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1	FOOI	O AND DRUG ADMINISTRATION (FDA)
2		Public Workshop
3	Advancing	Animal Models for Antibacterial Drug
4	Development	
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6		MEETING
7	DATE:	March 5, 2020
8	TIME:	8:30 a.m.
9	LOCATION:	FDA White Oak Campus
10		10903 New Hampshire Avenue
11		Bldg. 31 Conference Center
12		the Great Room
13		Silver Spring, MD, 20993
14	REPORTED BY:	KeVon Congo, Notary Public
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1	APPEARANCES	
2	John Farley, FDA	
3	Ursula Waack, FDA (ORISE Fellow)	
4	Abhay Joshi, FDA	
5	Judith Hewitt, NIH/NIAID	
6	Tina Guina, BARDA	
7	Yuliya Yasinskaya (Chair)	
8	Jennifer Hoover (Co-Chair)	
9	Lynn Miesel, Eurofins Scientific	
10	Brian Luna, University of Southern California	
11	Jþrgen Bulitta, University of Florida	
12	Matthew Lawrenz, University of Louisville	
13	Alexander Lepak, University of Wisconsin	
14	John Farley (Chair)	
15	Marina Kozak (Co-Chair)	
16	William Hope, University of Liverpool	
17	Thomas Walsh, Weill Cornell Medicine of Cornell	
18	University	
19	Binh Diep, University of California . San Francisco	
20	William Weiss, University of North Texas	
21	Andrew Phipps, Tunnell Government Services - BARDA	
22	Edward Weinstein, FDA	

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1	External:
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17	William Weiss University of North Texas
18	Cara Cassino ContraFect
19	Jennifer Hoover GlaxoSmithKline
20	Lynn Miesel Eurofins Scientific
21	Achim Wach Polyphor
22	

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	DR. JOHN FARLEY: Good morning,
	everyone. I.m John Farley. I.m acting director of
,	the Office of Infectious Diseases at the Center for
:	Drugs at FDA and I want to welcome you to the workshop
,	this morning. It.s our second workshop focusing on
	animal models. Title this morning is Advancing Animal
,	Models for Antibacterial Drug Development. So I think
;	what we.re going to do is begin with asking our
)	panelists to introduce themselves and any disclosures
)	they may wish to share, and then I.ll make some
=	introductory remarks, so I.ll start with Dr. Joshi.
)	DR. ABHAY JOSHI: Good morning. My
;	name is Abhay Joshi. I.m serving as the clinical
:	pharmacology reviewer with Division of Infectious
•	Disease Pharmacology at Office of Clinical
	Disease Pharmacology at Office of Clinical
	Disease Pharmacology at Office of Clinical Pharmacology with FDA.
	Disease Pharmacology at Office of Clinical  Pharmacology with FDA.  WILLIAM WEISS: Bill Weiss, director of
	Disease Pharmacology at Office of Clinical  Pharmacology with FDA.  WILLIAM WEISS: Bill Weiss, director of  preclinical services at University of North Texas
	Disease Pharmacology at Office of Clinical  Pharmacology with FDA.  WILLIAM WEISS: Bill Weiss, director of  preclinical services at University of North Texas  College of Pharmacy and working with Binh Diep on
	Disease Pharmacology at Office of Clinical  Pharmacology with FDA.  WILLIAM WEISS: Bill Weiss, director of  preclinical services at University of North Texas  College of Pharmacy and working with Binh Diep on  ventilator-associated rabbit model.

- 1 associate professor in the Division of Infectious
- 2 Diseases. My area of research is in microbial
- 3 pathogenesis, so we develop lots of rabbit models for
- 4 that purpose.
- DR. CARA CASSINO: Good morning. I.m
- 6 | Cara Cassino. I.m chief medical officer and head of
- 7 research and development at ContraFect. ContraFect is
- 8 | working on direct lytic agents as novel antibacterial
- 9 therapies and our lead compound, exebacase, is just
- 10 entered Phase 3. Thanks.
- DR. TINA GUINA: Hi. I.m Tina Guina.
- 12 | I.m program manager at Biomedical Advanced Research
- 13 Development Authority, BARDA. I have experience in
- 14 vaccine and therapeutics development, development of
- 15 animal models.
- 16 DR. ALEXANDER LEPAK: Hello. I am Alex
- 17 Lepak. I am from University of Wisconsin. My
- 18 research area is in using animal models in
- 19 particularly pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics for
- 20 drug optimization and drug development.
- 21 DR. MATTHEW LAWRENZ: My name is Matt
- 22 Lawrenz. I.m from the University of Louisville. We

	Page 6
1	do a lot of work there on biodefense and drug-
2	resistant pathogens and I.m going to tell you guys
3	today about some of the work we.re doing on a
4	pulmonary model for pseudomonas.
5	DR. LYNN MIESEL: I.m Lynn Miesel from
6	Pharmacology Discovery Services and we conduct
7	preclinical testing services for drug discovery and
8	we.re conducting model development and preclinical
9	testing services for NIAID.
10	DR. URSULA WAACK: I.m Ursula Waack.
11	I.m an ORISE post-doctorate fellow in the Office of
12	Infectious Diseases here at the FDA.
13	JENNIFER HOOVER: Jennifer Hoover. I
14	am the director of Preclinical Pharmacology Group at
15	GlaxoSmithKline Pharmaceuticals and I.ve been working
16	with animal models and PKPD in industry for over 25
17	years. Thanks.
18	YULIYA YASINSKAYA: Good morning. My
19	name is Yuliya Yasinskaya. I.m clinical team leader
20	in the Division of Anti-Infectives here at the FDA.
21	DR. SUMATHI NAMBIAR: Good morning.
22	Sumathi Nambiar, director, Division of Anti-

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- 1 Infectives.
- 2 DR. MARINA KOZAK: Marina Kozak,
- project officer in BARDA.s antibacterial program. 3
- 4 DR. ERIC NUERMBERGER: My name is Eric
- 5 Nuermberger. I.m a professor of medicine at Johns
- Hopkins University in the Division of Infectious 6
- 7 Diseases. My research interests are largely in anti-
- 8 mycobacterial agents in drug development in animal
- models. 9
- 10 DR. EDWARD WEINSTEIN: Good morning.
- My name is Ed Weinstein. I.m a clinical team leader 11
- 12 in the Division of Anti-Infectives.
- 13 Brad Spellberg, DR. BRADLEY SPELLBERG:
- LA County, USC Medical Center. I.m honestly a 14
- 15 recovering mycologist, but like a decade ago or so
- 16 moved into the gram-negative space, so we do a lot of
- 17 gram-negative research.
- 18 DR. JUDY HEWITT: Judy Hewitt, NIAID.
- 19 Lot of experience with animal models, mostly in
- biodefense, but also anti-microbial resistance. 20
- 2.1 DR. BRIAN LUNA: Brian Luna, USC. I.m
- 2.2 part of the group that.s going to be sharing about a

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- 1 | mouse model for setting Acinetobacter.
- DR. JURGEN BULITTA: Jurgen Bulitta,
- 3 University of Florida Antibiotic PK-PD (inaudible)
- 4 inhibition and (inaudible).
- 5 DR. KELLIE REYNOLDS: I.m Kellie
- 6 Reynolds, the director of Division of Infectious
- 7 | Disease Pharmacology in the Office of Clinical
- 8 | Pharmacology at FDA.
- DR. ANDREW PHIPPS: Good morning.
- 10 Andrew Phipps. I.m a contractor supporting BARDA in
- 11 | the areas of nonclinical development and animal
- 12 | models.
- DR. ACHIM WACH: Achim Wach, head of
- 14 drug metabolism and pharmacokinetics at Polyphor, a
- 15 Swiss biotech company and we are using cyclic peptide
- 16 derived structures to -- as antimicrobial agents.
- DR. SIMONE SHURLAND: Simone Shurland,
- 18 | Clinical Microbiology Review at the Division of Anti-
- 19 Infectives. Thank you.
- DR. JOHN FARLEY: Great, thanks.
- 21 Thanks very much, everyone, and thanks so much for
- 22 taking time out of your schedules to come together. I

think most of us would appreciate having about six hours to not be thinking about COVID-19, so that would be -- it.s actually sort of a little vacation.

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I want to also introduce James Byrne.

James, if you could stand up. Would that be okay,

just so folks who -- know who you are. James has done

most of the heavy lifting for us organizing this

workshop and if you have a question, he would be more

than happy to try and answer that today. and then

he.s sitting next to Thushi Amini, who.s our associate

director for research and she can also help out. So

thanks very much.

So animal models are used in antibacterial drug development for a number of purposes. They re used early in drug development, of course, but increasingly animals have played an important role in later drug development. So we re here today to discuss scientific progress since our last workshop, which was almost exactly three years ago and talk about ideas for future work and continued progress.

In that time, we.ve come together at

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FDA, NIAID, and BARDA to get a number of edgy projects up and going. It turns out that science is hard and you.ll get to hear a lot of that progress today. For models used early in drug development, we.ll have an opportunity to discuss variability and consider harmonization efforts. We.ll also hear about various resources that have been developed through the support of our HHS partner agencies.

We.ll then have a chance to hear about progress on the development of a number of animal models, generally intended for use in later drug development, talk about ideas to address a range of challenges as well as thoughts from you about where we ought to go from here. In terms of the regulatory role for these models, FDA.s hope is that they may one day be useful as supportive data to accompany a human clinical trial.

That human clinical trial would be anticipated to have a number of uncertainties including prior and concomitant antibacterial drug use. We.re hoping that the data from those models might help address some of those uncertainties.

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While we have much to learn from the development of animal models used in animal rule applications, such as the African green monkey model in plague -- and a number of folks sitting around the table played a big role in that -- the models that we.re working toward today would be expected to be part of a standard new drug application that would be anchored by a human clinical trial would not be expected to meet all of the animal rule regulatory standards, and as you.ll sort of figure out today, the science has a ways to go, even if we thought that that was an appropriate path to follow.

I think you.ll be very impressed by the work that has been done, but realize there.s much work ahead, so we.re very grateful for you taking the time to be here today. I.m going to begin by introducing our first couple of speakers who will lay the foundation for us. Our first speaker, if I.m correct, yeah, I am, is Ursula Waack. Dr. Waack received her PhD in micro and immunology from University of Michigan.

We.ve had the pleasure of having her as

a post-doctoral ORISE fellow here in the Office of 1 2 Infectious Diseases at the FDA, and previously she 3 completed a fellowship at USDA and she.s going to talk 4 about some work she.s done assessing animal models of 5 bacterial pneumonia that have been used in investigational new drug applications or IND 6 7 submissions to the FDA, focusing on bacterial 8 pneumonia. So I think, Ursula, do you want to do the podium? I think that might be easier. Okay, great. 9 10 Thanks so much. 11 DR. URSULA WAACK: Good morning, and 12 thank you, Dr. Farley. I.ll just wait for that to 13 get... As John said, I.m excited to talk to you about some of the research that I have conducted lately at 14 15 the FDA, looking at animal models and IND applications. I have no disclosures. So animal 16 17 models play an important bridge between nonclinical 18 development and clinical development, and very 19 broadly, they can be put into three categories: Kind of PKPD studies, safety or toxicology, and kind of 20 2.1 proof of concept. 2.2 So my goal and the research question I

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sought to answer was, is there a way to really understand the models that were used for proof of concept and are there ways to improve or harmonize these models. To do -- to answer this question, I made two different databases. So the first one, here on the left, was an IND database. So this is made from submissions -- for IND submissions to the FDA and we looked at those submitted to the Division of Anti-Infectives since January 1st, 2000.

This date was picked because that was pretty much the dawn of digitization here at the FDA and IND submitted after that time, we would have access to the records. And then using the search terms for pneumonia or bacterial infection, I looked through all the study reports to see and gather all of those that were pneumonia models, and we categorized those as any that were -- had inoculations into the respiratory tract.

I excluded studies that were specific for tuberculosis, cystic fibrosis, or biothreats, because we felt this was very specific models and we were looking at general models. So that left us with

27 unique INDs with 180 unique studies. For comparison, I also made a published studies database and we wanted this database to mirror the same conditions as our IND database.

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So we -- I searched PubMed using the terms animal model, pneumonia, and antibacterial, using the same timeframe as the IND database. As with the IND database, we looked for literature that had pneumonia models and excluded tuberculosis, cystic fibrosis, or biothreats. As all of the study reports in the IND database looked at treatment after bacterial inoculation, we did the same for our published studies and I removed those manuscripts that were coinfections with viruses such as influenza strains.

When you compare the two databases, there were 22 studies that overlapped and were in both databases, so to prevent duplication, I removed those from the published study database, but kept them in the IND. So that left us with 137 papers and 377 studies. So what did I find? Well, we first looked at the bacterial side of things, so here I.m showing

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on this graph the bacterial strain -- species that were used in the IND database. On the X axis, we have the time, and this was -- the study report was completed, and on the Y axis is the number of studies.

So we did notice those gram-negatives and gram-positives we used throughout, but gram-positives shown in the black and the gray bars were more prevalent toward the beginning of our time period, and as you can see towards the end, we don.t have any gram-positive in our submissions, and we think the rise of the gram-negative may be due to the rise of antimicrobial resistance.

We did try to look to see if there were common strains within our bacterial species, but we believe that because companies use either internal numbering or unique clinical strains, we couldn.t find a common strain among our species. Now, when you compare that to what we found in the published studies, we see a much greater variety of bacterial species including some of the more uncommon, like legionella, but we don.t see that trend of more grampositives.

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You can see the black and the gray bar are throughout the whole time period and just like with the IND figure, we have time on the X axis, and this was the year the manuscript was published, and then studies on the Y. So now, I then looked at the animal side of the models, so here I am showing on the Y axis the species and that.s further subdivided through the inoculation route and number of studies on the Y.

So if you look at the IND specific database here on the left, you can see that there were three bacterial -- animal species used, so mouse, rabbit, and rat, and predominantly mouse models are the most commonly used, and the majority of them are intranasal inoculation. Now, rats were also used, but they were mostly intrabronchial and intratracheal. Now compare that to the published database on the right, we have once again more variety.

So we had guinea pigs and pigs;
although, mice are the predominant animal species.

And we see more variety in inoculation route.

Although intranasal does make up the majority of the

inoculation route, we do see more along the intratracheal and the oral, but we see the same trend with the larger animals using the intratracheal and the intrabronchial inoculations.

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Interestingly, when I was looking through the IND database, we had no studies that had ventilator-associated pneumonia. We do see a few in the literature; those are mostly the pig models. So that is an avenue where we.re lacking some animal models here at the FDA.

Then, we wanted to ask, is there another reason why we would use one animal species over the other, so we looked at time for the studies. So here in this graph, I.m showing the animal species on the X axis and the number of studies on the Y, and the animal species are then subdivided into the length of studies. This is all hours post-infection and if you concentrate here with the IND models on the left, with our mouse model, you can see that the predominant time is that 24 to 27 hour post-infection.

And this tends to correlate with about 24 to 26 hours past the start of treatment, so these

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are much shorter, more acute pneumonia models. With
the rat and the rabbit, we see those tend to go for
the longer studies, especially with the rat we have a
large amount of 96 to 119, so more the four days.
Compared to the literature model, we see the same
trend. Within the mice, the largest amount of studies
are within that 24 to 47, but as we.ve seen before
with other variables, there.s a lot more variety, so
we know that it.s possible to have mice models that go
longer; although, that.s not the most commonly used.
And once again, with the larger
animals, we see that it goes for longer amount of time
periods. Another part of study design that we looked
at was what endpoint was commonly used. So here, if
we have IND database once again on the left and
published literature on the right, and in the blue we

And then the IND database, we had equal amounts of use of dose for 50 percent survival or survival, and that could be percent survival or time for survival. Compare that to the published

have bacterial load and you can see for both databases

bacterial load was the most commonly used endpoint.

literature, once again, the bacterial load is the most common, but we do see a few more percentage of this survival, which may be a more clinical relevant endpoint.

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Our last question that we were wondering was the use of neutropenic or immunocompetent models. So here on the left, we have the IND database and that.s divided into whether the animal was neutropenic or immunocompetent and the first thing we notice is the numbers of studies in general were very similar.

However, when you look at the distribution when compared to the inoculation group, you see that in the neutropenic animals, the predominant model is intranasal. And if you recall from previous slides, this corresponds with mice, so our most common model for the IND database was mice that were neutropenic, inoculated intranasally. The immunocompetent animals within the IND database encompassed -- there was really no trend for any particular one and they were evenly used.

We saw similar trends and once again,

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drug programs.

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just a little bit more variety in the published literature database with the neutropenic model being -- the most common being intranasal, but you can see here from the graph on the right that the intratracheal and the oral weren.t that far behind in numbers of studies. But the overall numbers comparing the neutropenic and the immunocompetent were, once again, very similar, so without taking into account any other reason for wanting neutropenic or immunocompetent, there seems to be standard amounts of neutropenic and immunocompetent models used in both databases. So my work has brought up a few main conclusions and one thing that we found is the study design was highly variable. We were hoping to find a way to use these models to maybe help predict, but the problem we ran into is that there.s so many different design choices and everyone makes very different

So this is really an opportunity for harmonization. Is there a way that we can harmonize

design choices that it.s impossible to compare across

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these models to help compare across programs, for example, with the bacterial strains, having everyone either report or use common bacterial strains like ATC strains or banked strains? Another thing that we were actually surprised is looking at the differences between the IND database and the published literature database.

Now, these are distinct datasets.

There.s very little overlap, only 22 studies. So the trends were very similar, despite being distinct, but if you think about it, there.s only 22 studies that were in both, so that means when reviewers get these reports, the majority of these reports have not yet been published and so the populace will also not see some of those reports unless that drug is approved. So that just gives you an idea that not everyone is seeing the same data.

A few more conclusions that we can draw is that both neutropenic and immunocompetent animals were used in the models and that studies with the neutropenic mice inoculated intranasally were the most common. And in general, mice were utilized for the

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short-term studies, so less than 48 hours, so that corresponds to about 24 hours of treatment and larger animals for the longer term studies, so the greater than 48 hours, and then also bacterial load is the most popular endpoint. I.d like to acknowledge by colleagues here at the FDA and the ORISE Institute for my funding and I have two minutes for questions if there... DR. JOHN FARLEY: Any questions from the panel? DR. URSULA WAACK: All right. DR. JOHN FARLEY: So I think two of the things that we could probably talk about as we hear from presenters down -- the rest of the morning is,

things that we could probably talk about as we hear from presenters down -- the rest of the morning is, you know, I think -- I do want to thank Dave Schlaze for actually suggesting a critical tweak to this project that I think produced at least some interesting observations for sure.

The one thing that.s apparent to me is that the models that support the development of the drugs that ultimately getting approved, those models don.t get published and I think that that.s something

we can -- that companies can be thinking about because getting those out into peer-reviewed publications early, I think, would be in the public good.

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And I think the other piece that we can talk about down the road is efforts toward harmonizing these models, not just from sort of a reviewer perspective, but from an ability to kind of look at your molecule and compare it to others, perhaps, that are either already developed or in development as well. So just some things to think about. Any other thoughts from the panel before we move on?

about harmonization. If you look at these models, neutropenic versus non-neutropenic, a lot of that is dictated by the strain themselves, in particular the endpoints also. Klebsiella and pseudomonas are easy to get a survival endpoint as well as CFU.

Acinetobacter is a bit of an issue for that, getting a CFU endpoint. Harmonizing for ATCC strains, I know that.s been discussed before.

If we.re looking to treat multidrug resistance, I mean, that really is what you want to be

looking at, and this day and age, I mean, we work with a lot of companies that have basically no funding to look at just ATCC strains, you go right for the multidrug resistant strains.

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Animals, again, a lot of companies need to work with larger animals. A lot of that is dictated by their formulations, their solubilities of their test articles. I think it.s going to be very hard to do that across labs. I don.t know the mechanism, how we could actually do that because there.s just so much variability in this business.

DR. BRADLEY SPELLBERG: John, could I I was going to reserve comments until the panel
discussion, but since you raised the issue, when we
first moved into Acinetobacter research, I was kind of
shocked by the limited state of knowledge of actual
virulence factors and actual pathogenesis, and one of
the crippling aspects of acineto specifically, I think
less so pseudomonas, is the reliance upon strains that
are essentially nonvirulent, the reliance upon use of
microbiological endpoints that cause no physiological
significance in mice, and in order to get relevant

physiological clinical endpoints, you have to cripple the immune systems of the mice in a way that is not relevant to the vast majority of patients who develop these infections.

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So I would reiterate, actually, your statement, John. There needs to be, if we.re going to advance understanding at a molecular, basic level that is relevant to patients, we need to be using models that mimic the clinical environment and not simply rely on, well, I.m going to drop the CFUs and -- by a log or two in 24 hours in mice that have normal pH, don.t experience leukocytosis, don.t experience illness behavior, and have no physiological or clinical signs or symptoms of infection, and aren.t crippled immunologically in a way that is distinct from how 90 percent of patients who get the infections are.

DR. JOHN FARLEY: Great. And we.ll be hearing -- I.m sorry, go ahead Jurgen.

DR. JURGEN BULITTA: It.s a similar -for your analysis, did you see any trend towards,
perhaps, better behaved drugs, like if you.re do a new

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cephalosporin or a new quinolone, to be used predominantly in the mouse model and perhaps the peptide antibiotics or new mechanism of action drugs, leveraging some the more advanced, larger animal species? Any trend like this in your database? DR. URSULA WAACK: So you.re asking if, in the mouse, if there were for newer ones and the larger for... DR. JURGEN BULITTA: I did -- was there any trend towards one drug class being more or less used in different elements, because you really want to look at more, whatever toxicity, perhaps, for peptide antibiotics in the kidneys, so which... DR. URSULA WAACK: No we looked at a lot of variables. One of them was class and then the bacterial load. A lot of variables I didn.t point out, so we didn.t see a trend, so -- and we aren.t suggesting that there.s going to be one model for everything. There might be something specifically for Acinetobacter, something specifically for pseudomonas,

but if you.re trying to compare two drugs and they.re

essentially treating the same bacterial species on the

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same time, there.s still a lot of variability even across that, so it.s kind of hard to compare. And we don.t know what the best model is going to be. don.t have any data that says, using black 6 mice is better than using BALB/c mice or anything like that. DR. JOHN FARLEY: Great. Thanks. going to go ahead and move on to our next speaker, so that.s Abhay Joshi. Dr. Joshi is a -- in our Office of Clinical Pharmacology and is -- I had the pleasure of working with him serving both divisions in the Office of Infectious Diseases as well as working providing subject matter expertise for us on a number of these animal model contracts. So he.s got some kind of global observation to get started with and get people thinking and he.s going to talk about the PK considerations in animal models for antibacterial drug development. DR. ABHAY JOSHI: Thank you, Dr.

DR. ABHAY JOSHI: Thank you, Dr.

Farley. This is my disclaimer for my talk. So the objective and scope of today.s talk is to discuss pharmacokinetic consideration -- still closer? Is it better? Okay. So objective and scope of my talk is

to discuss pharmacokinetic considerations for animal infection model experiments that are conducted during the late stages of antibacterial drug development.

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For the purposes of my talk, late stage is defined as at or after the point in a drug development program when a dosage regimen for clinical efficacy study has been determined. So the potential value of conducting animal model experiment in late stages is that it allows you to compare or screen activity of a drug under development against hard to treat pathogens which are not always being used during the early stages of drug development. And for this late stages, the key consideration is what dosing is being evaluated in these animal model experiments.

So based on the literature and experiences we have with this type of models, there are mainly two types of approaches that are used to select a dosing regimen. One is based on bacterial killing and the second is based on drug exposure. So first, based on bacterial killing or Approach A, our dosing is selected for animal infection model that will give the same extent of bacterial killing

expected in human in a patient who receives the clinical dosage regimen.

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And this is achieved by giving -- by matching or exceeding the PKPD targets, known PKPD targets for drug, or selecting a dosing that would give drug concentration time profile that will achieve desirable bacterial killing. So it.s -- the dosing is given to match the bacterial killing, not necessarily the same extent of drug exposure. In the Approach B, based on drug exposures, a dosing is selected in animal model which would give three drug exposures in a selected animal infection model that is comparable to exposure we might see in a patient who receive a clinical dosage regimen. For the purposes of my talk, I will call this approach as a humanized dosing.

For late stages animal model experiments, it appears that humanized dosing is a preferred approach because it is a more comprehensive approach than both of those approach. The rationale is that it avoids any uncertainties associated with the use of PKPD target estimates and also it mimics the overall drug exposure cycles anticipated in

humans, so by that, if a novel drug has any known or unknown mechanistic or dynamic relationship with bacterial killing, this approach would still cover that scenario.

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Now, there are differences in drug elimination rate between animal and human, and mostly the drug gets cleared faster than animal models, so it.s little bit challenging to come up with the dosing strategy that would give us humanized dosing. The potential dosing strategy that can be considered is a staggered continuous infusion and/or intermittent dosing. In next few slides, I will go over briefly about these approaches and give one example how it might look like in animal infection models.

To start with staggered continuous infusion, the figure here on the left provides an hypothetical example how a humanized dosing would look like from staggered continuous infusion. The Y axis represents the free drug concentrations. X axis represents the clinical dosing interval in time. The black lines represents the free drug concentration range anticipated in human from a clinical dosage

regimen and the red line represents the drug concentration in animal model from humanized dosing using continuous infusion.

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There are advantages and disadvantages of this approach. Advantage is that it provides flexible dosing options and it provides more opportunity to match the human-equivalent drug exposures. However, disadvantage is that infusion may not be suitable throughout for all animal infection models, and also, it requires relatively complex experiment setup and dosing calculations.

So I.ll give one example of meropenem.

Figure on the left shows unpublished data which -
preliminary data of ongoing work in ventilator
associated pneumonia rabbit model. Again, same, Y

axis is meropenem concentration and X axis is time.

The line in green represents concentrate -- meropenem concentration in rat patients receiving 2 gram dose every eight hours via three-hour infusion.

And on the red line represents the meropenem concentration data in a rat -- uninfected rabbit model. So the researchers reached to this

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humanized dosing after multiple PK experiments which informed how to achieve humanized dosing with staggered continuous infusion and it used a complex experiment setup using programmable infusion pumps. You will hear more specific details about this example in future -- in afternoon presentation or in -- during the panel discussion. The second approach via intermittent dosing is a hypothetical example on the left in the figure. red line represents the three drug concentrations when multiple IV bolus or subcutaneous dosing is given over the time interval. The advantage of this strategy is that it.s related to the simple experiment setup, it.s feasible for most type of animal models. However, disadvantage is that this strategy might not always possible to get the humanized exposure. It depends on the drug properties and it provides relatively coarse drug concentration time profile and because it uses multiple doing, there might be high peak of variability. So if you look at example for the intermittent dosing, figure on the left represents

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data from murine pneumonia model, the line, blue, black, and purple, represents the drug concentration from a -- in critically ill patients who receives 2 gram meropenem dose every eight hours via 30-minutes infusion and the green line represents that dosing -- drug exposures in animal model when we use intermittent dosing.

You will hear more details about this example as well as the other drugs in the morning session presentation. It should be noted that for this example, the level of refinement dependent on how many doses you can administer in a day and there are additional experiments are still being considered to see if meropenem clearance can be slowed down with cilastatin or probenecid so then it is more comparable to human exposures.

So regardless of what dosing strategy is being used, the key component is to match the human exposure. And for that, it is critical to have confidence in a drug exposure estimates that.s coming out of this animal model. And for that, it is important to perform supportive assessments. This

supportive assessment should include bioanalytical method of validation for all the relevant matrices, such as determining assessment of sensitivity, selectivity, accuracy, precision, as well as sample stability.

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Also, since we are attempting to match three drug exposures, it is important to have protein binding information for both in animal and in humans. And since these are late stages of -- late-stage experiments, it.s preferred that for both bioanalytical methods and protein binding methods uses the same methods that are used for clinical studies. Also, to determine humanized dosing, some prior dose ranging peak experiments would be needed.

And also, it is preferred that confirmatory peak assessments are done in the selected animal model so that it gives the confidence that indeed, humanized exposures were achieved. So I would like to summarize by saying that the humanized dosing appears advantageous to select for late-stage of animal infection model experiments and it is important to perform thorough supportive PK assessments.

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Due to time constraints, I won.t be able to discuss all the PK considerations, but we are hoping to discuss this topic as well as additional topics such as drug exposure at site of infection and are there any disadvantages of humanized dosing in addition to logistics and feasibility issues in certain situations during -- we are hoping to get feedback during the panel discussion and as we move along with workshop.

With that, I would like to thank all the individuals who have contributed on this topic as well as attendees for their time and constant attention. Thank you.

DR. JOHN FARLEY: Great, thanks very much. I think I.m going to postpone panel discussion until we.ve got to sink our teeth into a little bit more data and talk further. So thanks very much for laying that groundwork. I think next up we have Dr. Judy Hewitt who has worked in this field for quite a long time. She.s currently deputy director of the Office of Biodefense Research, Resources, and Translational Resources at NIAID and she.s going to

tell us about preclinical services at NIAID.

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DR. JUDITH HEWITT: Thanks, John. I appreciate the opportunity to be here. It.s been nice to collaborate with FDA and BARDA over the years on these models, so we.re happy to participate again. I also have no conflicts as a federal employee.

website. Really just kind of tells you what our mission is to lead research to understand, treat, and prevent infectious immunologic and allergic diseases and so this topic really plays into that very nicely. We are really more in the early research stages and I will show you that in the next slide where I.m showing all of the various funding mechanisms that we use to support these areas of research.

Our real goal is to reduce product development risk and so in the background you have the typical drug development pipeline. Across the top in the orange box, I have grants shown and these go everywhere from hit to lead basic research all the way through Phase 1. That really should be a series of orange boxes, because there s not one grant that s

going to get you the whole way, but we do fund some clinical research through the grant mechanism.

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We also have product development contracts through -- which we award through broad agency announcements or BAAs, and that.s where we.re giving the sponsor money to directly support their development of their own product. I.m going to spend a little more time -- and we have one on the street right now and the applications are due April 9th. I.m going to spend a little bit more time talking about preclinical services, but I do also want to mention that we have some Phase 1 capabilities, so all of these green boxes are contracts, and so they.re -- you know, we.re giving money to accomplish a particular task and get some return on that, some deliverables back to the government.

