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Complete List of Authors:	Toutain, Pierre; Ecole Nationale Veterinaire de Toulouse, POTTER, Timothy Jonh; The Royal Veterinary College Pelligand, Ludovic; Royal Veterianry College, Veterinary Basic Sciences Lacroix, Marlene; Ecole National Veterinaire de Toulouse, Illambas, Joanna; The Royal Veterinary College Lees, Peter

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# Standard PK/PD concepts can be applied to determine a dosage regimen for a macrolide: the case of tulathromycin in the calf

P.-L.Toutain<sup>1\*</sup>, T. Potter<sup>2#a</sup>, L. Pelligand<sup>2</sup>, M. Lacroix<sup>1</sup>, J. Illambas<sup>2#b</sup>, P. Lees<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> École Nationale Vétérinaire de Toulouse, UMR 1331 Toxalim INRA, 23, Chemin des Capelles-BP 87614, 31076 Toulouse Cedex 03, France.

<sup>2</sup> The Royal Veterinary College, Hawkshead Campus, Hatfield, Herts., AL9 7TA, United Kingdom

<sup>#a</sup> Current address: Westpoint Veterinary Group, Dawes Farm, Bognor Road, Warnham, Sussex, RH12 3SH, United Kingdom

<sup>#b</sup> Current address: Zoetis, Global Development & Operations, VMRD, Hoge Wei 10, B-1930 Zaventem, Belgium

\*Corresponding author: Pierre-Louis Toutain

E-mail to: pltoutain@wanadoo.fr Fax: +33 561 19 39 17

Short running title: PK/PD for dosage regimen for tulathromycin in calf

Key words: Tulathromycin; PK/PD; dosage regimen; Monte Carlo simulation

# Abstract

The pharmacokinetic (PK) profile of tulathromycin, administered to calves subcutaneously at the dose rate of 2.5 mg/kg, was established in serum, inflamed (exudate) and non-inflamed (transudate) fluids in a tissue cage model. The PK profile of tulathromycin was also established in pneumonic calves. For Mannheimia haemolytica and Pasteurella multocida, tulathromycin Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations (MIC) were approximately 50 times lower in calf serum than in Mueller Hinton Broth. The breakpoint value of the PK/pharmacodynamic (PD) index (AUC<sub>(0-24h)</sub>/MIC) to achieve a bactericidal effect was estimated from in vitro time-kill studies to be approximately 24 h for M. haemolytica and P. multocida. A population model was developed from healthy and pneumonic calves and, using Monte Carlo simulations, PK/PD cut-offs required for the development of Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (AST) were determined. The population distributions of tulathromycin doses were established by Monte Carlo Computation (MCC). The computation predicted a Target Attainment Rate (TAR) for a tulathromycin dose rate of 2.5 mg/kg of 66% for M. haemolytica and 87% for P. multocida. The findings indicate that free tulathromycin concentrations in serum suffice to explain the efficacy of single dose tulathromycin in clinical use, and that a dosage regimen can be computed for tulathromycin using classical PK/PD concepts.

#### Introduction

Good clinical efficacy and bacteriological cure with macrolides in human and animal medicine are commonly achievable with plasma/serum concentrations that are lower, even much lower, than the *in vitro* MICs for major lung pathogens. This is the case

for tulathromycin (Nowakowski, Inskeep et al., 2004), gamithromycin (Huang, Letendre et al., 2010) and tildipirosin (Menge, Rose et al., 2012), three agents of the triamilide sub-class, licensed for farm animal use. Because of the disparity between *in vivo* plasma concentration and *in vitro* MICs, the application of classical PK/PD concepts to macrolides has frequently been challenged. This has led some authors and regulatory authorities to claim that there is no plasma concentration-effect relationship for macrolides. A corollary has been to propose that dosages for clinical use can only be established in a clinical setting using a dose-titration approach. However, an alternative to this view is to question the value and applicability of the *in vitro* MIC data obtained in matrices optimized for bacterial growth, as for example in Mueller Hinton Broth (MHB). This issue is addressed in this article.

To explain the clinical efficacy of macrolides at recommended dose rates, alternatives to the PK/PD paradigm have been proposed. For example, many authors have proposed that lung tissue concentration is more relevant than that in plasma/serum, in determining outcome of treatment with macrolides. For tulathromycin, the drug investigated in the present paper, lung homogenate concentrations in pigs and calves were more than 50-fold higher than corresponding plasma concentrations (Nowakowski, Inskeep et al., 2004; Villarino, Lesman et al., 2013). However, it is now widely accepted that lung homogenate is not the biophase for lung infections (Mouton, Theuretzbacher et al., 2008; Villarino, Brown et al., 2013; Villarino, Lesman et al., 2013; Villarino, Lesman et al., 2013; Villarino, Brown et al., 2014). The two pathogens considered in this article, *Pasteurella multocida* and *Mannheimia haemolytica*, are strictly extracellular pathogens and pulmonary epithelial lining fluid (PELF) is the main location for such extracellular organisms. In some studies, PELF concentrations have exceeded the plasma non-protein bound

concentrations, leading to a view of the lung as a local drug "reservoir", able to control the local extracellular concentration. However, *in vivo* conditions are dynamic and any (very slow) release of drug from the lung (very long half-life) would be unable to maintain an effective local extracellular concentration. Consequently, the lungs should, rather, be viewed not as a "reservoir" but as a "sump". According to Kiem and Schentag (Kiem & Schentag, 2008), it is the lysis of cells (containing high drug concentrations) during the bronchoalveolar lavage procedure required to collect PELF that explains high PELF drug concentrations. Therefore, these authors, consider the high drug concentrations in PELF to be artefactual.

