

1 The Hidden Microbe-Pharmacokinetic Axis: Navigating Erratic Drug Absorption in 2 Critically Ill Patients.

3 4 5 **Abstract**

6 **Background:**Critically ill patients routinely experience profound physiological derangements
7 that significantly alter drug pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics. While fluid shifts and
8 organ dysfunction are classically implicated, the gut microbiome has recently emerged as a
9 critical driver of unpredictable drug absorption, giving rise to the field of pharmacomicrobiomics.

10
11 **Objective:** This narrative review aims to comprehensively evaluate the mechanisms through
12 which the dysbiotic gut microbiome in critical care settings hijacks the pharmacokinetics of
13 enterally administered drugs.

14
15 **Methods:** Following SANRA guidelines, a comprehensive literature search of PubMed,
16 Embase, and Scopus was conducted focusing on literature published between 2020 and 2026.
17 Keywords included "pharmacomicrobiomics," "microbiome," "pharmacokinetics," and "critical
18 care."

19
20 **Key Findings:**The critical care gut is characterized by severe dysbiosis, which alters the
21 microbial enzymatic repertoire responsible for drug biotransformation. Microbial exoenzymes
22 directly execute oxidation, reduction, and hydrolysis of xenobiotics, thereby dictating drug
23 bioavailability. These mechanisms profoundly impact the absorption of antimicrobials,
24 cardiovascular agents, sedatives, and targeted therapies. Furthermore, antibiotic-driven
25 resistome expansion bidirectionally compromises drug efficacy and exacerbates systemic
26 inflammation.

27 **Conclusion:** Microbial hijacking of drug absorption is a primary contributor to therapeutic failure
28 and toxicity in the intensive care unit. Integrating pharmacomicrobiomics into standard
29 therapeutic drug monitoring represents an urgent clinical necessity to optimize personalized
30 medicine and mitigate the unpredictable pharmacokinetic variability inherent to critical illness.

31 32 **1. Introduction**

33 Critically ill patients experience profound physiological derangements that significantly alter drug
34 pharmacokinetics (PK) and pharmacodynamics (PD) (1). These alterations are classically
35 attributed to acute fluid shifts, progressive multiorgan dysfunction, and dynamic changes in
36 plasma protein binding capacities (2). However, a rapidly expanding body of evidence
37 implicates the gut microbiome as a hidden but immensely powerful covariate in drug disposition,
38 a translational discipline now termed pharmacomicrobiomics (3,4). In the intensive care unit
39 (ICU), the microbiome undergoes rapid and catastrophic disruption, universally recognized as
40 dysbiosis (5). This profound dysbiosis not only propagates systemic inflammation and
41 widespread immune exhaustion but also fundamentally alters the metabolic capacity of the
42 gastrointestinal tract (6). Given that the human gut microbiome possesses a genetic repertoire
43 vast enough to be considered a "second genome," its collective enzymatic machinery plays a
44 pivotal role in the biotransformation of both endogenous substrates and exogenous xenobiotics

45 (7,8). Consequently, microbial hijacking of pharmacokinetics introduces immense inter-
46 individual variability in drug absorption and systemic bioavailability (9).
47 In an environment where the therapeutic window of life-saving medications is notably narrow,
48 unpredictable drug absorption can precipitate catastrophic clinical failures or severe toxicities
49 (10). Despite these well-documented risks, the bidirectional relationship between microbiome
50 alterations and drug metabolism remains an underappreciated facet of critical care
51 pharmacology (11). Current medical therapies, including oncological and critical care protocols
52 governed by FDA and NCCN guidelines, largely rely on standardized dosing regimens derived
53 from healthy cohorts or stable outpatient populations (12). These rigid protocols often fail to
54 account for the unique enteric microenvironment of the critically ill, where microbial exoenzymes
55 heavily dictate the presystemic fate of orally and enterally administered drugs (13). As the
56 paradigm of personalized medicine advances, integrating pharmacomicrobiomic data into
57 clinical decision-making offers a transformative approach to contemporary therapeutic drug
58 monitoring (14). Understanding the precise mechanisms by which microbiota-mediated
59 alterations influence PK is universally essential for optimizing outcomes in sepsis, trauma, and
60 perioperative care environments (15).

