



Subcutaneous pharmacokinetics of ceftazidime in buffalo calves

SHAH AHSAN UL HAQ¹ and S K SHARMA²

Guru Angad Dev Veterinary and Animal Sciences University, Ludhiana, Punjab 141 004 India

Received: 4 August 2011; Accepted: 23 September 2011

ABSTRACT

The pharmacokinetics and urinary excretion of ceftazidime, a third generation cephalosporin, was investigated in buffalo calves (6) following a single subcutaneous administration (10 mg/kg). Ceftazidime concentrations in plasma and urine were estimated by microbiological assay technique using *Escherichia coli* as test organism. Pharmacokinetic analysis of disposition data indicated that subcutaneous administration data were best described by 1-compartment open model. The peak plasma levels of ceftazidime were 24.1 ± 0.26 µg/ml at 45 min and the drug was detected upto 14 h. The absorption half-life and elimination half-life were 0.38 ± 0.07 h and 3.32 ± 0.23 h, respectively. The apparent volume of distribution and total body clearance were 0.18 ± 0.01 L/kg and 39.2 ± 1.22 ml/kg/h, respectively. The urinary excretion of ceftazidime in 36 h, was $29.9 \pm 5.34\%$ of total administered dose. An efficacy predictor, measured as the time over which the active drug exceeds the bacterial minimum inhibitory concentration ($T > MIC$), was calculated. $T > MIC$ was in the range 91–137% of the recommended dosing interval (8–12 h) after subcutaneous administration, for bacteria with a $MIC_{90} \leq 25$ µg/ml.

Key words: Buffalo Calves, Ceftazidime, Pharmacokinetics, Urinary excretion

Ceftazidime, an aminothiazolyl third generation cephalosporin antimicrobial agent, is bactericidal and acts by binding to penicillin-binding proteins of gram-negative bacteria to inhibit the cross linking of bacterial peptidoglycan, thereby interfering with bacterial cell wall synthesis (Klein and Cunha 1995). It is active against some susceptible gram-negative bacilli (*Escherichia coli*, *Proteus* spp., *Klebsiella* spp., *Enterobacter* spp., *Salmonella* spp.) and gram-positive pathogens (*Staphylococcus* spp., *Streptococcus* spp.) and, is very active against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Albarellos *et al.* 2008). Its pharmacokinetic parameters vary widely requiring different dosage regimens and adjustment methods for each agent. There is limited data on the pharmacokinetics of ceftazidime in animals. Ceftazidime was studied in mice (Kita *et al.* 1992), rats (Matsui *et al.* 1984, Kita *et al.* 1992), rabbits (Carbon *et al.* 1984, Sakata *et al.* 1984, Kita *et al.* 1992, Abd-El-Aty *et al.* 2001), monkeys (Matsui *et al.* 1984, Kita *et al.* 1992), calves (Soback and Ziv 1989), sheep (Rule *et al.* 1991), cows (Rule *et al.* 1996), dogs (Matsui *et al.* 1984, Kita *et al.* 1992, Moore *et al.* 2000) and cats (Albarellos *et al.* 2008). However, to our knowledge, pharmacokinetic studies in buffalo calves have not been reported. As the usefulness of an antibacterial agent depends on its efficacy, safety and pharmacokinetic disposition in the target animal,

Present address:¹Senior Research Fellow (asnulhaq@gmail.com); ²Professor (sureshksharma@gadvasu.in), Department of Pharmacology and Toxicology.

the aim of present study was to investigate the pharmacokinetics and urinary excretion of ceftazidime following single subcutaneous administration in buffalo calves. In veterinary practice, administration of antibiotics by subcutaneous route was found very effective (Sharma and Pathania 2010).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals: Healthy male buffalo calves (6), 6–12 months of age and weighing between 85 and 125 kg body weights were used. The animals were housed in an animal shed with concrete floor and adequate ventilation. The animals were determined to be clinically healthy before the study. All the animals were acclimatized in the animal shed under uniform conditions and were maintained on green fodder, wheat straw and water *ad lib*. They did not receive any drug treatment before the study. For the collection of urine, the experimental animals were kept in metabolic stalls of standard size, 12h before the start of experiment and kept there for entire study. The metabolic stalls are designed in such a way that urine voided by animals can be collected at any time interval without any spillage.