Many reports have shown that macrolides may accumulate in high concentrations in neutrophils and macrophages (Scorneaux & Shryock, 1998; Scorneaux & Shryock, 1999; Villarino, Brown et al., 2013). Uptake by and subsequent off-loading of drug, for example azithromycin, from these cells in vivo has been proposed as a mechanism of drug delivery to the biophase (Gladue, Bright et al., 1989; Mandell & Coleman, 2001; Bosnar, Kelneric et al., 2005). However, in vivo evidence to support this hypothesis is entirely lacking and it may also be questioned on theoretical grounds using mass balance considerations. Even assuming that the entire circulating neutrophil pool is in the lung extracellular water (about 2x10<sup>11</sup> cells corresponding to a volume of 6mL for a 50kg calf) and also that the total macrolide content is immediately released, the neutrophil pool would be unable to dynamically control the local biophase concentration over the several days of the claimed duration of drug efficacy. We conclude that it is most improbable that these cells can be accorded the role of "truck-containing bullets off-loading their drug content" and targeting the biophase, thereby achieving in vivo high local and sustained drug concentrations (Toutain, 2009). This opinion is consistent with the fact that, using

microdialysis techniques, it has been shown that inflammation generally does not increase local antimicrobial drug (AMD) concentrations (Muller, dela Pena et al., 2004).

In light of the challenges to the applicability of the PK/PD paradigm to macrolides, the aim of this study was to generate PK and PD data for tulathromycin for *M. haemolytica* and *P. multocida* in calves to show that it *is* possible to establish therapeutically relevant *in vivo* PK/PD relationships for a macrolide, as for any AMD (Toutain, del Castillo et al., 2002; Toutain & Lees, 2004). More specifically, using a population PK model of tulathromycin disposition, we have estimated PK/PD cut-offs of tulathromycin to compare their Target Attainment Rate (TAR) with the current clinical breakpoints (BP) used for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (AST) in cattle. Finally, using MIC distributions of *M. haemolytica* and *P. multocida*, we have generated by Monte Carlo computation (MCC) the population distribution of the tulathromycin doses to determine the corresponding TAR for the currently marketed dose of 2.5 mg/kg. This has provided a comparison of results obtained using a PK/PD approach with the dose derived from the dose titration approach.

## **Materials and Methods**

#### **Animals and procedures**

This study was carried out in strict accordance with the recommendations in the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals of the National Institutes of Health. The protocol was approved by the Ethics and Welfare Committee of the Royal Veterinary College and the UK Home Office (Project License 70/6986) and all efforts were made to minimize suffering.

A PK study was conducted in 10 healthy female Aberdeen Angus calves and 16 calves that were subjected to an experimental pulmonary infection. For healthy calves, body weights were in the range 145-204 kg and ages ranged from 79-131 days. Tissue cages were implanted subcutaneously in the paralumbar fossa, under general anesthesia, as described by Sidhu et al. (Sidhu, Shojaee Aliabadi et al., 2003). Tulathromycin (Draxxin®, Pfizer Animal Health, Sandwich, Kent, UK) was injected subcutaneously into the flank at a dose rate of 2.5 mg/kg at zero time. Also at zero time, 0.5 mL of 1% w/v sterile lambda carrageenan solution in saline (Viscarin, Marine Colloids, Springfield, III, U.S.A.) was injected into a single tissue cage. This cage was used to harvest exudate. A second, unstimulated cage was used to collect non-inflammatory fluid (transudate).

A pneumonia model using *M.haemolytica* type A1; ref M 7/2 was used in 16 two-week old Holstein Friesian bull calves. Upon arrival, animals were treated with a single subcutaneous dose of florfenicol 40 mg/kg bodyweight (Nuflor, Schering-Plough Animal Health, Middlesex, UK), to ensure freedom from sub-clinical infections. Animals were weaned at 5-6 weeks of age, after which they were group housed until the start of the study. The calves were 12-13 weeks of age at the commencement of the study. A *M. haemolytica* inoculum containing 1.27-9.60 10<sup>9</sup> cfu/mL was used to induce pneumonia as previously described (Sarasola, Jernigan et al., 2002).

## Sampling procedures

For healthy calves, blood samples (10 mL volume) were collected, protected from light, from a jugular vein, into vacutainers (Becton, Dickinson and Company, Oxford, Oxon, U.K.) without anticoagulant, before and regularly up to 336 h after injection of tulathromycin. Exudate and transudate samples (1.5 mL volume) were collected, protected from light, before and regularly up to 336 h after dosing. All samples were centrifuged (2000 g for 10 min at 4°C) and supernatants stored at -70°C prior to assay for tulathromycin concentration and for measurement of *ex vivo* antibacterial activity. For experimentally infected calves, blood samples were collected regularly from time 0 to 48 h after injection of tulathromycin and samples were processed as described for the healthy calves.

#### Analysis of tulathromycin in serum, exudate and transudate

Serum, exudate and transudate samples were assayed for tulathromycin, using a tandem mass spectrometry method, adapted from Scheuch *et al.* (Scheuch, Spieker et al., 2007).

The methods were validated according to the published guideline (Committee for medicinal products for human use (CHMP), 2011). Selectivity was checked for each matrix. A quadratic model weighted by  $1/X^2$  was selected over the calibration range 5-1000 ng/mL. Intra-day and inter-day precisions were less than 15% and the accuracy ranged from 102 to 106%. The lower limit of quantification (LLOQ) was 5 ng/mL with a precision of 8% and an accuracy of 105%. The processed extracts of tulathromycin were stable in the autosampler at room temperature for at least 24 h.

## Pharmacokinetic-pharmacodynamic modelling of in vitro time-kill data

PK/PD modelling of *in vitro* time-kill data was undertaken to compute the BP value of the PK/PD index (AUC<sub>(0-24h)</sub>/MIC) selected to express tulathromycin *in vivo* activity i.e. its bacteriostatic, bactericidal or 4 log<sub>10</sub> decrease in count potency. Data from previously reported time-kill studies, using both MHB and calf serum as matrices, were used for PK/PD modelling (see for details (Lees, Illambas et al., 2016)). Briefly, six isolates each of the species *M. haemolytica* and *P. multocida* were investigated, using tulathromycin concentrations corresponding to 0.25, 0.5, 1, 2 and 4 x multiples of MIC. The bacterial growth, after 24 h incubation in the absence or presence of a given tulathromycin concentration (expressed as log<sub>10</sub> cfu/mL subtracted from the initial inoculum count log<sub>10</sub> cfu/mL), was measured as the response to the tulathromycin *in vitro* activity (dependent variable); the ratios of AUC<sub>(0-24h)</sub>/MIC were calculated for each isolate at each of the five tulathromycin concentrations tested and these comprised the independent variable for fitting data to a sigmoidal E<sub>max</sub> model to estimate parameters of tulathromycin efficacy and potency (Equation 1).

