

The Impact of Reported β -Lactam Allergy on Clinical Outcomes and Antibiotic Use Among Solid Organ Transplant Recipients

Helen L. Zhang,^{1,2} Judith A. Anesi,^{1,2,3} Keith W. Hamilton,¹ Leigh Cressman,³ Warren B. Bilker,^{2,3} and Ebbing Lautenbach^{1,2,3}

¹Division of Infectious Diseases, University of Pennsylvania Perelman School of Medicine, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, USA, ²Center for Clinical Epidemiology and Biostatistics, University of Pennsylvania Perelman School of Medicine, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, USA, and ³Department of Biostatistics, Epidemiology and Informatics, University of Pennsylvania Perelman School of Medicine, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, USA

Background. Reported β -lactam allergies (BLAs) are common and frequently inaccurate, but there are limited data on the clinical implications of BLA among solid organ transplant (SOT) recipients. We examined the impact of BLA on clinical outcomes and antibiotic use among SOT recipients.

Methods. This retrospective cohort study included adult patients undergoing single-organ heart, kidney, liver, lung, or pancreas transplant at a United States academic medical center from 1 April 2017 to 31 December 2020. Demographic and clinical data were collected from the electronic health record. Multivariate median regression was performed to evaluate the association between BLA and days alive and out of the hospital in the first 180 days posttransplant (DAOH180). Multivariate logistic regression was performed to evaluate the association between BLA and antibiotic use.

Results. Among 1700 SOT recipients, 285 (16.8%) had a BLA at the time of transplant. BLA was not associated with DAOH180 (adjusted median difference, -0.8 days [95% confidence interval {CI}, -2.7 to 1.2]; $P = .43$). Patients with BLA were more likely to receive intravenous vancomycin (adjusted odds ratio [aOR], 1.8 [95% CI, 1.3 – 2.6]; $P < .001$), clindamycin (aOR, 9.9 [95% CI, 5.1 – 18.9]; $P < .001$), aztreonam (aOR, 19.6 [95% CI, 5.9 – 64.4]; $P < .001$), fluoroquinolones (aOR, 3.8 [95% CI, 2.8 – 5.0]; $P < .001$), or aminoglycosides (aOR, 3.9 [95% CI, 2.5 – 6.2]; $P < .001$).

Conclusions. BLA was associated with use of β -lactam alternative antibiotics but not DAOH180 among SOT recipients.

Keywords. antibiotic allergies; β -lactam allergies; solid organ transplant.

Self-reported allergies to β -lactam antibiotics are common, with approximately 8% of healthcare-seeking individuals in the general United States (US) population reporting a penicillin allergy and 1% reporting a cephalosporin allergy [1]. Among hospitalized patients, the prevalence of reported β -lactam allergy (BLA) has been reported to be as high as 19% [2–4]. However, the vast majority of these reported allergies are inaccurate, either due to misdiagnosis or resolution of the allergy with time; in fact, $>90\%$ of patients with a reported penicillin allergy are not truly allergic when tested and rechallenged [5, 6]. There is a growing body of evidence regarding the negative impact of

reported BLA, including greater risk of receiving non-first-line antibiotics, inferior clinical outcomes, infections due to multidrug-resistant organisms (MDROs) or *Clostridioides difficile*, longer hospital stays, and higher healthcare-related costs [2, 4, 7].

The impact of BLA among immunocompromised hosts, however, remains poorly characterized despite a high prevalence of BLA in this population, which ranges from 16% to 21.5% in various cohorts [8–11]. In particular, as organ transplantation becomes increasingly common in the US and worldwide, solid organ transplant (SOT) recipients represent an emerging cohort of patients at particularly high risk of developing serious bacterial infections due to surgical complications, indwelling lines and devices, receipt of immunosuppressive medications, and comorbid medical conditions [12, 13]. MDRO infections and *C difficile* infection are frequent complications of organ transplantation, reflecting frequent healthcare exposure and high rates of antibiotic use [14, 15]. These risks underscore the importance of offering first-line antibiotics when infectious complications arise, not only to optimize treatment effectiveness but also to minimize the risk of subsequent antibiotic-resistant colonization or infection, antibiotic-related adverse events, and toxicity. Despite the theoretical potential

Received 13 June 2022; editorial decision 25 July 2022; accepted 28 July 2022; published online 29 July 2022

Correspondence: Helen L. Zhang, MD, University of Pennsylvania Perelman School of Medicine, 3400 Spruce St, 3 Silverstein Ste. E, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA (helen.zhang1@pennmedicine.upenn.edu).