61

62 **2. Methodology**

63 This narrative review was methodically conducted in strict adherence to the Scale for the
64 Assessment of Narrative Review Articles (SANRA) guidelines, supplemented by principles from
65 PRISMA where applicable to narrative synthesis, to ensure objective reporting and scientific
66 rigor (16). A comprehensive literature search was executed across primary electronic academic
67 databases, specifically focusing on PubMed/MEDLINE, Embase, and the Cochrane Library (17).
68 To capture the most recent and relevant data, the search was restricted to articles published
69 between January 2020 and May 2026, encompassing international clinical trials, fundamental
70 mechanistic studies, and current FDA/NCCN clinical practice guidelines (18).

71 The search strategy utilized a rigorous combination of Medical Subject Headings (MeSH) and
72 specific free-text keywords: ("pharmacomicrobiomics" OR "gut microbiome" OR "intestinal flora")
73 AND ("pharmacokinetics" OR "drug absorption" OR "drug metabolism") AND ("critical care" OR
74 "intensive care" OR "sepsis") (19). Inclusion criteria mandated that studies focus specifically on
75 adult human populations or highly relevant "in vivo" mammalian models demonstrating microbial
76 biotransformation of pharmacological agents (20). Articles were systematically excluded if they
77 were not published in English, lacked peer review, or strictly focused on non-pharmacological
78 nutritional interventions without explicit PK endpoints (21). The final selection of literature
79 prioritized major high-impact journals, including "The Lancet" , "New England Journal of
80 Medicine", and specialized pharmacological publications, to ensure the formulation of evidence-
81 based discussion points (22).

82

83 **3. Discussion**

84 **3.1 The Critical Care Gut: Dysbiosis and Enteric Dysfunction**

85 The gastrointestinal tract in critically ill patients suffers from acute and sustained ischemic
86 insults, leading to a phenomenon commonly described as the "critical care gut" (23).
87 Hypoperfusion, vasopressor administration, and the extensive use of broad-spectrum antibiotics
88 collectively decimate the commensal anaerobic populations that maintain mucosal integrity (24).

89 This ecological collapse allows for the rapid pathological overgrowth of virulent pathogens,
90 fundamentally altering the luminal pH and localized transit times which are critical for optimal
91 drug dissolution (25). Furthermore, the disruption of the tight junction barriers leads to increased
92 intestinal permeability, traditionally referred to as "leaky gut" syndrome, which alters the
93 predictable passive diffusion of therapeutic compounds (26).
94 Neutrophils and localized innate immune cells in this dysbiotic environment exhibit both
95 quantitative and qualitative defects, frequently demonstrating impaired chemotaxis while
96 paradoxically maintaining an exaggerated release of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (27). This
97 sustained release of ROS damages the mucosal absorptive surface, further limiting the active
98 transport mechanisms required for specific drug uptake (28). Dysbiosis and subsequent
99 bacterial translocation result in the continuous exposure of the systemic circulation to pathogen-
100 associated molecular patterns (PAMPs), driving systemic inflammation via toll-like receptor
101 (TLR) signaling (29). Persistent immune stimulation causes significant physiological stress that
102 indirectly alters hepatic enzyme activity, proving that enteric dysfunction bridges the gap
103 between local microbiome collapse and systemic pharmacokinetic failure (30).

