AAC Accepted Manuscript Posted Online 10 May 2021 Antimicrob Agents Chemother doi:10.1128/AAC.00293-21 Copyright © 2021 American Society for Microbiology, All Rights Reserved.

- Amikacin Combined with Fosfomycin for Treatment of Neonatal
- Sepsis in the Setting of Highly Prevalent Antimicrobial Resistance 2
- Christopher A Darlowa#, Fernando Docobo-Perezb, Nicola Farringtona, Adam Johnsona, Laura 4
- 5 McEntee^a, Jennifer Unsworth^a, Ana Jimenez-Valverde^a, Silke Gastine^c, Ruwanthi Kolamunnage
- 6 Dona^d, Renata M A de Costa^e, Sally Ellis^e, François Franceschi^e, Joseph F Standing^c, Mike
- Sharland^f, Michael Neely^g, Laura Piddock^{e,h}, Shampa Das^a, William Hope^a 7
- 8 ^a Antimicrobial Pharmacodynamics and Therapeutics, University of Liverpool, Liverpool Health

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on May 25, 2021 at ST GEORGE'S LIBRARY

9 Partners, UK

3

- 10 ^b Departamento de Microbiología, Universidad de Sevilla, Sevilla, Spain
- 11 ^c Great Ormond Street Institute of Child Health, University College London, London, UK.
- ^d Department of Health Data Science, University of Liverpool, Liverpool Health Partners, UK 12
- 13 ^e Global Antibiotic Research and Development Partnership, 15 Chemin Louis-Dunant, 1202
- 14 Geneva, Switzerland
- 15 f Paediatric Infectious Diseases Research Group, St George's University of London, UK
- 16 g Children's Hospital Los Angeles and the Keck School of Medicine, University of Southern
- 17 California, Los Angeles, CA, USA
- 18 ^h Antimicrobials Research Group, School of Immunity and Infection, Institute for Microbiology
- 19 and Infection, University of Birmingham, UK

- 20 Running head: Amikacin and fosfomycin combination pharmacodynamics 21 22
- 23 # Address correspondence to Christopher A. Darlow, cdarlow@liverpool.ac.uk

ABSTRACT

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

Antimicrobial resistance (particularly by extended spectrum β-lactamase and aminoglycoside modifying enzyme production) in neonatal sepsis is a global problem, particularly in low- and middle-income countries, causing significant mortality. High rates of resistance are reported for the current WHO-recommended first-line antibiotic regimen for neonatal sepsis; ampicillin and gentamicin. We assessed the utility of fosfomycin and amikacin as a potential alternative regimen to be used in settings of increasingly prevalent antimicrobial resistance. The combination was studied in a 16 arm dose ranged hollow-fiber infection model (HFIM) experiment. The combination of amikacin and fosfomycin enhanced bactericidal activity and prevented emergence of resistance compared to monotherapy of either antibiotic. Modelling of the experimental quantitative outputs and data from checkerboard assays, indicated synergy. We further assessed the combination regimen at clinically relevant doses in HFIM with nine Enterobacterales strains with high fosfomycin/amikacin MICs and demonstrated successful kill to sterilisation in 6/9 strains. From these data, we propose a novel combination breakpoint threshold for microbiological success for this antimicrobial combination against Enterobacterales - MIC_F * MIC_A < 256 (where MIC_F and MIC_A are MICs for fosfomycin and amikacin). Monte Carlo simulations predict that a standard fosfomycin/amikacin neonatal regimen will achieve a >99% probability of pharmacodynamic success for strains with MICs below this threshold.

- We conclude that the combination of fosfomycin with amikacin is a viable regimen for the 44
- empiric treatment of neonatal sepsis and is suitable for further clinical assessment in a 45
- 46 randomised controlled trial.

Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy

Introduction

Neonatal sepsis is a common condition with a high mortality (1). Leading causative pathogens
are both Gram-negative (e.g. E. coli, K. pneumoniae) and Gram-positive organisms (e.g.
Staphylococcus aureus, Streptococcus agalactiae (Group B streptococci - GBS)) (1). Neonatal
sepsis accounts for an estimated 430,000 - 680,000 deaths annually, with the highest mortality
in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) (2, 3). The World Health Organisation (WHO)
currently recommends a narrow-spectrum $\beta\text{-lactam}$ agent (e.g. amoxicillin or penicillin G) in
combination with gentamicin as the first line empiric regimen to treat neonatal sepsis (4, 5).
This regimen has an acceptable safety profile, is active against common causative wild-type
organisms, is inexpensive and feasible to administer. However, clinical efficacy is increasingly
compromised by the rise of antimicrobial resistance (AMR).
Multiple epidemiological studies of neonatal sepsis demonstrate significant levels of drug
resistance, particularly to β -lactams and gentamicin (6–12), with a variety of increasingly
prevalent resistance mechanisms such as extended spectrum $\beta\text{-lactamases}$ (ESBLs) and
aminoglycoside modifying enzymes (AMEs). In hospital settings, resistance rates of Gram-
negative bacteria causing neonatal sepsis to amoxicillin and gentamicin are approximately 80%
and 60%, respectively, with some regional variation (6–12). Alternative options are urgently
required for the treatment of neonatal sepsis caused by multi- and extremely-drug resistant
(MDR and XDR) bacteria and suitable for use in LMIC settings.
A potential replacement regimen would need to provide spectrum of activity against the
commonly encountered nathogens and resistance motifs. Additionally, if the regimen were a

69 Antimicrobial interactions can be defined by several metrics and definitions (13). However, the 70 interaction model described by Greco based on Loewe additivity (14, 15) allows determination 71 and quantification of any interaction with precision and without arbitrary thresholds for 72 determining the natures of interaction. 73 Amikacin and fosfomycin have several attributes that make them potential candidates for use 74 in neonatal sepsis. They are off-patent with a neonatal licence, have an acceptable safety 75 profile with limited toxicities (16, 17), and have efficacy against commonly encountered 76 multidrug resistant (MDR) pathogens. We therefore studied the potential utility of this 77 combination for neonatal sepsis by assessing in vitro activity, the nature and extent of any 78 pharmacodynamic interaction using checkerboard assays and hollow fiber infection models 79 (HFIMs), and defined candidate combination regimens suitable for further clinical study.

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on May 25, 2021 at ST GEORGE'S LIBRARY

combination of two agents, a favourable pharmacodynamic interaction would benefical.

80 Results

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

In vitro susceptibility testing

A panel of 40 strains of bacterial species was assembled to give a representative range of bacteria that cause neonatal sepsis in a LMIC setting, with a majority of strains harbouring relevant resistance motifs for geographic regions of interest. These include 10 methicillinresistant Staphyloccocus aureus (MRSA) strains, 10 E. coli and 10 K. pneumoniae strains (all ESBL or carbapenemase producers), and 10 wild-type S. agalactiae strains (Table S1). The MIC distributions for fosfomycin and amikacin against this panel of strains are shown in Table S2. The modal amikacin MIC was 2-4 mg/L (excluding the intrinsically resistant S. agalactiae, inhibited by a modal MIC of >32 mg/L); the modal fosfomycin MIC was 2 mg/L (excluding the K. pneumoniae strains, which have a modal MIC of >32mg/L, likely due to a high incidence of chromosomal FosA (18)).

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on May 25, 2021 at ST GEORGE'S LIBRARY

92

In vitro drug-drug interaction modelling

Checkerboard assays were performed on a selection of the neonatal sepsis panel strains (n=16). These strains were selected on the basis of having MICs >0.0625mg/L and <32mg/L for fosfomycin and amikacin. An interaction model originally developed by Greco (14) was fitted to the dataset to estimate a pharmacodynamic interaction parameter, α , for each strain (Fig. 1). A value of α for the interaction of two agents is interpreted as follows: a lower bound of the 95% CI of $\alpha > 0$ indicates a synergistic interaction; an upper bound of the 95% CI of $\alpha < 0$ indicates an antagonistic interaction; a 95% CI crossing 0 indicates no evidence of interaction i.e. simple

additivity (14)). A total of 9/16 individual strains had CIs >0 (and therefore indicated synergy); the remaining 7/16 strains had CIs crossing 0 (and therefore demonstrated no evidence of interaction). When the α value output of the models fitted to each strains were combined in a meta-analysis, the combined α interaction value was 0.1705 (95% CI 0.0811 to 0.2599), with low inter-strain heterogeneity ($l^2 = 30.7\%$, p value = 0.383) indicating a synergistic effect observed across all species/strains tested.