Experimental design

Aqueous solutions of ceftazidime-pentahydrate were administered by subcutaneous route @ 10 mg/kg as 10% solution. Blood samples (4–6 ml) were taken from contra

lateral jugular vein into heparinized glass test tubes before administration and at different time intervals viz. 2.5, 5, 10, 15, 30, 45 min and 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12, 14 h in each group. Plasma from the samples was separated by centrifugation at 2000 rpm for 15 min and stored at -20°C till analysis usually the next day. Urine was collected at 4, 8, 12, 16, 20, 24, 28, 32, 36 h after administration of drug. The urine voided by animals was filtered and measured and approximately 5 ml urine sample was stored at -20°C till analysis.

Bioassay: The concentrations of ceftazidime in plasma and urine were estimated by microbiological assay technique (Arret *et al.* 1971) using *Escherichia coli* (MTCC 739) as the test organism. The bioassay method used in this work could not distinguish between the parent compound and its active metabolites, if they exist. However, it measured the overall microbiological activity of the drug. The standard curve of ceftazidime in buffalo calf plasma was linear between 1 to 5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. The value of coefficient of determination (r^2) of the standard curve was 0.99. The drug could be detected up to a minimum limit of 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. The ceftazidime recovery exceeded 96% from plasma and urine over the concentration range of 5 to 200 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. The intra-day and inter-day coefficients of variance were less than 3%.

Pharmacokinetic analysis: The plasma concentration time data for each buffalo calf were determined according to the computed least squares regression technique. One compartment open system was found to best fit the data, following subcutaneous administration. The kinetic parameters were calculated from the formulae derived for a single compartment open model (Gibaldi and Perrier 1982).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Clinical examination of all animals before and after each trial did not reveal any abnormalities. No adverse reactions were observed after administration of ceftazidime in the animals studied. The mean plasma concentration-time profiles of ceftazidime following single SC administration are presented in Fig.1. Evaluation of the results on observed plasma levels of ceftazidime indicated that the data can be best fitted to one-compartment open model with the exponential equation:

$$C_p = B e^{-\beta t} - A^1 e^{-K_a t}$$

where, C_p is the ceftazidime concentration at time t , A^1 and B are zero-time intercepts of absorption and elimination phases of the plasma concentration-time curves, respectively, K_a and β are the absorption and elimination rate constants, respectively, and e represents the base of natural logarithms.

Similar to our study ceftazidime has been reported to follow mono-compartment open model in unweaned calves (Soback and Ziv 1989), lactating and non lactating cows (Rule *et al.* 1996), dogs (Moore *et al.* 2000) and cats (Albarellos *et al.* 2008) after extravascular administration.

The plasma concentration-vs-time curve after SC

Table 1. Pharmacokinetic parameters of ceftazidime in buffalo calves after a single subcutaneous injection (10 mg/kg)

Parameter	Unit	Mean \pm SE
A	$\mu\text{g/ml}$	35.4 \pm 3.90
K_a	h^{-1}	2.26 \pm 0.53
$t_{1/2K_a}$	h	0.38 \pm 0.07
B	$\mu\text{g/ml}$	35.9 \pm 4.08
β	h^{-1}	0.21 \pm 0.02
$t_{1/2\beta}$	h	3.32 \pm 0.23
AUC	$\mu\text{g/ml.h}$	141.0 \pm 4.93
AUMC	$\mu\text{g/ml.h}^2$	792.5 \pm 61.7
$V_{d(\text{area})}$	L/kg	0.18 \pm 0.01
$V_{d(B)}$	L/kg	0.30 \pm 0.05
Cl_B	ml/kg/h	39.2 \pm 1.22
MRT	h	5.59 \pm 0.29
C_{max}	$\mu\text{g/ml}$	24.1 \pm 0.26
t_{max}	h	0.75 \pm 0

Kinetics parameters are as described by Gibaldi and Perrier (1982). A and B, Zero-time plasma drug concentration intercept of the regression line of absorption and elimination phases, respectively; K_a and β are the absorption and elimination rate constants, respectively; $t_{1/2K_a}$, absorption half-life; $t_{1/2\beta}$, elimination half-life; AUC, area under the plasma concentration-time curve; AUMC, area under the first-moment curve; $V_{d(\text{area})}$, apparent volume of distribution based on AUC; $V_{d(B)}$, volume of distribution based on zero-time plasma drug concentration intercept of elimination phase; Cl_B , total body clearance; MRT, mean residence time; C_{max} , the peak or maximum plasma concentration; t_{max} , the time to reach peak or maximum plasma concentration.

administration documented C_{max} (24.1 \pm 0.26 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) at 0.75 h, indicating fast absorption. The minimum therapeutic plasma concentration (0.25 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) was maintained from 2.5 to 14 h. The rapid appearance of ceftazidime in the plasma suggests that this drug quickly enters into the systemic circulation following subcutaneous administration. Mean