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$$E = E_0 + \frac{E_{\text{max}} \times C^N}{EC_{50}^N + C^N}$$
 (1)

where E is the bacterial growth for a given concentration of tulathromycin;  $E_0$  is the corresponding bacterial growth in the absence of drug (control samples);  $E_{\rm max}$  (the efficacy parameter) is the maximum antimicrobial growth inhibition determined as the change in  $\log_{10}$  cfu/mL over 24 h incubation;  $EC_{50}^N$  (the potency parameter) is the AUC<sub>(0-24h)</sub>/MIC value providing 50% of the maximum antibacterial effect; C (the independent variable) is the concentration term (expressed as  $AUC_{(0-24h)}/MIC$ ); and N is the Hill coefficient. The AUC<sub>(0-24h)</sub>/MIC corresponding to a bacteriostatic effect

(E=0, no change form initial inoculum count), a bactericidal effect (E=-3, a  $3\log_{10}$  reduction from initial inoculum count) or (E=-4 a  $4\log_{10}$  reduction from initial inoculum count) were computed by solving equation 1 for each isolate of each organism in MHB and serum (Aliabadi & Lees, 2001; Lees, Shojaee Aliabadi et al., 2004).

## Pharmacokinetic analyses

Tulathromycin concentration-time data in serum, exudate and transudate in individual calves were analyzed using the WIN-NONLIN regression program (Pharsight Corporation, Mountain View, CA, USA) submitted to non-compartmental analysis using the statistical moment approach.

A more advanced population analysis was carried out with Phoenix (Phoenix WinNonlin 6.3 and NLME1.2; Certara, L.P., St. Louis, MO, USA) to analyze simultaneously the serum concentrations obtained from the 10 control calves and the 16 calves subjected to an experimental infection. The more specific goal of the population analysis was to develop a basic model of tulathromycin disposition in calves, in order to compute the PK/PD cut-off values that could be used subsequently to select a clinical BP for an AST that will be adapted to the calf. As the BP for any AST is always a single value (for a given species and a given pathogen) a PK model including different co-variates was not required for this objective. Nevertheless, we explored the health status (pneumonic vs. control calves) as a relevant co-variate to assess the influence, if any, of an experimentally induced pneumonia on tulathromycin disposition in the calf.

The selected structural model was a bi-exponential model for an extravascular route of administration. The parameterisation was carried out in terms of macroconstants corresponding to equation 2:

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$$Y(t) = A \times EXP(-\alpha \times t) + B \times EXP(-\beta \times t) - (A+B) \times EXP(-KA \times t)$$
 (2)

Where A and B (ng/mL) are intercepts and Ka, Alpha and Beta are slopes (1/h) with Ka>alpha>beta. The estimated fixed parameters (the thetas vector) are reported as their typical values (tv). The second component of a mixed effect model is the random component (random effect). The Between Subject Variability (BSV) was modeled using an exponential model of the form:

$$\theta_i = \theta_1 \times EXP(\eta_i) \tag{3}$$

where  $\theta_i$  is the value of theta in the  $i^{th}$  animal,  $\theta_1$  is the typical population value of this theta and  $\eta_i$ , the deviation (noted eta) associated to the  $i^{th}$  animal from the corresponding theta population value. The distribution of the etas was assumed to be normal with a mean of 0 and a variance  $\omega^2$ .

A full covariance matrix of the *etas* was estimated. From the diagonal of this matrix, formed by the variance terms in the log-domain, we estimated the BSV using equation 4 which converts the variance to a coefficient of variation (CV%) in the original scale.

$$CV(\%) = 100 \times \sqrt{EXP(\omega^2) - 1}$$
 (4)

The full matrix of the etas was used for the subsequent Monte Carlo simulations.

The residual model which reflects unexplained variability after controlling for other sources of variability (analytical imprecision, departure from the model) was a multiplicative (proportional) model with  $\varepsilon$  the error term having a mean of 0 and a variance  $\sigma 2$ .

Parameter estimation with associated standard errors (SE), as a measure of the precision of the estimation, was based on minimizing an objective function value using maximum likelihood estimation. A Quasi-Random Parametric Expectation Maximization (QRPEM) was selected for this estimation. Shrinkage of random effects towards the means was calculated for the etas and epsilon, allowing use of Empirical Bayes Estimates -based diagnostic (Karlsson & Savic, 2007).

Monte Carlo simulations with the basic model were performed to generate 1,040 data sets from 0 to 336 h with a step of 6 h. These simulated serum tulathromycin concentration profiles were used to determine the PK/PD cut-off values and the distribution of the apparent clearance, which was used for the population dose computation.

## **Population Dosage prediction**

The adequacy of the current dosage of tulathromycin (2.5 mg/kg) was explored by computing population doses covering different TAR i.e. different percentages of the population to assess the ability of a PK/PD model to validate or not the current dose for tulathromycin. For AMDs for which the PK/PD index that best predicts efficacy is  $AUC_{(0-24h)}/MIC$ , the following equation can be used (Equation 5).