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

101

102

103

104

105

106

Pharmacodynamic interaction of fosfomycin and amikacin using neonatal PK

To determine the nature and magnitude of the pharmacodynamic interaction between fosfomycin and amikacin using neonatal concentration-time profiles, a hollow fiber infection model (HFIM) was used (Fig. S1) using the E coli ST195 strain, a CTX-M-14 producer from Laos (amikacin MIC 4 mg/L; fosfomycin MIC 1 mg/L) (19) . These experiments were conducted following preliminary dose-finding experiments with each drug alone to define informative parts of the drug exposure-response and drug exposure-emergence of resistance relationships. For fosfomycin, the EC₂₀, EC₅₀, and EC₈₀ for bactericidal effect were achieved with $fAUC_{0.24}$ of 25, 200 and 400 mg*h/L, respectively. For amikacin, the EC20, EC50, and EC80 were achieved with $fAUC_{0-24}$ of 50, 200 and 380 mg*h/L, respectively. The pharmacodynamics of the fosfomycin-amikacin combination was determined in a 16-arm 4x4 experiment that included no-treatment controls, each drug alone at the three doses, and an interaction matrix of all 2-drug dose combinations as shown in Fig. 2. When administered

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on May 25, 2021 at ST GEORGE'S LIBRARY

alone, increasing fosfomycin exposures resulted in profound early bacterial killing. However,

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

fosfomycin MICs of \geq 128mg/L, with maximal emergent resistance at $fAUC_{0.24}$ of 50 and 200 mg*h/L (Fig. 2, Panels 1-4). Similarly, progressively increasing exposures of amikacin as monotherapy led to initial suppression of logarithmic growth with subsequent exposuredependent emergence of a resistant subpopulation with amikacin MICs ≥16mg/L, with maximal emergent resistance at $fAUC_{0.24}$ of 380 mg*h/L (Fig. 2, Panels 1,5, 9, & 13). In combination, fosfomycin and amikacin achieved a greater magnitude of initial bacterial kill, with delayed and reduced emergence of resistance to fosfomycin and amikacin, compared with equivalent drug exposures in monotherapy. Higher combination exposures achieved sterility. The relationship between drug exposure and the emergence of resistance with each drug administered alone formed an 'inverted U' (20). Fosfomycin and amikacin in combination resulted in the suppression of resistance that occured at comparable drug exposures in monotherapy of each drug (Fig. 2, Panels 11,12 & 14-16). As the exposure of the other antibiotic increased, the 'inverted U' shifted to the left as emergence of resistance was progressively suppressed (Fig. 3). The nature and magnitude of the pharmacodynamic interaction between fosfomycin and amikacin was estimated by fitting a pharmacodynamic interaction model to the PK-PD data (Table 1). The R-squared values for the observered vs individual predicted values were 0.875 (free fosfomycin concentrations), 0.963 (free amikacin concentrations), 0.869 (total bacterial count), 0.944 (fosfomycin-resistant bacterial count) and 0.669 (amikacin-resistant bacterial count). There were synergistic relationships for the effects of the combination on susceptible,

failure to achieve sterility led to rapid regrowth, with emergence of a resistant clone(s) with

fosfomycin-resistant, and amikacin-resistant bacteria with α values of 13.046 [95% CI 0.761 –

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

25.331], 20.520 [95% CI 11.727 – 29.313], and 25.227 [95% CI 14.485 – 35.969], respectively. Hence, the combination of fosfomycin and amikacin was synergistic in terms of killing both drug-susceptible and -resistant subpopulations.

Assessment of a Neonatal Combination Regimen of Fosfomycin and Amikacin

We assessed the pharmacodynamics of the combination of fosfomycin and amikacin using neonatal concentration-time profiles of each drug over a 7 day period. For amikacin, we used a standard neonatal dose of 15 mg/kg q24h (21) and a median neonatal half-life of 7 hr (22). For fosfomycin we used a neonatal dose of 100mg/kg q12h with a half-life of 5.2 hr, based on preliminary data from the NeoFosfo trial (23). We selected nine Gram-negative bacteria as the challenge strains that had a range of MICs to both drugs and had different mechanisms of resistance (Table 2). We successfully recapitulated the target free drug PK profiles associated with each regimen (data not shown). The summary pharmacodynamics are shown in Fig. 4 (full pharmacodynamic output are shown in Fig. S2-10). When administered alone, amikacin and fosfomycin failed to achieve extinction in 9/9 and 7/9 strains, respectively. All arms with strains inhibited by fosfomycin MICs >4mg/L treated with fosfomycin monotherapy had rapid emergence of resistance within 24h. The three strains inhibited by fosfomycin MICs ≤4mg/L were either killed to sterility (two strains) or had delayed emergence of resistance towards the end of the experiment. In contrast, the combination regimen achieved extinction in 6/9 strains. The strains for which the combination

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on May 25, 2021 at ST GEORGE'S LIBRARY

failed were all inhibited by MICs \geq 32mg/L and \geq 8mg/L for fosfomycin and amikacin,

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

respectively. The distribution of combined fosfomycin and amikacin MICs versus response is shown in Fig. 4a. In this figure, a plane (or line) delineated two groups of strains, defined by the fosfomycin/amikacin MICs, that predicted success (defined as sterility at the end of the experiment) and failure. This 'breakpoint plane' was described in the following Cartesian format $MIC_A * MIC_F = 256$, where MIC_A and MIC_F are amikacin and fosfomycin MICs, respectively. In a clinical context, this means that if the product of the amikacin and fosfomycin MICs inhibiting a bacterial pathogen is < 256, then treatment with a neonatal regimen of fosfomycin and amikacin in combination can be predicted to succeed (i.e. the bacterium is 'sensitive' to this combination). The amikacin/fosfomycin combination success data can also be arranged according to the fAUC:MIC ratio for each drug, as shown in Fig. 4b, with a similar plane describing the threshold for successful treatment with the combination. This target plane can be described with the form $(fAUC_F/MIC_F) * (fAUC_A/MIC_A) = 2709.5$ (where F and A subscripts denote fosfomycin and amikacin fAUCs and MICs respectively). Interpreted in a clinical context, if the product of the amikacin and fosfomycin fAUC:MIC ratios is >2709.5, then the target for pharmacodynamic success has been met, with predicted treatment success.

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on May 25, 2021 at ST GEORGE'S LIBRARY

Monte Carlo Simulations

Amikacin and fosfomycin fAUCs for 10,000 neonates were created using a Monte Carlo simulation from a neonatal fosfomycin model that included neonatal covariate distributions based on a neonatal cohorts from the NeoFosfo trial and a recently completed global neonatal

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

sepsis observational study (NeoOBS) (23, 24) and a recently published neonatal amikacin model (25). Simulated dosing regimes were fosfomycin 100mg/kg q12 for neonates ≤7 days old and 150mg/kg q12 for neonates >7 days, as suggested by the NeoFosfo trial results and the EMA dosing recommendations (23, 26). Simulated amikacin dosages were 15mg/kg q24 for all neonates > 2kg; neonates weighing ≤ 2kg were dosed at q48 if ≤7 days old and q36 if >7 days old (27). Using the target relationships defined above, we calculated a combined probability of pharmacodyamic target attainment for both drugs across MIC ranges (1 – 256 mg/L) (Table 3). These simulated fAUCs demonstrated ≥99% predicted target attainment for Enterobacterales with amikacin and fosfomycin MICs below the 'breakpoint plane'. This indicates a high likelihood that fosfomycin and amikacin in combination at the simulated dosing regimens (i.e. at standard neonatal doses) will successfully treat neonatal sepsis caused by these pathogens.

