

| Alert | The Antimicrobial Stewardship Team recommends this drug is listed as: Restricted. Continuous infusion regimen optimises achievement of steady state target concentration with fewer dose adjustments and a lower total daily dose in comparison to intermittent regimen. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|-----------|--|----------|---|---------------|--------------------------|----------|-----------|--------------------------|---------|-----------|--|-----------|-----------|--|----------|----------|--|----------|-----------|--|---------|----------|--------------------------|---------|----------|
| Indication | Infections due to susceptible strains of the following organisms: Staphylococci (including MRSA), Streptococci, Enterococci, Diptheroids, Listeria monocytogenes, Actinomyces, Bacillus spp. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Action | Bactericidal agent which interferes with cell wall synthesis, inhibits RNA synthesis and alters plasma membrane function. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Drug type | Glycopeptide antibiotic. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Trade name | DBL Vancomycin Hydrochloride, Vancocin CP, Vancomycin Alphapharm, Vancomycin AN powder for infusion. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Presentation | Vancomycin hydrochloride 500 mg vial Vancomycin hydrochloride 1000 mg vial | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Dose | <p>Standard dose: 15 mg/kg/dose. Dosing interval as per table below²⁴</p> <table border="1" style="margin-left: auto; margin-right: auto;"> <thead> <tr> <th colspan="2">Method</th> <th rowspan="2">Interval</th> </tr> <tr> <th>Corrected Gestational Age/Postmenstrual Age</th> <th>Postnatal Age</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>< 30⁺⁰ weeks</td> <td>0–2 days</td> <td>18 hourly</td> </tr> <tr> <td>< 30⁺⁰ weeks</td> <td>3+ days</td> <td>12 hourly</td> </tr> <tr> <td>30⁺⁰–36⁺⁶ weeks</td> <td>0–14 days</td> <td>12 hourly</td> </tr> <tr> <td>30⁺⁰–36⁺⁶ weeks</td> <td>15+ days</td> <td>8 hourly</td> </tr> <tr> <td>37⁺⁰–44⁺⁶ weeks</td> <td>0–7 days</td> <td>12 hourly</td> </tr> <tr> <td>37⁺⁰–44⁺⁶ weeks</td> <td>8+ days</td> <td>8 hourly</td> </tr> <tr> <td>≥ 45⁺⁰ weeks</td> <td>0+ days</td> <td>6 hourly</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p>Severe sepsis: Consider giving a loading dose of 20 mg/kg/dose in suspected severe sepsis e.g., MRSA, bone infection, meningitis, endocarditis. However, data in neonates are limited.</p> | Method | | Interval | Corrected Gestational Age/Postmenstrual Age | Postnatal Age | < 30 ⁺⁰ weeks | 0–2 days | 18 hourly | < 30 ⁺⁰ weeks | 3+ days | 12 hourly | 30 ⁺⁰ –36 ⁺⁶ weeks | 0–14 days | 12 hourly | 30 ⁺⁰ –36 ⁺⁶ weeks | 15+ days | 8 hourly | 37 ⁺⁰ –44 ⁺⁶ weeks | 0–7 days | 12 hourly | 37 ⁺⁰ –44 ⁺⁶ weeks | 8+ days | 8 hourly | ≥ 45 ⁺⁰ weeks | 0+ days | 6 hourly |
| Method | | Interval | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Corrected Gestational Age/Postmenstrual Age | Postnatal Age | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| < 30 ⁺⁰ weeks | 0–2 days | 18 hourly | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| < 30 ⁺⁰ weeks | 3+ days | 12 hourly | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 30 ⁺⁰ –36 ⁺⁶ weeks | 0–14 days | 12 hourly | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 30 ⁺⁰ –36 ⁺⁶ weeks | 15+ days | 8 hourly | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 37 ⁺⁰ –44 ⁺⁶ weeks | 0–7 days | 12 hourly | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 37 ⁺⁰ –44 ⁺⁶ weeks | 8+ days | 8 hourly | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ≥ 45 ⁺⁰ weeks | 0+ days | 6 hourly | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Dose - Special scenarios | <p>Renal Impairment:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> For infants with renal impairment, consider using an antibiotic without nephrotoxicity in consultation with an infectious diseases specialist. If vancomycin is used, perform a trough level before the 2nd dose. Adjust the dosage interval^{5, 21} to achieve a trough level 10–20 mg/L (higher trough level 15–20 mg/L in severe sepsis). Repeat trough level before the next dose after each dosage adjustment or before every 3rd dose for infants within the target range. <p>Hepatic impairment: Not applicable.</p> <p>Therapeutic hypothermia: Measure trough concentration prior to 2nd dose.²⁷</p> <p>ECMO: Current evidence is insufficient to recommend a specific dose adjustment.