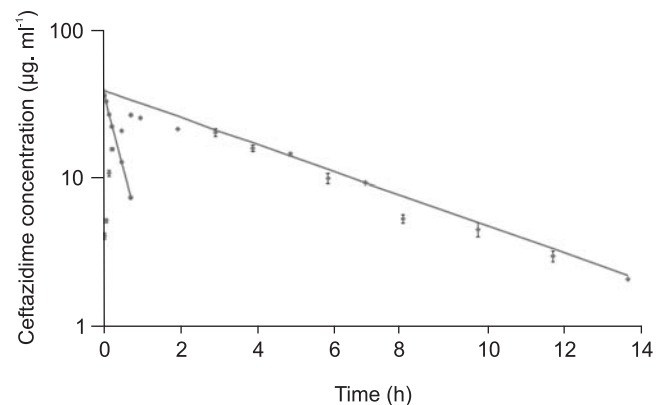


Fig 1. Semi-logarithmic plot of plasma concentration-time profile of ceftazidime in buffalo calves following a single subcutaneous dose of 10 mg/kg body weight.

Values given are mean \pm SE of 6 animals. The calculated points (●) of distribution phase are calculated by the feathering technique.

(\pm SE) values for pharmacokinetic parameters are given in Table 1. The elimination half life ($t_{1/2B}$) of ceftazidime in buffalo calves was longer than reported in unweaned calves (Soback and Ziv 1989), sheep (Rule *et al.* 1991), dogs and mice (Kita *et al.* 1992), lactating and non-lactating cows (Rule *et al.* 1996), rabbits (Abd El Aty *et al.* 2001) and cats (Albarellos *et al.* 2008).

The relatively low volume of distribution in buffalo calves (0.18 ± 0.01 L/kg) was the expected for a beta lactam antibiotic. This value was consistent with that reported in dogs (Matsui *et al.* 1984) and cats (Albarellos *et al.* 2008), but, was smaller than reported in unweaned calves (Soback and Ziv 1989), sheep (Rule *et al.* 1991), lactating and non-lactating cows (Rule *et al.* 1996). The value of volume of distribution in dogs, cats, unweaned calves, sheep, lactating and non-lactating cows was 0.21 ± 0.0007 , 0.18 ± 0.04 , 0.29 ± 0.06 , 0.35 ± 0.21 , 0.49 ± 0.14 and 0.39 ± 0.21 L/kg, respectively. The total body clearance (Cl_B) of ceftazidime 39.2 ± 1.22 ml/kg/h in buffalo calves recorded in this study was smaller than dogs (Matsui *et al.* 1984), unweaned calves (Soback and Ziv 1989), lactating and non-lactating cows (Rule *et al.* 1996) and cats (Albarellos *et al.* 2008). The value of Cl_B reported in dogs, unweaned calves, lactating and non-lactating cows and cats was 215 ± 3 , 105 ± 15.6 , 72.5 ± 18.1 , 185.9 ± 44.2 and 190 ± 80 ml/kg/h, respectively. Species differences are relatively common and are frequently related to inter-species variation, assay method used, the amount of time between blood samplings, the health status, the age of the animal, dosing, frequency of administration, dose extrapolation etc.

The urinary excretion of ceftazidime in buffalo calves is presented in Table 2. Ceftazidime is mostly eliminated by glomerular filtration (Soback and Ziv 1989; Verhagen *et al.* 1994, Albarellos *et al.* 2008). The cumulative percent of total dose excreted in urine, after SC administration was $29.9 \pm 5.34\%$ within 36 h. In contrast to our findings the cumulative per cent of ceftazidime excreted in urine of rats and dogs (Matsui *et al.* 1984) and mice (Kita *et al.* 1992) was 97.1, 86.3 and 77.9%, respectively. The peak urine level

Table 2. Urinary excretion of ceftazidime in buffalo calves after a single subcutaneous injection (10 mg/kg)

Time interval (h)	Concentration (μ g/ml)	Total (%) dose excreted
0-4	497.4 \pm 122.8	18.1 \pm 1.77
4-8	348.9 \pm 88.7	9.30 \pm 2.29
8-12	200.5 \pm 49.3	4.74 \pm 1.19
12-16	53.6 \pm 29.0	1.01 \pm 0.52
16-20	28.4 \pm 7.62	0.87 \pm 0.33
20-24	8.06 \pm 6.23	0.09 \pm 0.03
24-28	6.21 \pm 1.91	0.12 \pm 0.07
28-32	4.05 \pm 0.26	0.10 \pm 0.04
32-36*	3.44	0.18
0-36	-	29.9 \pm 5.34