Discussion

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

In both static and dynamic in vitro pharmacological models there was unequivocal synergistic interactions between amikacin and fosfomycin when measuring by bactericidal killing and the prevention of emergence of antimicrobial resistance. In particular, the addition of increasing doses of the second agents suppresses the 'inverted U' of antimicrobial resistance emergence (20) (Fig. 3) preventing the resistance observed at equivalent doses in monotherapy. These characteristics are unaffected by the presence of resistance mechanisms that render first line agents ineffective (e.g. ESBL and AMEs) in the bacteria tested in our experiments. The combination fosfomycin and amikacin is therefore a potentially useful regiment for empiric treatment of neonatal sepsis in the context of high prevalence of these resistance mechanisms Prediction of antimicrobial success has traditionally been conceived using breakpoint thresholds on a scale of a single drug concentration, with the treatment success dependent upon the bacteria being inhibited by a MIC being above or below a certain threshold on this scale. Our data suggests that using conventional monotherapy breakpoints is of limited value in combination antibiotics (Fig. 4). Here, we propose a novel two-dimensional breakpoint concentration threshold for treatment success defined by the Cartesian function of the pathogen's fosfomycin and amikacin MIC; $MIC_A * MIC_F = 256$, where A and F subscripts denote amikacin and fosfomycin MICs respectively. Enterobacterales pathogens that are inhibited by amikacin and fosfomycin MICs lying beneath this threshold (i.e. MIC_A*MIC_F < 256) can be predicted to be successfully treated by the standard regimen of these agents used in neonates i.e. it is specific to a neonatal context.

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

for the combination regimen for predicted treatment success, described in the following Cartersian format: $(fAUC_F/MIC_F) * (fAUC_A/MIC_A) = 2709.5$. The probabilities of standard neonatal regimens of these drugs attaining this threshold, for bacteria inhibited by a range of MIC combinations and incorporating the variability of neonatal drug exposure, are summarised in Table 3. We aimed to ensure a diversity of resistance mechanisms across the strains used, with commonly encountered resistance motifs in LMICs represented, acknowledging we are limited to the nine strains used. Whilst it is possible that bacteria with resistance mechanisms not examined in our experiments do not follow the relationship described, the MIC provides an integrative measure of potency regardless of the molecular mechanism of resistance, and can be used to predict pharmacodynamic response, as with conventional breakpoints. In our HFIM experiments the monotherapy arms failed with strains inhibited by fosfomycin and amikacin MICs below their EUCAST breakpoint concentrations (32mg/L for fosfomycin and 8mg/L for amikacin (28)). The underperformance of amikacin partially supports the recent downward revision of aminoglycoside breakpoint concentrations by EUCAST with a recommendation to avoid aminoglycoside monotherapy for systemic infections (28), but also reflects the observed greater tendency of aminoglycoside exposure to generate emergence of resistant small-colony variants in vitro than is observed in vivo (29). Failure of fosfomycin as monotherapy for strains inhibited by MICs >4mg/L supports suggestions that the breakpoint concentration for neonatal systemic infections should be lower than the currently stated EUCAST breakpoint for adult systemic infections of 32mg/L (28) (as has previously also been

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on May 25, 2021 at ST GEORGE'S LIBRARY

In a further extension, we also propose a novel combination pharmacodynamic target threshold

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

suggested in an adult context too (30)). However, the ideal breakpoint concentration for fosfomycin alone is difficult to define because this agent should not be used as monotherapy due to potential for rapid emergence of resistance (31, 32). There is an increasing number of experimental models of neonatal infection and sepsis (33, 34). HFIMs has been previously used to explore the pharmacodynamics of vancomycin and teicoplanin for neonatal sepsis (33, 35). HFIM has the advantage of enabling the simulation of neonatal pharmacokinetics to explore drug exposure effect and drug exposure resistance relationships that are specific to this special population. This is extremely difficult to achieve in laboratory animal models, due to inherent pharmacokinetic differences with humans. Furthermore, laboratory animal models of bacteraemia have additional difficulties in establishing pharmacodynamic relationships to due to the relatively low and intermittently detectable bacterial densities. The HFIM overcomes these limitations. However, the HFIM does not replicate the anatomical barriers that may be important for infections of the lung and brain, and does not contain any immunological effectors (even if these are immature in neonates) that may contribute to antimicrobial activity. Furthermore, the relatively high density of the inoculum used in HFIM to ensure reproducible results (circa. 106 cfu/mL) is higher than the estimates for the bacterial density in the bloodstream of neonates with sepsis (circa. 10°-10³ CFU/mL) (36, 37). For these reasons, the conclusions from the HFIM may be conservative and represent a worst-case scenario for regimen identification. Furthermore, the conclusions of these experiments are applicable only to the treatment of systemic infections (i.e. neonatal sepsis) given the replication of neonatal systemic drug exposures. Whilst both amikacin and fosfomycin have a degree of CSF penetration (amikacin

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

has a CSF partition coefficient of 0.1 in neonates (38); fosfomycin has a CSF coefficient of 0.15-0.2 in adults (39), with neonatal data expected in the Neofosfo trial (23)), the CSF drug exposures and the behaviour of bacterial inoculums in neonatal meningitis will be different to those modelled in this system. Despite these limitations, we conclude these experiments demonstrate that the regimen of fosfomycin and amikacin in combination is synergistic in both bactericidal effect and prevention of acquired antimicrobial resistance to either drug, with a defined threshold for probable treatment success. Additionally both agents have attributes that make them suitable for use in LMIC settings: i) Stability at room temperature (40, 41); ii) Ease of administration with once or twice daily dosing; iii) Minimal toxicities; iv) Off-patent status, and therefore potential affordability; v) Potential activity, in combination, to the predominant bacterial causes of neonatal sepsis. We conclude that this combination regimen could be considered appropriate for empiric treatment of neonatal sepsis in LMIC settings.

Methods and Materials

following: Group B streptococci, methicillin resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA), Escherichia

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

coli, and Klebsiella pneumoniae. All of the Gram-negative bacteria were extended spectrum βlactamase (ESBL) (nine E. coli and nine K. pneumoniae strains) or carbapenemase producers (one E. coli and one K. pneumoniae strain). Some of these strains were used in the HFIM based on their MICs, including a further two K. pneumoniae and one E. coli (ESBL producers) not included in the original 40 strain panel (full details of the isolates are detailed in Table S1). All isolates were stored in glycerol at -80°C and sub-cultured onto two MHA plates for 18-24h at 37°C prior to each experiment. In each non-HFIM experiment, colonies were suspended in PBS to MacFarland standard 0.5 (1x108 CFU/mL) and diluted to the target concentration. For HFIM experiments, bacteria was incubated in MHB until the bacteria entered exponential growth, and quantified by optical density (600nm) according to a strain specific standard growth curve. Antimicrobial susceptibility testing. Fosfomycin and amikacin minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) for the panel of representative neonatal sepsis bacterial pathogens were determined using the EUCAST broth microdilution methodology (43). E. coli ATCC 25922 or S. aureus ATCC 29213 were used as controls in all experiments. The antibiotic gradient strip assay method was used for isolates from the hollow fiber experiment. Briefly, an inoculum of the isolate was made using a suspension of a sweep of colonies into PBS to a McFarland standard of 0.5. A lawn of the inoculum was plated onto a MHA plate and an antibiotic gradient strip (Etest, Biomerieux, Marcy-l'Étoile, France) placed on the plate, which is subsequently incubated for 18-24h at 37°C before reading. Interpretation of susceptibility was determined using 2020 EUCAST breakpoints (28). The breakpoint for IV fosfomycin was used for fosfomycin MIC interpretation. In vitro pharmacodynamic assays. Checkerboard assays were used on selected strains to assess

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on May 25, 2021 at ST GEORGE'S LIBRARY

the pharmacodynamic interaction of the fosfomycin/amikacin combination. Strains were