</p> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Maximum dose | Not applicable | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total cumulative dose | Not applicable | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Route | IV | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Preparation | <p>500mg VIAL Add 10 mL of water for injection to the 500 mg powder for reconstitution to make a 50 mg/mL solution Further Dilute: Draw up 2 mL of the above solution (100 mg of vancomycin) and add 18 mL glucose 5% or sodium chloride 0.9% to make a final volume of 20 mL with a final concentration of 5 mg/mL.</p> <p>1g VIAL Add 20 mL of water for injection to the 1g powder for reconstitution to make a 50 mg/mL solution Further Dilute: Draw up 2 mL of the above solution (100 mg of vancomycin) and add 18 mL glucose 5% or sodium chloride 0.9% to make a final volume of 20 mL with a final concentration of 5 mg/mL.</p> <p>Special circumstances In special circumstances, e.g. fluid restricted infants, vancomycin can be diluted to 10 mg/mL, however this dilution increases the risk of infusion-related events (see adverse reactions).</p> <p>500mg VIAL</p> | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| | |
|--------------------------|--|
| | <p>To prepare 10 mg/mL concentration: Add 10 mL of water for injection to the 500 mg vial to make a 50 mg/mL solution Further Dilute: Draw up 4 mL of the above solution (200 mg of vancomycin) and add 16 mL glucose 5% or sodium chloride 0.9% to make a final volume of 20 mL with a final concentration of 10 mg/mL.</p> <p>1g VIAL To prepare 10 mg/mL concentration: Add 20 mL of water for injection to the 1g vial to make a 50 mg/mL solution Further Dilute: Draw up 4 mL of the above solution (200 mg of vancomycin) and add 16 mL glucose 5% or sodium chloride 0.9% to make a final volume of 20 mL with a final concentration of 10 mg/mL.</p> |
| Administration | <p>IV infusion over ONE hour. Adequately flush the intravenous lines before and after administration of vancomycin.</p> |
| Monitoring | <p>Monitor renal function, full blood count, hearing function and serum vancomycin concentrations.</p> <p>Measure trough vancomycin concentration immediately prior to 3rd dose with the exception of: (1) <29th CGA weeks – before 2nd dose, (2) therapeutic hypothermia – before 2nd dose and (3) renal impairment – before 2nd dose, but refer to renal impairment section below. Check concentration prior to the 4th dose after any change in dose or frequency. Once target trough levels are reached, measure trough levels every 3 days prior to the dose. More frequent monitoring may be required as in following situations: in renal impairment, infants receiving other nephrotoxic drugs or in suspected severe sepsis.</p> <p>Target trough concentration: 10–20 mg/L (aim for higher trough level: 15–20 mg/L in suspected severe sepsis e.g., MRSA, bone infection, meningitis, endocarditis). If a peak concentration is required to guide dosing, perform this 1 hour after completion of infusion, and target a peak concentration 20-40 mg/L. [22]</p> <p>Recommended adjustment based on trough concentration: < 5 mg/L – increase total daily dose by 50–75% (i.e. 1.5-1.75 times)) by either increasing frequency (preferred) or increasing each dose. 5–9.9 mg/L – increase total daily dose by 25–50% (i.e. 1.25-1.5 times) by either increasing frequency (preferred) or increasing each dose. 10–20 mg/L – no change in dose required. 20.1–30 mg/L – decrease total daily dose by 10–30% (i.e. 0.9-0.7 times) by decreasing frequency (preferred) or decreasing each dose. > 30 mg/L – withhold dose. Repeat trough concentration 24 hourly until plasma concentration is 10–20 mg/L, then restart at a dose decreased by 50% (i.e. 0.5 times) by decreasing frequency (preferred) or decreasing each dose.</p> <p>Example for adjusting dose by increasing / decreasing frequency: Calculate current total daily dose (e.g. 15 mg 8 hourly = 45 mg/day). If trough <5 mg/L – Increase total daily dose by 1.5 times (i.e. 45 x 1.5 = 67.5 mg/day) and decide on achieving this total daily dose by either increasing the frequency or increasing the dose. : If trough 20.1–30 mg/L - Decrease total daily dose to 0.7 times (i.e. 45 x 0.7 = 31.5 mg/day) and decide on achieving this total daily dose by either decreasing the frequency or decreasing the dose.</p> <p>Renal impairment For infants with renal impairment, consider using an antibiotic without nephrotoxicity in consultation with an infectious diseases specialist. If vancomycin is used, perform a trough concentration before the 2nd dose, irrespective of corrected gestational age.</p> |
| Contraindications | Known hypersensitivity to vancomycin. |
| Precautions | Use with caution in patients with renal impairment or those receiving other nephrotoxic, neurotoxic or ototoxic drugs. |
| Drug interactions | <p>Neurotoxic and nephrotoxic drugs – concurrent use of these agents may contribute to the additive neurotoxic and nephrotoxic effects.</p> <p>Diuretics – potent diuretics (e.g., furosemide) may add to the ototoxic effect.</p> |

