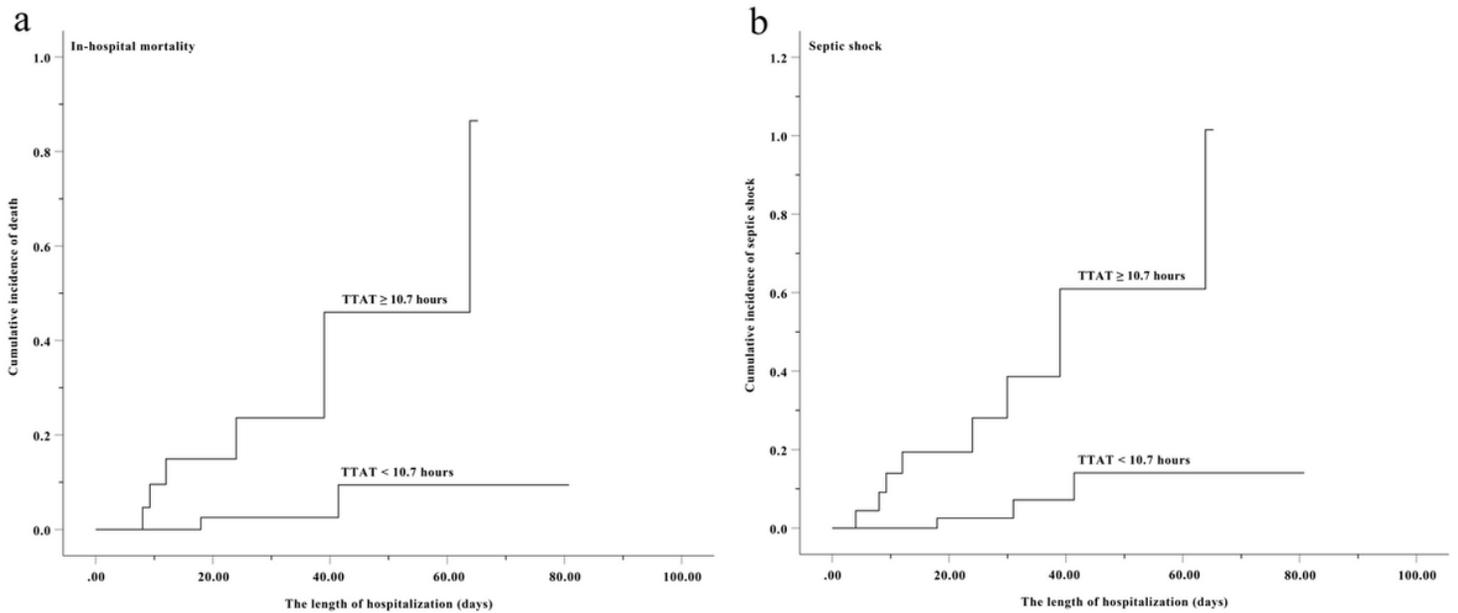


Figure 3

The comparison of patients in different TTAT groups according to in-hospital mortality (a) and septic shock (b)

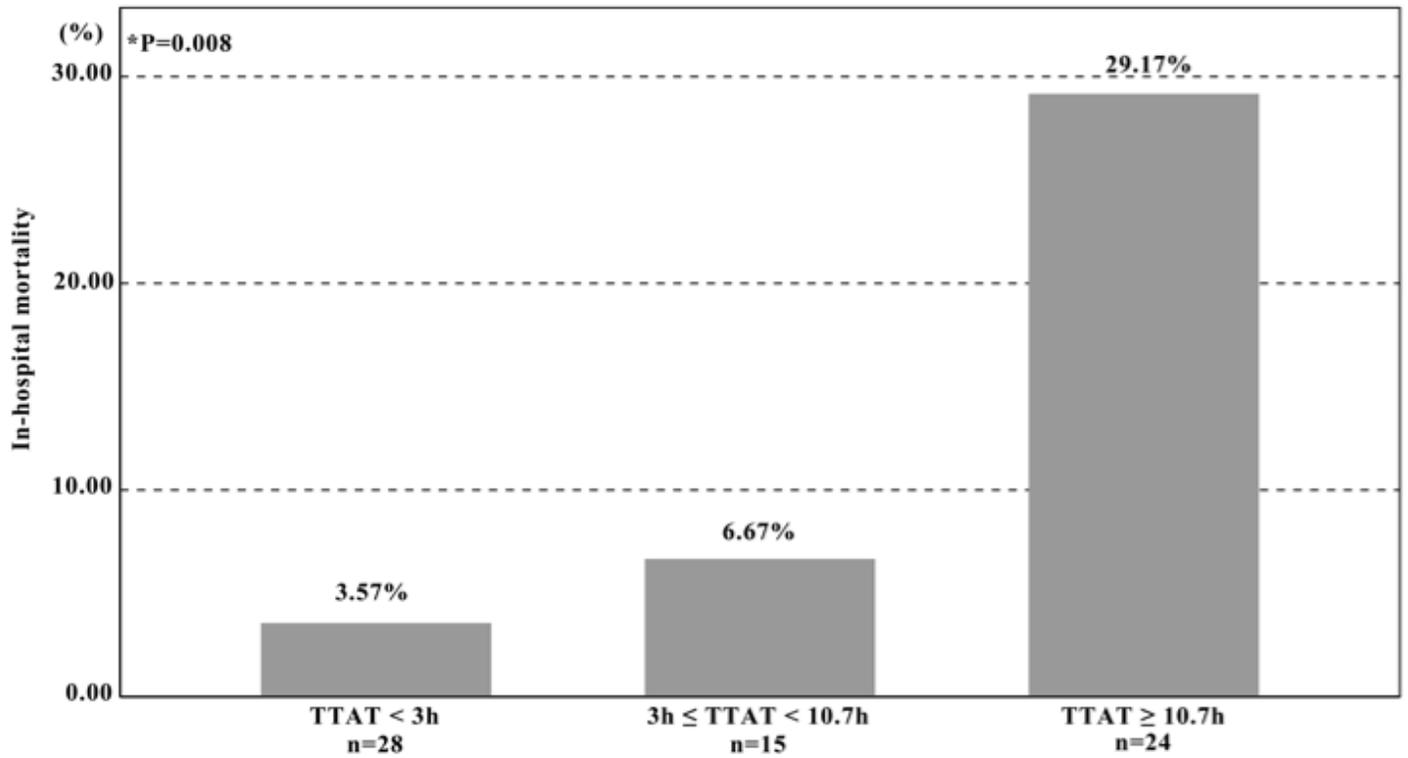


Figure 4

In-hospital mortality stratified by the length of delay in receiving appropriate therapy. *, P level for χ^2 test for linear trend.