Open Forum Infectious Diseases®

© The Author(s) 2022. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of Infectious Diseases Society of America. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs licence (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>), which permits non-commercial reproduction and distribution of the work, in any medium, provided the original work is not altered or transformed in any way, and that the work is properly cited. For commercial re-use, please contact journals.permissions@oup.com

<https://doi.org/10.1093/ofid/ofac384>

for BLA to limit options for antibiotic therapy among SOT recipients, the few existing studies that have examined antibiotic allergy labels in this population have been limited by small sample sizes, broad cohorts that include non-SOT recipients, or short follow-up durations [9, 16]. Moreover, the impact of reported BLA on clinical outcomes specifically among SOT recipients still remains largely uncharacterized.

In this study, we evaluated the association between reported BLA and posttransplant clinical outcomes and antibiotic use among SOT recipients at a US academic transplant center.

METHODS

Study Setting and Population

This retrospective cohort study was conducted at the University of Pennsylvania Health System (UPHS) in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Patients ≥ 18 years of age who underwent single-organ heart, kidney, liver, lung, or pancreas transplant between 1 April 2017 and 31 December 2020 and survived until at least postoperative day (POD) 1 were included. Among patients who underwent >1 transplant within the study period, only the first transplant episode was included. Institutional guidelines for transplant surgery perioperative antibiotic prophylaxis are summarized in [Supplementary Table 1](#).

Exposure

The primary study exposure was the presence of an allergy or intolerance label to ≥ 1 non-monobactam β -lactam antibiotic (ie, penicillins and penicillin derivatives, cephalosporins, cephamycins, and/or carbapenems) in the electronic health record on the day of index transplant surgery. BLA labels were manually verified by an infectious diseases-trained physician (H. L. Z.). Due to inconsistent documentation of the nature and/or severity of reported reactions in the medical record, patients with any documented reaction to a β -lactam antibiotic were included in the exposed group.

Primary Outcome

The primary outcome was days alive and out of the hospital in the first 180 days posttransplant (DAOH180), defined as the number of days from POD1 through POD180 during which the patient was neither hospitalized in a UPHS hospital nor deceased. Only UPHS hospitalizations were considered because since SOT recipients are rarely hospitalized outside of their transplant center in the early posttransplant period, and in the rare circumstances in which they are hospitalized outside of their transplant center, they are routinely transferred to the transplant center for their care.

Secondary Outcomes

Length of index hospitalization was evaluated from day of transplant surgery until hospital discharge, and rehospitalization was evaluated from POD1 through POD180.

Antibiotic use from POD1 through POD180 was analyzed in several ways:

1. Cumulative inpatient antibiotic days of therapy (DOT), defined as the aggregate sum of calendar days during which any dose of a specific systemic antibacterial antibiotic was administered to a patient. This measure excluded agents used for *Pneumocystis jirovecii* prophylaxis (trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, atovaquone, dapsone), azithromycin among lung transplant recipients due to routine prophylactic use, antimycobacterial agents due to typically prolonged courses, and oral vancomycin or fidaxomicin due to limited systemic exposure ([Supplementary Table 2](#)).
2. Total number of antibiotic classes received in the inpatient and/or outpatient setting.
3. Receipt of specific systemic antibacterial agents or classes (penicillin-class antibiotics, cephalosporin-class antibiotics, carbapenem-class antibiotics, intravenous vancomycin, clindamycin, aztreonam, fluoroquinolone-class antibiotics, and aminoglycoside-class antibiotics) in the inpatient and/or outpatient setting.