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

selected based on having MICs ≤32mg/L and >0.0625 mg/L to both fosfomycin and amikacin. 100 µL of antimicrobials in sterile distilled water were added to the an 8x8 grid on a 96 well plate, with concentration gradients created with 1:2 serial dilutions along each axis, with the final row/column having 0 mg/L of the appropriate drug. The drug concentration range used on each plate was chosen according to the drug MICs of each strain, with the maximum concentration of each antimicrobial being 4x MIC for that strain. The inoculum was made up to 1x106 CFU/mL in MHB and quantified using 1:10 serial dilution onto MHA plates. 100µl of the inoculum was added to each well of the prepared checkerboard. The well containing 0 mg/mL of each drug acted as the positive control; an additional row of blank MHB on the plate acted as negative control. Plates were incubated 18-24h at 37°C before being read by optical densitometer (Varioskan, Thermo Fisher) at 600nm. Plates were considered valid if the MIC on the monotherapy rows of the checkerboard were within 1 dilution of previously determined MICs, the negative controls had no growth, and the prepared inoculum was within 6-14 x 10⁵ CFU/mL. Raw optical densitometer (OD) readings were normalised to that of the positive control. The readouts were then modelled using Greco's model of drug synergy (15) using ADAPT 5 (44), with determination of α , with confidence intervals calculated using standard error of the model outputs. Meta-analysis was performed on the output of the combination using the R package 'Metafor' (45). Hollow Fiber Infection Model. The hollow fiber infection model (HFIM) is a well-established dynamic model stimulating the pharmacodynamic effect of antimicrobials with physiological

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on May 25, 2021 at ST GEORGE'S LIBRARY

dynamic concentrations (46). The HFIM method was used largely as described previously (33).

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

Briefly, each arm in the HFIM is set up as demonstrated in Fig. S1; monotherapy arms omit the supplementary compartments. MHB is pumped into the central compartment at a rate set to simulate a physiological clearance rate for the drug, with all media in the central compartment above 300 mL removed via an elimination pump. The target simulated half-lives for fosfomycin and amikacin were 5.1 and 7 hours respectively. The neonatal half-life of fosfomycin was determined from then unpublished data from the NeoFosfo trial (23). The neonatal half-life of amikacin was sourced from the SPC (47) and confirmed with other published neonatal clinical PK data (48-52) To account for the difference in clearance between fosfomycin and amikacin, supplementary compartments were set up according the principles laid out by Blaser (53). Throughout the HFIM experiments, inoculum concentrations were determined by serial dilution 1:10. A total of 10µL of each dilution was pipetted onto MHA plates; one drug-free and two containing either fosfomycin or amikacin. An additional 100 µL of the original inoculum was plated onto a drug-free MHA plate to lower the limit of detection for total bacterial quantification (i.e. to 10 CFU/mL). Plates were then incubated at 37°C for 18-24 hr for drug free plates, and 42-48 hr for drug-containing plates. After incubation, colonies were counted for at least two dilutions and the CFU/mL of the original inoculum was calculated. Preliminary monotherapy experiments were performed with the ESBL-producing ST195 E. coli strain (fosfomycin MIC 1mg/L, amikacin MIC 4 mg/L; supplied by the University of Birmingham) (19). PK and PD outputs of these experiments were modelled using Pmetrics (54) and parameters simulated using ADAPT (44) to determine the fosfomycin and amikacin doses required to achieve EC20, EC50 and EC80 in terms of bactericidal effect within the HFIM. A 16-arm HFIM experiment was performed using a 4x4 dosing matrix using these three doses and no

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

dose for both antibiotics in combination. The experiment was run over 96 hours, with a target initial inoculum of 1x10⁶ CFU/mL of ST195 inoculated into the hollow fiber cartridges. A dose of fosfomycin corresponding to the EC20, EC50 and EC80 was administered every 12 hours to the primary central compartment only; an amikacin dose achieving the EC20, EC50 and EC80 was administered to the primary and supplementary central compartments every 24 hours. PK samples were taken for bioanalysis at four timepoints in dosing windows in days 1 and 3 of the experiment. Samples of inoculum were taken from each hollow fiber cartridge at 4 timepoints during the first 24h, then once daily before administration of dose until the 96h timepoint. Each sample was prepared and plated onto drug-free square agar plates and fosfomycin- and amikacin- containing plates, as described above. MICs from any viable colonies from each arm on the final timepoint were determined via antibiotic gradient strip assay. Further HFIM experiments were performed assessing the effect of clinically relevant fosfomycin and amikacin doses leading to neonatal-like pharmacokinetic profile alone and in combination against a variety of bacteria with different fosfomycin and amikacin MICs. PK profiles of fosfomycin and amikacin were designed to have half-lives of 5.1 and 7 hours, with Cmax values of 250mg/L and 40mg/L respectively. These were determined from the sources used to determine the half-life, as described earlier. Nine parallel experiments were performed using nine Gram-negative strains with a wide distribution of fosfomycin and amikacin MICs (Table 2). Each individual experiment consisted of 4 arms; monotherapy arms for both fosfomycin and amikacin, a combination therapy arm, and an untreated control. As this experiment aimed to replicate clinically relevant drug exposures in neonates, each experiment lasted 7 days to reflect the typical treatment course of neonatal sepsis. Four PK samples were taken in each of

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

were taken on day 1, and once every 24h thereafter. These samples were quantified on drugfree, fosfomycin-, and amikacin-containing square MHA plates. MICs from any viable colonies from each arm on the final timepoint were determined via antibiotic gradient strip assay. Amikacin Bioanalysis. The internal standard, [2H₅] amikacin (Alsachim, Illkirch-Graffenstaden, France) was prepared in acetonitrile plus 5% trichloroacetic acid (TCA) (25 mg/L, Fisher Scientific, UK) and 150 µL was added to a 96-well protein precipitation plate (Phenomenex, Cheshire, UK). Fifty µL each of samples, blanks, calibrators in the range 0.5 – 50 mg/L and quality controls (0.75, 7.5 and 37.5 mg/L) were mixed with the internal standard on an orbital shaker. Liquid was drawn through the protein precipitation plate into a collection plate using a positive pressure manifold. Samples were evaporated under nitrogen (40 L/min) followed by reconstitution in water (Fisher Scientific, UK) and 0.1% heptafluorobutyric acid [Sigma-Aldrich, UK] and mixed using an orbital shaker prior to analysis by LC-MS-MS. LC-MS-MS analysis was performed using an Agilent 1290 Infinity HPLC coupled to an Agilent 6420 triple quadrupole mass spectrometer fitted with an electrospray source controlled using Agilent MassHunter Data Acquisition software (Ver B.06.00). Analytes were injected (5 μL) onto a Discovery® HS C18 HPLC Column (2.1 mm x 50 mm, 3 μm, 50°C) and separated over a 3.5 min. gradient using a mixture of solvents A (LC-MS grade water with 0.1% (v/v) heptafluorobutyric acid) and B (HPLC grade acetonitrile with 0.1% (v/v) heptafluorobutyric acid). Separations were performed by applying a linear gradient of 2% to 98% solvent B over 3 mins at 0.5 mL/min followed by an equilibration step (0.5 mins at 2% solvent B).