This Phase 1 VTU, IDCRC, ARLG box really describes all of our clinical activities. The ARLG being the Antimicrobial Resistance Leadership Group and we have some NIAID folks here representing that group as well. I also want to mention the Concept Acceleration Program where we are mining our

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grant portfolio, looking for promising new concepts and trying to move them forward, whether it.s through preclinical services or helping them to get additional data so that they can move further along, perhaps get a grant or a contract.

And of course, then the goal is to, you know, this dotted line is sort of the end of the pipeline that NIAID can fund, and the goal is really to pass things over that hurdle to BARDA, back to industry, whoever the advanced development partner may be. So what do our preclinical services provide?

I.ll show you in more detail what the preclinical services are on the next slide, but here, I.m showing you some of the features of it.

So the first one is that we.re lowering risk with our activities. We have a lot of expertise and capability within our office and our division based on experience through these grants and contracts, and so we want to bring that expertise and capability to support others as they.re developing their products. As I mentioned before, we want to move promising discoveries along the drug development

pipeline through our Concept Acceleration Program.

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These preclinical services are intended to be gap filling. They re not intended to provide a full development program. We want to get you a data package that will help you in your next grant or contract application. And of course, before we provide these preclinical services, we sign an agreement with you called a Nonclinical Evaluation Agreement where we re assuring you that you will retain all the intellectual property and confidentiality. We discuss publication rights and things like that, so that all part of that agreement.

So this slide shows the preclinical services in a nutshell that we provide. We do this for both therapeutic and vaccines. I.m going to focus, really, on the therapeutic side which is the blue circle on the left here. So we provide in vitro screening, medicinal chemistry, lead identification, and lead optimization, chemical synthesis and process development, in vitro admit, and really this pharmacokinetics should be its own separate bullet

because that also includes in vivo activities as well.

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in the course of today.

And then this center bullet or group

here are services that are really common to vaccine

and therapeutic development, so things like reagents.

We develop and distribute those through our BEI

Resources Repository. I.m going to show you that in a

moment. We do a lot of animal model development and

you.re going to hear quite a bit about that in this --

We can also perform in vivo screening and efficacy testing so the in vivo screening, really being more proof of concept data, the efficacy testing being more under GLP conditions. We do product development planning, so many of the early promising discoveries that are coming out of academic labs, investigators don.t always have all of the knowledge they need to get something into the product development pipeline, and so we can help them with planning how they can get -- move their activities forward.

Safety and toxicology testing. Often, we find that this is a critical missing element in

somebody being able to move their package forward, and we.re happy to provide that. And, of course, we can do manufacturing including, under GMP, we can do lot release testing audits and CMC documentation.

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So we.ve done a lot of work, in particular at the -- as I mentioned, at the early end of screening new candidate therapeutics, and so we.ve worked on a lot of animal models of bacterial infections and this slide at sort of high level summarizes the animal models that we have available for testing candidate therapeutics, and so these little icons on the left here indicate whether it.s a mouse or a hamster.

So for the escape pathogens, we have quite a few animal models available. We have the 24-hour thigh and lung infection and this is for all escape pathogens and we are very much committed to trying to use strains that are available to everyone. We.re using the FDA/CDC strains. One thing of note that we.ve done through some of these is we.ve done some PKPD baselining in the thigh infection model and so we have data on ceftazidime, levo, and colistin and

we can make that available.

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We re in the process of trying to get that information publicly available, but I.ll come back to how you can access that data at the end. We have peritonitis models, also ascending UTI, and in parenthesis, for all of these I.m showing you the pathogens that we have available. A 120-hour lung infection for pseudomonas. Chronic lung infections for models representing CF using pseudomonas and Staph. aureus, and chronic infections in CF.

Also Neisseria gonorrhoeae infections and C. difficile. These are also important, maybe not the focus of all the talks today, but they.re important in antimicrobial resistant pathogens for us. So this slide is our BEI Resources Repository website and so you see this graphic when you get to the website. There are a couple that scroll through that are recent highlights, and so this one in particular is that we now provide through this resource a pseudomonas collection.

This was developed by Rare and so we.re making that available through BEI Resources. It.s

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really important that we make all of these strains available to the research community and this is another -- let me back up. There one other thing I want to point out here. We also have links here to the Antimicrobial Resistance Leadership Group as well as -- I.m not sure if I.m pointing to the right place -- the FDA/CDC isolate. So when you go to our BEI website, you can connect to all of these important resources.

This is another screenshot within the BEI Resources, and what I want to point out here is when you go to the antimicrobial, there.s a search function and so you can pick the bacterial species.

You can pick a drug and you can pick whether it is -- whether you.re looking for sensitive or resistant strains, and so we.re making it very easy to go through our vast catalog and find the strains that you might be interested in particular.

So please, if you.re interested in using that, please register for that resource. You know, we.re finding that some people -- we.re also distributing coronavirus through this and you have to

get through the registration process, which is not onerous, but you need to do that before you can actually order new materials.

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So we.re also a participant in the CARB-X program that you.re going to hear more about today. This is a global public-private partnership.

There.s a lot of funding dedicated to this and you can see across the top here all of the partners in this program.

NIAID is providing in-kind resources, so not direct money, to the CARB-X funded programs, but through our preclinical services we are accessing some of the preclinical services that I mentioned before to help candidates progress through the pipeline and so we.re using our expertise as well as our money to move things along, so this is a summary of the many, many projects that have been helped through that program, but this next slide shows a little bit more detail what our division has provided in the way of support for a lot of the CARB-X projects.

So we.ve supported 59 projects and that

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includes six of the graduate programs. One thing that we have learned is that prior to the CARB-X award, many of the successful CARB-X programs had some support from NIAID in the way of grants or our preclinical services or even our product development contracts through BAA, so 32 of those projects have been helped by our services post-award -- so this is post-CARB-X award -- we.ve supported 36 projects and obviously there.s some overlap between these and we.ve conducted more than 180 studies to move these CARB-X projects along the pipeline.

So in my last slide here, I.m just giving you come contact information if you want to contact us about any of these preclinical services.

So your program officer in all likelihood is going to be someone in our bacteriology and mycology branch, potentially also our office. I mentioned that we.re very much in favor of standardizing animal models, harmonizing, making strains and reagents available.

And so Ann Eakin in our office, she.s actually the concept accelerator for DMID for therapeutics and so if I can get Ann to wave her hand,

she.s in the audience, and her email is Ann. Eakin@NIH.gov. she is the one that can get you information about the standardization of the models that we have performed through many of these preclinical services and I.m only giving this talk because she was originally supposed to be in Italy right now. So please contact us. You can contact us directly for any of these services. The people who run those services will get you to the right person if they.re not the one, so thank you for your attention. DR. JOHN FARLEY: Thanks very much, Judy, and we.ll have time during the panel discussion if folks have further questions. So we.re going to move on and hear about CARB-X from Dr. Guina who.s

currently the CARB-X program manager at BARDA, has about 25 years of experience in infectious disease

18 research, so thanks very much, tina.

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DR. TINA GUINA: All right, thank you very much, John. Good morning. I want to thank our FDA colleagues for putting together this workshop. I have been working this space in industry, in academia,

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in government for many years and I think these are absolutely critical questions to be addressed. I think they re also very important for our innovators who are companies and everybody else who is trying to get funding by CARB-X portfolio and getting funding from different government agencies.

The reason why we are presenting today and talking about CARB-X is because it sort of provides really nice snapshot of what our current global efforts in development of new solutions for therapies, vaccines, and diagnostics or that are addressed in drug resistant bacterial infections.

CARB-X is a global nonprofit

partnership that was put together by U.S. government
in collaboration with Wellcome Trust and Boston

University in 2016 to address drug-resistant infection
with the understanding that the preclinical global
pipeline of antibiotics was really dwindling and many
different reports by governments, by Pure Trust and by
WHO and many other organization have shown that there
is a serious lack of innovation and considering the
increased -- continuous increase in resistance, it was

pretty clear that new solutions are needed.

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Since 2018, we were very fortunate to also have partners from U.K. government, German government, and Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation join our team. All funders and Boston University contribute significantly to funding and also to strategic vision of CARB-X, which is continuously adapting depending, you know, on all the findings that we together collaboratively, as colleagues and organizations and sponsors, arrived to, based on our studies, research, and product development challenges.

In addition to funders and Boston
University, we also joined by various global
accelerators that provide (inaudible) technical and
business support to CARB-X companies and, of course,
the most important component of this partnership are
our innovators and product developers and I.ll talk
about it little bit in full in slides.

So I mentioned CARB-X funds candidates that address serious bacterial threats. Our current strategy is that projects must address specific bacterial infections that are on antibiotic resistant

threats list issued by the CDC or the Priority
Bacterial Pathogens List published by WHO which
actually overlap significantly. In terms of our
vaccine strategy recently, we have asked all
applicants to consider recommendations that are
provided in vaccines to Tackle Drug-Resistant
Infections Report by Wellcome Trust.

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Our current portfolio includes
therapeutics, both traditional and nontraditional
approaches, preventives such as vaccines, microbiome
antibodies, and other and rapid diagnostics for
pathogen identification and antibacterial
susceptibility testing.

Therapeutics and preventatives are funded from hit to lead stage through the first in human clinical studies and diagnostics are funded at the development stage of feasibility demonstration through systems integration and testing just before they commence clinical development.

As I mentioned previously, in addition to funding CARB-X provides significant scientific, regulatory, and business expertise and support. This

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may not be so important for some more established companies, but for some of our companies which are literally virtual companies with maybe three medicinal cabinets which have maybe 20, 30 years of experience in drug development but they don.t have the know-how in absolutely all aspects of product development.

This is very, very important aspect of CARB-X.

Depending on company needs and sort of the potential regulatory and technical challenges for their product development, CARB-X puts together company support teams that includes representatives from different global accelerators and also it is really important to mention that they also pull in many people from CARB-X Scientific Advisory Board, some of which are people who worked in industry or in academia on research in this space in animal models for over 20 years.

Many of them have come back from retirement because they.re very enthusiastic about this program. They really want to help. They want to make sure that we move forward as quickly, as efficiently as possible and that we support our

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innovators. So all these services are of no cost to product developers and they.re sort of in-kind and all of our companies, as Dr. Judy Hewitt mentioned, have streamlined access to NIAID preclinical services, so they benefit from CARB-X ecosystem.

There are also many seminars, webinars, educational opportunities, and different conferences where our CARB-X innovators can interact with all the funders, with other members of CARB-X ecosystem and also interact with each other, and we re actually improving that as we go along.

So this slide shows our portfolio as of February 1st, 2020 and it includes both current companies, current programs in the portfolio as well as six programs that graduated, five of which have actually completed first in human Phase 1 clinical trials. As you can see, there has been really excellent progress considering the fact that many of these companies and many product developers are really working on very innovative and very challenging programs, so I really commend them for that.

We are excited to say that one

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diagnostic program that graduated recently for CARB-X Portfolio has received a contract award by BARDA for advanced research and development, and we definitely look forward to supporting more of our CARB-X graduates. So what is in a CARB-X Portfolio? Therapeutics, really, represent about 70 percent of our portfolio and because today.s workshop is focused on therapeutics, I.ll talk a little bit more about that. In terms of direct acting therapeutics, vast majority of which are small molecules, you can see that current portfolio addresses various biosynthetic pathways and bacterial cell including cell wall synthesis, DNA synthesis, protein synthesis, and we have couple of really interesting, very novel approaches to inhibiting fatty acid biosynthesis, and there are a couple of others. Several of these have very new mechanism of action and when I talk about novel mechanism of action, I.m talking about what is currently available as approved drug and many of these who actually are addressed in -- previously addressed therapeutics and approved -- sorry, targets in

approved drugs, they actually are, in most cases, target another site in same, and same with protein. So there is a high level of innovation.

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We are really very excited and proud to say that almost one half of our current therapeutics portfolio includes nontraditional therapeutics which - with very wide away of approaches to address bacterial infections and create new therapeutic solutions. These include antivirulence factors. For example, here Antabio is working on an inhibitor of pseudomonas toxin. Microbiotix is working on type 3 secretion inhibitor in pseudomonas. BioVersys is working on Staph. aureus inhibitor virulence factors, and (inaudible), our new member of portfolio, is developing an antibody therapeutic that addresses biofilm and other -- it's a broad spectrum bacterial infection potential therapeutic.

Then we have several potential areas which address membrane permeability, (inaudible) is working on an inhibitor of bacterial reflux pump.

ContraFect has two products in our portfolio with phage lysing and also broad-spectrum antibacterial

peptides. We have couple of other peptides and very interesting amino acid polymer being developed by Amicrobe and then several microbiome candidates.

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In other category, we have interesting immune therapeutics, antibodies that actually inhibit certain aspects of bacterial surface and attachment to the host and then several peptide nucleic acid fusion candidates that either inhibit essential enzyme in bacterial cell or potentially will inhibit virulence regulators. So you can see that this level of innovation is well beyond what we expected and what our partners expected when we started this program, so really excited to continue working with innovators and help them the best we can.

So obviously, we.re coming back to the aspect of talking about the animal models. They.re absolutely essential tools for us to -- for all of our innovators to establish the proof of concept in product development, but also they.re really increasingly used as our colleagues talked about this morning, as tools to actually evaluate PKPD and probability of target -- probability of target

1	attainment in clinical studies, so they.re
2	increasingly used even in the later stage development,
3	so CARB-X is committed to help innovators and
4	collaborate with all of you here in the room and more
5	broadly to establish best practices and guide
6	developers in utilizing these animal models to
7	mitigate development risk and to support their product
8	clinical pharmacology dossier.
9	So obviously, there are a number of
10	animal models that are of interest and indications
11	that may be challenging, so we.ve been talking a lot
12	today about pneumonia and that is definitely something
13	that.s very challenging to us. We also interested in
14	understanding how animal models can actually

And then also we have number of candidates that are nontraditionals and there are spectrum indications in animal model efficacy and animal models and PKPD studies can be really essential to enhance the dossiers and hopefully provide additional evidence then in support of efficacy plane.

contribute to MDR pathogen studies and our

understanding of efficacy in MDR pathogen area.

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Of course, this is just tip of the iceberg because we have number of antivirulence candidates. I hope that future workshops and discussions will talk about how, actually, what are the critical studies to show that these antivirulence candidates could be efficacious and predict their clinical efficacies and what is the regulatory pathway.

And CARB-X and many others in this room are committed to evaluating different animal nephrotoxicity model and their translation to clinic, because they.re really important safety aspect for a number of our therapeutic candidates, especially for peptides.

So here.s some questions that our colleagues for CARB-X R&D team have put forth here for this audience and panel -- esteemed panelists to consider. So obviously, we have -- we.re going to discuss a lot today. What are the best models that translate in vitro activity for direct and indirect acting agents for Acinetobacter and pseudomonas pneumonias? In addition to that, our questions are, when we.re considering nontraditional agents, are the

best predicted models the same as those used for direct acting agents?

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I.m thrilled that actually here on the panel we have several members and several developers who are working on some of these nontraditional agents and I look forward to hearing from them about their experiences and hopefully we can have quite a robust discussion on that. And for peptides and other nontraditional agents that actually do have pretty good broad spectrum activity but perhaps have higher activity for pseudomonas and Acinetobacter, what is the best demonstration of efficacy to justify in our clinical focus?

And I don.t know if this workshop will address that, but this is a continuous question and it.s really important for developers who are working in this really difficult space and trying to position their products. So -- and I think, I believe that may be a topic for some additional workshops in the future, will be what are the best models to translate in vitro activity for Neisseria gonorrhoeae infections.

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So in addition to CARB-X and efforts of NIAID preclinical services, just wanted to say that BARDA also has nonclinical development effort which has been stood up primarily to support biodefense indications in animal models that actually support approval of drugs and vaccines for under animal rule; however, several of our task partners and contracts have also been awarded to support some work in this space and Dr. Andrew Phipps will talking later today about person model of ventilator-acquired bacterial pneumonia caused by Pseudomonas aeruginosa.

And in the end, I want to acknowledge all our partners, especially CARB-X R&D team and CARB-X core at Boston University and again first -- and really most importantly our product sponsors which have dedicated significant resources, time, expertise, and enthusiasm to working this pretty challenging space. I want to thank also my colleagues at BARDA and NIAID who are supporting antibacterial research and development and have been excellent collaborators and have been supporting the companies and CARB-X in the past years. Thank you so much.

1 Thanks. DR. JOHN FARLEY: Thanks, both 2 Judy and Tina. Lots of important efforts to de-risk development and work to enrich the pipeline. So at 3 4 this point, we.re going to take a 15-minute break. We.re running just a teeny bit behind schedule and I 5 think what we.ll do is take a break and reconvene 6 7 right at 9:55. There.s coffee available -- for sale, 8 of course; this is the government -- outside. Thanks. 9 (Break) 10 DR. JOHN FARLEY: Great, and the 11 session, I.m going to turn over the session 12 chairmanship to Yuliya Yasinskaya who actually headed 13 for the FDA many of the reviews for animal models of Yersinia pestis and Jennifer Hoover who is with us 14 15 from GSK. So thanks very much. 16 DR. YULIYA YASINSKAYA: All right. 17 Welcome to our Session 1 with the presentations of the 18 specific animal models and we.re actually going to be 19 discussing murine models in the first session and our fist speaker is Lynn Miesel. Dr. Miesel leads the 20 2.1 infectious disease services for Pharmacology Discovery 2.2 Services, a preclinical CRO owned by Eurofins.

serves as a PI on NIAID projects for developing rodent infection models, PKPD analysis, and the NIAID preclinical testing services. Lynn had worked on antimicrobial drug discovery for over 20 years.

5 Welcome.

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DR. LYNN MIESEL: Thank you very much. So today, I.m going to present an ongoing project at Pharmacology Discovery Services and this project is to develop a murine model for pseudomonas lung infection and it.s conducted with MDR clinical isolates.

So the Pharmacology Discovery Services is conducting this project for NIAID and NIAID.s overall mission is to facilitate and streamline the discovery of therapeutics for Pseudomonas aeruginosa and we all can appreciate the significance of this mission. Pseudomonas is a leading pathogen for hospital-acquired and ventilator-associated pneumonia, and PDS is proud to support NIAID.s effort on related projects to this mission and that includes conducting testing services to evaluate therapeutic candidates, developing mouse thigh and lung infection models with MDR isolates.

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And generating PKPD tutorials with example studies of standard drugs and the protocols and the example data from the model development and PKPD studies are available to the drug discovery community. So for the lung infection model, there.s generally two types of models. There.s the bacterial load model that many investigators use and there.s the host survival models that are often used to evaluate therapeutics.

And the goal of this pseudomonas lung infection model that we.re trying to put in place is to sort of make a hybrid of the two, and that is to correlate the mortality from the onset of mortality with the pathogen burden, the pathogen dissemination, and the tissue pathology. And we.re striving to optimize this model so that it has an extended infection period, hopefully up to 48 hours. That.s pretty challenging.

And then we.re also comparing infection by intranasal and intratracheal routes of infection.

The studies are being conducted with MDR clinical isolates that are available to the research community

and from the CDC and FDA AR bank. So our overall approach involves use of persistently neutropenic mice. We came to that as we were going along in this project.

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The development steps were first to optimize the inoculum, then characterize the natural history of infection, and then benchmark the models with approved antibiotics. And I want to give credit to the overall approach of this model and that.s to Dr. Lawrenz and his team at University of Louisville. We.re general -- following the general approach in these studies.

Model development has been conducted with two AR bank clinical isolates, AR0246 which is an NDM1 producing strain and AR bank 0266 which does not have a defined or characterized mechanism for carbapenem resistance. Both strains are resistant to carbipenems and AR bank 0246 is generally resistant to most antibiotics with the exception of colistin. It.s susceptible to colistin. AR bank 0266 is resistant to carbipenems and ceftazidimes and cephalosporins but it.s susceptible to many other drugs.

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We.re going to focus on, in this
presentation on AR bank 0246. The AR bank 0266
studies are ongoing but we -- just for lack of time,
I.m not going to cover both. So the first step in
model development is optimization of the inoculum, and
this study was initially conducted with neutropenic
mice in which animals were rendered to neutropenic by
cyclophosphamide administration at day minus four
prior to infection and then day minus one. This is
the standard method for neutropenia.

Then animals were infected at day zero by the intratracheal or by the intranasal inoculation routes. Then animals were observed at six-hour intervals for body temperature change and cage-front check for health. So six-hour intervals from day -- time zero through the end of the study at day five. Animals were sacrificed if they achieved at four degree body temperature change or a 20 percent loss of weight or were found moribund. The inoculum was titrated. Yeah.

So three iterations of the inoculum titration were conducted, because this was actually

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kind of tricky to get it right. In the first round, the inoculum was too high. The strains ended up being rather virulent and so with the higher inoculums of 10 to the 5th to 10 to the 7th, all of the animals succumbed to infection within -- before 18 hours. So the second round of studies were conducted with an inoculum ranging from 10 to the 5th to 10 to the 3rd CFU per mouse.

Again, intratracheal and intranasal routes of inoculation I.m showing here at you, the intranasal inoculation routes. And so on the vertical axis you have the body temperature and then as a function of time. And animals that are below the four degree temperature are -- have succumbed to the infection -- zero degree temperature succumbed to infection. Right.

So what you see is that the time of mortality onset varies as a function of the inoculum and the lower inoculum counts have longer animal survival. We selected the 10 to the 3rd inoculum count for model development because the other inoculum counts resulted in earlier animals. mortalities were -

- which was not desired. There was the problem, though, that about 30 percent of the animals survived the infection and interestingly at sacrifice, the bacteria were completely cleared from the lungs in those animal groups.

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So what we gathered from that is that the animals -- the neutropenia lasts, persists for 48 hours, so what.s probably happening is that the immune system is rebounding and then completely clearing the infection. So we switched from the standard method for inducing neutropenia to a persistent neutropenia model in order to have the prolonged infection period.

We simplified the model. In these studies that are presented in this slide, we used male and female mice and we switched to using male mice only for subsequent studies simply to minimize the variability. Right, so upon optimizing the inoculum, we then did a natural history of infection study looking at a larger number of animals per group, looking at animal survival out to five days after infection, and then bacterial burden in tissues and histopathology/pathology of the infected tissues.

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Animal groups were added to the study to look at earlier time points at four hours and 28 hours after infection, so these were scheduled timepoints. And again, body temperature and body weight were used for endpoints -- humane endpoints. So this slide shows the animals. survival as a function of hours and with intranasally inoculated animals -- solid lines are for Study 1; dashed lines are Study 2; purple is intranasal; and blue is intratracheal.

There.s not a large difference between the intranasally and intratracheally inoculated animals. And the results are reasonably consistent between the different days, but do note that there is a rather broad span in the onset, of the time of onset of mortality. And the median survival time is 46 hours for intranasal, 40 to 46 hours; 39 to 50 hours for intratracheal inoculation.

All right. So this slide shows on the top panels the bacterial burden at time points or at sacrifice, so you see that this is time points, four hours after infection, 20 hours after infection, or at

the humane endpoint when the animals succumb to an infection. So you see that the bacterial counts in lung tissue increase over time as expected, and that the bacterial burden is very similar between the intranasally and intratracheally inoculated animals.

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The infection does disseminate to the spleen and counts are observed at the 28-hour timepoint. Substantial counts in spleen tissue are observed at the humane sacrifice timepoints. The histopathology also correlates with infection time; although the histopathology score is generally very low, below two, on a range from zero to five, and the pathology scores are very similar between intratracheally and intranasally inoculated animals. Pathology also increases over time as -- that.s the gross pathology, as expected in this model.

So then the next step was to benchmark the models with a standard of drug. This is an MDR pathogen and it.s the only drug that was -- the only approved drug for susceptibility was colistin, so this study was conducted with the persistently neutropenic male mice that I just described. Inoculation was both

intratracheal and intranasally and animals were infected at day zero. Colistin dosing was initiated 12 hours after infection and dosing was -- two dose administrations were conducted at 12-hour intervals.

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Again, time points were taken every six hours for humane sacrifice. We also sacrificed animals at baseline 12 hours of the first dose and after 24 hours after the first dose, so 36 hours after infection. The inoculation here is with 10 to the 3rd CFU per mouse. And so there a few points on how did we come to the dosing. So we dosed primarily with colistin either at 30 milligrams per kilogram twice daily or with a titration, and the colistin dosing was based on published literature, both from the Roger Nation.s Lab and then also in-house data.

The duration of colistin administration was based on tolerability. We found that colistin -- we did a tolerability assessment and found that in persistently neutropenic mouse, colistin was tolerated up to 24 to 48 hours but not longer, so we limited our dosing to 24-hour period. And then, the question was well, how do we choose a time for dosage and we chose

-- when to start colistin dosing in that the time for dosing was based on experimental data.

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We did a study in which we varied the time to dose by four hours, six hours, or 12 hours or 16 hours after infection and the only parameter that was -- that was the only parameter that was varied. The dosing period on the twice-daily dosing was the same in all of the animal groups. And what we found was that the baseline counts increased with -- between the four, six, eight, and 12 and 18-hours dose -- baseline time points as expected and that colistin resulted in a reduction in counts between baseline and also relative to vehicle treatment up to 12 hours after infection.

However, with 18 hours after infection, colistin was no longer efficacious and so we presume that it just -- after 18 hours is the point of no return, that colistin cannot be efficacious, either because the animals are too sick or because the drug is -- because of an inoculum effect. All right.

So then with two colistin administrations, one at 12 hours after infection and

1	one at 24 hours after infection, resulted in an
2	increase in animal survival compared to the vehicle,
3	which is in orange, results in an increase in survival
4	both with intranasally inoculated animals and
5	intratracheally. The 30 mg per kg dose group was
6	protested in both intranasal and intratracheal
7	inoculation. And this survival also correlated with
8	an increase in the mean survival time, as expected.
9	This slide.s a little harder to get
10	especially with the difficult pointer. So this slide
11	shows the bacterial counts following colistin
12	administration and I.m going to direct you here. This
13	is the baseline counts in black in the lung,
14	intranasal and intratracheal inoculation, baseline.
15	This is at 12 hours at the time of dosing. The
16	bacterial counts increase by two three logs
17	compared to baseline between at 36 hours after
18	infection.
19	And then colistin causes a very
20	significant reduction in counts at 30 milligrams per
21	kilogram. And in looking at counts at the humane
22	endpoint, the first one was initial the time point,

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the selected time point. In looking at the animals at humane endpoints, colistin does cause a reduction in end counts; although, there is a broad spread. The animals the succumbed to the infection generally had a larger number of counts in lung tissue.

The colistin also reduced bacterial dissemination to spleen. This is most notable at the 36-hour time point. There is some reduction; although, it.s not significant and there is a very broad spread in counts in spleen tissue. The general observations are observed both with intranasally and intratracheally administered infection routes.

So to compare, then, intranasally inoculated and intratracheally inoculated animals, we looked -- we pooled all of the data from the multiple studies and found that general intranasal and intratracheal inoculated very similar results, with only significance found with the mean survival time and very small difference, 42 hours versus 54 hours for intratracheal to intranasal. And the histopathology score, which is very low in general, histopathology score of 1, is significantly larger for

intratracheally inoculated; although, again, the effects are very small.

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But overall, I would say that intratracheally and intranasally inoculated animals in these models under these experimental conditions are similar. So to summarize, the body temperature monitoring has really facilitated the correlation of mortality onset with the pathogen burden, the pathogen dissemination to other tissues, spleen, and the tissue pathology.

This approach of frequently monitoring the animals and sacrificing them at humane endpoints prior to natural mortality enables the selection of time points for dosing and sacrifice and it helps to gather relevant data for, again, the tissue burden and tissue pathology. The isolates that we re working with are very virulent in neutropenic mice.

The approved antibiotics, colistin in this particular study, amikacin for the other strain that we are working with, were efficacious and intranasal and intratracheal inoculation results -- yield similar results. The general limitation of

these models, well one is that it seems to -- the longer duration of infection with sacrificing animals at the humane endpoints results in more data scatter.

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In the colistin study, that.s expected because the animals had a long period of time between the last dose and the sacrifice. But in general, there.s a bit more variability than we.re accustomed to seeing in terms of the survival time and the percent mortality. And we.re taking a close analysis of this. Again, this is work that.s ongoing and so far it.s acceptable but it is a lot more variability than we.re accustomed to seeing.

So for next step and future directions, I think it would be fantastic to be able to use these types of models to ultimately correlate PKPD -- to conduct PKPD analysis to be able to correlate drug exposure with multiple treatment outcomes in mouse.

And I hope the community really seriously considers this as a approach. The other future direction is to establish this type of lung infection model with other pathogens and other strains and to take this approach with immune competent mice, perhaps considering an

1 assessment of different mouse lineages.

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So I.m going to close, then, with pointing out that there.s other drug -- other resources for drug discovery at NIAID and these are a list of the contracts that are ongoing and I want to acknowledge the FDA, CDC AR bank for the strains and funding from NIAID and the contributors at NIAID and Pharmacology Discovery Services for these studies.

DR. YULIYA YASINSKAYA: Thank you,
Lynn. I think we.re going to continue on with the
presentation and we will have a panel discussion right
after. I think we.ll hold the questions to the
presenter to the panel discussion as well. So our
next presentation is going to be given by two
speakers. It.s going to be Dr. Brian Luna and Jurgen
Bulitta. Dr. Luna received his PhD from the Johns
Hopkins University School of Medicine. He.s currently
an assistant professor in Molecular Microbiology and
Immunology Department at University of Southern
California.

JENNIFER HOOVER: Dr. Bulitta is an associate professor at the University of Florida

1	College of Pharmacy. He is supported by the
2	University of Florida.s Preeminence Program in drug
3	discovery and development and by the Perry E. Foote
4	Eminent Scholar Chair endowed professorship. Dr.
5	Bulitta has won NIH, FDA, and industry grants of over
6	\$35 million, published 142 peer-reviewed papers, and
7	contributed to over 97 Phase 1 to Phase 4 clinical
8	trials since 1998, so thank you for your presentation
9	DR. BRIAN LUNA: Thank you guys very
10	much for the introduction. We.re really happy to be
11	here and share on behalf of the group. I.d like to
12	start by saying that this is certainly a team effort
13	that we.re going to be talking about, so I just want
14	to acknowledge that this was an effort by a number of
15	different labs, and we.re happy to be sharing our
16	progress on behalf of everyone.
17	So we are trying to develop a mouse
18	model or characterize a mouse model for the study of
19	Acinetobacter infections. The reason that we decided
20	to go with a mouse model is historically it.s been
21	shown to be a very valuable tool for preclinical
22	studies, so that.s how we kind of decided to go

forward with the mouse in particular. The study design for what we did was very similar to the last presentation, so what we started with was a natural history study. We then characterized the PK in infected mice, so Jurgen is going to talk more about that later.