233 
$$Dose_{\text{(for 10 days of activity)}} = \frac{Cl_{\text{for 10 days}} \times SF \times MIC_{distribution}}{fu \times F}$$
 (5)

Where *Dose* is the amount of AMD to be administered to guarantee an activity of tulathromycin over 10 days for a given TAR (see Discussion for the selection of this 10 days duration );  $Cl_{
m for\ 10\ days}$  is the population distribution of the apparent plasma clearance (CI/F) as obtained in our population PK analysis; SF is a scaling factor without units, obtained by dividing the BP value of the PK/PD index i.e. AUC<sub>10</sub>-<sub>24h</sub>/MIC, by 24 h, permitting computation of a SF of 1 for the present analysis; this indicates that, to achieve a bactericidal action, the average serum concentration of tulathromycin should be equal to the MIC (see (Toutain, Bousquet-Melou et al., 2007) for further explanation on derivation of the SF from AUC<sub>(0-24h)</sub>/MIC); fu is the free drug fraction (Anonymous, 2005) (the binding to serum protein is low, with the bound fraction ranging from 0.32 to 0.39 in cattle) and we incorporated in equation 5 fu as a uniform distribution between 0.61 and 0.68. For the MIC distributions, the results of a survey kindly provided by J. Watts (Zoetis) giving the MIC distribution of P. multocida and M. haemolytica from the years 2004 to 2010, obtained in artificial broth, were used. We first selected all the MICs equal to or less than the BP proposed by the CLSI i.e. 16 µg/mL; this value is, according to CLSI, the susceptible pathogen population that clinically can be successfully treated with tulathromycin and that should therefore be considered to compute a dose. The percentage of susceptible pathogens was 89.82% and 91.11% for *M.haemolytica* (n=2233 strains) and P. multocida (n=2483 strains), respectively. The MHB MICs were then transformed into vectors of equivalent MICs in serum by dividing all reported MICs by a factor of 50 i.e. by the SF previously determined when comparing MICs in the two matrices (Lees, Illambas et al., 2016).

Dosage distribution was computed using MCC (n=5000) in Oracle Crystal Ball (Oracle Corporation, Redwood Shores, CA, USA) and the range of TAR from 0 to 90% of cases for which a range of dose levels are able to achieve an average serum concentration equal to the MIC over the 10 days. The dose level corresponding to a TAR of 90% was considered as the population dose of tulathromycin, given the actual susceptible MIC distribution and assuming activity duration of 10 days. Finally, a sensitivity analysis was carried out to apportion the overall variability of the dose distributions either to the PK variables (clearance, fu) or to the PD variability (MIC). Figure 1 gives a flowchart of the different steps for data collection and analysis.

267 Fig.1

# Statistical analyses

PK variables are presented as geometric, harmonic or arithmetic means, as
appropriate, and SEM. Mean differences in AUC<sub>(0-24h)</sub>/MIC ratios determined in MHB
compared with those determined in serum for bacteriostatic, bactericidal and 4log<sub>10</sub>
reductions in count were compared by ANOVA.

# Results

## 276 Calf in vivo study

#### Tulathromycin concentrations in serum, exudate and transudate (NCA

#### **analysis**)

The mean (+SEM) concentrations of tulathromycin are presented in Fig. 2 (serum, 0-15 h) and Fig. 3 (serum, exudate and transudate, 0-336 h). Maximum concentration ( $C_{max}$ ) of tulathromycin (0.69  $\mu$ g/mL) was often observed at the first sampling time (10 min). Concentrations exceeded 0.40  $\mu$ g/mL up to 12 h and were still quantifiable

283 (mean =  $0.025 \mu g/mL$ ) at 336 h. Serum terminal half-life was 84.0 h and mean 284 residence time (MRT) was 91.4 h (Table 1).

285 Fig. 2

286 Fig. 3

Penetration of tulathromycin into and clearance from carrageenan-induced exudate and transudate were dissimilar. Concentrations ( $C_{max}$ ) and areas under curves ( $AUC_{(0-last)}$ ) were higher in exudate than in transudate; 0.24 and 0.12 µg/mL for  $C_{max}$  (P<0.05) and 18.4 and 8.58 µg.h/mL for  $AUC_{(0-last)}$  (P<0.05). More importantly , for both non-vascular fluids concentrations and areas were lower than in serum at all sampling times, P<0.01 (for serum  $C_{max}$  = 0.75 µg/mL and  $AUC_{(0-last)}$  = 45.1 µg.h/mL) indicating a lack of tulathromycin accumulation in an inflammatory fluid compared to serum (see discussion). However, mean values of MRT were similar for all three fluids, indicating that a state of equilibrium was achieved between the tissue cages and serum.

## Pharmacokinetic-pharmacodynamic surrogates

PK/PD integration established the surrogates,  $C_{max}/MIC$ , T>MIC,  $AUC_{(0-24h)}/MIC$  and  $AUC_{(0-24h)}/MIC$  for tulathromycin, derived from *in vivo* concentrations in the PK study (n=10) and *in vitro* MICs (n=6 for each species) measured in serum. Based on the geometric mean serum MICs of 0.04 µg/mL for both *P. multocida* and *M. haemolytica*,  $C_{max}/MIC$  (18.75±0.11),  $AUC_{(0-24h)}/MIC$  (238±5.8h),  $AUC_{(0-\infty)}/MIC$  ratios (1198±6.3h) and T>MIC (281±17.5h) indicated that serum concentrations of

tulathromycin would be predicted to have a high level of activity against the six strains each of *P. multocida* and *M. haemolytica* investigated.

## In vitro PK/PD modelling to establish the breakpoint value of AUC<sub>(0-24h)</sub>/MIC

The BP value of the PK/PD index was required to compute a dose (SF of equation 5); for both *M. haemolytica* and *P. multocida* geometric mean MIC values were 2.07 μg/mL (n = 6 per species) in MHB and 0.04 μg/mL (n = 6) in calf serum (Lees, Illambas et al., 2016). For both matrices and both organisms, the *in vitro* time-kill data provided typical BP estimates of AUC<sub>(0-24h)</sub>/MIC required to produce, after 24 h exposure, three levels of growth inhibition (Table 2). A strong bactericidal effect was observed with a steep concentration-effect relationship. For both *M.haemolytica* and *P multocida* AUC<sub>(0-24h)</sub>/MIC values providing a 3log<sub>10</sub> reduction in count were approximately 24 h in both serum and MHB. The same result expressed in term of multiples of MIC was approximately 1 and we selected for the MCS an overall average BP of 24 h for the PK/PD index (*i.e.* a SF equal to 1 in equation 5).

experimental MIC (MICexp) and the average MHB or the average serum tulathromycin concentration to achieve a bacteriostatic or a bactericidal effect e.g. the AUC<sub>(0-24h)</sub>/MIC of 17.15 h providing a bacteriostatic effect in MHB indicates that the corresponding average concentration over 24 h in MHB was 17.15h/24h=0.71times the MIC and that the bactericidal effect in serum was obtained with a concentration of 38.44h/24h or 1.6 times the MIC.