104

105 **3.2 Mechanisms of Microbial Drug Metabolism**

106 Microbial biotransformation of drugs is primarily executed by a diverse array of microbial
107 exoenzymes that convert organic pharmacological compounds into analogous structures prior to
108 host absorption (31). These distinct biotransformations occur heavily via oxidation, reduction,
109 hydrolysis, condensation, and the aggressive introduction of heteroatoms into the parent drug
110 molecule (32). For instance, specific bacterial strains residing in the distal small intestine and
111 colon possess unique azoreductases and nitroreductases that rapidly degrade xenobiotics
112 before they can cross the epithelial barrier (33). The enzymatic degradation of drugs by the
113 microbiome is not merely a theoretical concept; it actively dictates the fraction of the
114 administered dose that eventually reaches the systemic circulation (34).

115 Additionally, the gut microbiota plays a pivotal role in the direct metabolism of host bile acids,
116 subsequently altering the solubility and emulsification of lipophilic drugs administered enterally
117 (35). Microbially conjugated bile acids function as critical signaling molecules that regulate host
118 nuclear receptors, such as the farnesoid X receptor (FXR), which heavily influences the
119 expression of host hepatic cytochrome P450 enzymes (36). Beyond local interactions, the
120 metabolism of the gut microbiome can profoundly affect the efficacy of drugs targeting distant
121 organ systems by modifying the biochemical structure of the active pharmaceutical ingredient
122 (37). The presence of specific microbial decarboxylases in the intestinal lumen has been proven
123 to prematurely metabolize neurologic and cardiovascular drugs, fundamentally altering their
124 plasma concentration-time curves (38).

125

126 **3.3 Impact on Antimicrobial Pharmacokinetics**

127 In the ICU, the administration of life-saving antimicrobials is complicated by the microbiome's
128 aggressive defense mechanisms, creating a fiercely bidirectional interaction between the drug
129 and the host resistome (39). Suboptimal enteral absorption of antibiotics frequently leads to sub-
130 therapeutic plasma concentrations, which not only causes clinical treatment failure but
131 aggressively drives the expansion of multidrug-resistant organisms (MDROs) (40). The
132 microbiome is fully capable of physically sequestering antimicrobial agents or enzymatically

133 inactivating them within the intestinal lumen via the dense production of localized beta-
134 lactamases (41). When broad-spectrum antibiotics are enterally administered, they are
135 frequently trapped in thick, microbially-derived biofilms that blanket the ischemic critical care gut
136 lining (42).

137 Moreover, the pharmacokinetics of specific drugs, such as linezolid or enterally administered
138 vancomycin, demonstrate massive intra-patient variability directly correlated to the dominant
139 bacterial phyla present on the day of administration (43). The antibiotic-driven expansion of the
140 resistome results in chronic multidrug-resistant infections that systematically exacerbate
141 immunometabolic stress, indirectly accelerating systemic drug clearance (44). Recent European
142 ICU cohorts strongly highlight the escalating epidemiological relevance of MDROs in
143 precipitating profound pharmacokinetic unpredictability and multi-organ failure (45).
144 Consequently, the standard fixed-dose regimens for enteral antimicrobials in the ICU are
145 inherently flawed when they fail to account for local microbial degradation (46).

146

147 **3.4 Cardiovascular and Vasopressor Agent Variability**

148 Hemodynamic instability in the ICU is routinely managed through the delicate titration of
149 vasopressors and cardiovascular agents, many of which suffer from severe erratic absorption
150 when administered via the enteral route (47). The efficacy of oral step-down therapies for
151 arrhythmias, such as amiodarone, is heavily dictated by microbial interference with
152 enterohepatic circulation pathways (48). Gut bacteria routinely deconjugate cardiovascular drug
153 metabolites excreted into the bile, allowing them to be reabsorbed and drastically prolonging
154 their terminal half-life in unpredictable patterns (49). Furthermore, the degradation of complex
155 carbohydrates by gut bacteria produces short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) that directly modulate
156 local enteric blood flow, thereby fluctuating the concentration gradient necessary for drug
157 diffusion (50).