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And then the last outcome or the last thing that we.re trying to do is to show therapeutic success in these infected mice. So the basic idea is we would infect mice. We would look at different outcomes including clinical measures, so temperature, activity scores, microbiological measures such as CFUs, blood chemistry, and then cytokines as well.

The central hypothesis for our work is if the mouse is going to actually be reflective of therapeutic outcomes, what we can envision happening is if we infect mice with a particular strain of bacteria and we treat with a given antibiotic, so if that mouse was infected with a bacteria that is sensitive to that antibiotic, we should see improvement of the mouse and treatment success.

However, if we infect with a particular

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strain of bacteria that is resistant to that given antibiotic, the antibiotic should not improve the mouse and we should end up seeing treatment failure. The antibiotics that we.re going to be looking at are already FDA approved antibiotics, so again, this is just characterizing that the outcomes that we received in our mouse model should reflect what we would expect from clinical outcomes.

So how does acineto cause disease?

What we ve characterized thus far, the main virulence mechanism seems to be the ability of acineto to escape uptake and clearance by the host immune system.

Because the bacteria is able to escape clearance, it.s able to continue to grow and to replicate. As it replicates, it continues to shed LPS and causes a massive amount of inflammation through an LPS TLR4 mediated signaling cascade.

So the first thing that we needed to do was to identify what bacteria we.re actually going to be using in the mouse model, so there.s a couple criteria that these bacteria had to satisfy. So for our efficacy studies, we.re going to look at three

drugs. We.re going to look at amikacin, meropenem, and polymyxin B.

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So our panel of isolates needed to be 
to constitute a bacteria that are going to be both

sensitive to these antibiotics and also constitute

bacteria that are going to be resistant. The other

thing that we wanted to do with our mouse model is we

wanted to use an immune competent mouse model. So

additionally, the bacteria that we.re going to look at

have to be virulent and cause a lethal infection in

immune competent mice.

The strains that are asterisked and in bold are the strains of bacteria that we ended up going forward with. This is only a subset of the strains that we characterized. The biggest hurdle was trying to identify strains that were virulent in both our IV bacteremia model and then also in our oral aspiration pneumonia model, so we re also going to looking at two infection models here as well.

For the natural history part of the study, we wanted to see how the mice responded to infection by the different isolates and so this work

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was published, I believe, last year in Plus One, so what we generally see is a consistent -- a relatively consistent response from the host regardless of which strain of acineto we.re using for the infection. So on the left is looking at our bacteremia model. On the right is our oral aspiration pneumonia model. The top two graphs are looking at body temperature and the bottom two are looking at activity scores, so how mobile and how active the mice are.

As I mentioned before, the disease progression seems to be a LPS TLR4 mediated sepsis kind of response. We have two models, our blood model and our oral aspiration pneumonia model. It.s important to point out that the disease response is different in our two different models. So in our oral aspiration pneumonia model -- so in both models, we see a decrease in pH, so the mice are becoming acidotic. In our oral aspiration pneumonia model, we see increase in bicarbonate which is indicative of respiratory failure, so it.s a good control for our oral aspiration pneumonia model that they are actually suffering from some sort of respiratory problem as

 $1 \mid \text{well.}$ 

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so next, what I want to highlight is		
the cytokines. So as described earlier, we.re		
thinking that there.s this LPS TLR4 mediated		
proinflammatory response. Regardless of which strain		
is being used, we see an increase in our		
proinflammatory cytokines, so TNF and IL6, again,		
consistent across the different strains that we.re		
using for infections. So for the specific isolates		
that we.re using, those isolates are available upon		
request. We.re also in the process of working to get		
them deposited.		

This slide needs to be updated. We.re actually looking to deposit them to the BEI Repository to make them easily and publicly accessible. In regard to the trigger to treat criteria, so in our model we are treating the mice two hours post infection. That roughly correlated with decrease in activity score. The activity score is more pronounced — is more consistently decreased in the oral aspiration pneumonia model as compared to the blood model, so there are some differences between.

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There.s also the increase in the proinflammatory cytokines at that time point as well. And again, the overall goal of our study is to be able to recapitulate what we think should be the expected clinical outcomes, based on the sensitivity of the strains used for infection. Okay, so who do we think is -- this model.s going to be appropriate for? do we think is actually going to be using it? We think it.s going to be useful for both academic and also for industry settings. Currently, there is no well validated mouse model for the study of therapeutics in acineto, so we think that this model is going to be able to fill that niche. Some important characteristics about our model is that we are using immune competent mice, so there.s definitely a lot of leg work that went into identifying strains that are going to be able to cause disease in immune competent mice, and that part definitely is not trivial. We.re also looking at humanizing the PK regimens that are going to be used for amikacin, meropenem, and polymyxin in acineto-infected mice and

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Jurgen.s going to be talking about those specifics more later. So what about the limitations? So one of the obvious limitations is that mice are not humans.

As Brad Spellberg has pointed out in the past, very few of the patients in his hospitals actually have tails, so that.s just one way that our mouse model is certainly a model.

That being said, there.s still a lot of value that we think we can gain from this model and it is still useful and important. Jurgen will talk a little bit later about some of the PK issues in particular and some of the hurdles in developing these humanized dosing regimens.

Okay, lastly, I want to conclude with 
- the first part which is talking a little bit about

the efficacy. Again, as I mentioned, we.re infecting

mice with different strains of bacteria, so the

bacteria are going to be either, in this case, either

sensitive or resistant to amikacin. The mice are

being dosed with a humanized dosing regimen of

amikacin. Those details you.re going to -- we.ll

describe shortly. So if we look at the slides, the

top two panels up here are from mice that are infected with our resistant -- are showing as resistant to amikacin based on MICs.

The bottom two panels are mice that were infected with a strain that is sensitive to amikacin. So if we look at the top panel, at both the four and 18 hours post-infection, we really don.t see any decrease in CFUs in response to treatment. If we look at the bottom two panels, we see a significant decrease in CFUs in response to treatment at both four and at the 18-hour time points.

So this is in our IV bacteremia model, the clinical endpoints seem to be reflected by our mouse model. So as I mentioned, we re looking at two infection models, so the next slide is looking at our oral aspiration pneumonia model. The same kind of outline as the previous slide, so the four panels on the left are mice that were infected with our amikacin resistant isolate. The four panels on the right are the mice that were infected with our amikacin sensitive isolate.

The top panels up here are CFUs in the

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blood. The bottom two panels are CFUs in the bowel fluid. For our resistant isolate, we really don.t see much of a difference in the reduction of CFUs in either the blood or the bowel compartments. On the righthand side, we do see a significant reduction in CFUs in both the blood and also the bowel compartment in this model.

So again, in both our bacteremia and our oral aspiration pneumonia model, the response to amikacin seems to be predictive of what we would expect based on the sensitivity. And with that, I.ll turn it over to Jurgen.

DR. JURGEN BULITTA: Thank you so much, Brian, for kicking this presentation of with all of the efficacy part. So I.m going to talk about the pharmacokinetic aspects. Now, this slide is a visual predictive check for the single dose range study on amikacin for the intravenous, so the bacteremia challenge model with three different doses from 1.37 to 100 per gram. Please remember that this is a destructive sampling mouse dataset, so you should not look at this with the same eyes compared to a human

Phase 1 PK study with a quinolone or so.

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So overall, we were quite happy. This is the same dataset for the OA, so the oral aspiration challenge model with the top half being the plasma concentrations and the bottom half after three different doses being the lung epithelial lung fluid concentrations mentioned in Dr. Louie.s laboratory. So here, it.s not perfect, but it was actually really quite acceptable and we were overall happy.

The ELF penetration of amikacin was relatively high, somewhere around 70 percent. Good. Vis-p-vis population PK parameter estimates, so we.re using important sampling for estimating these destructive sampling datasets and that is working very well. On the middle of the slide, you see the parameters for the IV model and on the right side, the oral aspiration model. Okay.

So the clearance here after a single dose was the same, but volume of distribution was slightly larger for the intravenous dosing model giving rise to slightly longer half-life of 48 minutes for the IV compared to 36 minutes for the OA model.

Now, I would like to remind people that the ELF penetration of aminoglycosides is actually not that bad, 73 percent, and that would match Dr. Rosewald.s review from a couple of years ago on ELF penetration in patients.

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So, so far, so good. Yes. Now, the clinical concentrations of amikacin as one of the clinical relevant aminoglycosides are depicted on this slide for ventilator-associated bacterial pneumonia patients on the left and critically ill patients on the right. So this is for doses of a median of 20 milligrams per kilogram on the left side and 25 milligrams per kilogram on the right side.

So the significant variability and, of course aminoglycosides, you would dose once daily in humans, so your peak concentrations are somewhere around 50 to 100 and your trough concentrations between 5 and 10 in this patient population, and with -- we use this guideline to humanize our humanize our drug concentration regimens.

Apologies that the blue curve got swallowed on the left side so we have to use the right

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on the near-scape, so after -- this is for the intravenous challenge model. We evaluated a couple of different options and eventually settled on four times daily dosing, so doses -- a large dose of 62 percent at zero hours and 18 percent at six hours, 11 percent at 12 hours, and 8 percent at 18 hours.

So this is why you see the four different peaks here at the X axis. We could ve gone more complex to optimize the timing of the doses, but we kept it relatively simple. And so the model predicted area under the curve here is about 200 -- 300 milligrams time hour divide by liter and this is well within range of the clinical AUCs observed in critically ill patients. Good.

This is the same dosing algorithm for the OA method, so now you see plasma concentrations on the left side and epithelial lining concentrations on the right side, so we of course matched the plasma against the plasma. We went for a slightly different algorithm here with these percentages differing a little bit. The criterion was we did not exceed with the peak concentrations in mice the 90th percentile of

the human concentrations so this is why what you see here is a little bit lower in plasma.

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Had we gone for higher concentrations, we would have had a better approximation, but then we would have exceeded the human concentration profiles. In the next slide, this is ELF concentrations in blue versus plasma concentrations in pink and green. ELF is a little bit delayed, but at least the peaks are quite nicely in this range of human concentrations.

Good. Now comes, unfortunately, real life. So on the left side, we have the IV challenge models, so bacteremia model and for the first and second dose the PK was quite similar to what we had expected. You do see at later time points, with concentrations in plasma increase, actually, despite those doses being only about 11 and 8 percent here. So what we attributed this to is a decrease -- a systematic decrease in clearance and you.ll shortly see also in volume of distribution during the later parts of a dosing intervals where my post-doc mentor, Dr. Alan Forest would.ve always said, sometimes you have the highest concentrations of drugs in the mice

who die because we.re dead and when organs fail.

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So in the first two dosing intervals, the concentrations behave quite reasonably nicely, but then later on you see a substantial variability. For the oral aspiration model on the top here in plasma and on the bottom in ELF, the same phenomenon also occurs but the variability and the extent of the change of PK over time is certainly much less.

Now, this is the individual curve that.s pulled out from a population PK analysis. So here, during the first and second dosing interval, the concentrations are quite what you would expect, but when during those later dosing intervals in order to come up with a concentration of this around 120 milligrams per liter or so, at this time point, you would ve more or less have to have more or less no clearance here at that time point and when, if you look on logarithmic scale, one very nice thing when you compare this slope here which is very, very steep, it.s actually steeper in this initial slope when the mice were probably not yet quite that sick or very much affected by the infection.

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You can see where you could argue these possibly are hyperclearance mice. Now, there so of course a lot of research which still needs to go into this but certainly very substantially increase in animal variability of PK during the later dosing intervals in this intravenous challenge model. On the right side, it is the same profiles for the oral aspiration. There, the variability is much less. Clearance also changes, but this model is -- the mice are a little bit less affected by the infection.

Now, of course, you may question whether aminoglycoside may essentially cause nephrotoxicity and that is the case, but you would not expect that one to occur within 24 hours in a mouse model. So if this happens, it would be later. Good.

So here are the population PK parameter estimates for the IV model on the left and the OA model on the right side. So clearance changes systematically with dosing interval and also the variability and clearance is dramatically high after 12 hours. The same thing happens to volume of distribution for the IV model but not for the OA

model. And surprisingly to me, the ELF penetration ratio was actually rock solid no matter what happened to clearance.

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So for the OA model, clearance also decreased but the effect was much smaller compared to the IV. So the conclusions here, we tried to target the human-like concentrations in the mouse model to simulate, not exceed the 90th percentile of plasma concentrations in VABP patients. The AUC was in the range of those experienced in humans and (inaudible) for amikacin.

However, it became clear that during the later dosing intervals, variability and -- was higher and with clearance decreased over time.

Now, to polymyxin B. So here, a huge credit goes to Dr. Arnold Louie and his LCMS bioanalyst, (inaudible) who really measured all of the four individual components of polymyxin B.

So the components, B1, B1 isoleucine, B2, and B3, and then the last column on the right side is the sum of all four. So this was very nice. Dr. Luna performed the study at three different doses, 8,

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12, and 16 milligrams per kilogram and that worked very nice in collaboration and with discussions with our FDA colleagues, we developed a population PK model for mice with the four different components and significant work has been done to corroborate this model by additional analysis and that was greatly appreciated.

So in essence, we fit all of those four components and the sum of them simultaneously to come up with a population PK model for destructive sampling in mice. Suffice it to say, 20 years ago, nobody would have done this because the estimation algorithm were just not yet robust enough to do something like this, in my opinion.

So this is a visual predictive check at the 16 mg/kg dose level for the IV challenge model where it.s perhaps not perfect, but all of the four components were very reasonably captured and I would like to point out that the half-life in mice is quite long, so much longer -- so you would perhaps expect the half-life in mice to be significantly shorter, but here it is not incomparable compared to that in

humans.

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The population PK parameter estimates are here. One thing we get out is the relative variabilities of those four components of polymyxin B which was very nice. First component, B1, is a predominant. B1 isoleucine and B2 are about 12 to 13 percent. And then B3 is the smallest abundance component, so that worked very nice. I highlighted here the clearance and I.m not showing the estimates for the OA model, but it differed significantly between IV and OA.

So then, we made two proposals to FDA colleagues about humanizing polymyxin B dosage regiments. One was zero hour and 12-hour dosing. The other one had dosing every six hours. We eventually settled on the twice-daily dosing, so zero and 12 hours for the IV model at 11 mg/kg and 10 mg/kg.

This is the observed PK data and the visual predictive check for the IV challenge model for polymyxin B components where you can see the predicted PK -- human PK-like profiles were quite reasonably met for the animals and the mathematical model is working.

On the bottom right, this is the clinically achieved concentrations for total polymyxin B by Sandri, et al. from a CID paper in 2013.

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So we appreciate the variability in patients so overall this validation was reasonably successful in my opinion. So here -- so we came up eventually with two humanized dosage regimen for polymyxin B, 11 and 10 mg/kg for the IV model and substantially lower doses of 7 and 6 mg/kg for the OA model because it was very different between IV and OA, about twofold.

So it seems here very important to take home the lesson that one has to validate for PK in the animal -- so with the bacterial pathogen and with the bacterial strain which is used for the efficacy studies. Since we saw consistently real differences in the PK parameters and studying noninfected animals probably would result in considerably different PK compared to what one would get in an efficacy study.

Now, meropenem that Dr. Joshi very kindly introduced this morning. Meropenem has a very short half-life, both in humans but even more so in

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mice. So we targeted the highest clinical dose of 2 grams every eight hours as a short-term infusion in critically ill patients. And we tried to achieve peak concentrations in mice between 60 and 100 in trough or average concentrations of 1 to 10 milligram per liter.

Good. So these are the human profile on the left on the near scale and on the right on logarithmic scale for the median, the 10th, and the 90th percentile for short-term infusion in critically ill patients.

Now, if you could dose 12 doses individually in mice per day, so four doses per eight-hour dosing interval, four times three is 12, be 50 milligram, 30, 18, and 11 mg/kg, you can reasonably approximate, not perfectly, but you can reasonably approximate the human PK profile in critically ill patients.

Some (inaudible) will not let you do because it.s too cumbersome or too invasive for the mice, and I see a couple of nods in front of me, so, yes. So it.s not perfect. This situation is certainly much worse, where we only dose two

individual doses per eight-hour dosing interval for a short half-life drug certainly puts us into a very different spot when compared to amikacin and polymyxin.

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Now, in order to figure out what would be the impact of doing one or the other, we simulated the time of MIC of (inaudible) meropenem in plasma and in ELF for different MIC values for four doses individually per eight-hour dosing interval in two doses and we predicted the highest MICs which could be reasonably covered assuming the 20 and 40 percent peak time of MIC targets for meropenem.

It.s not perfect, so we certainly would love to explore cilastatin or probenecid as means to prolong the renal elimination, so decrease renal clearance and therefore prolong the half-life, both with Dr. Luna and with Dr. Miesel. We discussed the use of uranyl nitrate, which of course, Dr. Craig has used abundantly. This will be challenging nowadays because you may not be able to buy it and so this challenges (inaudible).

So in summary, this is an immune

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competent mouse model which Dr. Luna.s lab has
developed. We have humanized the pharmacokinetics of
amikacin and poly B and ongoing work is therefore
meropenem. The therapeutic outcomes for amikacin and
for polymyxin nicely reflect those which one would
expect for a susceptible and a resistant strain and we
would like to highlight that despite those drugs being
well behaved and very long on the market already,
there is unique challenges which one has to address
when humanizing dosing regimens.
Thank you very much for your attention
and this is a large team of collaborators.
DR. YULIYA YASINSKAYA: Thank you so
much, Brian and Jurgen. That.s excellent
presentation, lot of information there. Because we
are running kind of very late, we.re going to continue
with our presentations and again, we.ll take questions
to the presenters at the time of the panel discussion.
Our next presentation is also given by
two speakers. It.s about the murine model of testing

therapeutics against pulmonary pseudomonas infection

as presented by Matthew Lawrenz and Alexander Lepak.

Matt Lawrenz is associate professor in the Department of Microbiology and Immunology and a member of Center for Preventive Medicine in Biodefense and Emerging Infectious Diseases at the University of Louisville.

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His laboratory has extensive experience using small animal models to study pathogenesis and in the testing of vaccine candidates against plague.

Since 2013, he has worked with NIAID and the FDA on the development and use of the clinical models for the screening of the novel antimicrobials against bacterial pathogens including MDR, Pseudomonas aeruginosa.

JENNIFER HOOVER: Dr. Lepak is an assistant professor at the University of Wisconsin in the Department of Medicine, Division of Infectious Diseases. He is an active physician, educator, researcher, and leader within the UW Antimicrobial Stewardship Group. His research pursuits are in performing and translating murine animal models, animal model antimicrobial pharmacodynamic studies to optimize therapy against numerous pathogens. Thank you for your presentation.

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DR. MATTHEW LAWRENZ: All right. just want to start off by saying that everything that I.m going to show you guys today is a collaborative team work between three different universities, so most of the hands-on animal work is performed at the University of Louisville and that.s under the guidance of myself and my collaborator, John Warawa. been working on this project for a long time together. And then we work with Dr. Lepak and Dr. Andes at University of Wisconsin for some of our PKPD studies. And finally, we have a team of statisticians that we work with down the road from us at the University of Kentucky and that group.s led by Arnie Stromberg. So what I.m going to tell you guys about today is our efforts to validate a platform that we hope will be useful for preclinical screening of novel drugs against multidrug resistant pseudomonas. This is funded through the FDA and we have two goals in this validation process. The first was to take an existing model that we developed with NIAID and validate that against a panel of different pseudomonas

strains that we hope would represent some of the potential isolates that might be seen in the clinic downstream.

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Our second goal was to develop a couple of benchmark antibiotics that we could use in this model and that.s where Dr. Lepak will come in and tell us about the work that we.ve been doing on PKPD to try to get towards a humanized dose on these benchmark antibiotics.

So the model that I.m going to tell you guys about today a transient neutropenic mouse model for pulmonary infection. As this audience is well aware, pseudomonas is really kind of an opportunistic pathogen where we see most of the problems occur in immunocompromised patients such as cystic fibrosis, cancer, or in certain cases severe injuries, for example, soldiers that we see in the battlefront.

Just like humans, mice are relatively resistant to pulmonary infection with Pseudomonas aeruginosa. It.s not that we can.t establish an infection in these animals; it.s that it requires a relatively high number of organisms to establish that

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pulmonary infection and there.s complications that come along with that in drug therapy that I.m happy to talk about in the panel discussion that we.ve seen in some of our previous work with immunocompetent models.

So to overcome this barrier, with NIAID we developed this transient neutropenic model and Lynn kind of introduced it a little bit at the beginning.

We induce neutropenia in these animals through cyclophosphamide administration and I.m showing you kind of the workflow here for that administration.

It.s two doses of cyclophosphamide and we administer those five and one day before installation. You.re not hearing me?

And what I.m trying to highlight on this slide here on the righthand side is looking at the number of circulating neutrophils in these animals after this dosage, and we see on average about a 94 percent reduction, transient reduction, in these neutrophils at the time of infection.

The other aspect that I want to point out in this model is the mechanism that we use for instilling the bacteria into the animals. We use a

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method of intratracheal instillation where we actually intubate the animals, so we put a catheter into the animals and then we can instill the bacteria, bypassing the upper respiratory tract, and instill it directly into the lungs.

What I.m showing you here is in the center is just to show you guys that when we use this method and we instill a 5 microliter bolus of material into the lungs -- in this case, it.s Evans blue and you can see the distribution of that dye through all the lobes of the lungs -- we get broad distribution within the lungs.

And the other point that I want to make that.s shown on the righthand side is that this is a highly reproducible and efficient mechanism for instillation of the bacteria. This is a graph that.s just showing three different doses that were administered to the animals on the X axis, and on the Y axis is the number of organisms that were recovered 30 minutes post-installation. We see that we get about 98 percent of the bacteria instilled directly into the lungs and hopefully you can see that there

are three animals at each one of those doses and you can see that this is highly reproducible.

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An individual that.s trained in this

IMIT instillation procedure can, in our workflow,

instill this into an animal about one animal per

minute, so we can do a high number of animals through

this mechanism.

So as I said, the main goal that we had with the FDA in this project was to take this existing model that we had developed against a single strain of pseudomonas, the CUNCD strain at the top of the table, and apply this towards or validate it against a variety of pathogens, pseudomonas pathogens, that, again, we hope reflects what.s in the clinic. I.m shoring you the organisms that we chose for this. This came from the FDA/CDC resistance bank and we chose these organisms for a couple different reasons.

One of them is they are multidrug resistant, but they have different resistance profiles to a couple antibiotics and those are the antibiotics that we.re going to use as our benchmark antibiotics.

And secondly, we tried to choose strains that had

different known resistance mechanisms based on the genomes of these organisms.

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Now, the one problem with the FDA/CDC panel is that while this is very good for in vitro screening of antibiotics, there almost no data available on the virulence of these isolates. So we had to really start from the ground floor to establish and validate these organisms.

So this is the workflow for our initial studies and really all we.re doing here is to determine the LD50 of these strains. Again, this is in a neutropenic model. The strain that we.re using here are BALB/c mice. We use male and female mice through all of our studies, and I.ll tell you right now, we see no sex bias in anything, so I.m not going to discuss that later on. And in this case, it was just a simple LD50 where we infected the animals with escalating doses of each strain.

These are the survival curves for our four strains, and there.s two points that I want to make on this data. The first is that we see a difference in the virulence of these organisms, so you

can see on the lefthand side the 230 and 231 strains are highly virulent in this model where the LD50 is less than 100 CFU by this installation model; 246 falls in an intermediate range, and then the 241 strain is actually fairly attenuated compared to the others.

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The other thing that I want to point out here is that in this transient neutropenic model, depending on the strains, we tend to see most of the mice succumbing to the infection within 48 hours post-infection. The other thing that we looked at during these LD50 studies is we looked at the bacterial loads within the lungs of these animals, and the only thing I want to point out in this graph -- these graphs here is that in the animals that succumb to disease, we see proliferation of the bacteria.

So the black symbols are all the animals that were euthanized during the course of the infection and the red are the animals that made it out seven days post-infection. So in general, what we see is that we.re reaching somewhere around 10 to the 8th bacteria in animals that meet moribund criteria.

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wanted to move and do a natural history study again to allow us to have part of the model being to look at the log reduction within the lungs as a parameter that we could use for monitoring efficacy of drugs. So for this natural history we chose a timespan of about 21 hours and that was based, again, on our LD50 at — after 21 hours our animals begin to succumb to this infection, and so for this type of study, if we stop at 21 hours, we were confident that we.d have power in our sample size to get good bacterial counts within the lungs consistent, a large number of animals.

So in this case, what we.re using is the same neutropenic model but we.re now instilling 10 times the LD50 or each of the strains, so each strain has a different instillation based on its LD50. So what I.m going to show you first is some of the parameters that we look at in this model, so we monitor temperature every eight hours on these animals and what I want to highlight here is you can see now the temperature of these animals over that 21-hour period and you can see at least for the strains on the

righthand, the last three strains, that we start to see drops in temperature with these animals and, in fact, the 241 strain, those animals would be euthanized based on this criteria.

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Of course, the whole point here is to determine the bacterial burden within the lungs so that we can do, hopefully, log reduction analysis.

And so what I.m showing you here are the bacterial burdens at three hours and 21 hours post-infection and you can see at three hours, essentially what we have there are the number of bacteria that we put in there. If you look at 2:30, we put 1,000 bacteria in there; we get about 1,000 bacteria at three hours post-infection.

But importantly, what we see is proliferation of all of these strains within the lungs over that 21-hour period. On average, this is about a two log increased numbers, so we think that gives us a good dynamic range if we.re going to look at log reduction in downstream applications.

The last thing that I want to show you is pathology, so in the same animals we harvest tissue

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and look at pathology within the lungs. And you can see that at three hours post-infection, regardless of the dose that we give these animals, we are not seeing pathology yet within the lungs. But by 21 hours post-infection, now, we re beginning to see significant increase in the development of inflammation and pathology within those tissues.

So we can go back now and I can expand on that table that we have and add the virulence data to those strains. So again, I want to highlight that we have a panel that represents different resistance profiles and has different resistance mechanism. We now know the LD50, the bacterial loads at those time points, and also the pathology.

Now, one of the items that came up in discussion with the FDA when we started generating this data was this idea of trigger to treat, and we.ve already kind of discussed this at panel today.

Trigger to treat, when we think about it in the clinic, is usually going to be an individual with a pulmonary infection where they.re going to show symptoms, potentially of pneumonia, et cetera.

1 And hopefully it was obvious in the 2 data that I showed you that we don.t see pathology at three hours post-installation. So the next step that 3 4 we.re going -- we.re moving forward with now on this model is to see if we can see the development of 5 pathology at later time points and can use that then 6 7 as a potential for trigger to treat for this model. And so when we get back to Louisville, we.re going to 8 begin looking at this and add in some time points, six 9 10 hours and 12 hours post-instillation, to see if we can 11 find those trigger to treat criteria. 12 All right, so I.m going to step away 13 now and I.11 let Alex come up and talk to you about what we.re doing for our benchmark antibiotics. 14 15 DR. ALEXANDER LEPAK: Okav. So what I.m going to talk to you about is aztreonam plasma 16 17 pharmacokinetics in the mice and you.ll probably 18 notice a lot of similarities with some of the 19 difficulties in modeling that we ran into in terms of some of the earlier speakers today. 20 2.1 So here are the plasma pharmacokinetics 22 from infected mice. There.s four different doses

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listed here and I think what.s important is, one, it.s quite linear and quite dose proportional when you look at the exposures, and secondly is that the half-life, perhaps not surprising, is quite short. It varies between 0.4 and 0.8 hours, depending on the dose.

So what does aztreonam look like in humans? There are a variety of doses for which there is published human pharmacokinetic data and that.s shown in the table. Two grams q. eight hours is perhaps the more often used clinical does and that is shown in the lefthand side and what I.m showing you here is the concentration time curves that you would expect for total drug concentrations which are the solid symbols and then free drug concentration. For humans, the protein binding is approximately 50 percent.

So the challenge here is how do we pick a dosing regimen that is meaningful? And by meaningful, what I mean is we want to have a dosing regimen that accomplishes the goals of the study, but we also want to have dosing regimens and exposures that are translatable as we think about the studies

from mice to humans. And so as you.ve heard multiple times, matching PK concentration time curves and PKPD exposures depends on a lot of moving parts.

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pharmacokinetics and specifically half-life often
plays a major role. It can depend on the MIC of the
organisms for which you.re treating. And then
finally, frequency of the drug administration can play
a major role. And so due to differences in
metabolism, which is extremely common and was noted in
this study where the half-life in mice was between 0.4
and 0.8 hours and the human half-life is about two
hours, it is impossible to exactly match the
concentration time curve.

When that happens, there are two major approaches, so one approach, which is the approach we used, and the approach that you saw Jurgen present with meropenem in the previous discussion, is to prioritize a dosing regimen in mice to mimic a human dosing regimen based on what the PKPD driver is. And so for aztreonam, that s time above MIC.

Now, another way you can do it is that

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you can try to match the shape of the curve using complex dosing regimens, and you saw some of that already today where you can vary the timing of the dose so the interval is not necessarily consistent or even vary initial dose and subsequent doses to try to really mimic that concentration time curve. And this is very challenging and within those challenges are the risk for dosing errors and iatrogenic events to the mice because you are dosing them so frequently.

And I think the real question, which

I.m sure we will get into when we have the panel is
this, how close is close enough? I mean, how close do
you really need to match these concentrations time
curves when you are looking at a mouse versus a human?
So here are two figures. We.ll start on the left.

So the aztreonam plasma concentration is shown on the Y axis and time along the X axis, and so for the meropenem -- sorry, for the aztreonam 2 gram IV q. eight hour dosing, that is the black symbols and this is total drug concentration. And then shown is the total drug concentration that you would expect for the 320 mg/kg mouse dose or the 640

mg/kg mouse dose.