# Population analysis

Figure 4 shows the Visual Predictive Check (VPC) *i.e.* the observed serum concentration (ng/ml) vs. time (h) and observed and predicted quantiles; this is the most useful diagnostic plot for the assessment of model adequacy. Typical values of the primary structural parameters of the model (thetas), the secondary parameters (AUC and half-life), their associated Standard Error (SE) and the SD of the residual for the basic model are given in Table 3; for all calves, the *tv* of the terminal half-life was 84.8 h (CV 4.8%) and the *tv* of the population AUC was 46,291 ng\*h/mL (CV 11.5%) *i.e.* very similar values to those computed by the NCA with the 10 control calves. The estimates of shrinkage were relatively small or moderate and provided support for the reliability of the estimates of the random effects. Coefficient of variation (CV%) of the variance of the etas expressing the BSV are given in Table 4. They were relatively large for A, alpha and Ka and the inclusion in the model of the covariate health status largely reduced these CV% (Table 4).

A and B (ng/mL) are intercepts and Ka, Alpha and Beta are slopes (1/h) with Ka>alpha>beta. CV% was the standard error percentage calculated as 100\* SE / Parameter Value indicating the reliability of the model. Proportional residual error was 24.5% and the epsilon shrinkage was 0.05375.

#### Fig.4

Using the basic structural model, the serum disposition curves (Individual Predicted values based on individual ETAs) of 1,040 calves were simulated (serum concentrations predicted from time 0 to 336 h with a step of 6 h). These 1,040 simulations were subjected to a NCA, and partial areas (from 0 to 24h, 0 to 48h...up to 0 to 240h) were computed; then the corresponding mean serum concentrations

over these time intervals were calculated. Next, the corresponding quantiles (5 to 95%) were established (Table 5). These serum concentrations can be viewed as the PK/PD cut-offs for these time intervals and for a selected TAR. For example, if the claimed duration of tulathromycin activity is 240 h and if a TAR of 90% is expected, the PK/PD cut-off is 83 ng/mL, indicating that for 90% of the calves it can be guaranteed that the average serum concentration of tulathromycin will be at least 83 ng/mL over the first 10 days following tulathromycin administration at the nominal dosage of 2.5mg/kg. As the ratio of MIC obtained in MHB:serum is approximately 50:1, the PK/PD cut-off for a TAR of 90% for an expected duration of activity of 240 h is 4.15 μg/mL for MHB, a value lower than the current clinical breakpoint of CLSI (16 μg/mL) (Lees, Illambas et al., 2016) but consistent with EMEA opinion (Committee for medicinal products for veterinary use (CVMP), 2003) (see Discussion).

## **Dosage computation**

From the MCS, using parameters of the basic model, the corresponding 1,040 apparent serum clearance values were computed (Dose/AUC<sub>(0-inf)</sub>) with Dose = the standard tulathromycin dose of 2.5mg/kg. The distribution of these 1,040 serum clearances (L/kg/day) was right-skewed and this distribution was normalized by a log transformation (log of the mean clearance of 0.287 and SD of 0.53252). The mean clearance for the 10 days selected for solving equation 5 was 2.589 in the LN domain. The distribution of MICs, after transformation by a scaling factor of 50 to take into account the serum effect, is presented in Figure 5.

Figures 6 and 7 illustrate the non-cumulative and cumulative distributions of doses for *M. haemolytica* and *P. multocida*, respectively. For a TAR of 90%, the computed

dose for M. haemolytica was 5.3mg/kg, indicating that, with this dose, the average

serum concentration of tulathromycin over the first 240 h following administration of this dose will be equal to the MIC of *M. haemolytica* in 90% of calves. For the nominal dose of 2.5mg/kg, the corresponding TAR *for M. haemolytica was* 65.9%. For a TAR of 90%, the computed dose for *P. multocida* was 2.52 mg/kg and for the nominal dose of 2.50 mg/kg, the TAR was 87.2%.

383 Fig. 5

384 Fig 6

385 Fig. 7

To identify the main sources of variability amongst the factors controlling the dose (plasma clearance, MICs or fu), a sensitivity analysis was performed to apportion variability to these three factors. The main source of variability for *P. multocida* was MIC (76.7%); the BSV of serum clearance was lower (23.0%) and the variability of *fu* was negligible. For *M. haemolytica*, results were very similar with 70.3% of the variability due to the MIC distribution and 29.2% to the BSV of clearance, indicating that the data should be relevant for different cattle populations.

# **Discussion**

The principal findings of the present study are that: (i) contrary to previous claims, the dosage of tulathromycin can be documented using standard PK/PD concepts; (ii) the recommended dose of tulathromycin (2.5mg/kg) is consistent with our calculated population doses, with computed TARs of 66% and 87% for a 2.50 mg/kg dose for *M. haemolytica* and *P. multocida*, respectively; (iii) tulathromycin did not accumulate in inflammatory exudate in comparison with serum concentrations; (iv) the BP value of

the PK/PD index *i.e.* the  $AUC_{(0-24h)}/MIC$  was approximately 24 h, indicating that tulathromycin has a potent bactericidal effect for a concentration approximately equal to the MIC; (v) PK/PD cut-offs are consistent with the current BPs of AST issued by the CLSI and EMA; and (vi) the main source of variability to take into account to determine a dose for a given animal is of PD origin (MIC) and not the actual tulathromycin exposure.