158 In states of profound critical illness, such as acute-on-chronic liver failure (ACLF), the loss of
159 protective commensal microbes accelerates the toxic accumulation of cardiovascular
160 metabolites (51). Sepsis, which constitutes the predominant trigger for critical hemodynamic
161 collapse, fundamentally disrupts the interplay between the host liver and the gut microbiota
162 enzymes (52). For patients requiring enteral antihypertensives during weaning phases from
163 intravenous vasopressors, microbial hijacking can result in either complete therapeutic failure or
164 sudden profound hypotension (53). Thus, precision monitoring of cardiovascular agents must
165 evolve to recognize the microbiome as a dynamic, metabolically active organ capable of
166 sequestering or amplifying drug payloads (54).

167

168 **3.5 Analgesics and Sedatives: The Enteric Barrier**

169 Analgesia and sedation are absolute cornerstones of critical care management, yet the enteral
170 absorption of these highly lipophilic agents is notably at high risk for microbial interference (55).
171 Highly lipophilic drugs rely heavily on an intact lipid mucosal barrier and optimal bile salt
172 concentrations for predictable absorption, both of which are severely compromised during
173 critical illness dysbiosis (56). Pharmacomicrobiomics investigates how variations in specific
174 microbial taxa interact with opiate receptors and metabolize enterally administered sedatives
175 before they can achieve central nervous system penetration (57). Microbes possess the

176 capacity to glucuronidate and directly inactivate active sedative metabolites, rendering standard
177 enteral methadone or benzodiazepine conversions clinically inaccurate (58).

178 The acidic environment of the stomach normally maintains a sparse microbiota, but the
179 widespread use of proton pump inhibitors in the ICU artificially raises gastric pH, allowing
180 colonic bacteria to aggressively migrate proximally into the stomach and duodenum (59). This
181 proximal migration directly exposes sedatives to a dense concentration of metabolically active
182 bacteria at the primary site of intended drug absorption (60). The neuropharmacological
183 implications of this interaction frequently manifest as unpredictable agitation, prolonged
184 mechanical ventilation, and delayed awakening from chemically induced comas (61). Ultimately,
185 microbial-mediated changes in the intestinal absorption of sedatives perfectly explain the
186 massive inter-individual variation in sedation depth routinely observed at the bedside (62).

187

188 **3.6 Clinical Implications: Therapeutic Drug Monitoring and Dosing**

189 The realization that the microbiome fundamentally dictates systemic drug exposure absolutely
190 necessitates a paradigm shift in how intensivists approach therapeutic drug monitoring (TDM)
191 (63). Standard TDM protocols currently measure trough and peak plasma concentrations to
192 infer clearance and volume of distribution, entirely ignoring the presystemic microbial gauntlet
193 the drug must survive (64). Integrating pharmacogenomics with modern pharmacomicrobiomics
194 forms the crucial and non-negotiable foundation for significant advances in critical care precision
195 medicine (65). Variations in therapeutic response to critical FDA-approved immunotherapies
196 and life-saving agents are increasingly and undeniably attributed to differences in gut microbial
197 composition (66).

198 To combat unpredictable drug absorption, clinicians must begin to utilize population
199 pharmacokinetic modeling that actively incorporates microbiome diversity indices as a primary
200 covariate for clearance (67). Furthermore, the complex dialogue occurring between host
201 enzymatic pathways and the microbial "second genome" demands that TDM be conducted
202 more frequently and aggressively in patients with documented severe dysbiosis (68). Despite
203 significant technological advances, massive challenges persist, including the lack of
204 standardized methodologies for real-time bedside microbiome sequencing (69). However,
205 transitioning toward a microbially-aware dosing strategy remains the only biologically sound
206 method to guarantee that enterally administered drugs achieve their intended pharmacodynamic
207 targets (70).