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on May 25, 2021 at ST GEORGE'S LIBRARY

three dose intervals distributed evenly throughout the experiment. Four inoculum samples

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

The mass spectrometer was operated in positive ion mode using a Multiple Reaction Monitoring (MRM) method with the specified mass transitions and collision energies: amikacin 586.4 > 163.2 (Ce 30 ev) and [${}^{2}H_{5}$] amikacin 591.3 > 163.2 (Ce 30 ev). Mass spectrometry readouts were processed using Agilent Mass Hunter Quantitative Analysis (Ver B.05.02). Prior to sample analysis, the analytical method was validated to assess recovery and matrix effects, inter- and intra-day accuracy and precision, carryover, dilution integrity, stability in matrix (4 hours at room temperature and 3 freeze thaw cycles) and processed sample stability (reinjection of extracts after 24hrs). The average recovery from matrix was 75.3%. The limit of quantification (LLQ) was defined as 0.5 mg/L and the limit of detection (LOD) 0.25 mg/L. The inter- and intra-day %CV on the three QC levels ranged from 2.5% – 5.7% and 2.9% – 6.41% respectively. The analyte was found to be stable in all conditions described above. Fosfomycin Bioanalysis. The internal standard, Ethyl Phosphonic acid (Sigma Aldrich, UK) was prepared in acetonitrile (5 mg/L, Fisher Scientific UK) and 200 μL was added to a 96-well protein precipitation plate (Phenomenex, Cheshire, UK). Fifty µL each of samples, blanks, calibrators in the range 1 – 500 mg/L and quality controls (3.5, 35 and 350 mg/L) were mixed with the internal standard on an orbital shaker. Liquid was drawn through the protein precipitation plate into a collection plate using a positive pressure manifold with water and 2mM Ammonium acetate (150 µL) added to each well, before sealing and mixing on an orbital shaker. LC-MS-MS analysis was carried out using the same technical setup as described above. Analytes were injected (5 μL) onto an Agilent ZORBAX RRHD HILIC Plus 95Å Column (2.1 mm x

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on May 25, 2021 at ST GEORGE'S LIBRARY

50 mm, 1.8 μm, 40°C) and separated over a 3.5 min. gradient using a mixture of solvents A (LC-

428 MS grade water with 2mM (v/v) ammonium acetate) and B (HPLC grade acetonitrile). 429 Separations were performed by applying a linear gradient of 100% to 0% solvent B over 2 mins 430 at 0.4 mL/min followed by an equilibration step (1.5 mins at 100% solvent B). 431 The mass spectrometer was operated in negative ion mode using a Multiple Reaction 432 Monitoring (MRM) method with the specified mass transitions and collision energies: 433 fosfomycin 137.1 > 79.0 (Ce 20 ev) and EPA 109.1 > 79.0 (Ce 20 ev). Mass spectrometry 434 readouts were processed as described above. 435 This fosfomycin analytical method underwent the same validation process as the amikacin 436 method described above. The average recovery from matrix was 80.9%. The LLQ was defined 437 as 1 mg/L and the LOD 0.5 mg/L. The inter and intra day %CV on the three QC levels ranged 438 from 6.5% - 8.1% and 4.7% - 6.9% respectively. The analyte was found to be stable in all 439 conditions described above. 440 Modelling. Population PK models were constructed using the pharmacokinetic and 441 pharmacodynamic outputs of the hollow fiber experiments using the population PK program 442 Pmetrics using a nonparametric adaptive grid NPAG estimation routine (54). The structural 443 model was based on Greco's models of pharmacological synergy (15) (described in full in Text 444 S1, Supplementary Materials). 445 Monte Carlo Simulation. A neonatal model for fosfomycin developed from the Neofosfo trial 446 (23, 55) and previously published neonatal amikacin (56) was used to simulate 447 fosfomycin/amikacin PK profiles from 10,000 neonates the linPK package in R (https://cran.r-

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on May 25, 2021 at ST GEORGE'S LIBRARY

project.org/web/packages/linpk/index.html). The simulated population was based on the

449 demographic distribution of neonates in the Neofosfo trial (23) combined with data from an 450 international multi-centre neonatal observational trial (24). From the simulated PK profiles, 451 individual fAUC_{0-24h} values were calculated from the first 24h. 452 Data availability: The programs ADAPT and Pmetrics are pubically available, with instructions, at https://bmsr.usc.edu/software/adapt/ and http://www.lapk.org/pmetrics.php respectively. 453

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

Acknowledgements: This work was funded the Global Antibiotic Research and Development Partnership (GARDP). GARDP was funded by the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research, German Federal Ministry of Health, Médecins Sans Frontières, Netherlands Ministry of Health, Welfare and Sport, United Kingdom Department for International Development, and the United Kingdom National Institute of Health Research. CD is also funded by the UK Medical Research Council (MR/N025989/1). The funders had no role in study design, data collection and interpretation, or the decision to submit the work for publication. The authors thank Sam Lipworth for identifying and supplying the strains from the University of Oxford, Jonathan Folb for supplying GBS strains from the Royal Liverpool Hospital, and JMI and IMHA for gifting their strains for this work. **Declared Interest: None**

References

465

- 466 Shane AL, Sánchez PJ, Stoll BJ. 2017. Neonatal sepsis. Lancet (London, England)
- 390:1770-1780. 467
- 468 2. Oza S, Lawn JE, Hogan DR, Mathers C, Cousens SN. 2015. Neonatal cause-of-death
- 469 estimates for the early and late neonatal periods for 194 countries: 2000-2013. Bull
- 470 World Health Organ 93:19-28.
- 471 Seale AC, Blencowe H, Manu AA, Nair H, Bahl R, Qazi SA, Zaidi AK, Berkley JA, Cousens
- 472 SN, Lawn JE, Agustian D, Althabe F, Azziz-Baumgartner E, Baqui AH, Bausch DG, Belizan
- 473 JM, Qar Bhutta Z, Black RE, Broor S, Bruce N, Buekens P, Campbell H, Carlo WA, Chomba
- 474 E, Costello A, Derman RJ, Dherani M, El-Arifeen S, Engmann C, Esamai F, Ganatra H,
- 475 Garcés A, Gessner BD, Gill C, Goldenberg RL, Goudar SS, Hambidge KM, Hamer DH,
- 476 Hansen NI, Hibberd PL, Khanal S, Kirkwood B, Kosgei P, Koso-Thomas M, Liechty EA,
- McClure EM, Mitra D, Mturi N, Mullany LC, Newton CR, Nosten F, Parveen S, Patel A, 477
- 478 Romero C, Saville N, Semrau K, Simões EAF, Soofi S, Stoll BJ, Sunder S, Syed S, Tielsch JM,
- 479 Tinoco YO, Turner C, Vergnano S. 2014. Estimates of possible severe bacterial infection in
- 480 neonates in sub-Saharan Africa, south Asia, and Latin America for 2012: A systematic
- 481 review and meta-analysis. Lancet Infect Dis 14:731-741.
- 482 Fuchs A, Bielicki J, Mathur S, Sharland M, Van JN, Anker D. 2016. Antibiotic Use for Sepsis
- 483 in Neonates and Children: 2016 Evidence Update. WHO-Reviews 7.
- 484 World Health Organization. 2013. Pocket book of hospital care for childrenSecond Edi.
- 485 World Health Organisation, Geneva.

486 6. DeNIS collaboration. 2016. Characterisation and antimicrobial resistance of sepsis 487 pathogens in neonates born in tertiary care centres in Delhi, India: a cohort study. Lancet 488 Glob Heal 4:e752-e760. 489 7. Labi AK, Obeng-Nkrumah N, Bjerrum S, Enweronu-Laryea C, Newman MJ. 2016. Neonatal 490 bloodstream infections in a Ghanaian Tertiary Hospital: Are the current antibiotic 491 recommendations adequate? BMC Infect Dis 16. 492 8. Bandyopadhyay T, Kumar A, Saili A, Randhawa VS. 2018. Distribution, antimicrobial 493 resistance and predictors of mortality in neonatal sepsis. J Neonatal Perinatal Med 494 11:145-153. 495 Jajoo M, Manchanda V, Chaurasia S, Jeeva Sankar M, Gautam H, Agarwal R, Yadav CP, 496 Aggarwal KC, Chellani H, Ramji S, Deb M, Gaind R, Kumar S, Arya S, Sreenivas V, Kapil A, 497 Mathur P, Rasaily R, Deorari AK, Paul VK. 2018. Alarming rates of antimicrobial resistance 498 and fungal sepsis in outborn neonates in North India. PLoS One 13:1–16. 499 10. Yadav NS, Sharma S, Chaudhary DK, Panthi P, Pokhrel P, Shrestha A, Mandal PK. 2018. 500 Bacteriological profile of neonatal sepsis and antibiotic susceptibility pattern of isolates 501 admitted at Kanti Children's Hospital, Kathmandu, Nepal. BMC Res Notes 11:1-6. 502 11. Pokhrel B, Koirala T, Shah G, Joshi S, Baral P. 2018. Bacteriological profile and antibiotic 503 susceptibility of neonatal sepsis in neonatal intensive care unit of a tertiary hospital in 504 Nepal. BMC Pediatr 18:1–8. 505 Chaurasia S, Sivanandan S, Agarwal R, Ellis S, Sharland M, Sankar MJ. 2019. Neonatal 12.