Other secondary outcomes were also evaluated POD1 through POD180: positive *C difficile* assay; incident MDRO acquisition; acute kidney injury (AKI), defined as an increase in serum creatinine ≥ 0.3 mg/dL within 48 hours or $\geq 50\%$ above baseline within 7 days [17]; invasive candidiasis, defined as isolation of *Candida* species in culture from a sterile site such as blood, bone, pleural cavity, or peritoneal cavity; surgical site infection as ascertained by *International Classification of Diseases, Tenth Revision (ICD-10)* diagnosis codes; and all-cause mortality. Incident MDRO was defined as isolation of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, vancomycin-resistant *Enterococcus*, extended-spectrum cephalosporin-resistant Enterobacterales (defined as Enterobacterales nonsusceptible to at least 1 of the following agents: cefepime, ceftriaxone, cefotaxime, ceftazidime, ceftolozane-tazobactam, or ceftazidime-avibactam), carbapenem-resistant Enterobacterales (defined as Enterobacterales resistant to at least 1 of the following agents: imipenem, meropenem, ertapenem, meropenem/vaborbactam, or imipenem/relebactam), or multidrug-resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (defined as *P aeruginosa* nonsusceptible to at least 1 agent in at least 3 of the following 5 classes: (1) extended-spectrum cephalosporins (cefepime, ceftazidime, ceftolozane-tazobactam, ceftazidime -avibactam); (2) fluoroquinolones (ciprofloxacin, levofloxacin); (3) aminoglycosides (amikacin, gentamicin, tobramycin); (4) carbapenems (imipenem, meropenem, doripenem); and (5) piperacillin-tazobactam, in a clinical culture from POD1 through POD180 without prior isolation in the 365 days preceding transplant surgery [18].

Data Collection

All data were extracted from the electronic health record via the Epic Clarity database. Comorbidities at time of transplant were ascertained using *ICD-10* codes. Pretransplant hospitalization status (ambulatory, inpatient non-intensive care, or intensive care unit) was assessed on the calendar day preceding transplant surgery, with patients newly admitted to the hospital on the day prior to surgery (ie, scheduled admissions in preparation for surgery) considered to be ambulatory.

Statistical Analyses

Data were analyzed in Stata version 16.1 software (StataCorp, College Station, Texas). Baseline characteristics were compared using Wilcoxon rank-sum test for continuous variables and χ^2 test for categorical variables. Univariate and multivariate median regression was performed to evaluate the association between BLA and DAOH180, the association between BLA and length of index hospitalization, and the association between BLA and inpatient antibiotic DOT. An evaluation for an interaction effect between BLA and transplanted organ on DAOH180 was performed on the fully adjusted model using Wald test for joint significance. Preplanned subgroup analyses of the association between BLA and DAOH180 were performed excluding patients with non- β -lactam antibiotic allergies from both exposed and unexposed groups, comparing patients with cephalosporin class-only allergy to those with penicillin class-only allergy, and excluding patients undergoing retransplantation. Poisson regression was performed to evaluate the association between BLA and number of antibiotic classes received, and logistic regression was performed to evaluate the association between BLA and odds of rehospitalization within the first 180 days posttransplant, receipt of specific antibiotic agents or classes, incident MDRO acquisition, positive *C difficile* assay, invasive candidiasis, AKI, and surgical site infection. For all multivariate models, the following covariates were selected a priori for inclusion based on clinical justification: transplanted organ, recipient age, sex, diabetes mellitus at time of transplant, pretransplant hospitalization status, receipt of induction therapy, and initial antimetabolite drug. Due to low event counts, all-cause mortality was examined using unadjusted analysis only.

An α of .05 was used, and 2-tailed *P* values are reported. No adjustments were made for multiple comparisons.

RESULTS

Cohort Characteristics

Among 1700 patients, 285 (16.8%) had a BLA at the time of transplant. Among those with BLA, penicillin-class allergy was reported among 245 (86.0%), cephalosporin allergy among 61 (21.4%), and carbapenem allergy among 4 (1.4%), with 25 (8.8%) patients reporting allergies to ≥ 2 β -lactam classes. Patients with BLA were more likely to be female (52.3% vs

34.6%, $P < .001$), report a non- β -lactam antibiotic allergy (33.0% vs 12.2%, $P < .001$), or have cystic fibrosis (3.5% vs 0.9%, $P < .001$). Thirteen (4.6%) patients with BLA had an outpatient allergy/immunology encounter in the 90 days preceding transplant. Baseline characteristics are summarized in [Table 1](#).