The aim of this study was to determine the adequacy (or not) of the currently recommended dosage of tulathromycin (2.5mg/kg) for calves, by computing a population dose covering a range of TARs i.e. the aim was to assess the ability of a standard PK/PD model to determine a dose for tulathromycin for different percentages (up to 95%) of the population. The present PK/PD approach clearly indicated the therapeutic relevance of serum concentration; and the data further suggest that other explanations for the efficacy of tulathromycin, including high local intracellular pulmonary concentration or a specific transportation of the drug by macrophages or neutrophils to the extracellular biophase in the lung (as discussed in the Introduction) do not need to be invoked. The dose of tulathromycin was first (prior to licensing) determined in field studies and was based primarily on clinical efficacy, because it was considered that the clinical efficacy for this drug could not be derived from a PK/PD relationship. The present data provide clear evidence that standard PK/PD concepts would, in fact, have fully sufficed to derive an appropriate dosage for tulathromycin. The crucial proviso, however, is that, for the PK/PD integration and modelling approaches to be valid, MICs have to be determined in serum and not, as is routine and almost universal, in an artificial medium such as MHB. We therefore conclude that what should be questioned for macrolides is the utilization of in vitro

MICs in a non-biological fluid such as MHB, when establishing PK/PD relationships as a basis for dosage determination.

The main limitation to our computations is the selected value of the SF used to transform MICs derived from the epidemiological survey and obtained in broth, into equivalent MICs in serum. A factor of 50 was used, based on broth:serum MIC ratios for tulathromycin reported in our previous paper (Lees, Illambas et al., 2016). This revealed a very large serum effect on the potency of tulathromycin, as had been previously reported by others (Godinho, Keane et al., 2005). For example, Godhino et al (Godinho, 2008) obtained a lower broth:serum MIC ratio (up to 16) but in the presence of only 40% bovine serum (rather than the 100% serum used in the present study).

As the ratio MHB:serum MIC is approximately 50, the PK/PD cut-off (in MHB) for a TAR of 90% for an expected duration of activity of 240 h is 4.15  $\mu$ g/mL, a value almost four times lower than the current clinical BP of the CLSI (16  $\mu$ g/mL) but more consistent with the <u>EMA/CVMP BP</u> of  $\leq$  8  $\mu$ g/mL (Committee for medicinal products for veterinary use (CVMP), 2003) supporting the validity of our PK/PD approach.

The second possible limitation of our computations is the limited number of animals that were considered in the population analysis (n=26) with the possibility of having excluded some relevant variability factors (for example breed of animal). Nevertheless, we are confident in the overall conclusions, because the sensitivity analysis showed clearly that the impact of the PK variability is minimal in comparison with that of PD origin (the epidemiological MICs). Moreover, our population model included both healthy and diseased animals and it was previously reported that there were no statistically significant differences in tulathromycin PK between pre-ruminant calves and adult cattle (Committee for medicinal products for veterinary use (CVMP),

2003). It is concluded that our PK population model was sufficiently robust for the purpose of deriving PK/PD cut-offs and population dose distributions.

For single dose administration of a long acting formulation, computation of a dose using a PK/PD approach requires estimation of the duration of action. To the best of our knowledge, this duration has not been experimentally determined for cattle. However, in pigs duration of effectiveness of tulathromycin was determined in a pulmonary–disease challenge model, using *Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae* by administering a single dose of tulathromycin from 11 to 3 days before the challenge (Waag, Bradford et al., 2008). These authors concluded that a single dose of tulathromycin provides up to 9 days of protection against death and severe morbidity. For the calves used in this study, we define *a priori* the activity period as that for which the average serum concentration of tulathromycin was lower than the EMA/CVMP BP of 8 µg/mL in MHB (equivalent to 160 ng/mL in serum). The MCSs indicated that the average concentration over the first 10 days following a dose of 2.5 mg/kg was 184 ng/mL and this duration was selected to explore the population dose distribution, although any other duration could be investigated using this approach.

Computation of a PK/PD dose also requires selection of an appropriate PK/PD index and determination of its BP value. From the rate and extent of killing of *M. haemolytica* and *P. multocida* by tulathromycin in time-kill studies, the actions were judged to be, for the former, concentration-dependent in MHB and co-dependent in serum and, for the latter, co-dependent in both matrices (Lees, Illambas et al., 2016). Therefore, for both bacterial species, the use of AUC/MIC as a PK/PD surrogate for/predictor of efficacy is justified (Thomas, Forrest et al., 1998; Schentag, 2000; Evans, 2005). It should be noted that the time-kill studies were conducted with initial inoculum counts of the order of 10<sup>6</sup> to 10<sup>7</sup> cfu/mL *i.e.* for an inoculum size likely to be

relatively high when considering a natural infection; according to Roof (ROOF, 2011) the total CFU of pathogens in the entire lung for cattle with identified pathogens ranged from  $2x10^7 - 2x10^8$  CFU for *P.multocida* and  $9x10^6 - 9x10^8$  CFU for *M. haemolytica,* indicating that our time-kill curves were indeed obtained with a an appropriate inoculum size, regarding a natural infection. However, for metaphylaxis/control conditions, for which a lower pathogen load is expected, lower concentrations of tulathromycin in the biophase are likely to be required, thus indicating that our results are conservative enough to cover all infectious conditions.

The present findings confirm, in part, previous publications on the PK of tulathromycin (Nowakowski, Inskeep et al., 2004; Evans, 2005). After subcutaneous dosing, a terminal half-life of 90 h was reported by these authors, and in this study half-life was 84 h. However, corresponding AUC<sub>(0-last)</sub> values were 16.0 μg.h/mL [1,33] and 45.1 μg.h/mL [this study], where AUC<sub>(0-last)</sub> was measured over similar times. The causes of these differences are unknown. Our data further extends the results of earlier workers, by establishing the distribution of tulathromycin into extravascular fluids (exudate and transudate) in a tissue cage model. This model provides a means of sampling inflammatory exudate to allow comparison of the time course and magnitude of drug penetration into an inflamed (exudate), a non-inflamed (transudate) fluid and in serum (Higgins, Lees et al., 1984; Sidhu, Shojaee Aliabadi et al., 2003). Exudate concentrations were always lower than serum concentration, indicating that there was no specific accumulation of this drug in an inflammatory biophase, as advocated by those assuming a special delivery of tulathromycin in inflammatory fluid by accumulation of macrophages or neutrophils.

# **Conclusions**

Based on PK/PD modelling, the present study predicts, that the current marketed dose of tulathromycin is appropriate and that serum concentrations achieved with this dosage is biologically and clinically relevant. Recourse to consideration of the high concentration of tulathromycin in lung homogenate or to a specific transport of the drug by leucocytes into the biophase is not necessary, and this conclusion recognizes that the relevant matrix to estimate MIC is serum.