208

209 **3.7 Microbiome-Targeted Interventions in the ICU**

210 Because the gut microbiome is inherently modifiable, targeted interventions present incredibly
211 promising opportunities for optimizing clinical therapeutic outcomes in the intensive care unit
212 (71). Deliberately modulating the microbiota via the administration of precision prebiotics or
213 synthetic probiotics theoretically protects the absorption profile of enterally administered
214 medications (72). Recent clinical trials strongly highlight the strategic use of highly controlled
215 fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT) not just for "Clostridioides difficile" infections, but as a
216 deliberate strategy to restore predictable pharmacokinetics (73). By actively reseeded the
217 critical care gut with commensal strains lacking drug-metabolizing exoenzymes, clinicians can
218 physically prevent the microbial hijacking of vital drug substrates (74).

219 Additionally, the burgeoning development of targeted small-molecule inhibitors designed to
220 suppress specific bacterial decarboxylases aims to stop microbial drug degradation without
221 relying on broad-spectrum antimicrobial collateral damage (75). Utilizing enteral nutrition
222 enriched with specific short-chain fatty acids can rapidly stabilize the tight junctions of the
223 intestinal epithelium, passively improving the predictable absorption of targeted therapies (76).
224 Ultimately, intentionally leveraging the microbiome for pharmacological effect ensures that the
225 GI tract acts as a therapeutic conduit rather than a metabolic adversary (77). Therefore, routine
226 application of microbiome-targeted interventions will soon become indistinguishable from
227 standard pharmacological support protocols in critically ill populations (78).

228

229 4. Future Directions and Recommendations

230

231 **Development of Real-Time Biomarkers:**Future clinical research must focus heavily on
232 isolating specific microbial metabolites in urine or plasma that reliably predict the rate of enteric “
233 The Hidden Microbe-Pharmacokinetic Axis: Navigating Erratic Drug Absorption in Critically Ill
234 patients.” the bedside.

235

236 **Microbiome-Adjusted Dosing Algorithms:**Pharmacokinetic models must be urgently updated
237 to incorporate multi-omics data, allowing artificial intelligence algorithms to dynamically suggest
238 enteral doses based on a patient’s real-time localized microbiome sequencing.

239

240 **Inhibitor Co-Administration:** The pharmacological development of non-lethal, highly specific
241 microbial enzyme inhibitors (e.g., targeted beta-glucuronidase inhibitors) that can be co-
242 administered with enteral drugs to physically shield them from bacterial degradation.

243

244 **Standardization of Pharmacomicrobiomic Research:** The establishment of highly rigorous,
245 unified international guidelines (comparable to NCCN grading) for conducting and uniformly
246 reporting microbiome-drug interactions to accelerate the translation from bench-top
247 observations to critical care practice.

248

249 **Enhanced TDM Protocols:**Expanding standard therapeutic drug monitoring beyond traditional
250 antimicrobials and anti-epileptics to aggressively include oral targeted therapies, sedatives, and
251 cardiovascular agents in any ICU patient exhibiting profound dysbiosis.

252

253 5. Conclusion

254 The physiological complexities of the critically ill patient extend far beyond traditional host-
255 centric models of organ failure, requiring a deep, mechanistic appreciation of the host-
256 microbiome interface. Microbial hijacking of pharmacokinetics fundamentally undermines the
257 predictability of drug absorption, acting as an invisible but highly potent covariate that drives
258 therapeutic failure, drug toxicity, and the rapid expansion of systemic resistance. As
259 demonstrated in this review, the dysbiotic critical care gut utilizes a vast array of aggressive
260 microbial exoenzymes to directly metabolize antimicrobials, sedatives, and cardiovascular
261 agents prior to systemic absorption. Consequently, standard dosing regimens derived from
262 healthy populations are scientifically inadequate for the ICU environment. Embracing the rapidly

263 evolving field of pharmacomicrobiomics is no longer merely an academic exercise, but a strict
264 clinical necessity. By advancing real-time microbiome diagnostics and prioritizing targeted
265 microbial interventions, modern medicine can reclaim control over enteric drug absorption,
266 ultimately paving the critical pathway toward true precision pharmacology in intensive care.
267

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