Association Between BLA and Days Alive and Out of the Hospital

Median DAOH180 was 169 (interquartile range [IQR], 156–175) days among patients without BLA and 168 (IQR, 154–174) days among those with BLA ([Figure 1](#)). There was no significant association between BLA and DAOH180 in either unadjusted (median difference, -1.0 days [95% confidence interval {CI}, -3.0 to 1.0]; $P = .32$) or adjusted (adjusted median difference, -0.8 days [95% CI, -2.7 to 1.2]; $P = .43$) analyses ([Table 2](#)). There was not a significant interaction between BLA and transplanted organ on DAOH180 ($P = .47$). Similar findings were observed in subgroup analyses excluding patients with non- β -lactam antibiotic allergy (adjusted median difference, -0.5 days [95% CI, -2.7 to 1.6]; $P = .62$), comparing patients with cephalosporin class-only allergy to those with penicillin class-only allergy (adjusted median difference, -1.3 days [95% CI, -8.7 to 6.2]; $P = .74$), and excluding patients undergoing retransplantation (adjusted median difference, -0.7 days [95% CI, -2.7 to 1.2]; $P = .46$). There was no significant difference in length of index hospitalization following transplant surgery (adjusted median difference, 0.04 days [95% CI, $-.8$ to $.9$]; $P = .92$) or in odds of rehospitalization within the first

Table 1. Characteristics of Solid Organ Transplant Recipients With and Without β -Lactam Allergy Label, University of Pennsylvania Health System, April 2017–December 2020

Characteristic	No β -Lactam Allergy (n = 1415)	β -Lactam Allergy (n = 285)	<i>P</i> Value
Age, y, median (IQR)	57 (47–64)	57 (44–64)	.37
Female sex, No. (%)	490 (34.6)	149 (52.3)	<.001
Self-identified race, No. (%)			.36
White	939 (67.3)	204 (71.6)	
Black or African American	347 (24.9)	62 (21.8)	
Other	110 (7.9)	19 (6.7)	
Not reported	19 (...)	0 (...)	
Self-identified ethnicity, No. (%)			.72
Non-Hispanic/non-Latino	1306 (93.8)	269 (94.4)	
Hispanic or Latino	86 (6.2)	16 (5.6)	
Not reported	23 (...)	0 (...)	
Non β -lactam antibiotic allergy, No. (%)	173 (12.2)	94 (33.0)	<.001
Transplanted organ, No. (%)			.19
Kidney	633 (44.7)	124 (43.5)	
Liver	375 (26.5)	70 (24.6)	
Lung	259 (18.3)	50 (17.5)	
Heart	146 (10.3)	39 (13.7)	
Pancreas	2 (0.1)	2 (0.7)	
Retransplantation, No. (%)	50 (3.6)	11 (3.9)	.80

Abbreviation, IQR, interquartile range.

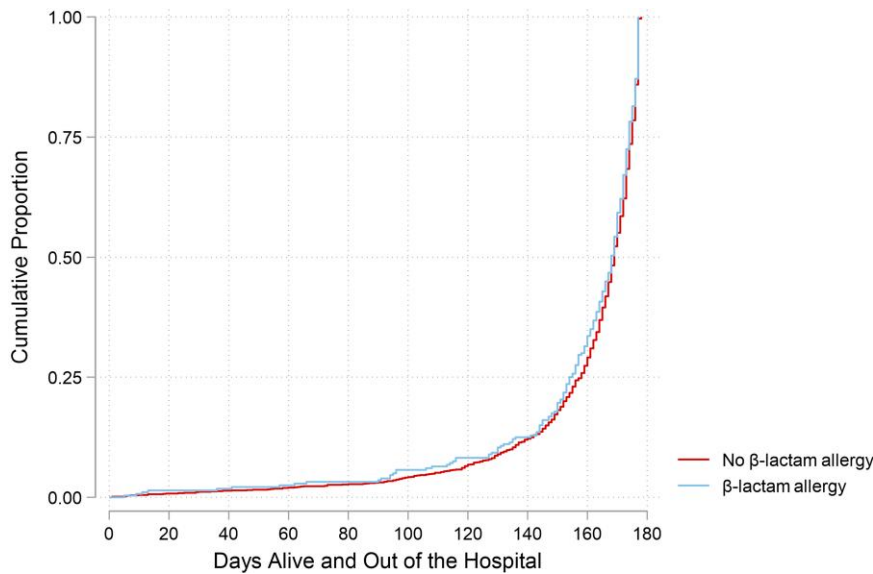


Figure 1. Cumulative days alive and out of the hospital in the first 180 days among solid organ transplant recipients with and without β -lactam allergy label.