| | |
|--------------------------|---|
| | <p>Neuromuscular blocking agents (e.g. pancuronium, suxamethonium, vecuronium) – vancomycin may enhance neuromuscular blockade.</p> <p>Vancomycin may be combined with an aminoglycoside, cephalosporin or rifampicin for synergistic activity.</p> |
| Adverse reactions | <p>Infusion-related events: Rapid infusion may cause red man syndrome – a predominately histamine-mediated reaction with pruritus, tachycardia, hypotension and rash. It appears rapidly and usually dissipates in 30–60 minutes, but may persist for several hours. Increasing the infusion time usually eliminates the risk for subsequent doses.</p> <p>Anaphylactic reactions may occur. Severe reactions may require treatment with adrenaline (epinephrine), corticosteroids or oxygen.</p> <p>Phlebitis and tissue irritation and necrosis may occur, especially after extravasation. Intramuscular injection is not recommended.</p> <p>Neurotoxicity, ototoxicity and nephrotoxicity – these are more pronounced with the addition of other medications such as aminoglycosides or furosemide.</p> <p>Neutropenia and thrombocytopenia have been reported in adults. Risk is increased with prolonged therapy >1 week but they appear to be reversible when vancomycin is discontinued.</p> |
| Compatibility | <p>Fluids: Glucose 5%, glucose 10%, sodium chloride 0.9%.</p> <p>Y site: amino acid solutions and fat emulsions, aciclovir, adrenaline (epinephrine) hydrochloride, amifostine, amiodarone, anidulafungin, atracurium, caspofungin, cisatracurium, dobutamine, dopamine, dexmedetomidine, esmolol, filgrastim, fluconazole, gentamicin, granisetron, hydromorphone, insulin regular, labetalol, linezolid, magnesium sulfate, meropenem, midazolam, milrinone, morphine sulfate, mycophenolate mofetil, noradrenaline (norepinephrine), palonosetron, pancuronium, pethidine, potassium chloride, remifentanyl, tigecycline, vecuronium, zidovudine.</p> |
| Incompatibility | <p>Fluids: No information.</p> <p>Y-site: albumin, aminophylline, azathioprine, beta-lactam antibiotics (eg. penicillins, cephalosporins), bivalirudin, calcium folinate, chloramphenicol, daptomycin, foscarnet, furosemide, ganciclovir, heparin sodium, indometacin, ketorolac, methylprednisolone sodium succinate, moxifloxacin, omeprazole, rocuronium, sodium bicarbonate, sodium valproate, streptokinase, urokinase.</p> |
| Stability | Administer immediately, discard unused portion of reconstituted solution. |
| Storage | Store below 25°C. Protect from light. |
| Excipients | DBL Vancomycin Hydrochloride, Vancocin CP: Disodium acetate. |
| Special comments | Extravasation may cause tissue necrosis. |
| Evidence | <p>Pharmacokinetics/pharmacodynamics:</p> <p>Vancomycin is water-soluble, has a limited plasma protein binding capacity and is mainly eliminated renally by glomerular filtration, although its elimination is further modulated by renal tubular transport.[1]</p> <p>Vancomycin is active against gram-positive bacteria. <i>Staphylococcus epidermis</i>, including methicillin-resistant strains, are inhibited by vancomycin concentrations of 1–4 mg/mL; <i>Staphylococcus pyogenes</i>, <i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i>, and <i>Streptococcus viridans</i> are susceptible to 2 mg/mL; <i>Bacillus</i> spp. are inhibited by 2 mg/mL, and <i>Clostridium</i> spp. by 0.39–6 mg/mL.[1]</p> <p>Pharmacokinetic studies demonstrate variability, which is only in part explained by weight, age, or creatinine level.[1-4] This variability necessitates the use of therapeutic drug monitoring (TDM) of trough concentrations to ensure effectiveness and avoid nephrotoxicity. In contrast, the quantification of peak concentrations may provide no additional monitoring value.[1]</p> <p>Because vancomycin activity against <i>S. aureus</i> is primarily exposure-dependent, the 24-hour area under the concentration-time curve (AUC₀₋₂₄) divided by the MIC (AUC₀₋₂₄/MIC) is a better predictor of efficacy. In adults with <i>S. aureus</i> MIC values less than 1 mg/ml, trough concentrations >10 mg/ml result in AUC₀₋₂₄/MIC values >400.[1]</p> <p>In neonates, an RCT [5] compared intermittent intravenous (IV) dosing using the British Neonatal Formulary (BNF) dosage guideline versus continuous IV [loading dose of 15 mg/kg over 1 hour then continuous infusion:</p> <p>S creatinine <40 micromol/L & cGA ≥40 = 50 mg/kg/day; S creatinine <40 micromol/L & cGA <40 = 40 mg/kg/day; S creatinine 40-60 micromol/L & cGA All = 30 mg/kg/day; S creatinine >60 micromol/L & cGA All = 20 mg/kg/day.</p> |