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And so I.m sure you can appreciate on the lefthand side total drug concentrations will be much higher in the mice at these doses versus what the human exposure is. However, when we take into account protein binding, because protein binding is different between mice and humans -- in the mouse, the protein binding is estimated somewhere around 84 percent -- you can see that the two lowest doses that were studied in the PK study, the 320 and 640, actually bracket pretty nicely what the human free drug exposure would be in terms of a Cmax.

But what we.re, obviously, really interested here is what are the time above MICs that we might see? And so this is a large table, so I.m going to kind of walk you through it. The different doses are in the first column. The dosing interval is in the second column, and so we have dosing intervals that vary from q. 4 hour, q. 6, q. 8, q. 12. And then we are representing the free drug percent time above MIC that you would expect to see against an organism that had an MIC of 4, an organism that has an MIC of

32, and then a quite resistant organism that is greater than 64.

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And so for those that may not be aware, the aztreonam PKPD targets are somewhere between 40 and 50 percent time above MIC for stasis, so you can see highlighted in orange against the susceptible strain you get a nice splay of time above MIC exposures over all the different doses from 320 all the way up to 2560. But to focus you a little more what I included here on this slide is how well the q. 6 hours, 640 SUBQ matches the human time above MIC above MIC exposure that you would expect for 2 grams IV q. 8. And so for a susceptible organism, MIC of 4, you would get 70 percent time above MIC in the mice.

For a human at the human exposure, it would be close to 100 percent. For a moderately resistant organism, you get a marginal time above MIC somewhere between 30 and 40 percent for both the mouse and the human. And then, obviously, for a very resistant organism you.re going to get a very low free drug time above MIC, close to zero percent.

And just shown here is to also

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1	highlight that the Cmax will not be, in terms of free
2	drug, will not be all that different between the mouse
3	for the 640 dose and the human 2 gram dose. ELF
4	pharmacokinetic were carried out as well. I.m not
5	going to spend a lot of time on this, mostly because
6	in the published literature there is essentially no
7	human ELF pharmacokinetic data. So while we have some
8	ELF data here for mice, how that relates to humans is
9	really up in the air at this point.
10	It was much flatter. There were not as
11	high of peaks, but when you look at AUC exposures,
12	which is a common way to look at ELF penetration, it
13	was between 19 and 42 percent and that is consistent
14	with at least a few of the other murine aztreonam ELF
15	studies that are out there. And with that, I will
16	end.
17	DR. YULIYA YASINSKAYA: Thank you very
18	much. Thank you.
19	DR. JOHN FARLEY: Yuliya, let me just
20	jump in for one second
21	DR. YULIYA YASINSKAYA: Sure.
22	DR. JOHN FARLEY: before you guys

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take off. So we have had two folks who haven.t been able to travel and that.s William Hope from University of Liverpool and Tom Walsh from Cornell. They should be on the phone and maybe we.ll check right now and ask you to introduce yourselves. William, are you there? How about Tom? They may be muted. You may hear them jump into the panel discussions, because I heard that they were listening in, so thanks very much.

DR. YULIYA YASINSKAYA: Right. Well, thank you very much, the presenters for the Session 1. We had a very interesting presentation, a lot have been done in recent years in terms of the development and understanding of the murine models of lung infection as well as the sepsis, so again, the presentations were very data driven. There a lot of information there. We understood that there are lots of challenges in developing and understanding these models, so I just want to make sure if the panel member have any questions to the presenters, we have a little bit of time to address those before we go on into the panel discussion questions.

DR. BRADLEY SPELLBERG: 1 I really 2 enjoyed the pseudomonas presentation and it seems like 3 you guys encountered many of the same issues that the 4 poor people who I work with encountered, the -- as 5 George calls them, the poor longsuffering people. do have two really virulent strains of pseudomonas and 6 I wonder if it would be worth looking at how those 7 8 strains perform in immune-normal mice. DR. MATTHEW LAWRENZ: Yeah, I actually 9 10 wasn.t expecting them to be that virulent. Typically, 11 and I don.t remember if I said this in the talk or 12 now, when we go from, at least in the strains that 13 we.ve worked with before, from a immunocompetent to the neutropenia, it.s about a three log difference in 14 15 infectious dose, so we still would be -- we.re going to be up around 10 to the 5th, 10 to the 6th as an 16 17 estimate, but it might be worth running them through 18 to see if it.d be lower than that. 19 DR. BRADLEY SPELLBERG: Yeah, and I do

DR. BRADLEY SPELLBERG: Yeah, and I do not know. In some ways, pseudomonas is a more complex pathogen that Acinetobacter is. Acineto is an accidental pathogen. It.s an environmental organism

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and it really doesn.t, in my opinion, utilize things like invasings and adhesings and extracellular toxins like many other pathogens do.

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If it is true as for pseudomonas -- as for acineto in your pseudomonas hypervirulent strains, a very small percentage of the -- we.ve put more than 100 Acinetobacter clinical isolates in the mice. A very small percentage are hypervirulent. They differ in their ability to avoid immune clearance and if that is the mechanism of hypervirulence for pseudomonas, you might actually find that it.s not a 3 log difference. I might be a smaller increase.

DR. YULIYA YASINSKAYA: Any more questions? Lynn, you had a comment on the previous question? No?

DR. LYNN MIESEL: No...

DR. YULIYA YASINSKAYA: Okay. All right, so we.ll go on into the panel discussion questions then. So again, you had heard a lot of very interesting data and a lot of challenges that murine model of gram-negative infections pose to the drug development as well, so we would like to discuss or

for you to discuss what do you think about the perspective on the utility of the murine models of -- in the anti-infective drug development and what the challenges and successes that we have in the development of those models.

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DR. BRADLEY SPELLBERG: They.re good.

JENNIFER HOOVER: Maybe I.ll start with a comment. Jen Hoover from GSK. So in industry, you know, we.re always trying to make sure that we are developing packages of data that are acceptable for regulatory submission, break points, et cetera, et cetera. And I had, before today, at least, felt that we were fairly well served in terms of just straight-up pneumonia models for evaluating PKPD, for example.

But I hear a lot of the work going on around there and just from the presentations we.ve heard today, it look like there are quite a few differences between what folks are looking at and so I.m left sitting here a little bit going -- scratching my head, what.s a sponsor to do. So if you guys could maybe give some feedback on that, that would be great.

DR. BRADLEY SPELLBERG: It.s a quiet

group, so I.ll go first, but y.all need to start speaking so I stop speaking. I think that.s why John and his team and the FDA wanted this work to be done, to validate models to get standard packages for drug developers that would both ease the question that you.re asking and give reassurance to FDA that the data coming out the back end would be likely to translate to something meaningful during clinical trials.

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DR. LYNN MIESEL: So many of the benefits of these models that we ve been talking about will be helpful for addressing nonclassical therapeutics, nonstandard. So with a standard antibiotic, probably the 24-hour bacterial load models are fine for PKPD assessment and then in translation to the clinic, but it really becomes challenging for groups that are developing a virulence inhibitor or immune therapeutic on how do you do those models and so we are striving for something that had a longer duration of efficacy, something that had an alternative endpoint other than just bacterial burden.

JENNIFER HOOVER: Actually, I think

that.s a great point, Lynn, because for small molecule 1 antibiotics they usually work fairly well and fairly 2 rapidly and so I think you can use models that require 3 4 higher inoculant where the animals get sick pretty fact, but certainly -- and we.ve only, sort of, 5 dabbled in sort of nontraditional approaches, but we 6 7 struggle to show efficacy with things that aren.t 8 small molecules using our traditional animal models, again, because I think usually have to give a very 9 10 high burden to make the animals sick and it happens 11 very quickly and you don.t have a window in which to 12 intervene. So thank you for that. 13 DR. CARA CASSINO: Yeah, I can comment further on that. Cara Cassino from ContraFect. 14 15 first of all, great work on the murine model. presentations were great and a lot of work has been 16 17 done and I think in general, the notion of 18 standardizing models in a way that they can be used, 19 reproducibly, et cetera is obviously, would be greatly beneficial and would be an important step. 20 2.1 The challenge in my mind, so for small 2.2 molecules for which -- well, we.ve seen, small

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molecules for which we.re familiar with and think we understand are still difficult to make them behave in these models; although, you.ve made a lot of progress and I really congratulate you. We.re working on novel biologic therapy, direct lytic agents. These are cell wall hydrolase enzymes derived from clones, from lysins from bacteriophage.

And what we found in the discovery end of the spectrum is that although it.s very attractive to be able to use the murine models for profiling, for screening, for PKPD, for all the practical reasons that I think everybody in this room knows, the biologic agents don.t always behave that way and it.s not even just because they.re fast or slow. I mean, our lysins are pretty rapidly acting.

There are differences among species, and so some of the species don.t translate as well. So from our perspective, it.s an even more complicated arena so for our lead anti-staphylococcal lysin, we were able to use rodent models to do screening, determine PK driver. Looking at exposure, though, we realized higher order animal models would probably

1 better translatable to the human.

We have other compounds in our portfolio where we.re realizing that the murine models can be completely misleading and we might be overlooking compounds that have a lot of promise just because we don.t have the right model and I guess, to throw it out to the group, you.re the experts. I.m a simple pulmonary critical care doctor from New York. How can we bridge that? You know, how do we bridge that in the discovery end. Any thoughts?

DR. JOHN FARLEY: I --

DR. THOMAS WALSH: This is --

DR. JOHN FARLEY: Oh, sorry. Go ahead,

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DR. THOMAS WALSH: I was going to say,
I think you really bring out some really excellent
points. Our model systems are really complimentary.
I think it.s paramount that we understand that this
complimentarity can provide us with insight, sometimes
with small molecules, sometimes with larger agents and
biologic. And in that regard, even if we have
optimization in a murine model, complimenting that de-

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risking and going into clinical trials with a larger animal species is really helpful, but we have seen in the rabbit model systems is a much closer similarity in many of the immunological, many of the pharmacokinetic and dynamic properties including for biologics, for example in cytokine studies, GCSF, for example, interferon gamma, strikingly effective in that regard.

And so I would advocate that when one comes up against these conundrums of not being -- of finding a sense of incompatibility or inconsistency within the murine model, then to have a smooth transition to, say, well we.ll move to another model system. And I would advocate that I think there.s ever expanding use of rabbit model systems both for systemic infections, pulmonary, as we.ll hear from Dr. Hope, CNS infections, osteoarticular, where we found going back to the original (inaudible) rabbit model to be highly predictive.

So I would really encourage that and since we.re readily willing to help in this vital mission through FDA, BARDA, NIAID, and our great

1 | collaborations with industry, please reach out to us.

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DR. BRADLEY SPELLBERG: It.s unwise to ever disagree with Dr. Walsh, and so I agree with everything Dr. Walsh said. I would add to it, in our studies with monoclonal antibodies, actually, the mouse model works pretty well. Surprisingly, even when you humanize the monoclonal, it still works just fine in the mouse, and that many of the antivirulent strategies will be used adjunctively with antibiotics. And so when you use a subtherapeutic antibiotic dose, it.ll smooth out the timeline to add the biological in.

And then the last point I.ll make is just the lesson I think we all learned with the anti-CV28 immunotherapeutic that I think the primate target is one amino acid off the human target, but the antibody activates the primate target, killing the animal -- sorry, was effective in the primates but in the humans, it activated CV28 and caused cytokine storm.

The only animal model that really matters at the end of the day is the homo sapiens

model and so the question is, how do you bridge from mouse to the homo sapiens, and I think Tom makes a good point. Some model -- for some agents, you.re going to have to use a different model.

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DR. CARA CASSINO: Yeah, in our experience, the rabbit has been a bit more reflective of the, what we see as what we.re seeing in our clinical program which is now in Phage 3, but it.s a challenge for drug development because the rabbit studies are -- you know this very well, they.re big, they.re expensive, they.re costly, they.re challenging, and if you want to do PKPD, they.re -- which we do because we.re not an immunologic therapy.

We re a direct lytic agent and we have established MICs and we ve been able to borrow much of the standard antibiotic paradigm to determine dosing for humans, but it is a conundrum. I.m just throwing it out there. I don.t know that there a solution, so, anyway, we continue to be -- look at the rodent models but there are compounds that, for a variety of reasons, may not be the appropriate model to do the work.

1 JENNIFER HOOVER: I want to go back to this notion that different models are fit for 2 different purposes, which I think we could probably 3 4 all agree upon. So my wishful thinking is that 5 perhaps from today, we could have maybe not quidance, maybe that.s a strong word, but recommendations or at 6 7 least something to suggest which models may be best 8 for which purposes or for which types of agents, for 9 example. That would be really helpful for us, I 10 think. 11 DR. JURGEN BULITTA: Maybe a little bit 12 of a historic perspective. So the mouse model has 13 been used for over 70 years throughout the entire planet on different laboratories, so we have an 14 15 experience base with the mouse model which is 16 uncomparable to what we have for what we have for 17 research in other agents, so I believe it.s important 18 to keep in mind what the expectation to go through (inaudible) of drug development is just unlikely to 19 happen in a normal therapeutic area scenario. 20 2.1 What I do believe, though, is that it 2.2 will be critical to assess pharmacokinetics and

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perhaps even site-specific pharmacokinetics in other animal models because it would just be foolish to acknowledge, but these technologies exist. These very advanced scanning methodologies for lungs in tuberculosis, for example, and so we can learn from what we already have succeeded in the animal, in the mouse model system.

Now, despite several of the academics including myself having pointed out some of the issues with the, perhaps more well-behaved mouse model, I certainly believe that these are very valuable models which work very well. But if you get a bunch of academics and want them to point out the difficulties, this is of course what you get.

DR. THOMAS WALSH: Jurgen, this is Tom. Do you think when one is contemplating the investment of massive resources as well as the treatment of individual patients that having the robustness of preclinical data of complimentary systems may decrease the risk, may ensure potentially a more optimal outcome, and to that regard, even at the level we find, for example, in informed consent, we -- our

patient population can be very, very sophisticated and they.ll want to know with a new antimicrobial what has been done.

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And when we talk with them and we say, well, we.ve studied these in different animal model systems and they.ve worked very effectively even though we have very little information and patience, we think this may be more beneficial for you especially with a live, threatening infection; there is a sense of security that these have been vastly studied in the laboratory and so in that regard, while we recognize the limitations of larger animals in terms of being able to have the number of strains and the number of robust sampling, that explicitly you and some of your other outstanding colleagues have demonstrated, can we envision a more focused, not only PKPD approach, we.re using fewer samples and using fewer organisms, fewer animals, using the prior murine data, for example, to build and reinforce a predictor of models going into patient populations.

DR. JURGEN BULITTA: Undoubtedly, Dr. Walsh, you.re correct. I would like to highlight for

1	any such modelling has to be done in close
2	collaboration with the immunologist and colleagues who
3	provide this expertise. A pure mathematician would be
4	lost in such arena.
5	DR. THOMAS WALSH: Very good. Thank
6	you.
7	DR. ACHIM WACH: This is Achim Wach
8	from Polyphor. Maybe I can add a little bit
9	perspective from the small biotech. So our problem is
10	basically that we miss a couple of data points
11	sometimes, so for example, it.s like cheap wines that
12	you have, when you look at PK. If their two-
13	compartment model is their one-compartment model, this
14	is one question. The other one is, do we really see
15	the peak if you do a subcut and for me, like a future
16	model would not be taking a humanized PK, but rather
17	having a kind of time resolved PK and PD readout in
18	the murine model which would give us a much better
19	idea of time over MIC and the correct estimation of
20	AUC and Cmax.
21	MAN 1: Dr. Joshi will agree these
22	technologies are available and very well working for

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my opinion and depending on your drug trials which is what we have discussed so -- earlier today, it depends heavily on the drug trials how important it is to fit the peak precisely or a trough concentration or when also under on the permeability. Dr. Lepak showed a (inaudible) which is kind of the world.s slowest penetrating (inaudible) and then which we showed meropenem is one of the fastest. Of course, these types of things need to be considered.

DR. ABHAY JOSHI: I think consideration also should be given for what purpose models are being used. Either they will inform the dosing regimen or we want model to screen which is dosing regimen which is already established. So if it.s just -- dosing is not yet established, then we can think about various approaches and see what correlates with bacterial killing, but if the intention is to already known dosing regimen would work under hard to treat pathogen or not, then probably humanized exposures would be a less risky approach.

MAN 1: well, I only partially agree because we have seen from Jurgen.s presentation that

you induce other problems like maybe an acute kidney effect that was giving rise to the higher exposure to amikacin in that fourth or -- third or fourth dosing and I wonder if we.re not complicating the system by doing this.

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DR. ABHAY JOSHI: No, I completely agree. So that that was one of the hope that from this workshop we.ll get that feedback. But then that comes to Dr. Walsh.s point that maybe for that particular drug, that particular model is not suitable.

DR. THOMAS WALSH: This is Tom. I have a question for the panel in general. When we encounter very short half-life compounds, meropenem being an example, but sometimes peptides also can be cleared, small antimicrobial peptides can be cleared very quickly, in order to maintain a time -- a prolonged half-life with normal renal function, what do you consider the role of potentially Alzet pumps or continuous infusion systems in subcutaneous (inaudible)?

DR. ABHAY JOSHI: So I don.t think I

got the complete question, but what I understood is for --

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DR. THOMAS WALSH: I.m happy to repeat; forgive me. When we encounter short half-life compounds in murine or rabbit systems, if one has short half-life compounds, we.re often left with either intent as Dr. Lepak showed with his q. 3 hour dosing or as Jurgen showed with, essentially q. 3 hour dosing, obviously that.s not tolerable to the animal and it also is relatively impractical for workflow.

What, then, is the possibility or your thoughts on the possibility in murine models or other model systems of using the Alzet, A-L-Z-E-T, type pump systems for release of a continuous infusion, assuming that you.d want to see a continuous infusion?

DR. ABHAY JOSHI: So I.m not much familiar with the mouse model and that system, so I.ll give it some general answers. So for murine model, my understanding is that continuous infusion wouldn.t be feasible, so in that case, I think we.ll take a similar approach. What we.re doing is try to get the TCs as similar to as in human in mice, so I guess for

PK, we should do the same approach that we get close to as possible as in mice with human PK. Now, regarding rabbits, I think you will see in afternoon session there will be one presentation we.ll be showing some continuous infusion how they approached going for humanized dosing, so I think that will provide different perspective or different strategy.

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DR. WILLIAM HOPE: In terms of Alzet pumps in murine models, we have some experience with them and I think they re extremely limited in what you can do. The pumps are very small. In most cases, in a mouse you have 100 microliters. You need fairly equally as soluble compounds to go into those. It.s not IV. You still have to be absorbed from a SUBQ site, so we ve seen limited utility and if you need to increase exposure, it.s my opinion, like it or not, you have to do the repeat dosing in order to that that type of exposure.

DR. BRADLEY SPELLBERG: I think one of the things we re dancing around is the balance between not having the perfect be the enemy of the good. If we achieve perfect matching of human dosing requiring,

what was it, 12 administrations over eight hours, all of our staff will quit. All of the biotech companies trying to do it will go bankrupt and so efficacy will not translate to effectiveness.

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I think the FDA has expressed to us great interest in what was alluded to in prior talks, the use of adjunctive agents that prolong half-lifes of some of the beta-lactams and we.re very interested in exploring that. If we could use an adjunct like a probenecid and make the dosing humane to the lab tech and to the mouse and to the bottom line for the companies paying for the work, and achieve 80 to 90 percent accuracy, that probably is a better efficacy to effectiveness translation.

DR. JOHN FARLEY: Yeah. This is John Farley, so thanks for that, Brad, and I think -- so I kind of am somebody who knows a little about a lot and so I surround myself with people like you. So sort of the napve notion I had going into this was that that a long-term goal would be to develop an Enterobacteriaceae model that could be used in the development of a CR reactive agent in the future and

sort of one of the things I.ve learned from you all and your work, particularly in the murine space, is how difficult that is how difficult that is.

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So the thought would be that of course the carbapenem would be the control of the future and the future model. So that was kind of the thinking behind that and I still think that this is definitely worth pursuing, but it.s obviously going to be a challenge in the murine space, at least for that particular goal, so...

JENNIFER HOOVER: Can I ask a point of clarity, then, around -- there.s been a lot of talk about humanized dosing and we do it, so I.m a fan, so don.t take this as a criticism. Just wondering what you see as the goal there, right, because normally you would already have a PKPD target and so given your humanized dose isn.t really going to get you any farther with that, so is it just to, for a novel agent, confirm that you.re going into the clinic with the right dose or is it for supporting break points or is it more about doing it for those control compounds to benchmark the model and to know what you.re

DR. JOHN FARLEY: From the FDA

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actually comparing against?

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perspective, it.s all three. It.s also the recognition that our clinical programs nowadays are very streamlined and has been -- has sort of been alluded to, this data is important in terms of the investigative brochure, in terms of thinking about the clinical trial. It.s also why, from our perspective, and this also may be napve, when Ursula did her work, she.s noticing tons of models used in the IND space where the drug is administered immediately after inoculation, right.

And that seems to really be a missed opportunity and so one of the things that we.ve pushed and we.ve learned a lot from the three murine models that are presented today, that it really is feasible to at least establish that the animal has disease before you administer the drug. And so that.s an incremental step, but an important one to actually demonstrate that in some living organism, your drug has some benefit before we start randomizing patients, so...

DR. WILLIAM HOPE: John, can I make a 1 2 comment? Can you hear me? 3 DR. JOHN FARLEY: Absolutely, William. 4 DR. WILLIAM HOPE: One thing I didn.t hear mentioned in any of the discussion this morning 5 6 and something I quess I.ve been increasingly aware of 7 is that most beta-lactams, as we said these models are -- this is a half-life question -- can the half-life, which often you don.t see because it approaches the 9 10 limit of detection of the assay, and as is often at or 11 around the MIC, so I think that that is also a problem 12 that.s easy to match the easy stuff, where 13 concentrations are 100 milligrams per liter but the gamma phase, I.m sure, accounts for a lot of biology 14 15 and pharmacology that we.d skate over and I.m aware 16 that that back end is really there. We need to pay 17 more attention. I don.t think humanization or pumps 18 or any of those measures can help that problem. 19 DR. JURGEN BULITTA: William, completely agree to this. I believe one of the huge 20 2.1 values of humanization is if you do combination 2.2 therapies. So let.s say if you have two agents at the

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same time at the right place, in a human-like concentration, I would propose predictive performance of such a modal is vastly improved, I have missed -- I only saw the tail end of the (inaudible) situation back in (inaudible), but my understanding is that yes, you had (inaudible) in vitro, but only for 10 minutes in vivo so that is one of -- so predictive performance for combination therapy is a huge benefit under humanized conditions.

The other part while I personally am a strong proponent of mathematical models, is actually when we humanize and discuss humanization, we have an active discussion of that is reasonable, what is clinically or in vitro laboratory-wise achievable.

And that, in itself, has value because when you can discuss how do we want to move forward in which areas or corners do we have to cut for variety of reasons, and legitimately so.

DR. JOHN FARLEY: Just to go back to another point and sort of talk a little bit more about question one. So -- which was the sort of, I guess, sort of regulatory relevance and development

perspective. So I think Brad and others brought up that we need to sort of stay a little bit ahead of where the science is going and we.re moving toward combination therapies, right.

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And so from a regulatory perspective, what everyone ought to care about and what the FDA definitely cares about is what is the contribution of each element. Because I think with the pretomanid approval for XDRTB, you actually had an approval of a regimen and that was, I think, and important step and a step where we need to be headed. That s a disease where you certainly can.t do a factorial clinical trial.

And so a murine model in drug susceptible TB was used so understand the contribution of the components of each element. And that ended up being quite central to the regulatory review. We need to understand that. And so part of the -- the sort of niche for more advanced murine models is contributing to that particular regulatory need and that does mean more well -- PK, that people are comfortable with and sort of exposures in the model, understanding that the

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mouse has the disease before you administer the drug, understanding end points, et cetera, so we.re sort of -- that.s sort of the niche from our perspective where we.re seeing murine models but -- and underscores, I think, the importance of the work.

DR. TINA GUINA: So to follow on this discussion, I was hoping that maybe we can discuss little bit of the role of different strains in multidrug resistant strains, because as we know, some of these strains are not virulent in mice and as we.ve seen in earlier presentations, there.s white a different LD50, so really talking about what would really support regulatory dossiers, so I would like to hear from presenters who talked about this today and then also from others who want to contribute. Thank you.

DR. BRADLEY SPELLBERG: Yeah, that.s t really important point. And I alluded to earlier, if we put strains into mice that achieve detectible CFUs but don.t cause physiological stress to the animal, don.t cause clinical disease, that at some level at least mimics the clinical illness the patients

1 experience, then by definition we can.t use the feels,

2 | functions, and survive translation to clinical trials.

And we.ve actually published this in Acinetobacter.

You can make mice completely normal physiologically

5 and clinically with high densities of bacteria if you

6 eliminate LPS from the bacteria.

they.re tachypneic.

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And so what does that mean? Okay, so

I.ve reduced the CFUs. The mouse was fine either way.

I think that we really need in these models to have

not just bacterial density as the endpoint, but

clinical endpoints. Mortality is an important one.

You should be able to make the mouse live. But you

also should be able to normalize other functions like

temperature and pH, and I think it was very reassuring

for us to know that in the pneumonia model, the mice

are hypercapnic. They.re hypo-ventilating even though

Their respiratory rate is sky high, but because they have extensive clinical pneumonia, they.re not exchanging CO2 effectively. They die of respiratory acidosis. The bacteremia mice die of metabolic acidosis from septic shock and they.re

hypoglycemic and it.s a really good match to the clinical disease that patients get.

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Those kinds of parameters, adding into the model, I think give validity to the FDA that there.s a clinical benefit of the drug before it gets into patients.

DR. YULIYA YASINSKAYA: Are there differences between the different -- the isolates that they.re virulent and not so virulent in murine models compared -- and the clinical isolates that we isolated from humans with the actual infection, you know, those are virulent in humans. Do we have the isolates that are virulent in humans and not that virulent in mice?

DR. BRADLEY SPELLBERG: Virulence in humans is very difficult to define because we.re now - - we.re not dealing with pneumococcus. We.re dealing with pathogens, at least thus far in this conversation, that are in patients who are in the ICU with central lines and have had surgery and on 15 antibiotics and have 27 comorbidities. And so when someone dies, is it because that strain was virulent or because of 27 other clinical factors that drove

1 | their outcome?

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In the mice, it.s completely controllable, so I can.t answer the question of the other direction, but what I can tell you is in Acinetobacter, at least, there is enormous variations in the virulence in the mice from clinical isolates. We have clinical isolates that do not cause detectable disease in immune normal mice. We have clinical isolates that blow away in immune normal mice. And the LD100s span four to five logs.

So I can.t go the other direction because the clinical scenario is too complicated and it.s hard to tease out what drive the outcome in any individual patient. Since we can control the mice, we actually can start teasing out what differentiates hypervirulence in mice across these strains. And I think that was what I was suggesting is that we should be using strains that allow us to cause clinical illness in relatively immune normal mice, unless we.re looking at neutropenic patients.

If we want to develop a drug for neutropenic patients or patients that are getting

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specific forms of chemotherapy or CAR T-cells, then studying a model relevant to that setting makes sense, but otherwise, finding strains that can cause disease in this similar patient population, to me, adds validity as you start translating from bench to bedside.

DR. TINA GUINA: So, Brad, in principle, I agree with what you just said. I still think that models that we.re typically using they are typical dose ranging models and (inaudible) burden models and PKPD models are really important in this early stage of product development which is important to many sponsors and many investigators because it is that initial model after in vitro susceptibility has been determined to actually show it and prove that PK.s matching and I think that.s why so much work has been done in these models and will continue doing that, but I think humanized models in terms of matching pathophysiology of human disease and then matching appropriate strains is, I think, may be these models could be used maybe later stage develop. Curious what others think as well.

1 Well, I would DR. BRADLEY SPELLBERG: 2 just say, you and I are not in disagreement, per se, that I don.t think picking strains that cause disease 3 4 in immune normal mice means that you can.t or 5 shouldn.t look at PK drivers of microbial clearance. 6 Not at all. What I.m saying is just because you drop 7 CFUs in an immune normal mouse doesn.t mean the drug will work clinically in sick patients. And the 8 9 flipside is you may actually find drugs that work 10 clinically and don.t drop CFUs. 11 In the acineto world, my classic are 12 LpxC inhibitors which do not kill Acinetobacter, but 13 the de-fang the bug so it can.t cause disease. It simply protects the mice immunologically, not by 14 15 killing. So you.re going to -- you have a selection 16 bias if the only tool you use to pick efficacy is 17 clearance of bug. 18 JENNIFER HOOVER: I think that.s a 19 great point, actually. I think it comes down to a 2.0 balance of what you.re trying to achieve in the particular study that you.re doing. Certainly from a 2.1 22 PKPD perspective, we are always hunting for strains

that are unique to a given compound, right, you need the right MICs. You may need a certain phenotype, et cetera, et cetera, so usually for every compound, we end up with a different set of bacterial strains that we.re using to do our PKPD.

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So while I agree it.s great to have some really well-characterized strains and really well-characterized models, I think we can.t have that for every strain and so just like I think you -- I.m kind of reiterating what you said, Brad, but understanding that there needs to be flexibility so we can look at other isolates that are maybe relevant for other reasons.

DR. THOMAS WALSH: This is Tom. I would just also like to underscore the points made about hosts. What we may think about hosts as being analogous to normal mice actually ever increasingly we.re understanding in the ICU, even though patients may not be neutropenic, they may not be pharmacologically immunosuppressed. In a STEM cell transplant recipients or solid organ transplant recipients, there is a tremendous evolution and the

understanding of immune paralysis and that.s the trauma patient.

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That.s the medically complicated patient, increasingly one sees, especially in the setting of surgery and tissue injury, this striking example of accounting for why patients will have polymicrobial infections, severe recurrent persistent bacterial infections that even though they.re not pharmacally immunosuppressed, they do have an immune paralysis.

So in developing predictive animal model systems, having a sense of that, that we do not necessarily need to just only have normal mice, normal animals, but look toward other immune impaired model systems that might have a more predictive outcome for patients who do have -- enormous population that has immune paralysis in the absence of pharmacologic immunosuppression.