#### **Conflict of interest statement**

P Lees has acted as a consultant to Pfizer Animal Health. He has not consulted ever for Zoetis, only the predecessor company Pfizer on another drug. L. Pelligand has received funding from Zoetis Ltd for non-related studies on maropitant in the dog. None of the other authors has a financial or personal relationship with other people or organizations that could inappropriately influence or bias the contents of the paper.

This does not alter our adherence to PLOS ONE policies on sharing data and materials.

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Table 1. Pharmacokinetic variables for tulathromycin in serum, exudate and transudate in calves

Variable (units)	Ser	Serum E		date	Trans	udate	
	Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM	
C <sub>max</sub> (μg/mL)	0.75	0.11	0.24	0.016	0.12	0.016	
T <sub>max</sub> (h)*	2.20	1.18	19.7	2.89	18.0	3.69	
T <sub>1/2</sub> (h)**	84.0	3.61	123.3	10.33	92.1	9.36	
AUC(0-last) (μg.h/mL)	45.1	5.84	18.4	1.99	8.58	0.85	
<sub>AUC(0-∞)</sub> (μg.h/mL)	47.9	6.31	20.0	2.24	9.50	0.89	
MRT <sub>(0-last)</sub> (h)	91.4	2.88	87.2	3.54	83.6	6.39	
CI/F (mL/kg/h)	52.1	7.51	-	-	-	-	

Geometric mean unless stated and SEM (n=10) \*Arithmetic mean; \*\*Harmonic mean.

 $T_{max}$ : Time following dosing at which the maximum concentration ( $C_{max}$ ) occurred.

T<sub>1/2</sub>: Terminal Half-life

AUC<sub>(0-last)</sub>: Area under the concentration-time graph from 0 to the last sampling time

AUC<sub>(0-∞)</sub>: Area under the concentration-time graph from 0 to infinity

MRT: Mean residence time

CI/F: Clearance scaled by bioavailability

Table 2. Results obtained from the killing curve assay.

Variables	Mar	nnheimia	a haemolyt	Pasteurella multocida				
	MHB		Seru	Serum		MHB		um
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Log E <sub>max</sub> (cfu/mL)	-4.53	0.66	-5.12	1.43	-5.06	1.41	-4.51	2.03
Log E₀ (cfu/mL)	1.87	0.49	1.97	1.03	1.4	1.04	2.84	1.95
Log Emaxlog E₀	-6.40	0.58	-7.09	1.97	-6.46	0.97	-7.37	0.75
(cfu/mL)								
Bacteriostatic	17.15	7.14	19.75	14.72	18.45	11.59	17.28	9.23
(AUC <sub>0</sub> - <sub>24h</sub> /MICexp								
)(h)								
Bactericidal (AUC <sub>0</sub> .	21.04	8.39	38.44	30.35	23.7	18.03	22.72	1.98
<sub>24h</sub> /MICexp) (h)					(n=5)		(n=5)	
4log₁₀ reduction in	24.86	10.58	32.16	11.6	17.19	9.45	28.83	3.71
(AUC <sub>0-24h</sub> /MICexp)	(n=5)		(n=4)		(n=4)		(n=5)	
(h)								

Data (mean, SD, n=6 unless stated) for three levels of growth inhibition of *M. haemolytica* and *P. multocida* by tulathromycin in Mueller Hinton broth (MHB) and serum.

Table 3. Population parameters for tulathromycin disposition in calves.

Parameter	Estimate	SE	CV%
tvKa	10.7	2.75	25.6
tvA	389	123	31.7
tvAlpha	0.2252	0.073	32.4
tvB	365	39	10.6
tvBeta	0.008172	0.00040	4.8
SD of the proportional residual error (eps)	0.245175	0.00683	2.8

Typical values (tv) of the structural parameters of the population model (thetas), their associated Standard Error (SE) and Coefficient of Variation (CV%) and the SD of the residual for the model.

Table 4. Between Subject Variability (BSV) of tulathromycin disposition in calves.

ETA	ηКа	ηΑ	ηAlpha	ηВ	ηBeta
No covariate	129	344	224	53	8
With the health status as covariate	109	154	122	52	7.8

Coefficient of variation (CV%) of the variance of the etas  $(\eta)$  indicating the magnitude of the BSV for the model without covariate and model with the health status as covariate

Table 5. PK/PD cut-offs for tulathromycin in calves.

	Intervals (h)									
Percentiles (%)	0-24	0-48	0-72	0-96	0-120	0-144	0-168	0-192	0-216	0-240
95	142	132	120	109	99	91	84	78	72	67
90	172	160	145	132	122	111	103	96	89	83
80	210	200	183	167	153	140	129	119	111	104
70	244	229	209	192	176	162	150	139	129	121
60	278	263	242	222	204	188	174	161	150	140
50	316	300	277	255	234	217	201	186	172	161
40	356	337	312	287	264	245	227	210	196	183
30	408	389	360	331	305	283	262	244	228	214
20	476	453	419	384	354	329	305	283	263	245
10	586	555	518	480	445	412	384	359	334	312
5	685	653	611	566	525	488	454	424	396	370

These values are the average serum concentrations (ng/mL) of tulathromycin over 10 incremental time intervals (0-24h, 0-48h....0-240h) that are at least achieved by a given percentage of the calf population (Target Attainment Rate from 5 to 95%) after a single subcutaneous administration of tulathromycin at a dose rate of 2.5 mg/kg. These values should be multiplied by 50 to give the equivalent PK/PD cut-offs in MHB. For example, for 90% TAR and a duration of 0-240 h serum concentration = 4,150 ng/mL and for 50% TAR and a time interval of 0-120 h serum concentration = 11,700 ng/mL.

Fig.1. Flow chart of the main steps of sample collection, data analysis and results outputs for the PK/PD analysis of tulathromycin in calves.