The target trough level for intermittent IV dosing was 10 to 20 mg/L and steady-state level for continuous IV 15 to 25mg/L. Target concentrations at the first steady-state level was higher for continuous IV compared with intermittent IV (45/53 (85%) vs 21/51 (41%); $p < 0.001$). Fewer dose adjustments were required in the continuous IV. The mean daily dose required to achieve target concentrations was lower with continuous IV (40.6 vs 60.6 mg/kg/day; $p = 0.01$). No nephrotoxicity or red man syndrome occurred in either group. Conclusion: Continuous infusion of vancomycin achieves target concentrations more reliably at a lower total daily dose. [LOE II]

There are few case reports of vancomycin cerebrospinal fluid concentrations with reported CSF penetration rates ranging from 7 to 42%. [1]

For peak-trough dosing of intermittent vancomycin, dosing has typically been designed to achieve a peak concentration 20-40 mg/L and a trough 10-15 or 15-20 mg/L, depending on the severity of the infection and the nature of the pathogen. [22] Peak concentrations > 40 mg/L are rarely reported except in infants with impaired renal function. [23] Patients with renal failure and other special subpopulations, such as patients exposed to ECMO or indomethacin, need to be monitored more closely. [23]

Multiple studies of vancomycin use have found that previously recommended dosing regimens often do not achieve designated therapeutic ranges. [24] Overall, population pharmacokinetic models contain sufficient levels of unexplained variability to warrant continued TDM for post hoc dose adjustment to achieve a given pharmacodynamic target concentration. [24] However, an external validation analysis across multiple population pharmacokinetic models found that most models led to 'acceptable' vancomycin concentrations in neonates. [25] The ANMF has adapted the documented regimen of Roberts et al 2014. [24]

Efficacy:

Clinical trials of vancomycin in newborn infants are largely underpowered so the relative efficacy of various antibiotic strategies is unclear. Concerns regarding the potential for antibiotic resistance developing result in recommendations to avoid the use of prophylactic antibiotics and limit the duration of antibiotics where possible. [6, 7]

Treatment of neonatal suspected sepsis: Two RCTs have compared the efficacy of vancomycin to other antibiotics in newborns with suspected sepsis [8, 9] Deville et al 2003 [9] reported 63 neonates randomised 2:1 to linezolid ($n = 43$) or vancomycin ($n = 20$) with no significant difference in clinical cure rates (78% vs. 61%; $P = 0.196$). Cernadas et al 2014 [8] reported 109 newborns randomised to cefazolin (52) or vancomycin (57) with no significant difference in rate of adequate outcome (no clinical signs, negative culture and normal laboratory test: cefazolin 92% versus vancomycin 86%) or mortality (cefazolin 7 (13.5%) versus vancomycin 11 (19.2%); $p = 0.45$).

Gwee et al 2018 [5] compared intermittent intravenous (IV) dosing using the British Neonatal Formulary (BNF) dosage guidance versus continuous IV [loading dose of 15mg/kg over 1 hour then continuous infusion). There was no difference in time to clearance of organism or mortality.

Intraventricular antibiotics for bacterial meningitis in neonates: In a single trial that enrolled infants with gram-negative meningitis and ventriculitis, the use of intraventricular gentamicin in addition to intravenous antibiotics resulted in a three-fold increased RR for mortality compared to standard treatment with intravenous antibiotics alone. No trial used intraventricular vancomycin. Based on this result, intraventricular antibiotics as tested in this trial should be avoided. [10] Arnell et al 2007 [11] reported 10 children (0 to 15 years) with intraventricular shunt infections initially treated with IV antibiotics for at least 3 days, but this treatment did not sterilise the CSF. After externalisation of the ventricular catheter, high-dose intraventricular treatment with daily instillations of vancomycin or gentamicin with trough concentrations held at high levels of 7 to 17 mg/L for both antibiotic agents resulted in quick sterilisation of the CSF, a low relapse rate, and survival of all patients. The intraventricular vancomycin dose varied between 1 and 10 mg per day. [LOE IV]

Prevention of infection: Systematic review of 2 RCTs found prophylactic systemic antibiotics in neonates with a central venous catheter reduces the rate of proven or suspected septicaemia. However, there was no significant difference in mortality, a lack of data on long-term neurodevelopmental outcome and of data pertaining to the potentially significant disadvantages of this approach such as the selection of resistant organisms. The routine use of prophylactic antibiotics in infants with central venous catheters