DR. MATTHEW LAWRENZ: I just want to make one statement about the immunocompetent versus the immunocompromised, and it comes back to how many bugs you.re actually putting into the animal. And

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we.ve run into problems with the immunocompetent model if our -- the inoculum that we have to put into the animals is so high that when we actually treat them with antibiotics that are bactericidal, the animals might reduce the number of bacteria but they actually die because of the release of PAMPs and everything else that happens and everything else that happens.

So that.s one of the reasons that we originally were concerned about it. I appreciate the fact that some of these more virulent strains might overcome that problem, because we get into a mid-level where now it might work in an immunocompetent where we don.t have to worry about that confounder of understanding if the drug.s protective or not.

DR. JURGEN BULITTA: There is a risk if you go to hypervirulent strains. If you inoculate with 28 bacteria CFUs I wonder how many resistant mutants you will have in that initial inoculum? So if your outcome is prevention of resistance, I love that study, but you have -- one has to be clear that you.re probably not going to study resistance prevention.

DR. THOMAS WALSH: And Jurgen, I would

echo that concern. The virulent organisms are certainly important in recognizing some of the deadly pathogens that we may see, but in term -- one of our strategies, of course, is to try to prevent the emergency of resistance.

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What we ve seen is helpful both in -we have some murine models with KPC, but more
importantly in the rabbit model systems where we re
able to go out for 12 to 14 days, is over time, the
expansion of the population particularly in the
untreated controls, the expansion of the population
and the very large burden of organisms that can be
achieved in an effective 40 gram lung were, over that
course of time with that massive amount of organism,
we believe that there is a sufficiently large
population, then, to test the hypothesis as to whether
one antimicrobial agent can prevent the emergency of
resistance over -- as a function of time of 12 to 14
days.

JENNIFER HOOVER: And you bring -- go

DR. WILLIAM HOPE: the other problem

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that we have debated amongst ourselves and I think the agency has as well is not only go through a process of selecting strains and having to discard strains that are not fit in vivo or actually do something that we, in terms of the (inaudible) expect, an NDM expressing Enterobacteriaceae, the obvious example of that. with a lot of uncertainty about that. So the other issue, really, is the number of strains that get tackled through these models.

I don.t think there.s been any sort of agreement about what that should be and especially when some strains like Acinetobacter and NDMs are so hard to find and to be able to stud them in vivo, you might only be able to get three or four and that really doesn.t feel like enough when you.re making complex dosing prediction from these models.

JENNIFER HOOVER: One of thee points, maybe, I would go back to is time to treat. We talked a little bit about that -- we, our presenters, so kindly touched on that in their presentations. I guess I worry a little when I see the inoculum being fairly low or the baseline counts being fairly low

compared to what we would typically think of in a HAP 1 or VAP patient, so I.m wondering if, based on some of 2 the discussion this morning and then what we saw in 3 4 the presentations, is LD50 what we should be targeting? Is 10 to the 6th at baseline, which is 5 what I kind of thought it was, sort of general 6 7 thinking, the right place to be before you start 8 treating? Is there some clinical measure that 9 10 should be a trigger to treat? Just some general 11 discussion on that point from the panelists would be 12 great. 13 DR. BRADLEY SPELLBERG: I.m always going to say it should be clinical. That doesn.t mean 14 15 that there shouldn.t be a microbial component to it, but again, feels, functions, and survives, was chosen 16 17 for a reason. That.s what patients experience and the 18 trick is that the drugs, the small molecule antibacterials, work by eliminating bacteria, and how 19 does that translate into feels, functions, and 20 2.1 survives. 22 DR. YULIYA YASINSKAYA: I think it.s

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very important to do survivor models, specifically if yo8u are planning on submitting a murine model as a part of marketing application to support the clinical trial to have this additional data that supports the contribution of the components or in general, you.re just bolstering the efficacy portion of the application.

I mean, I supposed the bacterial load reduction could be used in the murine model at the earliest stage when we.re screening for the compounds, trying to determine what potential dosing strategies might be used and so on, but I think it.s very important, too, to move towards the survival model when we.re talking about the actually efficacy support.

DR. BINH DIEP: I would like to make a comment on the rabbit model of pneumonia, and there the trigger to treat was of paramount concern to us and, but in the end, how do you -- what is the trigger to treat? Is it clinical? Initially, our plan was to treat rabbits when they show signs of hypoxemia so put bacteria into the lungs of the rabbits. We wait until

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they have hypoxemia and this is using an i-STAT system measuring PO2, measuring lactate, measuring a whole variety of different parameters. Can we use this as a trigger to treat? In the end, what we ended up doing is that it takes time to run an i-STAT, to run a blood gas, to determine whether the animal have overt sign of pneumonia to treat, and that could delay treatment.

And in the rabbit model, we know that treatment, if it.s delayed by just one hour, that we don.t see efficacy of an antibiotic anymore. So we ended up doing is the trigger to treat was determined empirically so that, can we try treatment at three hour post-infection, four hour post-infection, five hour, six hours post-infection.

And we found that at five hours postinfection, it.s about two-thirds of the rabbits
survive and it.s also at that particular time point
where we see two-thirds of the rabbits have hypoxemia
where the PO2 is less than 60 millimeter of mercury
and lactate is high at that point in. there are
neutrophilic infiltrate into the lungs.

So that was a way of justifying that

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trigger to treat, but the trigger to treat was

determined empirically. I wasn.t, you know, a

clinical syndrome, a clinical diagnosis, when we start

treatment. We were able, however, in other animal

model validation that.s funded by the FDA to actually

treat septic shock, Pseudomonas aeruginosa septic

shock where we start treatment with the mean arterial

blood pressure is decreased by 20 percent.

That.s also at the time point when cardiac output is also decreased and -- but in those setting of treatment of septic shock, it requires ICU supportive care that you may not be able to do in a mouse model. So this requires fluid challenge. This requires the use of vasopressors. And it makes the model extremely complicated.

So it.s possible to do that to have a trigger to treat that.s not time based, but it.s quite complex.

DR. THOMAS WALSH: This is Tom and an alternative that we.ve used in our pneumonia models both fungal and bacterial, has been radiology. We.ve been taking a very robust approach with CT scan, also

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conventional chest radiography, but CT is relatively more sensitive, and identifying at the different points where we see pulmonary infiltrates that then would be analogous to what one would see in an intensive care unit. Being cautious not to let an infiltrate accumulate massively because that.s associated with high, almost intractable mortality, but at the earliest signs of pulmonary infiltrate, that.s also conserved in the rabbit model as a useful and clinically relevant marker.

In murine models, there are little mouse -- murine CT scans that potentially cold also be employed. It depends upon the experimental radiology department, but considering a radiology endpoint might also provide both in murine and rabbit model systems another clinical endpoint for triggering antibiotic administration.

DR. BINH DIEP: So I agree that, you know, the neutrophilic infiltrate into the lung is a hallmark feature of human pneumonia and it.s very important and you can diagnose that using an x-ray, one way that you can get away from radiology is

instead of looking at what.s in the lung, you can look at what.s disappeared in the peripheral blood. So instead, you know, you can look at a neutrophil count, the white blood cell count in blood.

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And if -- just like in humans with neutropenia due to the infection, these are not neutropenic patients. But the state of neutropenia or leukopenia that.s observed, is indicative of how much neutrophil is in the lung, so you can do it that way using a surrogate marker of white blood cell count and that.s what we also use to justify our trigger to treat because at three to four to five hour post infection, we see a drip in neutrophil count in the blood and where did the neutrophils go?

They go all into the lungs and this is correlated with levels of plasma interleukin-8, the chemokine attractant for neutrophils. And we see that also, so radiology, it.s really difficult to use that to diagnose treatment in the individual animal and the reason is you need to anesthetize the animal to take an x-ray and by the time that the animal wakes up, you know, when do you start treatment and maybe the

anesthesia will also affect the clinical outcome. So x-ray may be very difficult to do to diagnose, treatment, and as a trigger to treat.

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DR. THOMAS WALSH: So just for clarification on that point, it would not be that one would be treating -- one would be scanning every animal, in that sense. One characterized the model with given host response in the background, given inoculum and a given pathogen.

We found that you characterize it again, be it bacterial or fungal, characterize that model system well and then from there, normally within a relatively narrow timeframe, that treating those models, treating those animals going forward does not necessarily necessitate scanning every animal. We have found, though, that what can also be helpful as a parallel marker for therapeutic response is using volume metrics on the animal.

We have been able to develop nice algorithms that -- dosing algorithms such as gently anesthetizing animals and over the course of treatment -- again, this is over approximately 10 to 12 days in

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a course of therapy, where you can see the diminution in the pulmonary infiltrate and it yet gives you, using the volumetric algorithms, another parameter for therapeutic response, and that.s something that we haven.t talked too much about.

We.ve talked about the, we talked about the Log c (inaudible) gram and we.ve talked about that being not necessarily the (inaudible), particularly given the inflammatory markers that that is very nicely articulated and survival is also a parameter, but there are many other variables including, as we saw, cytokine responses as well as potential resolution of pulmonary infiltrates, so I think capturing all of these markers on the therapeutic monitoring side can also be very useful.

DR. BINH DIEP: But they.re -- Tom, they.re not useful for trying to construct dose exposure response relationships which is what the whole field is based on and for that problem, you have to control variants with an inch of its life. So all these things that you.re talking about trying to make things more clinically relevant or physiologically

relevant may be of interest and may have a role, but when you.re trying to construct those relationships you just get noise unless you control the system very tightly and that.s why CFUs are so important now and why they will continue to be.

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DR. BRADLEY SPELLBERG: This is false dichotomy to say it has to be clinically relevant biomarker outcome driven or it has to be PKPD microbial outcome driven. Both elements are important. I think the point Tom was making, which is what I agree with, is the field has largely ignored the non-microbial PKPD component and we think it adds value to look at that as well. So I don.t think it.s either or. I think both are important. I think tom agrees with that point, as do I.

DR. MATTHEW LAWRENZ: So I just want to stress what Binh said at the beginning, too, of this discussion was one of the things that we don.t typically do in the mouse model is add supportive care into this and so that.s something to take in mind when we start to look at physiological trigger to treat, et cetera. Patients are receiving other care that the

mice may not and so it gets hard to keep those mice going without that type of supportive care and so it.s just a consideration to take when you think about this from a physiological standpoint.

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DR. THOMAS WALSH: And on that note, while there is massive -- extensive heterogeneity in our critically ill patient population, in rabbit model systems we can standard -- once we know the model system well for a given organism, given the background, we can standardize a background of supportive care. For example, 10 mL of normal saline per day may be just enough to enable that rabbit population to go to course of a given therapeutic outcome, in contrast if they died of third spacing or intravascular volume depletion.

DR. YULIYA YASINSKAYA: We.re getting late. I don.t want to keep you guys waiting for your lunch. It.s about time. It.s 12:05. Speakers. lunches will be in Room 1506. We.re breaking up for, I suppose 45 minutes? Where is it? Hour? Yeah, Session 2 starts at 1:00, so please enjoy your lunch. Rest, think, and we.re looking forward to another

1 | productive discussion in the afternoon.

(Break)

So stand by.

DR. JOHN FARLEY: If we could ask folks to take their seat, we.ll be getting started in just a minute and per William Hope, could we check audio?

Have we --

DR. WILLIAM HOPE: Can you hear me?

DR. JOHN FARLEY: We can hear you.

Thanks. So thanks for coming

back for the afternoon session. I.m John Farley and

11 my co-chair for this session is Dr. Marina Kozak from

BARDA and we.re going to move into larger animal

13 models beginning with a series of discussions on

14 rabbit models. First up is William Hope from the

15 University of Liverpool where he is the Dame Sally

16 Davies chair of AMR Research and director of the

17 Center of Excellence in Infectious Diseases Research.

18 So William, thanks so much for taking the time to join

19 us today, and we.ll invite you to get started with

20 your talk.

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DR. WILLIAM HOPE: Thank you, John.

22 First of all, my apologies that I can.t be there in

person. I don.t need to explain the reason. So I.ll just have to tell you to advance the slides, I think, so we can move right along.

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JOHN FARLEY: Can you see the screen?

So you.ve got up the principal problem right now.

DR. WILLIAM HOPE: Right, there was just a bit -there.s a bit of a delay every now and then, John, so

I think that just to talk about some assumptions maybe
which we didn.t dissect in detail this morning, so a
fundamental assumption for PK and PD is that the
invading pathogens, the common pharmacological type in
any experimental system in patients.

But I think there.s a more profound idea for bridging and translations that the -- that assumption about the PK also assumes that the pharmacodynamics are the same. That is, the drug is allowed to interact with its target in the same way in a hollow fiber model, or a mouse model, or a rabbit model as in a patient.

And we as a community pay relatively less attention to that than we do to issues about human intervention, which was discussed extensively

this morning, and it.s a bit of -- I.ve always been slightly puzzled by that.

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So, for example, everybody is quite happy to live use drugs for CU -- well, not live use but to study drugs for CUTI patients based on fine model data in the mouse. So, maybe this is a point that we can come back and talk about later. So, the next slide, please.

So, the model that we.re going to talk about this afternoon mimics this disease, neonatal meningoencephalitis. And I guess the point is that neonates or neonatal -- babies with neonatal sepsis often have occult central nervous system involvement. Maybe because of an immature blood brain barrier.

Certainly involvement of the brain results in poor neurodevelopmental outcomes no matter what the pathogen. But clinically it.s very difficult to know whether the brain.s been involved, and it.s very difficult to definitively demonstrate that for the purposes of clinical trials.

And here.s this point again, that involvement of the central nervous system potentially

changes pharmacodynamics. So, it would not be necessarily appropriate to use a sign model in any species to predict what might happen in the brain of a human baby.

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And so, of course, all of us know that some antimicrobial agents and classes are in effective in the central nervous system, but more subtly perhaps that there are also dose exposure response relationships. And so, it may be that a certain type of drug requires an alteration in dosage to achieve an effect in the brain. So, next slide.

So, the purpose again today is to establish predictive models, predictive experimental models that explicitly define the pharmacodynamics of the site of interest for new antimicrobials in the neonatal brain and that these model and model systems can be used to identify candidate regimens for potential clinical use in human neonates. The next slide.

So, and in keeping with the spirit of the this afternoon, why the rabbit? So, the rabbit as a larger animal model enables clinically relevant

central nervous system sub-compartments to be modeled.

So, distinguishing the cerebrum and the Cerberus

spinal fluid. And both pharmacokinetic and

pharmacodynamics relationships can be established

here. And in a sense it.s a more faithful anatomical

mimic of the human baby.

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The other advantages I.m sure we.ll
hear this afternoon is that larger animals potentially
enable serial sampling, as might occur clinically,
although many babies can.t have more than one lumber
puncture but that might be feasible. And there.s also
a track record of using the rabbit model. This model
was first pioneered by Tom Walsh with a model of
Candida meningoencephalitis, and that model is being
used to characterize the dynamics of micafungin and
anidulafungin, and that.s both passed -- both of those
molecules are passed in front of both sets of
regulators in terms of licensing or potentially
licensing those agents for neonates. So, next slide.

So, these are the details of the model.

I.m not going to provide you with the preliminary data
that was used to establish model parameters or

performance, but this is an immunocompetent model, a 1 standard strain of Pseudomonas aeruginosa that.s 2 injected into the system under general anesthesia. 3 We 4 employed a six-hour delay in initiation of antimicrobial therapy. We had two indicator drugs or 5 benchmark drugs, Meropenem and Tobramycin, a 30-hour 6 model. We originally hoped to get this model out 7 8 longer but at 30 hours this model is almost 9 universally lethal. And we found that we couldn.t 10 serially sample CSF as we had hoped because rabbits 11 were too sick to tolerate repeated anesthesia to 12 enable that pap to occur. 13 And, again, following on the conversation this morning, the endpoint in this study 14 15 was bacterial burden in the CSF and the cerebrum. Although as I said, the model was lethal. So, next 16 slide, please. 17 18 So, just let me show you some of the 19 data for Meropenem. So, here.s the PKs from the experiment, so there are approximately 36 rabbits. 20 2.1 The black is the profile in plasma -- you see a 2.2 similar profile through the course of this morning,

and the red is the time course of drug -- predicted time course in the drug in the CSF.

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The partition ratio, as calculated by the AUC and CSF to that of plasma, is 14.3 percent, which is not dissimilar to human estimates or humans, at least that have meningitis. So, next slide, please.

And here are the raw data. It may be complex, but let me just say that the controls are in black and they tend to be at the top. The high dosages there in the yellow and the green tend to be down at the bottom. So, it was clear, after a lot of work and a lot of experiments, that there was a dose exposure response relationship that we could see and, of course, as you.ll appreciate after what I said, that these are actually terminal CSF samples. They weren.t repeated from live animals. So, each point there represents a single animal. So, next slide, please.

I won.t go through this but we did hear this morning about using these models to construct those exposure response relationships so there.s the

PK in the first three equations and we let the CSF drive the effect. Sorry, next slide.

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And so what we did -- and here was the difficulty, and here is the difficulty, I think, with larger animals, that you only get a single destructive observation. So, we use the posteriors, the (inaudible) posteriors from that mathematical model to predict the time course of CFU changes in each rabbit.

We have two compartments, or two reads

-- we have the CSF and the brain. We decided just to
use the CSF or model the CSF data because we could
measure Meropenem in the CSF. It.s an interesting
idea or concept about what might be driving the
pharmacodynamics in the brain. Maybe the blood is a
better driver for that rather than CSF. That.s
another point for discussion. And we just measured
total, although we considered CSF in Meropenem
concentrations and CSF to be free. That.s probably
not true but that was how the data were handled. So,
next slide, please.

So, what I.m showing you now -- so, these are the predicted densities of bacteria at the

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end of the experimental period and here there are a number of different exposures. So, here is the plasma AUCMIC that.s been shown and a nice regression line. The change in bacterial density is shown on the Y axis there. And you see actually the data surprisingly tight really for such a lethal model. So, next slide, please.

I just -- I.m showing you this because you.ll ask me. That is when you use the time above plasma -- sorry, the time above the dosing integral -- the time the dosing -- the time the concentrations are above the MIC and the dosing interval as the driver time above MIC, you see a relationship. But it.s not as tight, actually, as it was for AUC.

And if you go to the next slide and use the CSF as a driver, you get this quite nice relationship between the AUC that develops in the CSF and the decrease in bacterial burden. And it.s what the regression line is showing there. So, next slide.

So, that.s Meropenem. It.s an agent which is widely used in the neonatal unit and has a central role in the management of multidrug-resistant

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neonatal sepsis. So, to compare that with Tobramycin, which is obviously often given in combination but here we.re showing or we have the ability to study monotherapy. And in the same spirit here.s the PK. And actually it was quite easy to -- the plasma PK were very straightforward and it was easy to document and quantify aminoglycoside in CSF. And the partition ratio here was actually similar to Meropenem at 13.7 percent. So, next slide, please. Now, here are the raw data and these are more complex in the sense that the black are the controls and you can see that, especially at the later time points, that these are essentially overlaying some -- the observations, the Tobramycin treated rabbits. So, we were much less confident about establishing dose exposure response relationships with Tobramycin on the basis of the raw data only and when you come to model it, which I.ll show you in the next

So, here is the...sorry. Well, I can say -- I can talk to both of these.

DR. JOHN FARLEY: You.re back one,

1 | William. You.re good.

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DR. WILLIAM HOPE: Yeah, okay. So, here are the data from each rabbit again, and you can see that there.s much less confidence about an exposure response relationship here using plasma AUC to MIC as the measure of drug exposure. So, there may be something here but very, very variable and not certain, and we chose not to put a regression line through those data. So, the next slide then.

And here.s the CSF, and you can see that this just looks like noise again. Maybe some effect but not tight data and not convincing by any means. So, next slide.

So, importantly, how can these models in this approach be used in neonatal drug development? So, next please. And so I.ve sort of several observations and insights. And, of course, it may be straightforward but it.s important to say that the demonstration of drug in CSF does not necessarily mean there.s meaningful clinical activity in that space. I guess everybody knows that this is true but sometimes we forget it because of our desire to bridge systems

on PK alone. And so you can see the completely different responses from a dynamic perspective from Meropenem versus Tobramycin.

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The next point that I.d just like to make is Meropenem does not have an FDA license for babies under three months. I think you just skipped forward a slide there. So, that if we.re going to use these agents to benchmark, I heard that word this morning, new agents, then I.m not sure what the agency.s view is about using comparators, which they don.t have -- haven.t granted a license to. So, that.s another point of debate.

However, there.s sort of not much choice in the matter. So, the dynamics of new agents, and there are quite a few coming through now, could potentially be assessed in this model. And at least this model goes some way to de-risking subsequent clinical development program by at least blocking agents that don.t appear to have any central nervous system activity. So, next slide.

So, here is the real difficulty -- and I know that the FDA has struggled with this concept

and idea, and it.s a good point of debate, I think.

So, what do you do with this information? Because the problem is -- I think as Brad said, that the law says (telephone interference obscures) I think it says.

So, clinical efficacy data with proven or probably disease is unlikely to be acquired, which is what the

license is ultimately based on.

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And this disconnect between the laboratory animal data and the clinical data that.s never going to be able to be obtained is a difficult one. And I know Laura Kovanda is going to talk about this at the ASM meeting in Dublin in several months, if we.re allowed to travel. And so it.s also worth reviewing the agency.s recent assessment of micafungin for neonatal meningoencephalitis, where micafungin was not approved for -- specifically for neonatal meningoencephalitis because of the absence of clinical data, even though there was actually quite compelling preclinical data that the drug was effective for that disease.

And then there.s also the problem about what do you do if a preclinical model predicts that

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there should be dosage escalation, and that may be higher than allometric scaling, for example, or the initial PK studies. If there in opportunity for clinical correlation, what do you do about it when a PK and PD model is suggesting that a higher dosage should be studied? Should you embark on more clinical PK studies? And should you take the risk of dose escalation and the intended safety risk? So, next slide, please.

However, the experimental to clinical bridge is the only realistic way new antimicrobials can be developed for neonates, which is part of the legal framework on both sides of the Atlantic. It doesn.t solve the problem of having to acquire definitive clinical data, although those data are rarely, if ever, definitive. For sure, the current experimental tools are limited, so this model.s only been done with Pseudomonas rather than other bacterial pathogens.

But I might consider that we -- I think

Tom used the word complementary systems if the PK and

PD approach is necessary but insufficient. But I

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think that there is an advantage that this approach can at least block the progressive -- progression of compounds into neonates that are not safe for central nervous system disease. For sure provide a foundation for justification of doses into that -- into that special population, and giving some reassurance that underpin subsequent clinical studies, even if those studies themselves are not likely to be definitive but are still required legally. And I think that -- a few more slides...take the next one.

The first is to acknowledge that this work was supported by the FDA via a primary grant to Duke University and a subcontract to Liverpool. So, thank you for that support. And then the next slide is a photograph of all the people that are involved. And actually I won.t name them but I.ll just say, and we.ll hear this this afternoon, that doing this work is not easy. Especially learning how to anesthetize large animals and to get into a space like the CSF takes considerable skill and these are the people that did that. So, with that I.ll stop and thank you.

JOHN FARLEY: Thanks very much,

- William. And I think we.re going to move ahead to the next talk.
- 3 DR. MARINA KOZAK: Next up we have Dr.
- 4 Thomas Walsh. He.s a professor of medicine
- 5 | pediatrics, microbiology and immunology at Vale
- 6 | Cornell Medicine of Cornell University and attending
- 7 | physician of the New York Presbyterian Hospital. Dr.
- 8 | Walsh, are you able to hear us?
- 9 DR. THOMAS WALSH: Yes, I am. Are you
- 10 | able to hear me?
- DR. MARINA KOZAK: Yes.
- DR. THOMAS WALSH: Excellent. Very
- 13 good. To request that the standard of the time, I.m.
- 14 | sorry that I.m not able to attend. At 3:23 yesterday
- 15 afternoon, we received a ban on universal travel for
- 16 | all Cornell clinical faculty. Anyone associated with
- 17 | patient care to travel to any venue, domestic or
- 18 international. And so I.m very -- we had to make
- 19 adjustments, and I want to thank so much our FDA
- 20 staff, especially James, who was wonderful in
- 21 | rearranging the venue in order to present this.
- 22 And at the same time I want to thank so

much our FDA colleagues for inviting me to present on 1 these important concepts of rapid model systems, large 2 animal systems, and understanding the ever-increasing 3 4 and emerging challenges of multidrug-resistant gram negative pneumonia and all the other infections that 5 potentially we could address. 6 7 So, in that regard, if we think about 8 the challenges of multidrug-resistant gram negative pneumonias in our critically ill patients, I think in 9 10 terms of the need for -- the problems of 11 therapeutically ineffective or toxic antimicrobial 12 agents, the immune impairment associated with 13 clinically ill patients, a delay in diagnosis and detection, and then how we meet those challenges 14 15 through the bedside translational research. We train and we work as physician scientists in this venue. 16 17 One moment, the slides are moving without my hitting 18 the button. And forgive me. I need to advance the 19 slides, is that correct? 20 MARINA KOZAK: Dr. Walsh, we.ll advance 21 the slides. Just let us know when.

DR. THOMAS WALSH: Okay, thank you.

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Thank you so much. I appreciate it. And so if we go to the next slide, in order to meet that challenge, we then -- our response going from bench to bedside and back to the laboratory and working intensely with our laboratory staff and working ultimately through new interventions, we address each of those with novel antimicrobial compounds addressing the issues of PKPD and safety. And then we have the augmentation of host defenses. And then, finally, the development of early biomarkers and therapeutic monitoring, which we work through in in vitro systems, lab animal -- laboratory animal models, Phase I, Phase II clinical trials, Phase III, in which we are intensely involved at all points -- especially understanding where we ultimately want to target a given antimicrobial agent, and then working through the laboratory toward that. This is an endeavor that takes an enormous degree of team effort and complementarity in multiple disciplines. So, with that, if we go to the next slide, please, and we address the question of novel antimicrobial compounds, to the right you.ll see a rabbit with a central silastic venous catheter.

will investigate candidate compounds in one or more rabbit models of multidrug-resistant gram negative pneumonia. Next.

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And with that, the central silastic catheter provides atraumatic venous access. Just a little arrow that.s there, please. And in his setting for multidrug-resistant gram negative, we appreciate that host response can vary enormously. But what we ultimately attempt to achieve is a profound persistent neutropenia that basically abrogates the neutrophilic host response and creates a profound persistent neutropenia that we can achieve in the rabbit model system through Ara-C induction; it.s an S phase specific agent, reflecting that for -- that we use in AML, for example. We can further modulate the cyclosporine/methylprednisolone. But associated with this intense immune suppression comes the daily supportive care.

Our premises is that if we can achieve success in these models, then when one does have neutrophil response, one can also achieve a degree of response in that setting, recognizing that neutrophils

can.t provide as much as 40 percent potentially of the microbial activity but also recognizing, of course, that they may contribute as well to the inflammatory response.

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So, in that regard, we are targeting the most profoundly immunocompromised patients and in that respect we then look toward organisms that are going to replicate those infections.

So, if we go to the next slide we.ll see that we have among the organisms studied within pseudomonas aeruginosa, genetically defined pansusceptible organisms and OPRD porin loss, efflux pump, expression and AmpC hyperexpression, and the next with multidrug-resistant acinetobacter and for KPC, where, unfortunately, New York City was the epicenter for the U.S. epidemic of KPC, where we have a large range of organisms from which to select. We have our isolates in KPC and then also a visan isolate at NDM-1, klebsiella pneumonia -- next -- and strenotrophomonas maltophilia, an organism and infection that is vastly underestimated in the devastating complications that it has and, notably,

the most common metallo-beta-lactamase gram-negative pathogen in the bloodstream.

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On the next frame we have -- our approach is a direct -- for establishing the gram negative pneumonia -- a direct endotracheal inoculation of a carefully quantified inoculant under general anesthesia. With this we are able to colonize the tracheal bronchial tree, and as immune suppression progresses -- in what we see in our immunocompromised patient population, colonization progresses then to segmental or lobar pneumonia. And then from there, one can then see within that timeframe that this transition takes place within 24 hours, depending upon the pathogen to trigger or treatment justification.

The duration can last out as long as 7-14 days depending upon the untreated controls or the treatment. Therapy will generally go 12-14 days and allow, as I.ll mention later, the opportunity to also be able to select or identify a potential emergence of resistance.

If we undertake then the rationale and benefits for selection of rabbit models in multidrug-

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resistant gram negative pneumonia -- next slide -- and compare it to conventional MIRING models where duration is measured 24-48 hours, the rabbit model reflects the human pattern of infection more accurately over a 7-14 day period which animal serves as a surrogate for patient care and closer to bedside management, and the rabbit one is anatomically similar to that of humans.

In the next frame we underscore that the vascular catheter permits serial sampling for blood cultures as well as antigenic molecular proteomic markers over the course of time. And it can reflect treatment durations of 5, 7, 10 or 14 days, depending upon the questions being asked. As I mentioned, we can also assess with the emergence of antimicrobial resistance developing over the duration of therapy. And this system can allow for the accurate -- for the degree and duration of immune suppression we.ve seen in our high-risk patients.

But there are limitations and there are challenges for a selection of rabbit models in multi-drug resistance. And that is labor intensity. There

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is a necessity for support and monitoring of immunocompromised large animals analogous of that of intensity for immune impaired patients. Each rabbit is the equivalent of a little patient. And they.re monitored and cared for with the greatest degree of humane -- and exceeding, well exceeding the standards of humane care welfare.

There are also a limited number of strains, unlike the multiple strains that can be studied in MIRING models -- there.s a limited number, but we endeavor to overcome that with well-characterized representative strains chosen to address the hypothesis being tested. Now, there are very high standards for laboratory animal care and welfare under IACUC, International AAALAC, and USDA. So, we have three tiers of regulatory compliance.

But with that we exceed not only those recommendations, we have contributed actively to the animal husbandry of rabbits as well, addressing various rabbit diseases, particularly the diarrheal diseases, for example, and have established protocols.

And by obtaining these high levels of

standards or exceeding these high levels of standards, it.s very clear and well known in laboratory animal science, the better laboratory animal welfare equals better science ultimately.