Table 2. Multivariate Median Regression of Association Between β -Lactam Allergy Label and Days Alive and Out of the Hospital in the First 180 Days Post-Organ Transplant

Characteristic	Coefficient	(95% CI)	P Value
β -lactam allergy	-.79	(-2.74 to 1.16)	.43
Organ transplant type	
Heart	ref	...	
Kidney	16.21	(12.90–19.51)	<.001
Liver	9.79	(4.38–15.21)	<.001
Lung	-7.71	(-11.16 to -4.25)	<.001
Pancreas	2.91	(-12.38 to 18.21)	.71
Age (per additional year)	-0.03	(-.09 to .03)	.32
Female sex	-0.26	(-1.78 to 1.25)	.73
Diabetes mellitus	-1.03	(-3.58 to 1.52)	.43
Pretransplant hospitalization status			
Ambulatory	ref	...	
Inpatient, non-ICU	-2.38	(-4.90 to .14)	.064
Inpatient, ICU	-16.15	(-19.49 to -12.81)	<.001
Receipt of induction immunosuppression	1.12	(-2.80 to 5.04)	.58
Initial receipt of mycophenolate	-2.50	(-7.32 to 2.32)	.31
Initial receipt of azathioprine	-1.65	(-4.47 to 1.18)	.25

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; ICU, intensive care unit; ref, reference category.

180 days posttransplant (adjusted odds ratio [aOR], 1.2 [95% CI, .9–1.5]; $P = .20$) among patients with BLA compared to those without BLA.

Association Between BLA and Antibiotic Use

The median percentage of inpatient days during which patients received antibiotics was 33.3% (IQR, 16.7%–63.2%). BLA was not associated with inpatient antibiotic DOT in the first 180 days posttransplant in unadjusted (median difference, 0.0 days [95% CI, -2.0 to 2.0]; $P > .99$) or adjusted

(adjusted median difference, 0.0 days [95% CI, -1.7 to 1.7]; $P > .99$) analyses. However, BLA was associated with an increased number of antibiotic classes received (adjusted incidence rate ratio, 1.10 [95% CI, 1.0–1.2]; $P = .02$) as well as increased odds of receiving intravenous vancomycin, clindamycin, aztreonam, fluoroquinolones, and aminoglycosides (Table 3). Among patients with BLA, 68 (23.9%) still received penicillin-class antibiotics, 166 (58.3%) received cephalosporin-class antibiotics, and 42 (14.7%) received carbapenem-class antibiotics in the first 180 days posttransplant.

Table 3. Association Between β -Lactam Allergy Label and Odds of Receiving Specific Antibiotics or Antibiotic Classes in the First 180 Days Post-Organ Transplant

Antibiotic Agent/Class	Unadjusted			Adjusted		
	OR	(95% CI)	P Value	aOR	(95% CI)	P Value
Aminoglycosides	4.0	(2.6–6.2)	<.001	3.9	(2.5–6.2)	<.001
Aztreonam	16.9	(5.5–52.1)	<.001	19.6	(5.9–64.4)	<.001
Carbapenems	1.1	(.8–1.6)	.51	1.1	(.7–1.6)	.68
Cephalosporins	0.4	(.3–.5)	<.001	0.2	(.1–.3)	<.001
Clindamycin	9.2	(4.9–17.2)	<.001	9.9	(5.1–18.9)	<.001
Fluoroquinolones	3.4	(2.6–4.5)	<.001	3.8	(2.8–5.0)	<.001
Penicillins	0.3	(.3–.5)	<.001	0.2	(.1–.3)	<.001
Vancomycin (IV)	1.5	(1.1–1.9)	.003	1.8	(1.3–2.6)	<.001

OR refers to association between β -lactam allergy and odds of receiving antibiotic class listed in each row.

Abbreviations: aOR, adjusted odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; IV, intravenous; OR, odds ratio.

Association Between BLA and Adverse Events

BLA was not significantly associated with a positive *C difficile* assay (aOR, 1.2 [95% CI, .7–2.1]; $P = .56$), incident MDRO acquisition (aOR, 1.0 [95% CI, .7–1.6]; $P = .83$) (Supplementary Table 3), AKI (aOR, 0.9 [95% CI, .7–1.2]; $P = .51$), invasive candidiasis (aOR, 1.3 [95% CI, .5–3.2]; $P = .57$), or surgical site infection (aOR, 0.7 [95% CI, .4–1.4]; $P = .34$). Deaths within 180 days of transplant occurred among 13 (4.6%) patients with BLA and 48 (3.4%) without BLA (unadjusted OR, 1.4 [95% CI, .7–2.5]; $P = .34$).