The values given are mean \pm SE of the results obtained from 4-6 animals.*Values obtained from 2 animals.

of drug (497.4 ± 122.8 μ g/ml) was detected at 4 h and there after the level remain ≥ 8 μ g/ml in urine up to 24 h of administration. The concentration of ceftazidime in urine of buffalo calves remained higher than the MIC (0.25 to 8 μ g/ml) of most microorganisms (Soback and Ziv 1989, Moore *et al.* 2000, Casellas *et al.* 2003, Rhomberg *et al.* 2004, Albarellos *et al.* 2008) sensitive to the drug up to 24h. This suggested that use of ceftazidime in buffalo calves might achieve successful bacterial killing in urinary tract infection caused by microorganisms having susceptibility ≤ 8 μ g/ml.

The success of antimicrobial therapy is determined by complex interactions between an administered drug, a host, and an infecting agent. In a clinical situation, the complexity of these interactions is usually reflected by a high variability in the dose-response relationship. Therefore, to minimize the dose-response variability, key characteristics of the drug, the infecting agent and the host have to be taken into account for selecting an appropriate antibiotic and an appropriate dose. Failure to do so may result in either therapeutic failure or emergence of resistant strains. In recent years substantial efforts were devoted to systematically elucidate the dynamic relationship between pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic variables. The main concept of this pharmacokinetic-pharmacodynamic approach is to use the concentration-effect relationship of the drug of interest in dosage adjustment and product development in a logical way and minimize trial-and-error approaches (Derendorf 1989, Meibohm and Derendorf 1997).

For β -lactam antibiotics, the most important pharmacokinetic- pharmacodynamic index correlating with *in vivo* efficacy has been shown to be the duration that the unbound concentration of an antibiotic remains above the MIC as a percentage of the dosing interval (%T>MIC) (Craig 1998, Andes and Craig 2002). Their effect will increase with increasing concentrations until a finite point (the maximum kill rate) is reached. After that point, increasing concentrations will not produce a corresponding increase in the effect; therefore, high peak concentration will not help. For cephalosporins, a T > MIC 35-40% of the interdose interval has been established as optimal for bacteriostatic action, while a T > MIC of 60-70% is necessary for a bactericidal effect (Craig 1998, Toutain *et al.* 2002). The calculated T> MIC (%) after SC ceftazidime administrations and for two dosing intervals (8 and 12 h) are presented in

Table 3. Time above ceftazidime minimum inhibitory concentration (T > MIC) expressed as percentage of the inter-dose interval (8 or 12 h) for the subcutaneous (SC) administration to buffalo calves (10 mg/kg)

Inter-dose interval (h)	MIC (μ g/ml)		
	0.25	4.0	8.0
8	136.8	57.2	37.3
12	91.2	38.1	24.9

Table 3. In this study, subcutaneous ceftazidime administrations at dose of 10 mg/kg seem to be suitable for the inter-dose interval proposed (12 h) against bacterial isolates with MIC \leq 0.25 μ g/ml. Furthermore, clinical controlled trials are mandatory to establish proper ceftazidime dosing schedules in this species.

In conclusion, on the basis of the results reported above, ceftazidime (10 mg/kg) shows favourable pharmacokinetic behaviour, but needs to be evaluated for clinical efficacy and safety in disease conditions in buffalo species before issuing final recommendations. It would appear to be a good therapeutic tool for the treatment of most of the infections produced by gram-negative and gram-positive susceptible bacteria in buffalo calves.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The financial assistance provided by Council of Scientific and Industrial Research, New Delhi (India) in the form of research grant (Scheme no: 37(1395)/10/EMR-II) is gratefully acknowledged.