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And then if we consider numbers of animals, rabbit models do not replace but rather complement the MIRING model system in taking this kind of integrated approach -- strengthens the MIRING data, the MIRING data strengthens the rabbit models, and collectively going forward into critically ill immunocompromised patients. And, again, the immune impairment is a very broad one that we see everincreasingly in ICUs. It then de-risks the study and also does justice to our patients in providing state of the art clinical science before enrolling them into clinical trials.

And then there.s the cost. Certainly that has been mentioned this morning. But the large animal systems, the risk of clinical trial strengthens the predictability of outcome and ultimately proving to be cost effective in, literally, multimillion dollar drug development in clinical trial designs.

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So, by way of illustration I wanted to just illustrate two recent studies, one using ceftolozane-tazobactam in our pseudomonas model. It.s been spearheaded by Dr. (inaudible) Petraitis,

Associate Director, and Dr. Ruta Petraitiene, which
I.ll show you, our other associate director in the Laboratory and Laboratory Animal Program in KPC and ceftazidime-avibactam.

So far, the rabbit model for pseudomonas aeruginosa, we have one pathology persistent in neutropenic animals that is very consistent with what we see clinically here to the left. You see severe multifocal to coalescing subacute necrotizing pneumonia with thrombosis pruritus marked edema. It is of note that pseudomonas is an anti-invasive organism. It has a wide range of proteolytic activities, as you know, and one of them is an elastase component that basically will elicit thrombosis infarction, and that.s clinically seen especially with aclima gangrenosum, but when can even see by CT-scan even the presence of halo science clinically and experimentally.

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The tissue gram stains shows intralesional gram-negative bacilli, large numbers of intra and extracellular gram negative bacilli within the untreated controls. With the strains of pseudomonas, you genetically define these organisms -were well defined in JMI Laboratories. They are available to anyone who wants -- would like a wide range of antimicrobials in which they.ve been studied. In the particular experiment that I.ll show you, we.ve studied ceftolozane/tazo and then as treatment controls ceftazidime, piperacillin-tazobactam. It was not our hypothesis to compare ceftolozane/tazo to ceftazidime, to piperacillin-tazobactam. But more so -- but they were more treatment controls -- but more so to study the efficacy of ceftolozane/tazobactam against an anticipated barrage that we will see clinically of finally immunocompromised patients with these different organisms. And with that then we address the question of plasma pharmacokinetics and humanized dosing. Our approach basically using the background of MIRING models and understanding, and if available,

Phase I, Phase II potentially in normal adult volunteers depending on the availability of data to characterize the plasma pharmacokinetics in this situation over a range of dosing anticipated that would cover the MIC within a reasonable dosing interval.

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Here, we show dose proportionality of ceftolozane across the dosing range in calculation in non-compartmental models we can show AUC that would be comparable to that achieved, so we can further plot that of flying above the MIC both with free drug and total drug -- having defined the dosage that we would use if we just elect one dosage, which in this case we.ve done so, but we can also do a range of dosing therapeutically, depending on the question being asked.

Here, one can see if you look at the little -- you can see untreated control on the black bars with striking increase and the residual bacterial burden of log CFU/g, and then one bar over. I.m sorry, I don.t have a pointer here -- but one bar over, and you can see C/T, that.s ceftolazane/tazo.

And across the pan susceptible, the OPRD porin loss in the right panel, efflux pump expression in the left lower panel, and AmpC hyperexpression virtually complete eradication for the organism. If we then harvest what remains of those organisms, those two isolates, we re not able to detect any resistance.

They still remained susceptible.

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If we look at a panel of markers, we realize also that a bronchoalveolar lavage may also be a useful tool. Certainly it.s long going to be used clinically in looking at responses and clinical trials with repeat BAL, once can see then once again that there is a significant decline of ceftolozane/tazo in all of the organisms as measured by as much as a 10 to 6 log drop.

Or if we reflect for a moment on the pathophysiology of gram negative pneumonia particularly in a immunocompromised host and specifically in profoundly neutropenic host, on one hand there is the inflammatory component but on the other hand there is direct organism mediated pulmonary injury. And there are a number of ways in which to

1 measure that. Two very simple ways. Basically, one 2 way is the pulmonary lesion score. Normally, a normal rabbit lung will weigh approximately 15 grams. We can 3 4 however see the severe disease anywhere from 30 to 40 5 grams. In this situation the ceftolozane/tazo, 6 the red bar, normalizes the lung weight literally back 7 8 to 15 grams. Whereas the untreated control still has in contrast to the untreated control, which is 30 9 10 grams. 11 With that also we seek a relationship 12 to cumulative survival probability, where if one looks 13 then at the red -- enrooted red diamond, ceftolozane/tazo is active against all of the 14

15 different strains. We see that ceft/tax does well,

except until it comes up against AmpC hyperexpression. 16

17 But our focus, nonetheless, is still on

18 ceftolozane/tazobactam, which improves survival

19 significantly in all of the animal groups.

20 If we then look at biomarkers, this is

2.1 also an important tool, there are a number of

2.2 cytokines which I won.t address that can be

exceptionally useful. I01 data, interleukin 8, as well as IL6 and TNF alpha. But we also were especially interested in a variety of other markers that may not have been well-characterized.

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So, in collaboration with Anthony Suffredini in the initial development of the rabbit model for pseudomonas aeruginosa where we were comparing it in pathogenesis to pulmonary aspergillosis, we were able to define nicely the expression profile, proteomic expression profile of one versus the other. And in the time course of pseudomonas, we were able to find several key molecules, 80a1, thymosin as well as C-reactive protein through further selective analysis. Creactive protein actually correlated quite well with therapeutic response. But the potential for host biomarkers as both inflammatory and therapeutic markers for host response and therapeutic response is a very promising area. In addition, of course, the system lending itself to molecular characterization both from bronchoalveolar lavage and serial serum sampling as a means of measuring therapeutic response.

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If we look then at avibactam again in the KPC model, here we see plasma pharmacokinetics then such as avibactam across the dosage range -- we.re able to capture the AUC as well as prime above the MIC with a properly dosing interval nearing that of our immunocompromised patients. We can again show the dose proportionality across the dosing interval.

And here we studied both a 7-day and a 14-day treatment course. We could see an impact, a clearly significant impact at seven days. And this is in the spirit where there has been a trend toward decreasing the time course of pneumonia, the time course of treatment of pneumonia. So, here in the panel of markers you have pulmonary residual bacteria burden, lung weights, pulmonary hemorrhage score and BAL bactericidal burden. And you can see significant impact of ceftaz-avibactam as well as polymyxin B decreasing all of these markers.

Interestingly, if we go to a 14-day course, although not -- it doesn.t reach statistical significance if you compare 7 to 14 days, there is a trend of further diminution in the pulmonary bacterial

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burden, approximately the same in lung weight, and a very subtle trend but still on there for BAL bactericidal burden, raising the question insofar as perhaps that we still might achieve more effect with longer course of therapy, realizing that there.s potential risk both clinically and experimentally for emergence of resistance.

In this setting in days 7-14, we did not see -- did not detect emergence of resistance to ceftaz avibactam. This has been, of course, a great concern in a number of settings including gram negative pneumonia, hospital-acquired and ventilator-associated pneumonia. But with the proper exposure that were able to achieve with cefto/tavi we did not see the emergence of resistance.

If one looks at survival versus -ceftaz avibactam versus Polymyxin B, there clearly was
a difference between the two. Both were significantly
greater in survival compared to the red line indicated
here in untreated controls. I think it.s important
always to consider that when we.re evaluating agents,
particularly those with potential nephrotoxic endpoint

or even other organ site, that we try to incorporate that into the model system.

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Here, the mortality, though, is not related to nephrotoxicity. No, we thought, well, of course, this was nephrotoxic, but serum creatinine at the doses of -- humanized doses of Polymyxin B that we.re using were not nephrotoxic after this point.

But we do know also the Polymyxin B has a neuropathic effect and there is well described for creating in earlier days a neuropathic effect but interoperatively in diaphragmatic paralysis, and there also is the potential of concern for -- especially in advanced pneumonia, that if one is having potentially a neuropathic effect in advanced pneumonia, can that compromise outcome? So, this raises the question of the broader aspect of Polymyxin B and its potential toxicity going beyond that just of nephrotoxicity.

So, in summary, we.ve reviewed the developmental challenges, advantages and limitations of the novel gram negative pneumonia. We.ve illustrated these concepts with two studies in experimental NVR pseudomonas and KPC pneumonia. In

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the spirit of translational research I should also underscore that both of these model systems have laid the foundation for clinical trials. There is one in particular going forward for ceftolozane/tazobactam that we.re pursuing and coupling with rapid molecular detection as frontline therapy for patients with profound persistent -- profound immune impairment related to acute leukemia or to stem cell transplant where we will be bringing ceftolozane/tazo right upfront given that we know we have in this population a relatively high frequency of resistant pathogens.

But also potentially being applicable to a wide range of immunocompromised patients that may have other forms of immunosuppression ranging from solid organ transplant to even this broader aspect of immune paralysis that we see in critically ill patients.

And, finally, we see the use of rapid models with powerful systems that study new antimicrobial agents for meeting the challenge of multidrug uses in gram negative rods to our patients and to the country.s public health.

1 I want to first of all give tremendous acknowledgement to Dr. Petraitis and Petraitiene that 2 you see at the first top, who has spearheaded these 3 4 efforts with tremendous expertise and insights. then the formative group that has been contributing to 5 these laboratory efforts. 6 7 And then finally to our translational team in Weill Cornell research, our clinical research 8 team that brings these discoveries from bench to 9 10 bedside, as well as many of our outside collaborators 11 contributing enormous pharmacokinetic and biomarker 12 and molecular expertise. 13 And then certainly with tremendous support, both of our institutions as well as 14 15 government agencies, our foundations and industrial collaborations. So, once again I want to thank you so 16 17 much for the opportunity to present this work and to 18 participate in this very important workshop. 19 DR. JOHN FARLEY: Thank you very much, 20 Tom. DR. THOMAS WALSH: Was that coordinated 2.1 between slides and audio? Did it work out all right?

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	Page 197
1	DR. JOHN FARLEY: It did. It did.
2	DR. THOMAS WALSH: All right, thank you
3	so much.
4	DR. JOHN FARLEY: You.re a New Yorker,
5	so you talk fast but we kept up with you.
6	DR. THOMAS WALSH: I wanted to stay
7	within time. I hope it wasn.t too quick.
8	DR. JOHN FARLEY: You did great. And
9	we.ll have more of a discussion. So, the last of our
10	rabbit models to talk about, that discussion will be
11	led by Binh Diep, who is an Associate Professor at
12	University of California, San Francisco. I know
13	personally that Binh works very hard. We did a site
14	visit. It involved getting to his lab at 4:30 in the
15	morning, which is one way to avoid an FDA site visit,
16	but we showed up anyway. And he.ll be joined by Bill
17	Weiss, who.s the Director of Preclinical Services at
18	the University of North Texas, Health Sciences Center.
19	So, look forward to your talk, Binh.
20	DR. BINH DIEP: Thank you, John. These
21	are our disclosures. So, our goals for the

are our disclosures. So, our goals for the development of the acute pneumonia in VABP rabbit

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models are to use outbred rabbits with normal immune system, not neutropenic animals. We want to conduct acute pneumonia in VABP natural history studies to determine the extent to which the pathophysiology in the rabbit models mimic human non-ventilated HABP and ventilated HABP/VABP.

In both models we want to trigger treatment at pneumonia onset, we want to use humanized Meropenem dosing regimen for rabbit model benchmarking for validation. We want to use survival as the primary endpoint, not 2-log CFU reduction in our efficacy studies. And, lastly, we want to determine whether Meropenem treatment with our without ICU supportive care including fluid challenge and norepinephrine could halt VABP disease progression using clinically relevant biomarkers as secondary endpoints.

So, these two rabbit models actually have very distinct pathophysiology. In the rabbit acute pneumonia model, we use awake non-ventilated rabbits and this may better mimic non-ventilated HABP.

So, in these rabbits we do blind intubation of the

rabbits and then we instill bacteria directly into the lungs of the rabbits, and then we withdraw the endotracheal tube, allowing the rabbit to wake up from anesthesia and then the infection to progress.

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In contrast, the rabbit VABP model uses anesthetized ventilated rabbits and this may better mimic ventilated hospital associated pneumonia and VABP. This model is much more complicated. It requires an ICU setup. So, these rabbits, we can do up to 13 rabbits concurrently in our experimental ICU where they are violated concurrently with a lung-protective low title volume of 6-7 milliliters per kilogram. And these rabbits are instrumented with multiple different catheters for hemodynamic monitoring and also for infusion of fluids and vasopressors.

So, this is a video of a patient monitor, one of 13 patient monitors. It looks just like a -- you know, these are actually patient monitors used in ICUs all over the world. And you can see we measure a variety of different parameters. And all of these patient monitors are connected to a

central monitoring system where we can actually record data every one minute. And this gives us a very rich history, a natural history of the disease.

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This is in the acute pneumonia model.

Virtually all of the rabbits die of profound

respiratory failure. So, this is a lung harvested

from a rabbit that.s instilled into the lung with just

the vehicle. So, like a lactated ringer solution or

UV kill bacteria. And the lung looks pretty normal.

The lungs to the right of it were infected with live pseudomonas aeruginosa, Strain 6206. And you can see that at 3-hour post infection there.s already massive necrosis, hemorrhage, edema, and this only gets worse over time. So that by tenhour post infection here, you see the lung has doubled or tripled in weight. And by the time of death, it.s even worse.

So, there is an increase in the weight of the lung, or the lung weight to body weight ratio over time, and this is inversely correlated with PO2 in arterial blood. So, these rabbits, they look like they die of profound respiratory failure.

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The VABP model in contrast is very interesting. You also see acute lung injury in these animals. But by the time of death, there.s basically two populations of rabbits: Those with very large lungs, the same as in the acute pneumonia model. But half of the rabbits have small lungs but they still die. And that.s captured here, this population. So, how did these rabbits die? We.re very interested in that natural history. So, to dissect that, what we did was we looked at a variety of different biomarkers in both models. Here are neutrophils. So, neutrophils in both of these models decrease and it bottoms out around 3-4 hours post infection. In the VABP model you see here each of these lines represent one animal. But because rabbits are a large animal, we can sample blood every two And so it gives you a much richer picture of the course of infection. So, neutrophil seems to be gone from peripheral blood. Where do they go? They all get

trafficked into the lungs. So, this is at the time of

death, and we see massive neutrophil infiltrate into the lung. You cannot recognize the air space anymore in this acute pneumonia model because it.s filled with red blood cells, white blood cells, and with edema.

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In the VABP model, rabbits with the very large lungs look very similar. But those rabbits with the small lung, you can see the aveolar space still, but there are focal areas of edema but, you know, it.s still massive neutrophilic infiltrate.

This is the vehicle control. So, in this model we are very -- because it.s a VABP model, we re interested in ventilator-induced lung injury and do we see evidence of that? Despite the fact that we use a low tidal volume of 6-7 milliliters per kilogram -- we still see acute lung injury in this model. So, that some of the air space is filled with edema, there is some minimal amount of neutrophils in the airspace, and that.s whether we put in vehicle control or UV kill pseudomonas aeruginosa 6206.

So, the VABP model has actually very distinct pathophysiology. The data on the left hand side is from one representative rabbit with a huge

lung that died. And the one on the right hand side is
from a single representative animal with a small lung.

There.s a lot of data here but focus on the orange
line.

So, the orange line is the mean

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So, the orange line is the mean arterial blood pressure. The baseline, the pre-infection baseline in rabbits is about 50-60 millimeters of mercury. And so what we found is that there.s a progressive decrease in blood pressure so that by the time of death in this animal at 15-hour post infection, the blood pressure has dropped by half or more.

In this case over here it dropped more than 60 percent. So, it looks like in these -- in the VABP model, you know, they die of -- they could potentially die of severe hypotension.

It didn.t look like there.s a problem with gas exchange. PCO2 remains within the normal limits. However, when you look at the PF ratio, PAO2 over FIO2 here, there.s a progressive decrease in the PF ratio. And this is the defining feature of human ARDS, and we.re able to recapitulate that here in the

rabbit model.

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Lactate goes up. Okay, lactate goes up for the one with the small lungs as well. Base excess goes down. So, it looks like human ARDS, it looks like septic shock -- are even more evidence of this. So, when you look in the human literature of human ARDS, the majority of these patients also have acute myocardial-depression. And the way that you diagnose that is with echocardiography. And very fortunately for us, the people who work in my lab, three of them are cardiologists and they can do echo on these rabbits.

And what we have found is that at preinfection baseline, the heart is working properly.

So, there is a certain amount of blood that.s pumped
out of the left ventricle and that.s the left
ventricular ejection fraction. It.s between 60 and 75
percent at pre-infection baseline in rabbits.

Now, in the terminal phase of ARDS or septic shock in the VABP model, all the rabbits have global left ventricular hypokinesia, so that the heart is not pumping as well. And so only about 50 percent

of the blood is actually pumped out of the left ventricle. And this is a very, very consistent feature.

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What else makes this model look like a human infection? We look at platelets over time, except for this one animal in the red. For the other nine animals using the natural history study, you know, by the time that they die, it.s also associated with the bottom of the platelets. So, they clearly have very severe thrombocytopenia in these rabbits. And that is manifest in about 20-30 percent of rabbits as disseminated intervascular coagulation, just like you see in a subset of human patients. So, this is skin petechiae, bleeding in the skin. There is bleeding in the gastrointestinal tract, there.s bleeding into the bladder. This is a very, very severe model.

So, what is the trigger to treat in this model? You know, we determined this empirically but we back it up with data. And so what you see here is at five-hour post infection is when we start treatment in the acute pneumonia model. There.s

already evidence of pulmonary edema, there.s already evidence of neutrophilic infiltrate, there.s evidence of hemorrhage in the lung. And this, you know, you can see this without radiology. The reason is we can do histology very well here for a much higher resolution picture of the disease.

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Now, in this model we treat at six hours post-infection. It doesn.t work very well. So it looks like the golden hour of treatment for these models is five hours or less. If you treat later on at six hours post-infection, it.s too late. And the data that I.ve shown you earlier at five-hour post infection in this model, about two-thirds of the rabbits have hypoxemia. So, this is consistent with the clinical features of human pneumonia.

The VABP model, in contrast, can.t treat it at five hours post-infection -- it may be too late because of that hypotension. So, we found that treatment is probably best at three-hour post-infection. We haven.t titrated this out very well. We.ve only done this at three and six-hours post-infection. But three hours definitely works a whole

lot better than six hours post-infection for when to initiate treatment.

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Therapeutic efficacy in the acute pneumonia model is contingent really on the efficacy of the antibiotic. In contrast, in the VABP model because of the ARDS septic shock, treatment requires supportive care, ICU-style supportive care, including fluid challenge and norepinephrine. But it.s not that easy to do this kind of supportive care because half of the rabbits have very big lungs. And the concern there is if we come in with fluid challenge, we could overload the animal with fluid and then they would die from the fluid overload rather than it benefiting So, in this model we took a very fluid restrictive approach and we rely earlier on the use of vasopressor rather than fluid challenge to resuscitate these animals.

So, efficacy data in the acute pneumonia model we treated the animal with saline and they rapidly die, as expected. However, when we treat with 80 milligrams per kilogram of Meropenem every two hours -- okay, this is every two hours, nasty

experiment -- 12 doses total, we have an improved in survival so that 67 percent of these animals survive.

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And the reason we have to do this nasty Meropenem dosing regimen -- you know, Bill Weiss, our collaborator, will go into it at the end of this talk, how that dose may mimic the human Meropenem PK.

The VABP model -- in the VABP model, in contrast, you know, we still get the rabbits that are treated with saline still all die, but those that were treated with Meropenem alone, half of the animals die -- even though treatment in this model was administered earlier at three-hour post-infection.

So, it indicates that maybe antibiotic treatment alone is not sufficient. And certainly in human ARDS, especially in the ICU setting, you.re not going to be treating with Meropenem alone, but that supportive care will be given to the patients, so we want to mimic that in the animal model. And here what we founds is that rabbits that were treated with Meropenem plus standard ICU supportive care, including fluid challenge and norepinephrine, they have the best survival.

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These are preliminary data but some of the P value shown is already statistically different. The difference between the red and the green line is already very near statistical significance, even though we.re only halfway through the study. Oh, I.m sorry. And treatment with fluid challenge and norepinephrine alone doesn.t do very much. How do I go back? Can we go back please, one more? Back, back, back, back, back, back, back. Here we go. Thanks.

The blue line, fluid challenge with norepinephrine, it only shifted the survival curve to the right a little bit but they all die. So, we need that antibiotic onboard as well.

Now, in the acute pneumonia model, survival is correlated with reduction in lung weight to body weight ratio. No surprises there. In the acute pneumonia model, it.s the same that Meropenem treatment is associated with smaller lungs. But, you know, half of the rabbits have small lungs to being with, so how did we save these rabbits from death? We wanted to know that. So, we look at a variety of

different biomarkers.

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Here are the CFU count in the different organs. And you can see here that survival is associated with -- or the efficacy of Meropenem is associated with its ability to clear bacteria from the organs. In these -- you know, both of these models were established using a pan susceptible strain 6206. Its MIC to Meropenem is 0.25 micrograms per mil. And so, there is, as predicted, there would be bacterial killing that you see here.

In this model, other outcomes are possible -- not just CFU count and lung weight. For example, how much fluid did we use? How much norepinephrine did we use? And we actually used amounts that are very similar in patients who are treated for human ARDS.

So, we also look at a variety of different biomarkers over time. So, this is the four experimental groups in the VABP model. This is the time post-infection. So, zero-hour post-infection is the baseline. And then 3, 6 -- I.m sorry, 3 and 9 hours post-infection at the time before euthanasia.

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Okay, and what you see here is rabbits that were treated with saline, there is a decrease in the PF ratio. In the rabbits that were treated with fluid challenge and norepi there is also a decrease in the PF ratio. In human ARDS, this kind of PF ratio is considered moderate ARDS.

Okay, here are the data for Meropenem.

So, Meropenem treatment alone was able to halt the progression of VABB in this model. So you don.t get that PF ratio dropping to a very severe level. With Meropenem and fluid challenge plus norepinephrine you also see that halting of disease progression.

We look at other clinically relevant biomarkers like lactate and you see here, lactate increased in the two groups that -- where the animals die. In the Meropenem-only group you see it also increases to eight. Eight in rabbits is not like eight in human. So, in rabbits, the normal range in rabbits is actually anywhere between two and eight. So, in human, you know, lactate of eight is quite severe.

But the best outcome, it appears, is

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with Meropenem plus fluid challenge and norepinephrine where we halt that progression of ARDS. The same goes with base excess here. When we look at white blood cells and neutrophils, just like in human ARDS, one would expect leukopenia and neutropenia, and that.s what we see here. You know, there s a drop in the number of white blood cells mostly due to neutropenia.

And, as I mentioned earlier, these neutrophils get trafficked into the lung in an IO8-dependent manner. And you actually see leukocytosis in the groups that were treated with Meropenem. Okay. So, like here. They actually increase in numbers because they survive the infection.

Platelets. Platelets drop to a very severe level in the first two groups but that thrombocytopenia is halted with the treatment with Meropenem in the last two groups here.

So, in summary, you know, I.ve shown you data from two rabbit models, the acute pneumonia model and the VABP model. You know, our natural history was designed to determine the extent to which the pathophysiology of rabbit -- in the rabbits mimic

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human non-ventilated hospital-associated pneumonia or the ventilated version of it. And, you know, it would be good to hear from the panel and from the audience whether, you know, the model that I.ve presented here does that. How well it mimics the human disease.

The acute pneumonia model uses a wake rabbit; the VAPB model uses anesthetized rabbits that.s ventilated with low tidal volume. The pathophysiology is different. One is of -- where the animal dies of profound respiratory failure; in the other group they die of ARDS septic shock, including myocardial depression.

I didn.t have time to show you data but when you look at other biomarkers like cardiac troponin, CKMB, myoglobin, all of those things track with the echocardiography also.

So, the primary outcome in both models are survival. The second outcomes include, you know, the usual CFU and lung weight to body weight ratio, but also physiological monitoring and longitudinal biomarker analysis of things like neutrophils and cardiac troponin and whatnot.

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Antibiotic dosing in the acute pneumonia model can only be done by bolus administration. We have done as much as every two hours, and it.s very feasible to do that in large animals, in rabbits. Antibiotic dosing in the VABP model is by use of a programmable syringe pump that may better allow for mimicking of the human concentration time curve. And Bill will present those data next.

Supportive care is not possible in the awake rabbit model. They re running around. But supportive care is actually an essential feature of the VABP model, where we need to be able to support the blood pressure, support tissue profusion for the animal to not die, allowing time for the antibiotic to work.

Now, in terms of feasibility, you know, any labs can do the acute pneumonia model. It.s very simple. It only requires you to be able to intubate the rabbit. Put bacteria in the lung. It.s just like a mouse. The only problem is, as Dr. Walsh was mentioning, you know, it.s a higher standard of care.

Maybe at Cornell they are required to check on the rabbits every -- twice a day. At UCFF we are required to check on the rabbits every two hours.

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So, for us, you know, dosing every two hours is no big deal because we.re there anyway. And this is because there.s a lot of regulation associated with the use of USDA species, especially Type E, that these animals go under where we don.t treat whatever pain and suffering that we cause to the animal.

And the only way to alleviate pain and suffering in these animals is by humane euthanasia. And the way that we achieve that is by carrying around a lactate meter. So, these animals -- it.s time for them to go, to be euthanized when their lactate is above 10 millimo per liter. It.s an objective way to identify animals that are in respiratory distress, so you can euthanize them. So, these animals -- these models can be done humanely, it.s just that it requires a higher standard of care to be able to catch them.

The VABP model is very complicated. It requires an experimental ICU setting and it requires a

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team of four physicians with 12 years -- combined years of ICU experience to be able to do this. And so these are the people who work on the rabbit VABP model and these are the people in my lab who work on the acute pneumonia model.

BILL WEISS: So, in the interest of time, we decided to put the summary of the PK all on one slide to make it a little bit easier to discuss. In doing the rabbit model that.s been described, the efficacy, it lends itself to possibly getting better humanized dosing because it is a larger species and you can do a lot more with that rabbit.

And we also heard this morning that there were two ways to maybe go about this.

Intermittent dosing, which several examples were given for MIRING models, or continuous infusion. So, the data that.s presented here on the left hand side is the acute model. And as has been described, these are conscious rabbits, you can.t do an infusion. Rabbits are very nervous creatures and you have to be very careful with them. So, this is -- the acute model was done at 80 migs per kig, as he said, Q2-hour. And the

idea there was to try to simulate lower dose

Meropenem, the 1 gram Q8-hours with a very short
infusion.

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When you look at the literature, that particular dose, the measure of AUC varies a little bit, but we found one paper -- Binh found one paper that looked at both the 1 gram and the 2 gram, so we.re going with that data. So, it.s an AUC of 124 microgram hours per mil. The time of MIC listed here is based off the strain that Binh used in his rabbit model, which is the 6206, which has a low MIC of .25.

Clinically, that one gram Q8-hour dose should reach the target for Meropenem, which is at least 40 percent of the dosing interval for MICs up to two. So, that dose should cover a wide range. So, it should cover other MICs other than the one Binh used.

You can see in the graph the solid red line is the PK after a single 80 mig per kig dose. And that if we extrapolate that out every two hours, it gives, you know, trough and C-max values. The green line is the PK taken from the one paper after the one gram Q8-hour or the 10 infusion. So, again,

as we.ve seen this morning, it.s not perfect but you get an approximation of the PK you see in human dosing for VABP patients with one gram dose.

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The AUC and up case, looking at that was higher than the human dose at the same, but then if you look at some of the data for Meropenem with Monte Carlo simulations, that AUC can vary either side of that. So, it is in the same ballpark as was seen. And in the model that Binh just described, I saw about 67 percent survival with this dosing regimen simulating the one-gram dose.

Now, the graph on the right was done doing the staggered continuous infusion. So, how did that work? The infusion was done over eight hours at different intervals. So, it was like 1 to 2, 2 to 3, 3 to 4, changing the dose each time to simulate PK that was equivalent to, I think it was, 20, 28, 35, 10, 5 and 1 milligram per kilogram. So, there is a lot that went into just getting that regimen in terms of preliminary dosing in all those doses and then modeling it and simulating it to try to simulate what we wanted -- what Binh wanted to achieve.

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So, with that regimen simulating now for VABP patients the higher dose Meropenem, which is the 2-gram Q8-hour over a 3-hour infusion, that AUC was 232. With the dosing that Binh gave that I just described, the AUC was 273. You can see the two lines overlap very nicely in terms of the plasma exposures observed. And with the supportive therapy with this type of dosing, the efficacy in terms of survival did increase significantly up into the high 80s at that point. So, the rabbit will allow this type of modeling and this type of dosing to better simulate the human exposures. Now, we will say that in the acute model, that PK data was in infected animals. data for the staggered infusion is in uninfected It has been done and actually I think the animals. samples are in my lab waiting to be analyzed now to see whether or not the exposure was similar in infected versus uninfected for the staggered infusion.

The other things we haven.t taken into account here is protein binding. Human plasma,

Meropenem is low, it.s about 6 percent. And based on

literature and what we.ve tried to measure, it can 1 2 vary anywhere from maybe 10 to 20 percent in rabbit plasma, which is not significantly higher than human 3 4 and probably will have minimal impact on the numbers we see here. And that was it in a nutshell. 5 6 DR. MARINA KOZAK: Thank you so much. 7 So, our last large animal model, extra-large animal 8 model talk will be by Dr. Andrew Phipps. Dr. Phipps is a subject matter expert supporting BARDA.s 9 10 antibacterial program with over 20 years of experience 11 in drug development, comparative medicine, 12 microbiology and animal models. 13 DR. ANDREW PHIPPS: So, thank you, Marina, for that introduction. And I.d like to thank 14 15

Marina, for that introduction. And I.d like to thank you all for listening to me talk about our work on the porcine model of ventilator-associated bacterial pneumonia caused by pseudomonas and Acinetobacter. I have no disclosures. And I.d like to start with my acknowledgements up front. A lot of work has gone on by colleagues at BARDA, colleagues at FDA and also the NIAID BARDA FDA working group.