sepsis in South Asia: Huge burden and spiralling antimicrobial resistance. BMJ. BMJ

507 Publishing Group. 508 13. Doern CD. 2014. When Does 2 Plus 2 Equal 5? A Review of Antimicrobial Synergy Testing Downloaded from. 4124 jcm.asm.org J Clin Microbiol 52:4124-4128. 509 510 14. Greco WR, Bravo G, Parsons JC. 1995. The search for synergy: A critical review from a 511 response surface perspective. Pharmacol Rev. Pharmacol Rev. 512 15. Greco WR, Park HS, Rustum YM. 1990. Application of a New Approach for the 513 Quantitation of Drug Synergism to the Combination of cis -Diamminedichloroplatinum 514 and 1- β -d-Arabinofuranosylcytosine Application of a New Approach for the Quantitation 515 of Drug Synergism to the Combination of m-Diam. Cancer Res 50:5318-5327. 516 larikov D, Wassel R, Farley J, Nambiar S. 2015. Adverse Events Associated with 16. 517 Fosfomycin Use: Review of the Literature and Analyses of the FDA Adverse Event 518 Reporting System Database. Infect Dis Ther 4:433–458. 519 17. Kent A, Turner MA, Sharland M, Heath PT. 2014. Aminoglycoside toxicity in neonates: 520 something to worry about? Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther 12:319–331. 521 18. Ito R, Mustapha MM, Tomich AD, Callaghan JD, McElheny CL, Mettus RT, Shanks RMQ, 522 Sluis-Cremer N, Doi Y. 2017. Widespread fosfomycin resistance in gram-negative bacteria 523 attributable to the chromosomal fosA gene. MBio 8:1–9. 524 19. Anu K, Esther K, Dunn Steven J, Dance David AB, Newton Paul N, Davong V, Sointu M, 525 Pakkanen Sari H, Andreas N, Cristoph H, Ann S, Teemu K, Jukka C, Alan M. 2019. Real-526 time sampling of travelers shows intestinal colonization by multidrug-resistant bacteria 527 to be a dynamic process with multiple transient acquisitions. bioRxiv. bioRxiv.

528 20. Tam VH, Louie A, Deziel MR, Liu W, Drusano GL. 2007. The relationship between 529 quinolone exposures and resistance amplification is characterized by an inverted U: A 530 new paradigm for optimizing pharmacodynamics to counterselect resistance. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 51:744-747. 531 532 Joint Formulary Committee. British National Formulary (online). BMJ Gr ad 21. 533 Pharmacetucial Press. 534 22. Howard JB, McCracken GH, Trujillo H, Mohs E. 1976. Amikacin in newborn infants: 535 comparative pharmacology with kanamycin and clinical efficacy in 45 neonates with 536 bacterial diseases. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 10:205-210. 537 23. 2019. Intravenous and Oral Fosfomycin in Hospitalised Neonates With Clinical Sepsis 538 (NeoFosfo) - NCT03453177. Clinicaltrials.gov. 539 24. 2018. NeoAMR Observational Study in Neonatal Sepsis - NCT03721302. 540 ClinicalTrials.gov. 541 Illamola SM, Sherwin CM, van Hasselt JGC. 2018. Clinical Pharmacokinetics of Amikacin in 542 Pediatric Patients: A Comprehensive Review of Population Pharmacokinetic Analyses. 543 Clin Pharmacokinet 57:1217–1228. 544 26. 2020. European Medicines Agency - EMEA/H/A-31/1476 - Article 31 referral assessment 545 report of fosfomycin-containing medicinal products. 546 Brady M, Jackson M, Kimberlin D, Long S. 2018. Red book: 2018–2021 report of the 27. 547 committee on infectious diseases. 31st ed. American Academy of Pediatrics, Itasca.

548 28. EUCAST. 2020. The European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing. 549 Breakpoint tables for interpretation of MICs and zone diameters Version 10.0. Bulitta JB, Hope WW, Eakin AE, Guina T, Tam VH, Louie A, Drusano GL, Hoover JL. 2019. 550 29. 551 Generating Robust and Informative Nonclinical In Vitro and In Vivo Bacterial Infection 552 Model Efficacy Data To Support Translation to Humans. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 553 63:1-25. 554 30. Merino-Bohórquez V, Docobo-Pérez F, Sojo J, Morales I, Lupión C, Martín D, Cameán M, 555 Hope W, Pascual, Rodríguez-Baño J. 2018. Population pharmacokinetics and 556 pharmacodynamics of fosfomycin in non-critically ill patients with bacteremic urinary 557 infection caused by multidrug-resistant Escherichia coli. Clin Microbiol Infect 24:1177-558 1183. 559 Docobo-Pérez F, Drusano GL, Johnson A, Goodwin J, Whalley S, Ramos-Martín V, 31. 560 Ballestero-Tellez M, Rodriguez-Martinez JM, Conejo MC, Van Guilder M, Rodríguez-Baño J, Pascual A, Hope WW. 2015. Pharmacodynamics of fosfomycin: Insights into clinical use 561 562 for antimicrobial resistance. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 59:5602-5610. VanScoy BD, McCauley J, Ellis-Grosse EJ, Okusanya OO, Bhavnani SM, Forrest A, Ambrose 563 32. 564 PG. 2015. Exploration of the pharmacokinetic-pharmacodynamic relationships for 565 fosfomycin efficacy using an in Vitro infection model. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 566 59:7170-7177. 567 33. Ramos-Martín V, Johnson A, Livermore J, McEntee L, Goodwin J, Whalley S, Docobo-568 Pérez F, Felton TW, Zhao W, Jacqz-Aigrain E, Sharland M, Turner MA, Hope WW. 2016.

Chemother 53:848-852.

569 Pharmacodynamics of vancomycin for CoNS infection: Experimental basis for optimal use 570 of vancomycin in neonates. J Antimicrob Chemother 71:992–1002. Warn PA, Livermore J, Howard S, Felton TW, Sharp A, Gregson L, Goodwin J, Petraitiene 571 34. 572 R, Petraitis V, Cohen-Wolkowiez M, Walsh TJ, Benjamin DK, Hope WW. 2012. 573 Anidulafungin for neonatal hematogenous Candida meningoencephalitis: Identification 574 of candidate regimens for humans using a translational pharmacological approach. 575 Antimicrob Agents Chemother 56:708-714. 576 35. Ramos-Martín V, Johnson A, McEntee L, Farrington N, Padmore K, Cojutti P, Pea F, Neely 577 MN, Hope WW. 2017. Pharmacodynamics of teicoplanin against MRSA. J Antimicrob 578 Chemother 72:3382-3389. 579 Kellogg JA, Ferrentino FL, Goodstein MH, Liss J, Shapiro SL, Bankert DA. 1997. Frequency 36. 580 of low level bacteremia in infants from birth to two months of age. Pediatr Infect Dis J 581 16:381-385. 582 37. Dietzman DE, Fischer GW, Schoenknecht FD. 1974. Neonatal Escherichia coli septicemia-583 bacterial counts in blood. J Pediatr 85:128-130. 584 38. Allegaert K, Scheers I, Adams E, Brajanoski G, Cossey V, Anderson BJ. 2008. Cerebrospinal 585 fluid compartmental pharmacokinetics of amikacin in neonates. Antimicrob Agents 586 Chemother 52:1934-1939. 587 Pfausler B. 2004. Concentrations of fosfomycin in the cerebrospinal fluid of 39. 588 neurointensive care patients with ventriculostomy-associated ventriculitis. J Antimicrob

50.