REFERENCES

- Abd-El-Aty A M, Goudah A and Abo-El-Sooud K. 2001. Pharmacokinetics, intramuscular bioavailability and tissue residue profiles of ceftazidime in a rabbit model. *Deutsche Tierärztliche Wochenschrift* **108**: 168–71.
- Albarellos G A, Ambros L A and Landoni M F. 2008. Pharmacokinetics of Ceftazidime after intravenous and intramuscular administration to domestic cats. *The Veterinary Journal* **178**: 238–43.
- Andes D and Craig W A. 2002. Animal model of pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics: A critical review. *International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents* **19**: 261–68.
- Arret B, Johnson D P and Krishbaum A. 1971. Outline of details for microbiological assay of antibiotics. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences* **60**: 1689–94.
- Carbon C, Dromer F, Brion N, Cremieux A C and Contrepois A. 1984. Renal disposition of ceftazidime illustrated by interference by probenecid, furosemide, and indomethacin in rabbits. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy* **26**: 373–77.
- Casellas J M, Tome G, Bantar C, Bertolini P, Blazquez N, Borda N, Couto E, Cudmani N, Guerrero J, Juarez M J, Lopez T, Littvik A, Mendez E, Notario R, Ponce G, Quinteros M, Salamone F, Sparo M, Sutich E, Vaylet S and Wolff L. 2003. Argentinean collaborative multicenter study on the in vitro comparative activity of piperacillin-tazobactam against selected bacterial isolates recovered from hospitalized patients. *Diagnostic Microbiology and Infectious Disease* **47**: 527–37.
- Craig W A. 1998. Pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic parameters: rationale for antibacterial dosing of mice and men. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* **26**: 1–12.
- Derendorf H. 1989. Pharmacokinetic evaluation of beta-lactam antibiotics. *Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy* **24**: 407–13.
- Gibaldi M and Perrier D. 1982. *Pharmacokinetics*. Marcell Dekker Inc., New York.
- Kita Y, Yamazaki T and Imada A. 1992. Comparative pharmacokinetics of SCE-2787 and related antibiotics in experimental animals. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy* **36**: 2481–86.
- Klein N C and Cunha B A. 1995. The selection and use of cephalosporins: a review. *Advances in Therapy* **17**: 83–101.
- Meibohm B and Derendorf H. 1997. Basic concepts of pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic (PK/PD) modelling. *International Journal of Clinical Pharmacology and Therapeutics* **35**: 401–13.
- Moore K W, Trepanier L A, Lautzenhiser S J, Fialkowski J P and Rosin E. 2000. Pharmacokinetics of Ceftazidime in dogs following subcutaneous administration and continuous infusion and the association with in vitro susceptibility of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *American Journal of Veterinary Research* **61**: 1204–8.
- Matsui H, Komiya M, Ikeda C and Tachibana A. 1984. Comparative pharmacokinetics of YM-13115, ceftriaxone and ceftazidime in rats, dogs and Rhesus monkeys. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy* **26**: 204–07.
- Rhomberg P R, Jones R N and Sader H S. 2004. The MYSTIC Programme (US) Study Group, Results from the Meropenem Yearly Susceptibility Test Information Collection (MYSTIC) Programme: report of the 2001 data from 15 United States medical centres. *International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents* **23**: 52–59.
- Rule R, Quiroga G H, Rubio M, Buschiazzo H O and Buschiazzo P M. 1996. The pharmacokinetics of Ceftazidime in lactating and non lactating cows. *Veterinary Research Communications* **20**: 543–50.
- Rule R, Rubio M and Perelli M C. 1991. Pharmacokinetics of Ceftazidime in sheep and its penetration into tissue and peritoneal fluids. *Research in Veterinary Science* **51**: 233–38.
- Sakata Y, McCracken G H, Thomas M L and Olsen K D. 1984. Pharmacokinetics and therapeutic efficacy of imipenem, ceftazidime, and ceftriaxone in experimental meningitis due to an ampicillin- and chloramphenicol-resistant strain of *Haemophilus influenzae* Type b. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy* **25**: 29–32.
- Sanchez-Navarro A and Sanchez Recio M M. 1999. Basis of anti-infective therapy: pharmacokinetic–pharmacodynamic criteria and methodology for dual dosage individualisation. *Clinical Pharmacokinetics* **37**: 289–304.
- Schentag J J, Nix D E and Adelman M H. 1991. Mathematical examination of dual individualization principles: Relationships between AUC above MIC and area under the inhibitory curve for cefmenoxime, ciprofloxacin, and tobramycin. *DICP, Annual Pharmacotherapy* **25**: 1050–57.
- Sharma S K and Pathania R. 2010. Pharmacokinetics of moxifloxacin in buffalo calves after single subcutaneous administration. *Indian Journal of Animal Sciences* **80**(6): 512–15.
- Soback S and Ziv G. 1989. Pharmacokinetics of Ceftazidime given alone and in combination with probenecid to unweaned calves. *American Journal of Veterinary Research* **50**: 1566–69.
- Toutain P L, del Castillo J R E and Bousquet-Me'lou A. 2002. The pharmacokinetic–pharmacodynamic approach to a rational dosage regimen for antibiotics. *Research in Veterinary Science* **73**: 105–14.
- Verhagen C A, Mattie H and van Strijen E. 1994. The renal clearance of cefuroxime and ceftazidime and the effect of probenecid on their tubular excretion. *British Journal of Clinical Pharmacology* **37**: 193–97.