DISCUSSION

In this study, we found that reported BLA was highly prevalent among SOT recipients. Furthermore, the presence of a BLA label at the time of transplant was associated with increased use of β -lactam-alternative antibiotics in the early posttransplant period, though we did not observe a significant association between BLA and clinical outcomes in this cohort.

Few other studies have examined antibiotic allergy labels among SOT recipients, and ours is the first of our knowledge to evaluate the impact of BLAs on clinical outcomes exclusively within this patient population [9, 16]. The prevalence of reported BLA in our cohort was much greater than that of the general population, in which an estimated 8% and 1% of healthcare-seeking adults report penicillin and cephalosporin allergies, respectively, though similar to those of other studies of immunocompromised patient populations in the US [1, 9, 10]. This high prevalence likely reflects the burden of antibiotic exposure experienced by patients who ultimately undergo organ transplantation. Despite the high prevalence of these labels, <5% of patients with BLA were connected to care with an allergist in the pretransplant period, representing a significant missed opportunity to evaluate and de-label incorrectly documented antibiotic allergies. In addition to a robust body of literature supporting the safety and efficacy of penicillin skin testing and direct challenges among immunocompetent hosts [5, 19–22],

BLA evaluation and de-labeling interventions targeting surgical patient populations have been demonstrated to be associated with increased use of first-line perioperative antibiotics [23–25]. Furthermore, data regarding the safe use of penicillin skin testing among immunocompromised hosts and transplant candidates have begun to accumulate in recent years [26–29]. As a result, considering the high proportion of SOT recipients with a BLA and the certainty that their posttransplant course will involve antibiotic exposures, pretransplant evaluation of BLAs should be a priority for this population.

There was a strong association between BLA and exposure to intravenous vancomycin, clindamycin, aztreonam, fluoroquinolones, and aminoglycosides in the posttransplant period, consistent with prior studies of the general adult inpatient and perioperative patient populations as well as Imlay and colleagues' study of solid organ and hematopoietic stem cell transplant recipients [7, 9]. These findings are of significance given the established associations between some of these β -lactam-alternative antibiotics and adverse events, including increased risk of *C difficile* with fluoroquinolone use and aminoglycoside-associated nephrotoxicity [30–33]. Additionally, use of β -lactam alternative agents are associated with lower effectiveness of therapy in certain clinical scenarios; for example, inferior survival outcomes have been observed in methicillin-susceptible *S aureus* infections when vancomycin rather than an anti-staphylococcal β -lactam antibiotic is used as definitive therapy [34]. However, in this study we did not observe a significant association between BLA and adverse clinical outcomes in the early posttransplant period. This lack of observed association could potentially be explained by the overall high utilization of broad-spectrum antibiotics in this patient population regardless of BLA status, with approximately 25% and 14% of our overall cohort receiving fluoroquinolones and carbapenems, respectively, in the first 180 days posttransplant. Furthermore, it is possible that the detrimental impact of BLA manifests beyond the first 180 days posttransplant, after several courses of non-first-line antibiotic exposures. Future studies should therefore evaluate the

association between BLA and adverse outcomes later in the posttransplant period. Nevertheless, the high prevalence of BLA in our cohort and its substantial impact on antibiotic use in the early posttransplant period still provide strong justification for the prioritization of SOT candidates in allergy de-labeling interventions.

Our study has several limitations. As all data were collected retrospectively from the electronic health record of a single health system, it is possible that posttransplant hospitalizations outside of UPHS were missed. This is unlikely to be significant, however, since patients receiving transplants at our center are followed almost exclusively within our health system during the first year posttransplant. Misclassification could also have occurred from underascertainment of comorbidities based on *ICD-10* code documentation or overascertainment of outpatient antibiotic use from drug prescription data. Bias due to unmeasured confounding from variables such as socioeconomic status and pretransplant infections is also possible. Additionally, the single-center nature of the study limits its generalizability. Last, the study had limited statistical power to detect clinically meaningful differences for some secondary outcomes, in particular *C difficile* and MDRO acquisition, for which our findings should be considered exploratory.