590 40. Amikacin 250 mg/ml Injection - Summary of Product Characteristics (SmPC) - (emc). 591 41. Fomicyt 40 mg/ml powder for solution for infusion - Summary of Product Characteristics 592 (SmPC) - (emc). 593 42. Winkler HH. 1973. Distribution of an inducible hexose phosphate transport system 594 among various bacteria. J Bacteriol 116:1079-1081. 595 43. 2003. Determination of minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of antibacterial 596 agents by broth dilution. Clin Microbiol Infect 9:ix-xv. 597 44. D'Argenio DZ, Schumitzky A, Wang X. 2009. ADAPT 5 User's Guide: 598 Pharmacokinetic/Pharmacodynamic Systems Analysis Software. Biomed Simulations 599 Resour. 600 45. Viechtbauer W. 2010. Conducting meta-analyses in R with the metafor. J Stat Softw 601 36:1-48. 602 46. J.S. Cadwell J. 2012. The Hollow Fiber Infection Model for Antimicrobial Pharmacodynamics and Pharmacokinetics. Adv Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf 01:1-5. 603 604 47. Hospira. 2015. Amikacin 250 mg/ml Injection SPC. medicines.org.uk. 605 48. Abdel-Hady E, El Hamamsy M, Hedaya M, Awad H. 2011. The efficacy and toxicity of two 606 dosing-regimens of amikacin in neonates with sepsis. J Clin Pharm Ther 36:45–52. 607 Allegaert K, Anderson BJ, Cossey V, Holford NHG. 2006. Limited predictability of amikacin 49. 608 clearance in extreme premature neonates at birth. Br J Clin Pharmacol 61:39-48.

Hughes KM, Johnson PN, Anderson MP. 2017. Comparison of Amikacin Pharmacokinetics

010		in Neonates rollowing implementation of a New Dosage Protocol. I rediati Pharmacol
611		Ther 22:33–40.
612	51.	Howard JB, McCracken GH, Trujillo H, Mohs HE. 1976. Amikacin in newborn infants:
613		comparative pharmacology with kanamycin and clinical efficacy in 45 neonates with
614		bacterial diseases. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 10:205–210.
615	52.	Kenyon CF, Knoppert DC, Lee SK, Vandenberghe HM, Chance GW. 1990. Amikacin
616		pharmacokinetics and suggested dosage modifications for the preterm infant.
617		Antimicrob Agents Chemother 34:265–268.
618	53.	Blaser J. 1985. In-vitro model for simultaneous simulation of the serum kinetics of two
619		drugs with different half-lives. J Antimicrob Chemother 15:125–130.
620	54.	Neely MN, Van Guilder MG, Yamada WM, Schumitzky A, Jelliffe RW. 2012. Accurate
621		detection of outliers and subpopulations with pmetrics, a nonparametric and parametric
622		pharmacometric modeling and simulation package for R. Ther Drug Monit 34:467–76.
623	55.	Kane Z, Gastine S, Williams P, Berkley JA, Ellis S, Correia E, Darlow C, Hope W, Sharland
624		M, Standing JF. 2020. Abtract 4568: PK/PD of intravenous and oral fosfomycin in
625		neonates with presumed serious bacterial Infection. ECCMID Abstr B 2020 2206.
626	56.	Illamola SM, Colom H, van Hasselt JGC. 2016. Evaluating renal function and age as
627		predictors of amikacin clearance in neonates: model-based analysis and optimal dosing
628		strategies. Br J Clin Pharmacol 793–805.

630 Tables

631

Parameter	Mean	Median	95% Credibility interval
V1 (L)	0.459	0.469	0.416 - 0.5
V2 (L)	0.359	0.312	0.306 - 0.417
Cl1 (L/h)	0.082	0.077	0.0755 - 0.0967
Cl2 (L/h)	0.038	0.031	0.0308 - 0.0369
Kgs	1.320	1.124	1.000 - 1.579
Kks	2.698	2.922	2.700 - 3.000
E50 ₁ s (mg/L)	9.081	6.805	4.417 – 11.260
E50 ₂ s (mg/L)	11.674	6.768	4.041 – 17.540
αs	16.288	13.046	3.439 – 29.997
Kgr1	1.375 1.324		1.239 – 1.329
Kkr1	2.384	2.221	1.933 – 2.902
E50 ₁ r1 (mg/L)	34.554	28.833	28.228 – 42.833
α_{r1}	17.023	20.520	11.021 – 22.068
Kgr2	1.361	1.367	1.299 – 1.375
Kkr2	2.325 2.070 1.		1.972 – 2.872
E50 ₂ r2 (mg/L)	37.795	39.150	28.819 – 43.860
α _{r2}	19.815 25.227 7.259		7.259 – 29.675
H1s	3.794	4.801	2.726 – 4.996

633

634

635

636

637

638

H2s	3.347	3.923	0.735 – 4.967
H1r1	2.160	2.488	1.205 – 2.831
H2r2	2.776	2.913	0.883 - 3.942

Table 1: Parameter values estimates with 95% credibility interval from HFIM PKPD model. V = Volume of distribution; C = clearance, Kg = bacterial growth constant; Kk = bacterial kill constant; E50 = Concentration of drug achieving 50% of efficacy; α = interaction parameter; H = Hill constant. Parameter suffices are defined as follows; 1 = relating to fosfomycin; 2 = relating to amikacin; s = relating to wildtype bacterial population; r1 = relating to 'fosfomycin resistant' bacterial population; r2 = relating to 'amikacin resistant' bacterial population.

Downloaded from http://aac.asm.org/ on May 25, 2021 at ST GEORGE'S LIBRARY

Strain Species Number		Resistance mechanisms	Amikacin MIC	Fosfomycin MIC	
ST195	E. coli	CTX-M-14	4	1	
11057	E. coli	CTX-M-15, CMY-23, FQ- resistant	32	2	
NCTC 13451	E. coli	CTX-M-15, OXA-1, TEM-1, aac6'-lb-cr, mph(A), catB4, tet(A), dfrA7, aadA5, sull		4	
BAA2523	E. coli	OXA-48	4	8	
L75546	K. pneumoniae	NS	64	4	
1237221	K. pneumoniae	SHV-OSBL, CTX-M-15	8	32	
1216477	K. pneumoniae	SHV-OSBL, TEM-OSBL, CTX-M-15	8	32	
NCTC 13438	K. pneumoniae	КРС3	32	32	
1256506	K. pneumoniae	SHV-OSBL; TEM-OSBL; CTX-M-2; CMY-2	2	128	
L41464 K. pneumonia		NS	16	128	

639

641

Table 2: Details of strains used in HFIM testing physiological pharmacokinetics of 640

fosfomycin/amikacin. NS = not sequenced, at time of writing.

643

644

645

		Amikacin MIC (mg/L)								
		1	2	4	8	16	32	64	128	256
(-	256	91.33%	51.81%	3.43%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
(mg/L)	128	99.42%	91.33%	51.81%	3.43%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Ξ	64	99.97%	99.42%	91.33%	51.81%	3.43%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
MIC	32	100.00%	99.97%	99.42%	91.33%	51.81%	3.43%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
	16	100.00%	100.00%	99.97%	99.42%	91.33%	51.81%	3.43%	0.00%	0.00%
\Ci.	8	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	99.97%	99.42%	91.33%	51.81%	3.43%	0.00%
Fosfomycin	4	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	99.97%	99.42%	91.33%	51.81%	3.43%
St	2	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	99.97%	99.42%	91.33%	51.81%
7	1	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	99.97%	99.42%	91.33%

Table 3: Probability of attainment of the target $(fAUC_F/MIC_F)*(fAUC_A/MIC_A) > 2709.5$ across a range of amikacin and fosfomycin MICs using 10,000 Monte Carlo simulated neonatal amikacin and fosfomycin fAUCs. Grey shading denotes MIC combinations with probability of target attainment < 95%.

648

649

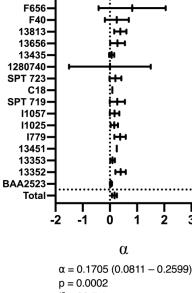
650

651

652

653

646 **Figures**



 $I^2 = 30.7\%$

Figure 1- Modelled output for checkerboard assays to three antimicrobial combinations against 16 isolates, with a combined total statistic for each combination. α is the interaction parameter in the Greco model indicating the level of synergy. A confidence interval (CI) >0 indicates presence of synergy; CI < 0 indicates antagonism; a CI containing 0 indicates no interaction with additive effects only. α and p values for combined statistic are given below the figures. I² represents the heterogeneity in effect between individual strains.