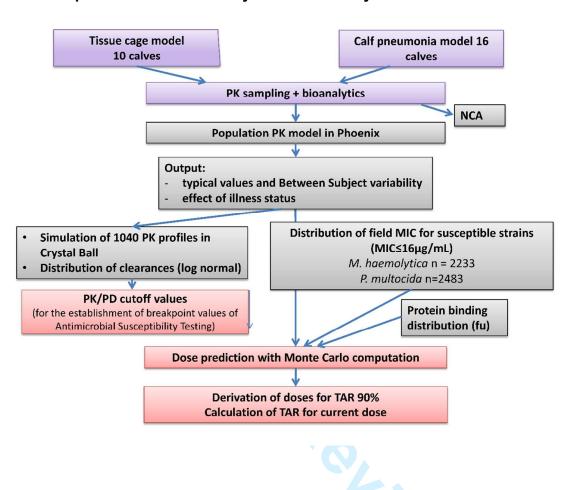


Fig. 2. Tulathromycin concentration in serum over the first 12 h after subcutaneous administration of tulathromycin in calves. Mean + SEM tulathromycin concentration in serum from 0 to 12 h after subcutaneous injection of tulathromycin at a dose rate of 2.5mg/kg.

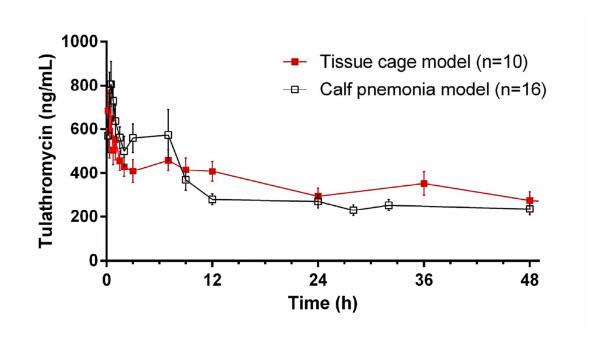


Fig.3. Tulathromycin concentrations in serum, exudate and transudate over 336 h after subcutaneous administration of tulathromycin in calves. Mean + SEM tulathromycin concentrations in serum, exudate and transudate for calves after subcutaneous injection of tulathromycin at a dose rate of 2.5mg/kg.

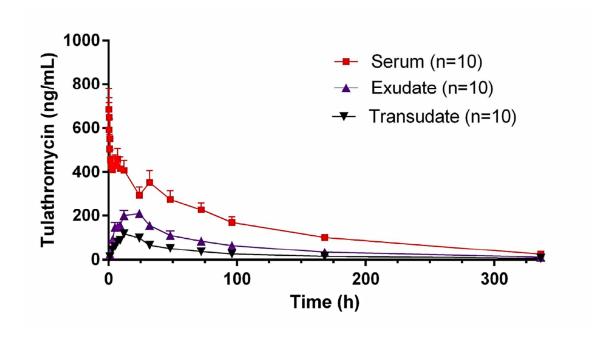


Fig. 4: Visual Predictive Check: Observed plasma concentration (ng/ml) vs. time (h) and observed and predicted quantiles. This diagnostic plot illustrates the observed (red) 5, 50 and 95% quantiles superimposed with the predictive check quantiles (black) 5, 50 and 95% over the observed serum concentrations (blue symbols).

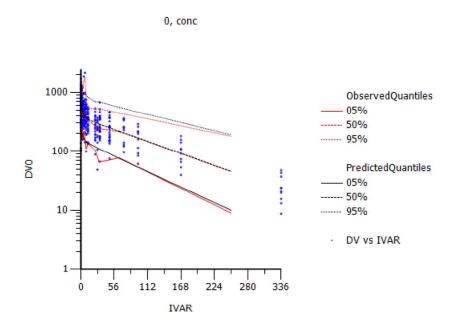
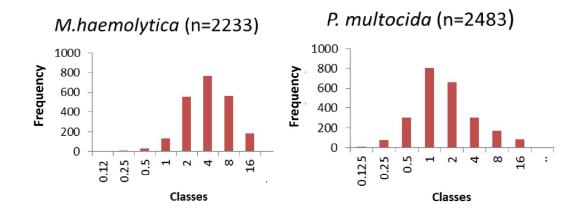
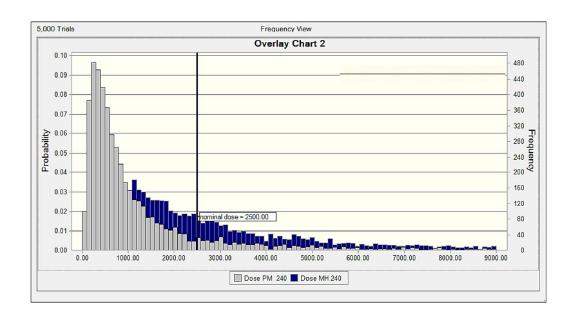




Fig. 5. MIC distribution of *M. haemolytica* and *P. multocida*. Frequency of Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations (MICs) for tulathromycin against bovine respiratory pathogens *P. multocida* (n=2483) and *M. haemolytica* (n=2233). The isolates were from the Zoetis surveillance program and were isolated from years 2004 to 2010. MICs ( $\mu$ g/mL) were obtained in Mueller Hinton Broth; results are given for only susceptible strains according to the CLSI clinical breakpoint (MICs  $\leq$  16 $\mu$ g/mL)



**Fig. 6. Population distributions of tulathromycin doses**. Comparison of the two population distributions of tulathromycin doses, as predicted by a population PK/PD model for *P. multocida* (grey) and *M. haemolytica* (blue) for duration of action of 240 h. The vertical bar indicates the nominal dose of 2.5 mg/kg. Dose (0 to 9000 μg/kg) is indicated on the X axis.





**Fig. 7. Cumulative population distributions of tulathromycin doses.** Comparison of the two cumulative distributions of doses of tulathromycin, as predicted by a population PK/PD model for *P. multocida* (grey) and *M. haemolytica* (blue) for a duration of action of 240 h in terms of Target Attainment Rate (Y axis: 0-100%). The vertical bar indicates the nominal dose of 2.5 mg/kg. Dose (0 to 9000 μg/kg) is indicated on the X axis.