CONCLUSIONS

Among SOT recipients, BLA was highly prevalent and associated with increased use of β -lactam-alternative antibiotics but not with clinical outcomes. Future studies should validate these findings in other cohorts as well as evaluate the feasibility, safety, and impact of antibiotic allergy interventions targeting SOT candidates.

Supplementary Data

Supplementary materials are available at *Open Forum Infectious Diseases* online. Consisting of data provided by the authors to benefit the reader, the posted materials are not copyedited and are the sole responsibility of the authors, so questions or comments should be addressed to the corresponding author.

Notes

Acknowledgments. The authors thank Scott Hartman, Arwin Thomasson, and Raymond Byfield for their assistance in study planning and data retrieval.

Patient consent. A waiver of informed consent was granted for this retrospective study.

Financial support. This work was supported by the National Institute for Allergy and Infectious Diseases (award numbers T32-AI055435 to H. L. Z. and K01-AI137317 to J. A. A.).

Potential conflicts of interest. The authors: No reported conflicts of interest.

All authors have submitted the ICMJE Form for Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest. Conflicts that the editors consider relevant to the content of the manuscript have been disclosed.

References

1. Macy E. Penicillin and beta-lactam allergy: epidemiology and diagnosis. *Curr Allergy Asthma Rep* **2014**; 14:476.
2. MacFadden DR, LaDelfa A, Leen J, et al. Impact of reported beta-lactam allergy on inpatient outcomes: a multicenter prospective cohort study. *Clin Infect Dis* **2016**; 63:904–10.
3. Lee CE, Zembower TR, Fotis MA, et al. The incidence of antimicrobial allergies in hospitalized patients: implications regarding prescribing patterns and emerging bacterial resistance. *Arch Intern Med* **2000**; 160:2819–22.
4. Macy E, Contreras R. Health care use and serious infection prevalence associated with penicillin “allergy” in hospitalized patients: a cohort study. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* **2014**; 133:790–6.
5. del Real GA, Rose ME, Ramirez-Atamoros MT, et al. Penicillin skin testing in patients with a history of beta-lactam allergy. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol* **2007**; 98:355–9.
6. Sacco KA, Bates A, Brigham TJ, Imam JS, Burton MC. Clinical outcomes following inpatient penicillin allergy testing: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Allergy* **2017**; 72:1288–96.
7. Krah NM, Jones TW, Lake J, Hersh AL. The impact of antibiotic allergy labels on antibiotic exposure, clinical outcomes, and healthcare costs: a systematic review. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol* **2021**; 42:530–48.
8. Trubiano JA, Slavin MA, Thursky KA, Grayson ML, Phillips EJ. Beta-lactam and sulfonamide allergy testing should be a standard of care in immunocompromised hosts. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract* **2019**; 7:2151–3.
9. Imlay H, Krantz EM, Stohs EJ, et al. Reported β -lactam and other antibiotic allergies in solid organ and hematopoietic cell transplant recipients. *Clin Infect Dis* **2020**; 71:1587–94.
10. Huang KG, Cluzet V, Hamilton K, Fadugba O. The impact of reported beta-lactam allergy in hospitalized patients with hematologic malignancies requiring antibiotics. *Clin Infect Dis* **2018**; 67:27–33.
11. Abbo LM, Ariza-Heredia EJ. Antimicrobial stewardship in immunocompromised hosts. *Infect Dis Clin North Am* **2014**; 28:263–79.
12. United Network for Organ Sharing. Transplant trends. <https://unos.org/data/transplant-trends/>. Accessed 17 January 2022.
13. Fishman JA. Infection in organ transplantation. *Am J Transplant* **2017**; 17: 856–79.
14. Oriol I, Sabe N, Simonetti AF, et al. Changing trends in the aetiology, treatment and outcomes of bloodstream infection occurring in the first year after solid organ transplantation: a single-centre prospective cohort study. *Transpl Int* **2017**; 30: 903–13.
15. Dubberke ER, Burdette SD; AST Infectious Diseases Community of Practice. *Clostridium difficile* infections in solid organ transplantation. *Am J Transplant* **2013**; 13(Suppl 4):42–9.
16. Khumra S, Chan J, Urbancic K, et al. Antibiotic allergy labels in a liver transplant recipient study. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **2017**; 61:e00078–17.
17. Kellum JA, Lameire N, Aspelin P, et al. Kidney disease: Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO) acute kidney injury work group. KDIGO clinical practice guideline for acute kidney injury. *Kidney Int Suppl* **2012**; 2:1–138.
18. National Healthcare Safety Network. Antimicrobial-resistant phenotype definitions. https://www.cdc.gov/nhsn/pdfs/ps-analysis-resources/phenotype_definitions.pdf. Accessed 17 January 2022.
19. Macy E. Elective penicillin skin testing and amoxicillin challenge: effect on outpatient antibiotic use, cost, and clinical outcomes. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* **1998**; 102: 281–5.
20. Macy E, Mangat R, Burchette RJ. Penicillin skin testing in advance of need: multiyear follow-up in 568 test result-negative subjects exposed to oral penicillins. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* **2003**; 111:1111–5.
21. Confino-Cohen R, Rosman Y, Meir-Shafir K, et al. Oral challenge without skin testing safely excludes clinically significant delayed-onset penicillin hypersensitivity. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract* **2017**; 5:669–75.
22. Iammato M, Lezmi G, Confino-Cohen R, Tucker M, Ben-Shoshan M, Caubet JC. Direct challenges for the evaluation of beta-lactam allergy: evidence and conditions for not performing skin testing. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract* **2021**; 9: 2947–56.
23. Moussa Y, Shuster J, Matte G, et al. De-labeling of beta-lactam allergy reduces intraoperative time and optimizes choice in antibiotic prophylaxis [manuscript published online ahead of print 8 May 2018]. *Surgery* **2018**.
24. Plager JH, Mancini CM, Fu X, et al. Preoperative penicillin allergy testing in patients undergoing cardiac surgery. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol* **2020**; 124: 583–8.
25. McDanel DL, Azar AE, Dowden AM, et al. Screening for beta-lactam allergy in joint arthroplasty patients to improve surgical prophylaxis practice. *J Arthroplasty* **2017**; 32:S101–8.