655

656

657

658

659

660

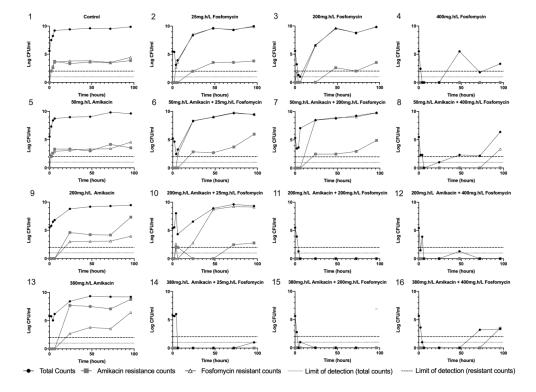


Figure 2 – Pharmacodynamic output of 16-arm fosfomycin/amikacin combination HFIM experiment, with labelled fAUC₀₋₂₄ for each arm. Grey cross in arm 15 was a real data-point in the initial experiment but was not reproducible in repeat experiments. It is demonstrated here for completeness but was not included in the modelling.

662

663

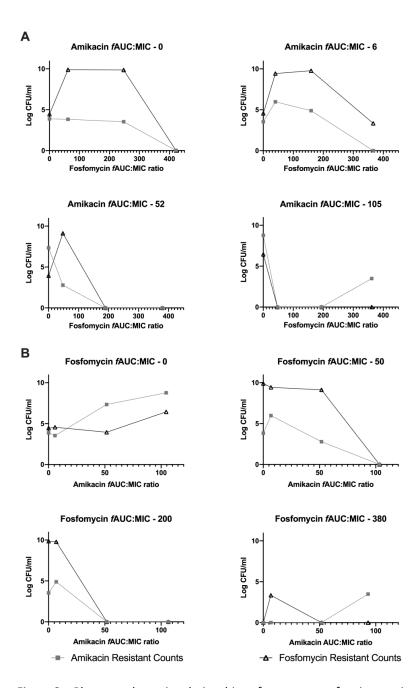


Figure 3 - Pharmacodynamic relationships of emergence of resistance in relation to modelled fAUC:MIC ratios for each agent. (A) Increasing fosfomycin fAUC:MIC on a background of fixed

- Amikacin fAUC:MIC; (B) Increasing amikacin fAUC:MIC on a background of fixed fosfomycin 664
- 665 fAUC:MIC.

667

668

669

670

671

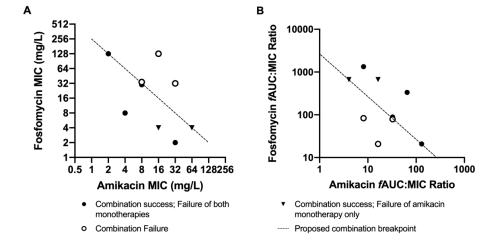
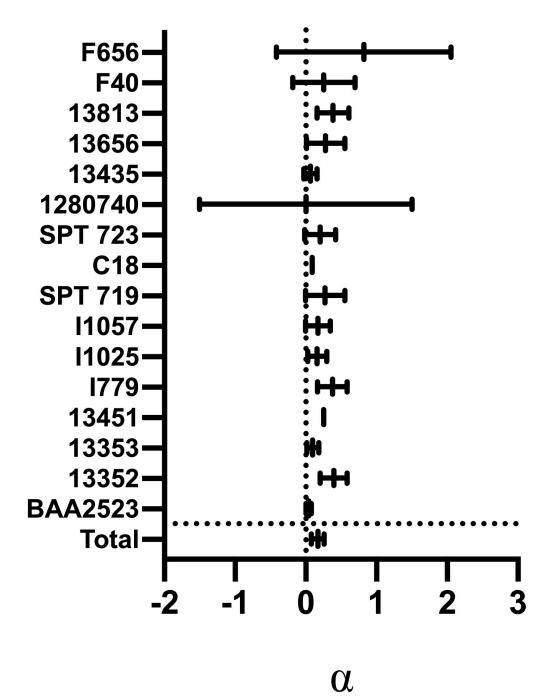


Figure 4 – Summary of pharmacodynamic outputs of fosfomycin/amikacin antimicrobial combination and monotherapy regimens in HFIM shown by pathogen fosfomycin/amikacin MICs (A) and fosfomycin/amikacin fAUC:MIC ratio (B). Success is defined by bacterial kill to sterility at the end of the experiment.

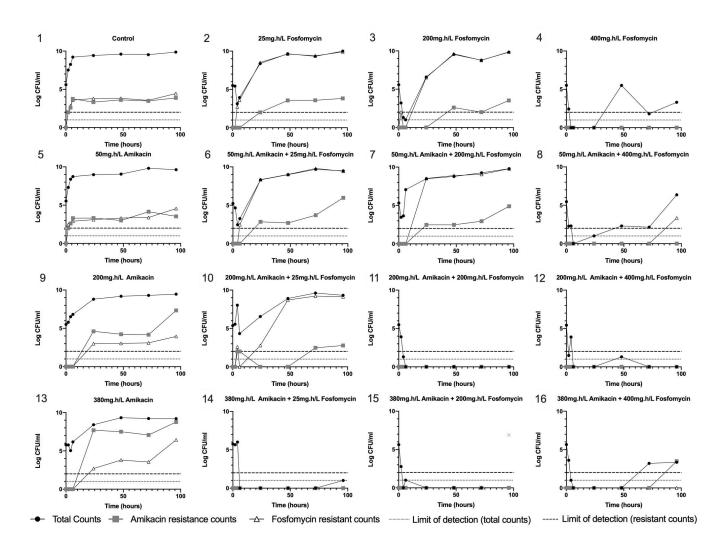


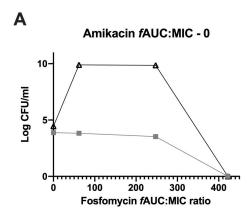
$$\alpha = 0.1705 (0.0811 - 0.2599)$$

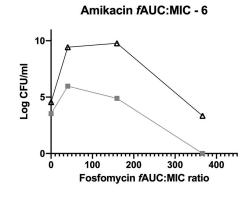
$$p = 0.0002$$

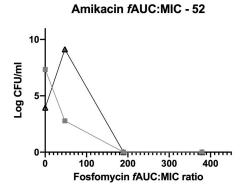
$$I^2 = 30.7\%$$

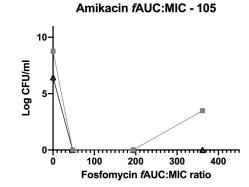


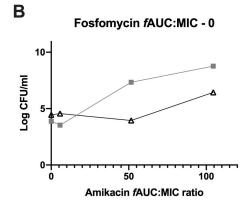


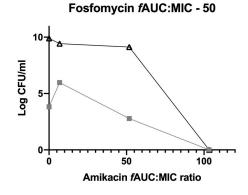


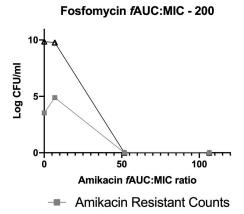


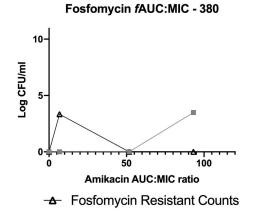


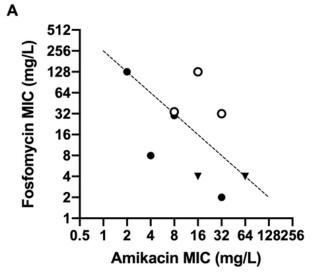




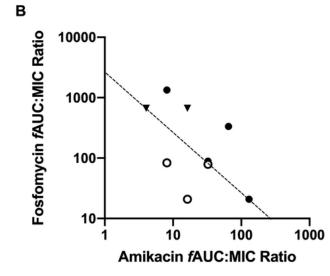








- Combination success; Failure of both monotherapies
- Combination Failure



- Combination success; Failure of amikacin monotherapy only
- Proposed combination breakpoint