| | |
|------------------------|--|
| | <p>in neonatal units cannot currently be recommended. [12] [LOE I GOR D] Three other RCTs have also reported similar effects of prophylactic vancomycin in infants with or without central lines.[13-15]</p> <p>Newborn infants with necrotising enterocolitis: No trial included use of vancomycin.[16]</p> <p>Prevention of necrotising enterocolitis: Prophylactic oral vancomycin reduced the incidence of NEC in low birth weight infants. However concerns about adverse outcomes persist, particularly related to the development of resistant bacteria. [17, 18] [LOE II GOR D]</p> <p>Therapeutic hypothermia (TH): There are no published data regarding the use of vancomycin during treatment with TH in neonates. A population pharmacokinetic study from children who were being treated with TH post cardiac arrest compared with normothermic controls indicated that in patients with normal renal function vancomycin clearance was reduced by 25%.²⁷</p> <p>ANMF group Recommendation: In infants being treated with TH measure a trough concentration immediately prior to the second dose.</p> <p>Safety: Risk factors for developing nephrotoxicity are the following: trough concentrations >10 mg/ml, concomitant treatment with aminoglycosides, piperacillin/tazobactam and/or prolonged therapy (>21 days).[1]</p> <p>Other risk factors include high peak concentrations, high total dose, pre-existing renal failure, and concurrent treatment with amphotericin and/or furosemide. However, the role of these factors in the neonatal population is not well-established. Proper vancomycin TDM minimised both glomerular and tubular nephrotoxicity in two studies in children and neonates. In most cases, nephrotoxicity is reversible, even after high doses. In contrast, there is no proven association between TDM and ototoxicity prevention.[1]</p> <p>Gwee et al 2018 [5] compared intermittent intravenous (IV) dosing using the British Neonatal Formulary (BNF) dosage guidance versus continuous IV [loading dose of 15 mg/kg over 1 hour then continuous infusion). No nephrotoxicity or red man syndrome occurred in either group.</p> |
| Practice points | |
| References | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Pacifici GM, Allegaert K. Clinical pharmacokinetics of vancomycin in the neonate: a review. Clinics. 2012;67:831-7. 2. Bhongsatiern J, Stockmann C, Roberts JK, Yu T, Korgenski KE, Spigarelli MG, Desai PB, Sherwin CM. Evaluation of Vancomycin Use in Late-Onset Neonatal Sepsis Using the Area Under the Concentration-Time Curve to the Minimum Inhibitory Concentration ≥ 400 Target. Ther Drug Monit. 2015;37:756-65. 3. Kato H, Hagihara M, Nishiyama N, Koizumi Y, Mikamo H, Matsuura K, Yamagishi Y. Assessment of optimal initial dosing regimen with vancomycin pharmacokinetics model in very low birth weight neonates. J Infect Chemother. 2017;23:154-60. 4. Kim J, Walker SA, Iaboni DC, Walker SE, Elligsen M, Dunn MS, Allen VG, Simor A. Determination of vancomycin pharmacokinetics in neonates to develop practical initial dosing recommendations. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 2014;58:2830-40. 5. Gwee A, Cranswick N, McMullan B, Perkins E, Bolisetty S, Gardiner K, Daley A, Ward M, Chiletto R, Donath S, Hunt R. Continuous Versus Intermittent Vancomycin Infusions in Infants: A Randomized Controlled Trial. Pediatrics. 2019 Feb 1;143(2):e20182179.. 6. Clinical Excellence Commission, 2018, Newborn Antibiotic Guideline for early and late onset sepsis during birth episode of care. Revised June 2018. Sydney: Clinical Excellence Commission. 7. Clinical Excellence Commission, 2018, Paediatric Antibiotic Guidelines for Severe Sepsis & Septic Shock & Unwell Neonates. Revised July 2018. Sydney: Clinical Excellence Commission. 8. Ceriani Cernadas JM, Fernandez Jonusas S, Marquez M, Garsd A, Mariani G. Clinical outcome of neonates with nosocomial suspected sepsis treated with cefazolin or vancomycin: a non-inferiority, randomized, controlled trial. Arch Argent Pediatr. 2014;112:308-14. 9. Deville JG, Adler S, Azimi PH, Jantausch BA, Morfin MR, Beltran S, Edge-Padbury B, Naberhuis-Stehouwer S, Bruss JB. Linezolid versus vancomycin in the treatment of known or suspected resistant gram-positive infections in neonates. Pediatr Infect Dis J. 2003;22:S158-63. 10. Shah SS, Ohlsson A, Shah VS. Intraventricular antibiotics for bacterial meningitis in neonates. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2012. |