26. Modi AR, Majhail NS, Rybicki L, et al. Penicillin allergy skin testing as an antibiotic stewardship intervention reduces alternative antibiotic exposures in hematopoietic stem cell transplant recipients. *Transpl Infect Dis* **2019**; 21:e13175.
27. Padmanabhan Menon D, Sacco K, Shalev JA, Narula T, Gonzalez-Estrada A. Safety of penicillin allergy skin testing in patients with low lung volumes before lung transplant. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol* **2019**; 122:122–3.
28. Taremi M, Artau A, Foolad F, et al. Safety, efficacy, and clinical impact of penicillin skin testing in immunocompromised cancer patients. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract* **2019**; 7:2185–91.e1.
29. Ying A, Chua KYL, Rose M, Vogrin S, Trubiano JA. The impact of antibiotic allergy testing in transplant patients. *Transpl Infect Dis* **2021**; 23:e13411.
30. McCusker ME, Harris AD, Perencevich E, Roghmann MC. Fluoroquinolone use and *Clostridium difficile*-associated diarrhea. *Emerg Infect Dis* **2003**; 9:730–3.
31. Oliveira JF, Silva CA, Barbieri CD, Oliveira GM, Zanetta DM, Burdmann EA. Prevalence and risk factors for aminoglycoside nephrotoxicity in intensive care units. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **2009**; 53:2887–91.
32. Brown KA, Langford B, Schwartz KL, Diong C, Garber G, Daneman N. Antibiotic prescribing choices and their comparative *C. difficile* infection risks: a longitudinal case-cohort study. *Clin Infect Dis* **2021**; 72:836–44.
33. Jaffa RK, Hammer J, Medaris LA, Anderson WE, Heffner AC, Pillinger KE. Empiric aztreonam is associated with increased mortality compared to beta-lactams in septic shock. *Am J Emerg Med* **2021**; 48:255–60.
34. McDanel JS, Perencevich EN, Diekema DJ, et al. Comparative effectiveness of beta-lactams versus vancomycin for treatment of methicillin-susceptible *Staphylococcus aureus* bloodstream infections among 122 hospitals. *Clin Infect Dis* **2015**; 61:361–7.