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So, we started the morning talking

about mice, and then we moved on to rabbits, and now,
as Marina said, we.re going to talk about an extralarge animal model of the large animal models. But
before we do that -- maybe...

DR. MARINA KOZAK: Maybe turn the

DR. MARINA KOZAK: Maybe turn the mouse?

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DR. ANDREW PHIPPS: Let me do the mouse. Woops. There we go. So, I.d like to talk a little bit about BARDA.s nonclinical division. So, BARDA has a nonclinical division. We have an IDIQ contract with several research organizations that actually do our animal model development work. We have a biological network, we have a RAD NUC network. We.re also developing capability in BSL-4, ABSL-4 network, and then we have COM network. The goal here is to do animal model development and also evaluation of medical countermeasures that covers the CV4 mission of BARDA, and this work is occurring under our biological network.

So, the work I.m going to talk about today has been carried out at two organizations under our network. And I wanted to talk a little bit about

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borrowing some of the concepts from the animal rule.

So, how can we apply animal models in late stage drug development? We can do that when human efficacy studies are not ethical and field trials are not feasible. We would like to have a well-understood disease mechanism and prevention or reduction by the product in the animal model that we.re working with.

We.d like to understand the action

We.d like to understand the action within the animal model or the animal models, and that they should be predictive of the human response.

We.ve talked a little bit today about endpoints, and so we.re looking at endpoints that are related to the desire benefiting humans. So, we.d like to be able to translate how the human would feel, function or survive. We also would use pharmacodynamics or pharmacokinetic data for translation of an effective dose to humans.

So, if we can obtain efficacy data from an adequately well-characterized animal model, it could be used and supplement the clinical data from patients with a variety of infections caused by pseudomonas in one or more descriptive studies. There

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are currently no adequately characterized animal models for the indications being considered and unlike trials for biothreat agents, it.s ethical to conduct human efficacy trials. However, feasibility of conducting those trials is an issue.

So, what are some advantages of the porcine model? Similar to the rabbit, the anatomical, physiological and biochemical similarities to humans, the gross and microscopic anatomy of the porcine lung is similar to human lungs. Pigs have a similar array of innate immune function in the lungs, and so we.re talking about an immunocompetent model here. We.re not using immunocompromised or neutropenic animals.

These pigs are 12 to maybe 15-weeks of age and weigh anywhere between 20 and 30 kilograms, so their large size is amenable to the use of equipment that.s typically used for humans in critical care scenarios. And we know, going back at least 20 years, that their previous studies using swine, that they.ve demonstrated that these animals can be mechanically ventilated for up to 3-4 days after bacterial inoculation, which would allow for sufficient time for

the development of disease, initiation of therapy and monitoring of a response to therapy. So, there are several publications looking at this model.

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So, what have we done so far? So, we actually -- and I.ll talk a little bit about why we necessarily had to do this, but we have created and characterized strains of ceftriaxone-resistant pseudomonas. So, our pseudomonas strain is ATTC27853 and we used a serial process to actually increase the ceftriaxone MIC to greater than 256 micrograms per mil. The Acinetobacter strain is already resistant to ceftriaxone, and I.ll talk a little bit about that with the challenges and why we need a ceftriaxone-resistant strain for this model.

We also have worked to establish a model for prolonged ventilation in the porcine model. So we use all female Yorkshire land-raised cross-bred juvenile pigs. These pigs are anesthetized and mechanically ventilated for 96 hours. And, as I pointed out, mechanically ventilated pigs, a majority of them will go on to develop a spontaneous pneumonia. Typically, organisms that we would see would be

Pasteurella multocida, introvactor species,

staphylococcus species, streptococcus -- so, similar

but not exactly the kinds of organisms that are

associated with HABP/VABP in humans. But in order to

prevent them developing spontaneous pneumonia, we need

to treat them with ceftriaxone from the beginning of

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the experiment.

So, we found out very early on in the pilot that we needed the ceftriaxone treatment and, therefore, the challenge strains have to be ceftriaxone-resistant, otherwise the animals will develop pneumonia within a period of time -- you know, 48 hours, which compromises our ability to use them in the study.

After we.ve established the pilot, we will establish the bronchoscopic challenge and dose range finding for each strain, and then we.d want to move on to characterize the natural history of the disease in the porcine model. We.ll talk a little bit about what we.re monitoring but we.re looking for disease development and progression, and also the establishment of euthanasia criteria.

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So, I.m very happy that Binh Diep set me up for all of this and talked a little bit about the complexities in using anesthetized mechanically ventilated models, but the establishment of euthanasia criteria and endpoint survival is not trivial because these animals are basically maintained on supportive care. So, we have to have criteria to use to say that they have met certain objective criteria ideally to say that, you know, they no longer are able to survive.

And then eventually we would like to use the developed model to evaluate the efficacy of antibacterial drugs to which the strains are susceptible and resistant. So, we would move on to a proof of concept study using an antimicrobial with known activity against our strain of pseudomonas to demonstrate, as has been done in the rabbit model, that there would be a difference in either endpoints, which could be survival or a combination of biochemical and other parameters that we would measure.

So, what are some of the challenges and

considerations in using pigs? Well, so unlike rabbits and other laboratory animal species, pigs present somewhat of a challenge in actually establishing venous and arterial catheterization. It.s a little more complicated to do based on their anatomy.

There.s not as many visual cues to use, and it.s not a trivial item.

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The other thing is that placing a urinary catheter in a male pig is practically impossible, and so in order to put a urinary catheter in, we.ve decided to use all female pigs, for which this is much straightforward.

Intubation is also not trivial. So, these animals are maintained for 96 hours and one of the things that we have to do is to use a high volume, low pressure endotracheal tube to prevent trauma. And then also the parameters for mechanical ventilation.

As Binh Diep pointed out, we use sparing parameters, lower title volumes, positive and expiratory pressure. Basically, what we re trying to do is to set the animal up for the development of pneumonia but, yet, we don.t really want to induce acute lung injury very

quickly.

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We also have to consider the maintenance and support. So, unlike the rabbit model, we use a continuous rate infusion for anesthesia, so we use a mixture of drugs in combination to maintain anesthesia. We need to provide IV fluids and dextrose, we have vital sign monitoring, we can perform hematology and clinical chemistry. And then when we reach the endpoint of the study, we have to consider necropsy and bacteriology.

So -- and I apologize for not having nice pictures but I think that you can sort of imagine, based on the prior presentation, about having an animal that.s being mechanically ventilated. So, unlike the rabbit, and I.m assuming from your cartoon that the rabbits are actually on their back -- they.re face down, yes. So, you cannot maintain a pig in a position on their back for long periods of time. So, these animals are actually in, what we call, ventral recumbency. So, they.re face down.

We have to figure out ways of restraining them in this position. We also have to

deal with pressure sores and so we have foam padding.

And then we also have positioning -- we keep them with

their head at a negative 15 degrees relative to the

horizontal plane, which allows for drainage of fluids

away from the lung. And previous models have actually

used the opposite -- they use the Anti-Trendelenburg

position where they actually elevate the head, which

we found to complicate this model.

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We do have some issues, like I said, with pressure sores on the sternum, the hind limbs and the forelimbs, so we.re using padding and somewhat changing the position of the pigs over the 96-hour period to prevent this.

So, monitoring -- and I appreciate the video -- basically, we use the same types of monitors in a clinical ICU setting. We re able to monitor heart rate, mean arterial pressure, core body temperature. We use a pulse oximeter, ECG, we monitor urine output, arterial blood gas, respiratory rate. We look for any spontaneous respiration. We can measure total minute volume, entitled co2, FiO2. We have our mechanical parameters like plateau pressure,

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peak -- excuse me -- inspiratory pressure of compliance, resistance. We can calculate arterial 02 divided by FiO2, which is the fraction of inspired oxygen. We do maintain a constant cuff pressure on the endotracheal tube. We do some quantitative and qualitative estimates of tracheal secretion. We can perform hematology assessments, clinical chemistry. We.re looking at C-reactive protein and procalcitonin. So, we.re monitoring a large number of parameters continuously so these animals are monitored continuously by staff. There.s veterinarians on staff 24/7 for the entire period in a critical care setting. We.ve talked a little bit about this. So, for ceftriaxone, plasma protein binding is not well-characterized in pigs, and so we wanted to look at -- in the literature, a dose of 50 milligrams per kilogram given every 12 hours by a 30-minute infusion has been used in these animals. So, we went ahead and started to look in the PK of ceftriaxone in these animals over a 12-hour period. So, what I.m showing here is plasma concentrations. This is total drug, Dose 1 and Dose 5. And using this, we actually did

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some modeling based on plasma protein binding and looking at various, either 30 percent unbound, 50 percent unbound, 70 percent unbound, or 100 percent unbound. In humans, plasma protein binding of ceftriaxone is very high. In large animal species it tends to be lower.

Using a target of 70 percent free time above MIC, if we actually look across and assume that there.s either around 30 percent binding or 50 percent binding, and we extrapolate that to 70 percent free time above MIC, we should have coverage up to around a ceftriaxone MIC of 2 micrograms per mil.

So, since our challenge strain has an MIC of 256, we don.t anticipate there would be any activity of the ceftriaxone. However, we know from our pilot studies that this dose and regimen is sufficient to prevent the development of spontaneous pneumonia.

So, for bacteriology we.re very interested in looking at blood culture at the time of euthanasia. So, since this is a large animal model, we have the ability to collect 100 milliliters of

blood for the purposes of doing blood culture so we can run 10 adult-size BACTEC blood culture bottles.

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Now, in differences between the mouse model and the rabbit model, when you actually look at the size of the porcine lung, it.s not possible to actually homogenize and plate the entire lung. And so this is one of the issues about doing quantitative bacterial assessment, is that we need to have a reproducible sampling plan.

So, we.ve developed a pre-specified tissue sampling plan where 8-10 samples of the lung is actually sampled, weighed, homogenized, and then plated for quantitative bacteriology. In addition, any colonies that we isolate go on to have identification by MALDI-TOF, and we do antibiotics susceptibility testing. And that secause in these animals we want to know is there still background organism that s not pseudomonas or Acinetobacter present? And, if so, what is that organism and what is the MIC against especially ceftriaxone?

So, when we were doing this without

antibiotics, this became an exercise in clinical

microbiology because you would get all sorts of organisms coming out in polymicrobial infections.

We.d have to go through and identify those and look at the antimicrobial susceptibility. That.s much reduced with ceftriaxone, although it.s still possible that

6 you will get other organisms when we do the
7 bacteriology.

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And I want to spend a little bit of time talking about the proposed euthanasia criteria.

So, very similar to the rabbit model, we do provide supportive care. We do not use norepinephrine, so we.re not using any vasopressors in this model. We do provide fluid support. And so basically you have to have some objective criteria to determine when this animal has actually reached its endpoint.

So, remember, they re anesthetized, they re fully sedated, they feel no pain, there is no nociceptions. So, basically, we have to come up with some parameters. And the first parameter is actually technical. So, any adverse mechanical event that cannot be remedied. So, in other words, if we have to stop ventilating the animal for any reason, we re not

going to wake this animal up. It.s met its endpoint.

So, we.d like to minimize the number of technical endpoints that we would reach.

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So, an example -- let.s just say that the endotracheal tube becomes displaced. It.s not possible to replace the endotracheal tube so, therefore, the animal can.t continue. So, severe hypoxia -- we.re defining that as PAO2 less than 40 millimeters with two measurements five minutes apart with the FiO2 at 100 percent. So, basically severe hypoxia.

Again, since we.re measuring mean arterial blood pressure, persistent hypotension -- so, less than 30 millimeters of mercury for more than 30 minutes. Basically, this animal will not survive in this situation, and so its reached what we would call an endpoint. And then for electrocardiography, asystole or no heartbeat for more than three minutes. So, otherwise, you know, you can continue to mechanically ventilate the animal but you have to have endpoints that we can use to say that we.ve reached non-survival.

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So, necropsy, we.re looking at gross necropsy findings. I talked about sterile collection of tissues for bacteriology. We also collect lung samples for histopathology so we have a histopathology grading score. We.re grading those lesions. And if this were to move forward and part of the natural history study, we would basically be blinding the histopathologist as to which animal they were looking at, so as not to introduce any bias. And then we also have a collection of a limited set of tissues for histopathology.

So, conclusions -- we.ve been able to successfully ventilate more than five animals for 96

successfully ventilate more than five animals for 96 hours. Again, these are Yorkshire land-raised pigs, all female pigs, 20-30 kilograms. This large animal model is amenable to physiologic and microbiologic characterization of the natural history of the disease, which I think is very important to characterize.

The large animal studies, as we.ve talked about, are challenging to establish and conduct. And so this is one of the limitations of the

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model, is that the complexity and the requirement for a critical care setting limits the number of animals that we can actually do. So, at most, it.s probably possible to mechanically ventilate two animals simultaneously. We certainly can.t do 12. 13. But I think that we have to balance this with the advantages of using the model over a small animal model.

The other thing is I think that hopefully we can keep these animals alive a lot longer, which allows us to have a more -- I don.t want to say relevant but representative disease progression as you would see in human beings. Allow time for the intervention. And as we go through the natural history study and establish a baseline of the disease progression, we.ll be able to look at these parameters and understand how these parameters change just in the mechanically ventilated pig, and then follow that up with the natural history once the animals have been infected with pseudomonas or Acinetobacter.

So, given the complexity, I think that we re a little bit behind the work in the rabbit model but our hope is that we can actually progress this

relatively quickly into the inoculation phase following the characterization of the inoculation dose, then we will bring that fully all the way through a natural history study, and then be able to do a proof of concept study.

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So, I put this up here, and this is the same as Tina Guina.s slide earlier today on how to contact BARDA, and I think you for your time.

DR. JOHN FARLEY: Thanks, Andrew, and thanks to all the presenters this afternoon. Some really interesting stuff to talk about. We re going to take a 15-minute break and come back at about five minutes before three, and then finish up with a panel discussion. Thanks.

(Break)

DR. JOHN FARLEY: ...and take their seats. I want to check that we have Bill -- William and Tom available on audio. How are we doing with opening up audio? Do we have William and Tom on audio? (Off-mic comment) Oh, good, thanks.

So, as we get things together, we have a microphone in the audience. I don.t want the

audience to feel like they.re not welcome to participate in the discussion. So, if you head up to the mic, we.ll see you and we.ll invite you in to join in the conversation.

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Okay, good. So, why don.t we flash up the questions. Can we do that? Or do we not have a question slide? Marina and I were talking and we actually had sort of some more specific issues than the questions that we thought we might start with. So, since it.s always awkward for the first few minutes, I.ll go ahead and ask the first question and sort of introduce one topic.

So, I think one of the things I.ve been very impressed with with really all the rabbit models is the natural history studies and the justification of a trigger to treat. But what I.m interested in is in the acute pneumonia models, we sort of ended up with very different trigger to treats times if you compare Binh and Tom, right? I believe that Tom.s trigger to treat was 12 hours, if I.m not mistaken, and Binh.s is earlier.

DR. BINH DIEP: Was it six hours in

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	1 10111.	5	model?

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DR. JOHN FARLEY: Yeah, I think 12.

3 DR. BINH DIEP: 12?

DR. JOHN FARLEY: Yeah. So, maybe you could talk through sort of your thoughts, and then maybe once Tom joins us we can hear what his thoughts are. That sounds like it might be him. So...

BINH DIEP: So, as I understand it in the two models, the two acute pneumonia models using awake rabbits are quite different. We use the rabbits that have normal immune systems, the other one is a neutropenic rabbit model. The inoculum that we use is — the inoculum size for both models, I believe, are rather similar. It.s about 1 x 10 to the 8th.

The strains are different. From our experience, one parameter matters a lot, and it is this: The inoculum, even though it.s 1 x 10 to the 8th, that is in a volume for us of 2.2 milliliter for the VABP model and 1.8 milliliter for the acute pneumonia model. There was a --

DR. THOMAS WALSH: I can hear them but nobody can hear me.

	1 DAT tuble Workshop white is 3, 2020
	Page 240
1	DR. JOHN FARLEY: We can hear you now,
2	Tom. Binh is just Tom? Tom, we can hear you.
3	DR. THOMAS WALSH: Can you hear us?
4	Because we.re really concerned you can.t hear us.
5	DR. JOHN FARLEY: We can hear you. Can
6	you hear me?
7	DR. THOMAS WALSH: Yes, yes. Because
8	William and I were trying to access earlier and we
9	weren.t we could hear you but it did not appear as
10	though you could hear us. But you can hear us now, is
11	that correct?
12	JOHN FARLEY: That.s correct.
13	DR. THOMAS WALSH: And can people hear
14	William?
15	WILLIAM HOPE: Can you hear me?
16	JOHN FARLEY: Can you hear me? And,
17	William, we can hear you too. All right.
18	WILLIAM HOPE: Okay, we.re all good,
19	we.re all good.
20	DR. THOMAS WALSH: Excellent. Very
21	good.

DR. JOHN FARLEY: Excellent. We.re all

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on. So, what I had started the discussion with was the sort of differences in trigger to treat in the rabbit models. Because there s been a lot of very nice elegant natural history studies done by you, but you end up in very different places.

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So, Binh was just talking through his trigger to treat justification. So, maybe you can summarize real quick.

DR. BINH DIEP: So, you know, the inoculum matters a lot. And the way that we inoculate our rabbits is with a large volume. We ensure that all six lobes of the rabbit lungs get bacteria. And the way that we prove that is, just like in one of the earlier presentations with the mouse, we use a blue dye or India ink, and we found that they re everywhere in all six lobes of the lung.

And this actually matters a lot because even with a higher dose of bacteria, if all the inoculum gets into the right lung, for example, the animal will never die. They will never show any signs of hypoxemia. They will live until whenever -- until they clear the infection.

1	I understand it in the Walsh model, the
2	rabbit model with neutropenia, a smaller inoculum is
3	used perhaps
4	DR. JOHN FARLEY: Well, we have Tom on
5	the phone so we.ll maybe
6	DR. BINH DIEP: Right. 300 microliters
7	or something.
8	DR. JOHN FARLEY: Yeah. We.ll let Tom
9	go next.
10	DR. BINH DIEP: Right.
11	DR. JOHN FARLEY: So, maybe, Tom, you
12	could talk through a little bit your method of
13	inoculation, your inoculum size and strain?
14	DR. THOMAS WALSH: Precisely. So, if
15	we focus on the Pseudomonas aeruginosa, we.ve studied
16	a number of genetically defined bacteria initially
17	screened in mouse models then moved up until the
18	rabbit model system. And they have relatively similar
19	variance properties.
20	The next step then is to ascertain
21	inoculum. There.s a general standard that we.ve used
22	and that is we communize the tracheal bronchial tree

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insofar as ascertaining that the tracheal bronchial tree is colonized. And then true to form of our patients as they go into immunosuppression, the colonization transforms into infection. That infection can be achieved with a relatively small inoculum, meaning, approximately, 300 microliters. It may differ depending on the organism or the intended inoculum. But generally, 300 microliters is administered in just a very fine aerosol with direct endotracheal direct exam intubation. And with that then you can see the emergence of the infection in the next 24 hours.

Now, at the earliest onset, we can initiate therapy within 6-8 hours and that.s at the earliest onset that one would see infiltrates. We can extend that out farther but then you.ll have a little bit more in the way of infiltrates. We re trying to ascertain the earliest timing possible. There is a bracket there, and I think the difference is in -- compared to the UCSF study, maybe surely -- well, one, the volume, and two, the immune suppression.

I think the volume plays a key role.

So, I think

1 Our intent is not to oversaturate the lung. When we 2 see the emergence of Pseudomonas pneumonia, if we were to look at multiple ventilated associated pneumonia 3 4 patients and we look at Pseudomonas, typically, it does start as a segmental or pulmonary infiltrate. 5 Ιt may then go on to other segments of the lung. But it 6 doesn.t start as a diffuse alveolar interstitial 7 8 process. 9 And so with that we.re trying to 10 emulate that which we see in this rather slower 11 emergence of infection. Ultimately, all lobes are 12 infected but the colonization to infection is one that 13 we believe is quite realistic and moving toward our patients. And I think the volume is a critical factor 14

JOHN FARLEY: Other questions or thoughts from the panel on kind of the mechanics of the rabbit models themselves?

therein lies the difference probably in just the

volume, given that the inoculant is quite similar.

insofar as achieving that difference.

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MAN 1: I have a comment about (inaudible) arise from and my work with phylogenetic

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FDA Division on inhaled drugs. So, have you measured the particle -- the droplet size distribution of the aerosolized droplets which eventually get infected for the rabbits? Because that will determine where it goes.

DR. THOMAS WALSH: Sure. So, our objective is not to create an LD or aerosol. We know that we can colonize the tracheobronchial tree similar to that which our patients have. So, it basically is at the end of a small 16 gauge catheter with very, very gentle administration that will seed the larger tracheobronchial tree. Unlike, say, an aerosolized tobra and aerosolized amikacin where you.re delivering fine particles of 3-5 micron diameter all the way into the alveolus. That generally is not what we see in our compromised patients. It.s usually a tracheobronchial communization and then starts extending further in.

So, that initial tracheobronchial that is in the large main stem bronchi in segmental bronchi is much more of what we are trying to achieve in comparison to, say, the very finely defined particles

that we would achieve, say, with aerosolized amikacin,
tobramycin or other agents.

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BINH DIEP: For our rabbit model, we do nebulize drugs like tobramycin and monoclonal antibodies. But in terms of setting up the infection, it.s not by nebulization of Pseudomonas aeruginosa. What we found is that it.s necessary in order to create this fulminant pneumonia that we need to infect all lobes of the -- all six rabbit lung lobes.

And the way that we accomplish that is putting big volume. That big volume alone doesn.t kill the rabbit. The rabbit -- let.s say the volume is about 10 milliliter of lung volume, and here we put in to the lung of the rabbits 2.2 milliliter for a VABP model.

JENNIFER HOOVER: Can I ask a general question about the use of rabbits?

JOHN FARLEY: Sure. Absolutely.

JENNIFER HOOVER: So, rabbits, I think, can be sort of prone to becoming ill by use of antibiotics because it disrupts their microbiome.

Have you guys had any -- seen any experiences with

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that and have any suggestions or thoughts on that
point?

DR. THOMAS WALSH: I could address that. 3 4 We have literally three decades of experience in working with that with model systems. And as I 5 alluded previously, in addition to maintaining the 6 7 high standards of care through IACUC, USDA, AAALAC, 8 we.ve also worked hard to establish standards and modulations for animal husbandry. And one of the real 9 10 challenges in managing rapids is exactly as you 11 indicated, in ascertaining the management of gas

intestinal microbiome.

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Depending upon the antimicrobial agent or even stress, one can start to see the emergence of two forms of diarrhea. And the literature sometimes is confusing on this, but we.ve characterized it very well microbiologically and identified two clear microbiological patterns. The most common that we encountered is diarrhea caused by clostridium spiroforme, which is the equivalent of clostridium difficle.

The organisms are relatively closely

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related. They both elaborate toxins. And in rabbits, the costridium spiroforme produces a classic -- we map rabbit pellets meticulously and we can way in advance when there is this alteration that may be leading to the development of costridium spiroforme diarrhea.

In order to prevent that, we have rabbits on 50 milligram per liter of oral -- in the drinking water of vancomycin. As you know, vancomycin is not gastrointestinally absorbed but what that does is suppress the costridium spiroforme. That s not unlike what we see in our patients. At the earliest onset, those patients, immunocompromised patients may very well go on oral vancomycin.

In this regard we.re preemptively managing, and that has had a major effect in reducing the morbidity and mortality of gastrointestinal infection. Now, sometimes it breaks through, and what we then see is -- as soon as we start to see the alteration in stool, which in earlier times, in the different models we were able to identify, yes, this is c-spiroforme. Then we start a 50 milligram oral dose Q-12 that in the vast majority of situations

1 | shuts down.

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There have been other situations, for example, where we have come in and where rabbits. facilities have been awash in costridium spiroforme and have come in with our protocols, and save those,

literally, a whole rabbit colony.

The other form that you see is what.s classically known in veterinary medicine as Tyzzer.s Disease or typhlitis. Sometimes the two can overlap. The c-spiroforme and Tyzzer, but Tyzzer is a very distinctive one in which you see much more of a watery diarrhea. And that.s one that is probably more of a microbiomic disruption. It may have several different causes, but we found in our hands that -- while it can be disruptive and can lead to consider weight loss, it... (Sound drops out)

JOHN FARLEY: We appear to have lost

Tom. Tom, can you hear us? If you.re still talking,

we actually can.t hear you. William, are you there?

WILLIAM HOPE: I am, John.

JOHN FARLEY: Great. Why don.t we wait to get Tom back, and I think, Judy, I wondered, you

look like you wanted to say something and I bet it has something to do with your Cipro experience back in anthrax days.

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My question for people with rabbit models is what -how much mouse data and what quality of mouse data
would you like to see before you start a rabbit study?

BINH DIEP: You know, I think rabbit
models are prohibitively expensive to be used as a
screen. And this is, you know, much better suited to

be done in mouse where you find, PKPD drivers of efficacy, where you look at the concentration in the epithelial lining fluid with destructive method of BAL collection. All of this is really better done in the mouse.

When it comes to rabbit models, it becomes very expensive. And so usually when we collaborate with industry, things have already been very well characterized in mouse models. And, you know, when we do collaborate, this is another species. And if a drug that works in more than one animal species will have probably a greater likelihood of

1 | working in humans.

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Maybe it will give you pause if something works, you know, amazingly in mice and doesn.t work in the rabbit, maybe it should give you some pause and think about your developmental program.

But to use rabbits as a screening tool is probably not feasible. You know, we.re talking about -- when direct cost is included. For example, like the VABP model, it.s \$12-15,000 a rabbit. And so, even when you can do a lot of rabbits at the same time, 13 rabbits, it.s really not suitable to be used as a screening tool. Not because of -- we.re not limited by how many rabbits we can do, but it.s really because of the cost.

of follow up on this. So, we.ve seen a great presentation both from you, Binh, and Dr. Walsh, and you have described a number of parameters and biomarkers that you traced, including his pathology and various physiologic science.

And in terms of model development and model development for product developers, it.s really

important to -- there are two big questions in mind. 1 2 One is how important it is that these models really reflect pathophysiology of human disease? And then 3 4 the second one, what really are the important models? 5 Sorry, endpoints for a drug developer. Right? 6 Because there are so many parameters, in the end, I assume there.ll be a number of natural history 7 8 studies, and then even to look across the studies and 9 sort of identify the most critical parameters. 10 So, maybe we can discuss altogether 11 first what is -- how important it is that animal model 12 really reflects human pathophysiology, because a model 13 is just a model and it.s never going to be perfect and what is good enough, right? 14 15 And then maybe the second question we can discuss is what really are the critical endpoints? 16 17 And if you don.t them yet, how are we going to get 18 there? 19 Maybe I can start. For us, BINH DIEP: the endpoint in our rabbit model is survival. And if 20 2.1 we don.t have survival, we don.t have anything. But 2.2 if we do have a difference in survival, all the

biomarkers that you can look at will follow because 1 they track with animal survival. And so if you.re 2 looking at multiple organ dysfunction, you are looking 3 4 at acute liver injury, you.re looking at total bilirubin, ASDALT, you.re looking at creatinine and 5 BUN for kidney injury. 6 7 Or in the case I.ve shown you with the 8 cardiac -- myocardial dysfunction that we see with cardiac troponin, CKMB myoglobin. All of those, they 9 10 tend to track with survival. So, if there is a difference in survival outcome, everything else 11 12 follows, whether you measure it or not. 13 So, that.s why I think for a natural history study it.s rather important to characterize 14 15 these biomarkers because if the biomarkers mimic human infection, then the model may better translate to the 16 17 efficacy of any drugs that you test in that model. 18 But in the end it.s really about survival. 19 DR. THOMAS WALSH: Hi, this is Dr. Walsh. I was cut off. I am so very sorry. Did you 20 2.1 hear -- I know a little bit of time has transpired --2.2 did you hear my comments concerning the alteration of

the microbiota of the rabbit?

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JOHN FARLEY: We did.

3 DR. THOMAS WALSH: Oh, okay, fine.

JOHN FARLEY: Now, we.re kind of onto a different thread. And maybe I can ask Tina to sort of restate that thread and you can jump in.

DR. THOMAS WALSH: Thank you, thank you. And sorry for the miscommunication on that.

TINA GUINA: Sure, happy to. Tom, thank you for joining back here. So, there are a couple of questions that are important for product developers, right? Models are just models and how important it is that the animal model really reflects the pathophysiology of human disease. I mean, many of us here have worked on animal models for biodefense. And you can try your best, you can work with nonhuman primates but it.s never a perfect model. So, that.s the first question -- how important that is to a product developer or for regulatory acceptance.

And the second one is what are really the critical endpoints in these models? We.ve seen from many presenters here excellent work, looking at

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development?

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PK, PKPD, organ burden, survival, number of biomarkers, number of the important physiologic parameters. And obviously these important endpoints are going to be important for -- different endpoints are going to be important for different models.

But in your mind, looking at a product developer who has a small budget and trying to do their best, and knows the regulatory agency are supporting their product development -- what are really important endpoints that we think are critical to demonstrate the efficacy so that we have the

confidence in drugs that are going into clinical

DR. THOMAS WALSH: Of course. And, ultimately, I think in working with, let us say, the model of a small biotech company, Tina, to which you alluded. I think, first of all, one has to have a goal, a strategy, looking way ahead. Where exactly do you envision the compound to be used?

Having that sense of where a compound is going helps to define organism and helps to define host and, thereby, helps to define specifically which

animal model systems will be most useful.

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Coming back to that then, one starts to work forward. Obviously, survival is paramount. But in addition to survival, one would like, much like we do clinical trials, one would also like to have a series of robust -- other robust endpoints that can further help to define this. Now, they may not be rigorously attached to a PKPD model because of the potential for variability. But for the sense of clinical impact, as we discussed this morning, that still is really paramount.

So, you.d like to be able to see, depending on the model system, a reduction in CFU.

But as we learned and we understand this morning for Acinetobacter, for example, that may not necessarily pertain from what we.ve seen with pseudomonas and for other bacterial pathogens that is applicable, that is important. So, again, identifying specifically the pathogen and the proper host.