11. Arnell K, Enblad P, Wester T, Sjolín J. Treatment of cerebrospinal fluid shunt infections in children using systemic and intraventricular antibiotic therapy in combination with externalization of the ventricular catheter: efficacy in 34 consecutively treated infections. *J Neurosurg.* 2007;107:213-9.
12. Jardine LA, Inglis GDT, Davies MW. Prophylactic systemic antibiotics to reduce morbidity and mortality in neonates with central venous catheters. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2008.
13. Baier RJ, Bocchini JA, Jr., Brown EG. Selective use of vancomycin to prevent coagulase-negative staphylococcal nosocomial bacteremia in high risk very low birth weight infants. *Pediatr Infect Dis J.* 1998;17:179-83.
14. Kacica MA, Horgan MJ, Ochoa L, Sandler R, Lepow ML, Venezia RA. Prevention of gram-positive sepsis in neonates weighing less than 1500 grams. *J Pediatr.* 1994;125:253-8.
15. Moller JC, Nelskamp I, Jensen R, Reiss I, Kohl M, Gattermann S, Iven H, Gortner L. Comparison of vancomycin and teicoplanin for prophylaxis of sepsis with coagulase negative staphylococci (CONS) in very low birth weight (VLBW) infants. *J Perinat Med.* 1997;25:361-7.
16. Shah D, Sinn JKH. Antibiotic regimens for the empirical treatment of newborn infants with necrotising enterocolitis. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2012.
17. Bury RG, Tudehope D. Enteral antibiotics for preventing necrotizing enterocolitis in low birthweight or preterm infants. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2001.
18. Siu YK, Ng PC, Fung SC, Lee CH, Wong MY, Fok TF, So KW, Cheung KL, Wong W, Cheng AF. Double blind, randomised, placebo controlled study of oral vancomycin in prevention of necrotising enterocolitis in preterm, very low birthweight infants. *Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed.* 1998;79:F105-9.
19. Australian Injectable Drugs Handbook 7th Edition - AIDH (Australian I.V. Medicines) Accessed 06/12/2018.
20. Micromedex online. Accessed 06/12/2018.
21. Aronoff GR, Bennett WM, Berns JS, et al, *Drug Prescribing in Renal Failure: Dosing Guidelines for Adults and Children*, 5th ed. Philadelphia, PA: American College of Physicians; 2007, 154.
22. Brown DL, Lalla CD, Masselink AJ. AUC versus peak-trough dosing of vancomycin: applying new pharmacokinetic paradigms to an old drug. *Ther Drug Monit.* 2013; 35:443-9.
23. de Hoog M, Mouton JW, van den Anker JN. Vancomycin: pharmacokinetics and administration regimens in neonates. *Clinical Pharmacokinetics.* 2004; 43:417-40.
24. Roberts JK, Stockmann C, Constance JE, Stiers J, Spigarelli MG, Ward RM, Sherwin CMT. Pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of antibacterials, antifungals, and antivirals used most frequently in neonates and infants. *Clinical Pharmacokinetics.* 2014;53:581-610.
25. Marsot A, Boulamery A, Bruguerolle B, Simon N. Vancomycin: a review of population pharmacokinetic analyses. Marsot A, Boulamery A, Bruguerolle B, Simon N. Vancomycin: a review of population pharmacokinetic analyses. *Clin Pharmacokinet.* 2012;51:1-13. *Clin Pharmacokinet.* 2012;51:1-13.
26. MIMS Australia online. Accessed on 14 January 2020.
27. Zane NR, Reedy MD, Gastonguay MR, Himebauch AS, Ramsey EZ, Topjian AA, et al. A Population pharmacokinetic analysis to study the effect of therapeutic hypothermia on vancomycin disposition in children resuscitated from cardiac arrest. *Pediatric Critical Care Medicine.* 2017;18(7):e290-e7.

| VERSION/NUMBER: | DATE |
|-----------------|------------|
| Original: 1.0 | 8/08/2015 |
| Revised | |
| 1.1 | 7/07/2016 |
| 1.2 | 12/12/2016 |
| 1.3 | 6/07/2017 |
| 1.4 | 10/08/2017 |
| 2.0 | 15/04/2017 |
| 2.1 | 23/04/2019 |
| Current: 2.2 | 25/02/2020 |
| REVIEW | 25/02/2025 |

Authors Contribution

| | |
|-------------------|----------------------------------|
| Original author/s | David Osborn, Srinivas Bolisetty |
| Evidence Review | David Osborn |

| | |
|--|--|
| Expert review | Amanda Gwee, Tony Lai, Brendan McMullan, Alison Kesson, Hemalatha Varadhan |
| Nursing Review | Eszter Jozsa |
| Pharmacy Review | Jing Xiao, Michelle Jenkins, Cindy Chen |
| ANMF Group contributors | Nilkant Phad, Himanshu Popat, Angela Williams, Jennifer Martin |
| Final editing and review of the original | Ian Whyte |
| Electronic version | Cindy Chen, Ian Callander |
| Facilitator | Srinivas Bolisetty |