But you.d like to have survival -- certainly everyone would agree is paramount, and there should be some degree of parallel consistency with the

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other markers. For example, we.ve discussed a residual bacterial burden, the lung weight pulmonary injury, physiological parameters, whether it.s oxygenation C-reactive protein, IO1 data, IL6. Any one of these markers hopefully will correlate, and increasingly we know these are also used as prognostic parameters in patients.

So, I think survival is paramount but you also want robust systems. And I think the large animal model systems can complement the murine systems because of their ability to serially track these trends. But you also want them to parallel what we also know happens in our patients.

JOHN FARLEY: Okay, so we.re going to take Jason at the microphone and then we.ll see if William has any comments in response to the questions and then we.ll pick up with the panel.

JASON MOORE: Thank you, John. My name is Jason Moore. I.m from the FDA as a clinical pharmacology reviewer. Within the theme of general translations, I had a specific question for Dr. Hope regarding the rabbit meningoencephalitis model.

1 So, can you potentially comment on 2 differences in penetration perhaps between rabbits and humans and how we may accommodate for that as we seek 3 4 to translate the results of the rabbit 5 meningoencephalitis model to the clinical setting? Thank you. 6 7 WILLIAM HOPE: Can you hear me? 8 JOHN FARLEY: We can. WILLIAM HOPE: The ability to directly 9 10 bridge through CFF is a legitimate one, just as you 11 would accept bridging through epithelial lining fluid 12 in terms of penetration into that space. And so I 13 think that the dynamic relationships are secure and can be adjusted through that space. And it.s 14 15 obviously clinically relevant. And I guess we explored that idea with cryptococcal meningitis, which 16 17 is an exemplar in many respects. 18 I guess the difficulty though, and to 19 your question, is what to do about the cerebrum because the penetration into the cerebrum in neonates 20 2.1 is obviously much more difficult to define and be 2.2 confident about. Now, obviously, they.re completely

different compartments biologically and pharmacologically and maybe prognostically. So, guess that.s where there.s a limitation potentially of all experimental models, but especially the rabbit.

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DR. THOMAS WALSH: This is Tom. May I comment as well on that question? What we have learned as well in CNS models, particular in the model for Candida meningoencephalitis and several other of the fungal encephalitis, and I think it.s certainly applicable from the work that.s been done in several animal model systems for CNS is that while we can look at the penetration across blood-brain barrier, intact blood-brain barrier, and attempt to compare one, across species and, two, to compare to humans, the critical nature is that once has an infection, there is marked disruption of the blood-brain barrier.

And understanding then that many of the subtleties that main pertain to neonatal versus adult and neonatal versus even older children may really not pertain, once you have a very active infection where we.ve seen particularly in the cerebrum that with the disruption of blood-brain barrier, not only is it a

subtle impact -- potentially subtle impact on CSF but it.s a striking impact in delivery of drug into CNS tissue.

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And so in that regard there may be a benefit in terms of the infection itself lending itself to a greater degree of tissue-drug delivery.

WILLIAM HOPE: And then can I also add,
John, that -- I mean, I think -- maybe I just didn.t
make it clear enough in my talk, but I think that just
the dangers of trying to bridge on PK alone. So, you
see Tobramycin getting into the central nervous system
but I don.t think that no three or four decades have
given anybody any confidence that aminoglycosides as
monotherapy should be used as CNS drugs.

So, there are some dangers about using and relying on PK in general, even over and above what Tom has just said.

JOHN FARLEY: Sure. And just to sort of round up that thread from the FDA.s perspective -- so, Sumathi and I remain very excited about your work as pediatricians. Because a key question is CNS penetration particularly in the neonatal space and

developing drugs for that population. And I think we 1 2 should press on with combining your data with sparse neonatal CSF samples that are difficult to obtain, but 3 4 sparse ones can be obtained. And I think that the 5 work you.re doing with Dr. Greenberg at Duke to do that remains very important as an approach. So, we.ll 6 7 sort of press on there. 8 So, I think the work you.ve done is 9 important and don.t get discouraged by the Candida 10 meningoencephalitis recent action. Because I think 11 they.re very different. 12 WILLIAM HOPE: Well, I think we all 13 knew, John, that that was a difficult decision for So I don.t think -- well, I.m not being critical 14 15 but it was interesting, wasn.t it, the interplay with 16 that information and how to weight it. It was an 17 interesting debate. Anyway, I.ll stop there. 18

JOHN FARLEY: Any other comments on this thread? I want to take us in a slightly different direction of regulatory impact.

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WILLIAM HOPE: Can I ask a question about pneumonia, John?

JOHN FARLEY: Sure, why don.t you go 1 2 ahead? WILLIAM HOPE: I might have missed it 3 4 but has anybody, in terms of the larger animal models with pneumonia looked at E. coli? Because that is the 5 problem in mice, is establishing an E. coli model 6 7 where it.s a leading human pathogen for HABP/VABP. And you.re often required to -- well, most of those 8 programs will run through Klebsiella which is much 9 10 easier to establish. But I.m just sort of interested 11 whether E. coli can be established in the rabbit or 12 the pig. 13 JOHN FARLEY: Yeah, so maybe we can broaden that question to experience in other bacteria 14 15 ACA in the rabbit setting. 16 DR. THOMAS WALSH: We have worked with 17 KPC, Klebsiella -- KPCN and DM1 -- but we have not 18 worked with E. coli. We.ve targeted on what would our 19 most critical epidemiologic challenges have been, but have not worked with E. coli. 20 2.1 BINH DIEP: We, in the rabbit VABP 2.2 model, we have tested a whole bunch of different

1 | Klebsiella of different serotypes -- Serotype 01, 02,

04. And it.s rather easy to infect and kill rabbits

in the VABP model with Klebsiella pneumonia of

4 different serotypes.

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JOHN FARLEY: So, that actually kicks us off in a direction that I thought would be good to pursue, and it kind of has to do with tech transfer issues and ultimately regulatory impact. Because the idea would be to present a model that could be run in a variety of labs that would be accessible to industry. I mean, that sort of our raison d.btre.

So, I guess, Binh, you.re running -just in terms of efficiency, I think you.re running 13
rabbits at once and it.s a limitation of your
equipment. Is that right?

BINH DIEP: Yes. And probably not any more than that can be done, even if we.re not limited by the physical size of our ICU. This is about manpower. Usually in the ICU setting there.s an ICU nurse, a team of physicians. And here we have at any one point time in our rabbit ICU, two physicians and two to three technicians helping them. So, it.s a

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1	team of five around the clock for the duration of the
2	study, which is usually around 60 hours. So, we
3	cannot do more than that.
4	But then we also cannot do typically
5	less than 13 because then it will be cost prohibitive
6	to break up the studies into two different times.
7	JOHN FARLEY: Right. And, Tom, how
8	many rabbits are you running at a time?
9	DR. THOMAS WALSH: We can run anywhere
10	from 12-16 at any one time. If necessary, if pressed
11	harder, we could do more. We have done somewhat more,
12	up to 18. But, typically, our size is 12-16.
13	JOHN FARLEY: Right. And, William?
14	WILLIAM HOPE: We can run six. And so
15	we have to do cohorts of six, and that is a bit of an
16	issue for us. There.s a housing problem, a husbandry
17	problem, but also just a resource in terms of people.
18	JOHN FARLEY: Right, okay. And the
19	second line of questions are harder and they sort of
20	follow up on partly where Tina was going, which is
21	you know, the issue of translatability of acute
22	pneumonia models versus VABP models. And, you know,

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what we thought originally was maybe we should do a model where the rabbit looks just like the patient in the ICU and they.re on the ventilator, etc. But maybe that.s not a direction one should go in because the acute pneumonia models seem simpler to me and more transferrable. So, I.ll just open the door there and see what folks are thinking.

TINA GUINA: And thank you for that,

John. I just want to make a comment also based on

experience that I have, and worked many years also

with Judith Hewitt and a number of people in

developing biodefense models. And I hope she.ll have

something to say too.

I really commend everyone who has done very detailed studies of natural history, looking at all possible biomarkers. Because excellent, possibly detailed natural history studies are the foundation of understanding the model. So, while we may end up using simpler models, and that was the reason for my questions -- what are really the critical endpoints? -- I really think that, if possible, if we can fund this and if we can really dedicate ourselves for a

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little bit longer period of time to really
understanding these models, VABP and acute pneumonia
and collecting as much data as possible, then
performing analysis on what may be critical parameters
that are important in human disease across the
studies, as we have done for some of our biodefense
models and published recently on that then that can
inform what the critical parameters are. And then
maybe it will be simpler to run these studies because
we.ll identify trigger to treat that.s critical
inocula what works for different strains? What are
the most important biomarkers? What do we have to
track, and what really is the what kind of
resources we need to put around that.
And I.ll leave it at that. And I would
like to hear what others have to say. Judy, do you
want to add? I would love to hear from you.
JUDITH HEWETT: I.m going to throw
something else into the basket. PK of drugs is not
under our control. It.s driven by the animal that
we.re putting these drugs into. And so really this is
just sort of a comment that I think we need as many

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different animal models as we can get for the occasion when we put a drug into a rabbit, for example, and it just won.t tolerate that drug, you know, where does that leave us? It.d be really nice to have a pig or something else. Because it may not have happened yet but it will happen.

And I agree with your comments, Tina, about natural history studies being very well characterized. I think it.s really nice to see even all of the effort that.s going into the mouse studies. I mean, granted, when you have a larger animal on a respirator you have an opportunity -- especially with the larger animals, you have a greater opportunity to sample them and really look carefully at natural history.

But I do think it.s important also,
even for the mice, especially if we.re going to sort
of exhaust everything we can get out of many mouse
studies before we go into these larger species. So,
I.m very appreciative of all the work that.s gone into
all the mouse studies that were presented here today,
talking about numbers of animals and variety of

different strains that were tested in mice, and males and females, and just a lot of parameters that really are important when you get into the clinical space.

And we really just cannot ignore them in the preclinical space.

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ACHIM WACH: Maybe to the point of PK I can make a comment from the small company. So, here we have tested or generally test in at least four to five species before we go into humans, of course. But this is maybe special because our molecules are peptides which are treated or metabolized differently in the different species. So, this is one thing.

The other thing is coming also back to Tina.s comment and taking it from the other side. The problem we have is that we are quite afraid about taking the wrong timing for the treatment. When I hear Binh talking about that one, our difference might make the world turn around completely, that is our biggest problem. We know very well what we are looking for, what kind of conditions we would like to carry, ventilation, sedation, whatever, co-medication, whatever you have. But if we missed the right point

of starting the treatment, everything will be void for us.

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CARA CASSINO: Yeah, if I can build on Achim.s comments as another small drug developer company. The situation that we face is kind of similar in that we ve observed variability in the different animal species with the compounds, the license that we re working on.

Say, for example -- so, I think which model do you want may depend on the purpose that you.re going to use it for. And I can think of two. So, one is a comment and one will be a question. If you imagine a scenario where you may have a very interesting biologic compound that.s highly active against resistant pseudomonas but you can.t really get reliable measurement in rodents, then you have no choice basically to either give up or think about how to work with folks who.ve refined the larger animal model. And the go-to place that we would go, and we.ve already done some work, is in the rabbit.

And for that scenario we would be

thinking well, maybe we would want to develop this

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antipseudomonal compound for HABP, hospital-acquired pneumonia. That would be an obvious go-to place. So what we would be looking for is a reliable model that could help us both with defining efficacy with a definitive endpoint such as survival and additional softer endpoints that might be supportive. And I do completely agree that they will follow survival, if you.re -- you know, the way you.ve laid it out.

We also would like to be able to use that then to help us understand dosing so that we could come to a rational way to propose dosing in our ventilator or just hospital-acquired or both. It probably would be a HABP/VABP trial. So that we could support dosing and have an intelligent dialogue with the agency around what that would be when we go into our large scale, expensive, big project as a small company. That might be a HABP/VABP, which as everybody knows, is no small feat to do.

So, those are the kind of components, and to the greater extent that this is studied and different folks are working on it and we come to some common understanding, that would be very helpful

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because the mouse pathway in all of this and the rodent pathways are much more well-hewn and described in the small molecule arena. So, it.s a little bit easier to follow that. And once you get into another specie, we really want to partner with people who are interested in expanding the knowledge. So, that.s one example.

And then there.s another whole thing that.s a little bit different, which is if one, for example, had a broad spectrum compound that was highly active against CRE, against CRA, against Colistin-resistant CRE and CRA, that you can.t even figure out how you might even get enough patients to do a study. Then I would say we would be very interested in talking about is there a prospect of an animal model that together with a small amount of clinical data might help us understand whether this can actually work.

Because those really bad, scary bugs will be very hard to study, as you all know, in clinic and I wondered what the agency.s perspective on that scenario is and whether that.s somewhere that you

might consider in a future state once some of these earlier stage compounds, if they come to fruition, do.

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JOHN FARLEY: Yeah, I can totally respond to that first and then invite others. So, I think you.re right on in terms of what we.re thinking about in a future state. And it actually goes along with the recent workshop we had on antibacterial drug development and those challenges.

So, we absolutely -- that is the niche, one of the niches that we see for further developed animal models. We think there will be a clinical trial and we will get to a trial that will at least produce some data in those patients with better -- you know, very rare and have organisms but those organisms are very high priority.

I mean, the easiest is a change of comparator in these trials so that you actually can enrich an all-comers trial for patients with some resistant pathogens. But there are other options that we.re talking through but that.s actually the easy one that Sumathi.s been advocating for for several years.

CARA CASSINO: Right. So, in that

scenario then, it would seem to me that having an animal model that was closer to the human experience would be incredibly valuable.

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JOHN FARLEY: Huge. Because then the scenario is you.re going to win in the ITT, which is kind of going be all-comers and everybody, but that subgroup of resistant pathogen patients becomes very important. And this provides some other data to support observations about that subgroup, if that helps.

CARA CASSINO: Support for that, yeah.

Thank you, that.s helpful. Thank you.

JENNIFER HOOVER: Can I give a third industry view, Anne, before we let you speak? So, building on what they.ve said, which I agree with completely, I think -- to Tina.s first question, how important is it that the model truly models the pathophysiology to me depends a little on the MOA of the asset. So, of course, the ideal situation is it models it as closely as we think we can get, and then you can use that model for everything. Air quotes. So, that would kind of be my short answer to that.

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The second one around the endpoints, I think this is really, really important for us because -- so, first of all, just to compliment the folks on the work they.ve done so far, I think it.s incredible. But from an industry perspective, what will be challenging for us is if there are multiple iterations of a rabbit model, let.s say, and we have to then choose which one to use, how do we do that?

So, is there a way to kind of decide, maybe based on the natural history that.s been shown or, you know, various other parameters what.s kind of going to be a standard? And, again, I.m using my air quotes -- standard protocol that we could use going forward?

And then, from my perspective, I.m a huge believer in benchmarking. So, ideally, what I would like to see is whatever model is chosen that it.s benchmarked really well with multiple different classes in antibiotics, ideally from my perspective, using PKPD target-based dosing, not just modeling the clinical human dose. So, we really understand how an asset should be have -- if it.s good, if it.s bad, or

if it.s somewhere in the middle. And we really need to have that ahead of time before we go into these long, expensive, complicated studies as a sponsor, we actually know what go looks like before we actually fund the study.

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JOHN FARLEY: Anne?

ANNE EAKIN: Thanks. Great. So, I just had a couple of points or questions I wanted to throw out to the panel to get your thoughts on. So, one is, you know, reflecting on the biodefense pathogens and the animal rule models that have been in place, one big component of that was a very thorough understanding of the clinical manifestations of the disease. And I.m just wondering do we feel like we have enough information about what the clinical parameters are that are important, that we are then trying to model with our animal models? So, that.s just one question.

And then the other is around species and multiple species. Two very common groups of animals that are used by product developers are rats and nonhuman primates for tox studies. And we haven.t

really talked much about infection models in those 1 2 species, and I.m just wondering what people.s thoughts are on those as potentially being an easier transition 3 4 than rabbits or certainly pigs. Thanks. 5 DR. THOMAS WALSH: This is Tom. Are 6 you able to hear me? 7 JOHN FARLEY: Yeah, Tom, go right 8 ahead. 9 DR. THOMAS WALSH: Fine. So, we.ve 10 contemplated rats. We.ve looked at them and 11 conferring in an earlier time -- I worked with rats as 12 well -- one of the concerns is in the system, first of 13 all, in a large animal, trying to catheterize, trying to have limited blood supply when you.re trying to 14 15 simulate a model system. But also a tremendous amount of variability within the rat.s system. 16 17 What we found in New Zealand Whites, 18 even though it.s an outbred strain, is their 19 physiological consistency, really right down to, literally, tenths of a milligram of anesthesia from 20 2.1 year to year, to year -- the high reproducibility of 2.2 the untreated controls, the predictability that we

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see. We ve not been able to -- I.ve not seen that as well in the rat model system. So, while one could try to argue for potentially a one-size-fits-all going in terms of tox, where rats are obviously widely used, I think that the robustness of the large animal systems, if we re going to look at an animal system, the mouse-rabbit system is a very powerful one.

And I would hasten to add as well that our rabbits -- clearly through nephrotoxicity have been exquisitely predictive. They respond to saline loading. They correlate very nicely with peak plasma concentrations and trough concentrations with aminoglycosides.

So, certainly if one is looking broadly, the rabbit system has been very helpful in terms of its toxicity. They ve also predicted a number of allergic reactions that we ve seen that have correlated clinically. So, I think one can even turn the question back and say, okay, yes, rats are widely reproduced but do we really -- is that the sine qua non? Should we also be looking to try to potentially tie together efficacy and toxicity more so in the

1 rabbit model?

2 JOHN FARLEY: Other thoughts from the

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obvious but I don.t think it has been explicitly stated. So, the larger animal models offer one advantage for the mathematical modeling folks, and that is you can take zero sampling. And when you have the ability to make inferences about the PK bacterial load in whichever biomarker or safety measure you wish to do increases dramatically because you get intraindividual information. That is a wonderful thing.

Tina, for -- I believe early on it may be difficult to get to like a real hard endpoint for FDA purposes. But what I would do if I was a small drug development company is just go to the clinicians and ask them what type of biomarker do you wish to see in this type of infection which I.m targeting, and then get a consensus opinion from the clinicians what do we like to see in the rabbit or pig model to be represented in the animal system for making inference for patients? But that is an MD question, not

(inaudible).

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DR. THOMAS WALSH: Again, understanding where ultimately the target is, what is the patient population, who is the host population, what is the organism, what are the disease that are being targeted, and then working back. And with a very well-defined preclinical series of models, it can help immensely in targeting.

BINH DIEP: Anne also mentioned about the nonhuman primates and sometimes rabbits are better than nonhuman primates in modeling a human infection. I come from the world of staphylococcal pathogenesis, and there there are toxins that are produced by staph aureus that targets human cells as well as rabbit cells but not monkeys.

An example of this would be the Panton-Valentine leukocidin, Leukocidin E and D. There.s a whole group by component leukocidins that target only human and rabbits but not monkeys. So, really the choice of the animal model to use depends on what it is that your product targets. If your product targets specific toxins, then you need to test it in the

appropriate animal model, and that appropriate animal may not necessarily be nonhuman primates.

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DR. THOMAS WALSH: I would echo that as well. Thank you so much for bringing up that point.

Because if you go back to the genetics, for example, of MRSA in variance properties, there was raging controversy in the Journal of Science and JID and others of the debate on PVL. Yes, it is a variance factor, no, it isn.t. And yet you had parallel clinical data saying from in children and pediatrics and adults saying, yes, this clearly correlates with the impact.

And we.ve learned very nicely from genomic data that the rabbit and humans have found a PVL receptor. And when you start looking at the genetic knockouts -- the knockouts and the wild type, the correlation is very striking.

So, in MSSAMRSA models, one clearly wants the animal model system, preferably the rabbit, to be able to be reflecting that. And so I think it, once again, underscores the complementarity of model systems in knowing that these larger animals may be

very helpful in defining the new development for antimicrobials.

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JENNIFER HOOVER: Maybe I.ll just comment a little bit more on rats because we use rats a lot in our lab. I would say that rats are probably not going to mimic human physiology much better than mice do, but I think rats do offer some distinct advantages.

We do a lot of humanized dosing in rats. We do it by continuous infusion. We purchase the rats cannulated from the vendor, and when they arrive, we just plug them into a little infusion line. It.s very simple, it.s very easy. We can take 9-10 serial samples from the rats, so we have that advantage as well.

And we have a pneumonia model we haven.t talked about today. It.s actually an auger based pneumonia model. And I know there.s caveats to that, however, we.ve had a lot of success developing pneumonia with a lot of different strains of all the pathogens we.ve talked about today, plus Haemophilus influenza, which is difficult to study, as most of you

1 | probably know.

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So, there are definitely advantages I think to rats, so maybe we shouldn.t brush them under the table quite so easily. But I don.t think they.re going to get us to the same place that rabbits and pigs potentially would.

JOHN FARLEY: And, Anne, I just wanted to follow up on your endpoint comment. So, I think my colleague from ContraFect and I tend to think a little bit differently than you guys who are really in the details on animal model development. Because we.re thinking ahead to the new drug application, and ultimately to the advisory committee meeting.

So, what would be sort of the product, you know, in terms of a model that we would like to present? And I think it would be one with a trigger to treat that everybody could agree is meaningful, and then one with an endpoint that one would agree is meaningful.

CARA CASSINO: It would be clearly meaningful. And we.re looking at our agents as an opportunity to improve clinical outcome. So, I would

throw on that one where we might be able to test in a superiority design in addition to standard of care for diseases that are not well served by current antibiotics.

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So that makes -- I didn.t want to go there but that makes the whole animal model thing -- it throws another thing in the mix, of course, which is first establishing the efficacy and then thinking about what I just said with an additional agent.

So, we have a little experience with that in the endocarditis arena, which helped us a lot actually get our lead compound into Phase II and now Phase III staph aureus endocarditis with our Exebacase lysin in addition to standard of care. And the rabbit model helped us immensely in terms of understanding that.

So, for pneumonia it.s even more complicated, although it.s not like staph aureus bacteremia carditis is not complicated -- but that would be a direction that we would go, thinking of the endgame. What.s the product and what.s the need?

And, of course, the

JOHN FARLEY:

Page 284 endpoint in the animal model, you also need to sort of 1 have a plausible mechanism of action with data within 2 the model. So, bacterial reduction leading to 3 4 improved survival is certainly persuasive. 5 JENNIFER HOOVER: Actually, can I probe a little bit the idea around survival? So, we.ve 6 7 seen, I think, in some of the presentations that we 8 didn.t get 100 percent survival even with an antibiotic that should be effective. So, when we talk 9 10 about endpoints and survival now being something we.re 11 clearly interested in, do our novel compounds have to 12 achieve 100 percent survival? 13 DR. THOMAS WALSH: Is that a scientific or regulatory question? 14 15 TINA GUINA: Yeah, exactly. JOHN FARLEY: What kind of question was 16 17 that? 18 TINA GUINA: I was going to ask how 19 much survival is enough? Is that a question? Yeah, I would like to hear from people who are developing 20 2.1 models what are their thoughts on that?

DR. THOMAS WALSH: There are many

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variables that may contribute to survival. Certainly you can have subtleties, certainly in the more rigorously immunocompromised models and the more aggressive models, that there are other subtle factors including inflammatory response which may not be ameliorated by the antimicrobial.

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That.s why it.s so important to have the other biomarkers. So, if you do end up, say, with 90 percent survival, you look at the other biomarkers and you see resolution of mediators of organism mediated pulmonary injury, you see resolution -- dramatic resolution down to the lower limited quantitation of residual bacterial burden, resolution of inflammatory biomarkers. It tells you, yes, this drug is working.

So, the idea of letting perfection be the enemy of success is one that we have to be -- of which we.d have to be careful. There may be other factors you may want to explore. But moving forward, you can say, yes, I can eradicate this infection, and ultimately that.s going to be a critical factor.

BINH DIEP: I would also like to make a

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comment on this. In the rabbit VABP model, you know, despite the use of fluid challenge and vasopressor and a humanized dosing regimen of Meropenem, we don.t achieve 100 percent survival. And in mind it.s actually a good thing. Because in human patients who are enrolled in trials of HABP/VABP, the mortality rate is 20-30 percent.

And so, you know, 100 percent survival is probably not realistic. If it.s 100 percent survival, your model is probably too easy to treat.

Too easy to treat.

JOHN FARLEY: Yeah. And from sort of the regulatory perspective, I.ve had sort of regular arguments with agency statisticians over this point.

But we.re in Fisher.s Exact Test Land, right? And so moving one or two animals from one cell to the other makes a difference statistically, but really when you look at the totality of the data for that model it looks pretty persuasive, so...

I.m going to open to any additional comments because, although it.s posted for 4:30, the agenda says 4 o.clock and some of you have to get to

the airport, I.m sure. And we do have a final presentation but I.d invite any other comments -- kind of a final summary presentation. But, please, go ahead with other comments.

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LYNN MISEL: So, I have one idea to recommend and that is as we.re trying to develop models with clinically relevant organisms that reflect the human clinical condition, it would be fantastic -- and we want to share resources amongst the scientific community -- it.d be fantastic if we could have access to a panel of organisms from human clinical isolates that are defined if they.re a HABP, a VABP, a UTI, a bloodstream infection source.

And I think that the AR bank is a phenomenal resource but it doesn.t offer that type of data on organisms. It.d be keen to know if that would be helpful to other groups.

MATTHEW LAWRENZ: I agree with that 100 percent. We ve tried to get clinical data on those banks and it.s just no available to that. And so that why we pick strains at random and hope that we pick some that are real and some that aren.t. But I

don.t know if they came from a cystic fibrosis

patient, I don.t even know if they.re a clinical
isolate actually, so...

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JOHN FARLEY: That.s good. And we will take that back. We have an internal USG group that meets on animal models. Everyone in the room is much smarter than me. But we.ll take that back as an ask.

Any other comments? I.ve asked Ed
Weinstein to play what I call the historic John Rex
role, which in workshops is one of the hardest jobs,
which is to kind of put together a summary of what he
heard today and where he thinks we might, in terms of
ways to go forward. So, thanks.

EDWARD WEINSTEIN: Well, thank you,

John. So, as you can see from the title of the slide,

this is the end of the workshop and you made it

through a tough day in the middle of a health crisis

so thank you.

So, one of the ways to think about this is actually to look backwards before looking forward.

So, the last workshop we had was about three years ago and I.d like to discuss some of the advances that we

made in terms of clinical relevance, the interpretability and reliability of studies before touching upon the points from discussion today.

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So, in terms of the animal model advances to clinical relevance, we realize that the natural history of disease in animals informs the study design and the natural history data provides a rationale for the trigger to treat. And this can be important because we discussed today, there.s a spectrum of disease starting from prophylaxis moving onto an acute model, and finally a sepsis or a late model of disease. And the trigger differentiates the difference between these different disease states in terms of your output from the model.

Some models no longer require immunosuppression to establish bacterial infection.

That.s important because certain kinds of antibacterial drugs are bacteriostatic in their action. They require help from the immune system to clear infection.

There.s also been a generalized recognition of the importance of the use of humanized

dosing. And as we just heard, the animal model endpoints such as mortality are more closely aligned with the endpoints in clinical trials.

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In terms of reliability and interpretability, the data can still be noisy and reproducibility remains a challenge. Some of the variables are known and they can be harmonized, spectral strain, inoculum, inoculum size, root infection, the choice of animal species, genetic background and conditioning of the animals, the trigger to treat controls study endpoints.

And some tough lessons have been learned along the way. So, for example, we learned that endogenous flora can cause coinfection in the pig models, that idiopathic rapid drug elimination rates such as Ciprofloxacin in rabbits, and Meropenem in mice, and even toxicities such as doxycycline in African Green Monkeys can be a problem. And some important questions still remain. So, work is needed to achieve models that can credibly forecast the results of clinical trials. And changes in CFU are a reasonable endpoint but the clinical significance

still remains unknown. Lastly, the ability to reproduce animal models in different laboratories is still untested.

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So, looking at some of the discussion points from today, it looks like there.s some excellent opportunities for improvement There.s more than just CFUs as an endpoint. Different models can capture multiple aspects of the clinical disease to become more relevant.

underutilized. Other variables such as blood gas, chemistry, cytokine responses can be useful to help improve the outcome of the data that we get from the animal models. And there is no one size that seems to fit all. There are different animal models required during different points of development and it depends upon the scientific question that is being asked versus a question such as -- first doses just to prove efficacy, proof of principle versus early dose determination; drug activity versus specific strains later in development. And challenges remain in the close PK modeling of some antibacterial drugs. And

some new strategies were discussed and maybe needed such as the use of Cilastatin with Meropenem.

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This last point says from discussion but this might be more of a point for discussion. And the question is how can we use and rely on animal data to support an NDA? And when these animal experiments are performed in tandem with adequate and well-controlled clinical trials they can give supporting information on certain aspects such as activity against rare pathogens or certain resistance phenotypes. And as Dr. Farley pointed out, you can also give evidence to the activity of individual components of a drug regimen.

Use of PKPD analysis for humanized equivalent exposure is important to strengthen these data -- the activity demonstrated in multiple animal models with multiple parameters. Because it seems from our discussion today that there still a lot of uncertainty about the best route forward.

It sounds like appropriate experimental controls would be required but the exact stable of comparator still remains to be decided. And, lastly,

the potential description of the animal studies is possible in product labeling. And it wouldn.t be under clinical studies, of course, not in Section 14, but perhaps under 12.4. So that the results of these studies wouldn.t be in vain, they would see the light of day in product labeling.

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And so, again, I just want to thank everybody, especially the panelist of presenters, the people in the audience and folks online for spending the entire day with us and for such an extensive and helpful discussion. I want to thank the FDA Animal Model Review Team, Touche Ameni, and Sunita and James Burn, as well as Dr. Farley and Dr. Sumathi Nambiar for setting up this workshop.

There are a few workshops that are coming up and they just flashed up the slide in case you may be interested in spending another day with us.

JOHN FARLEY: Thanks, Ed. And I want to add my thanks to the panel and wish you safe travels. WE are going to attempt to publish this workshop summary, so we may be reaching out to some of you in the near future about that. So, thanks very

1 | much. Really appreciate it.

DR. THOMAS WALSH: Thank you very much.

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