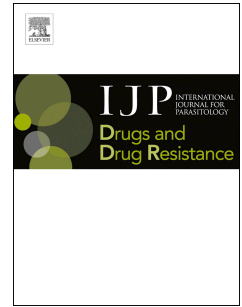


# Journal Pre-proof

Monepantel pharmaco-therapeutic evaluation in cattle: Pattern of efficacy against multidrug resistant nematodes

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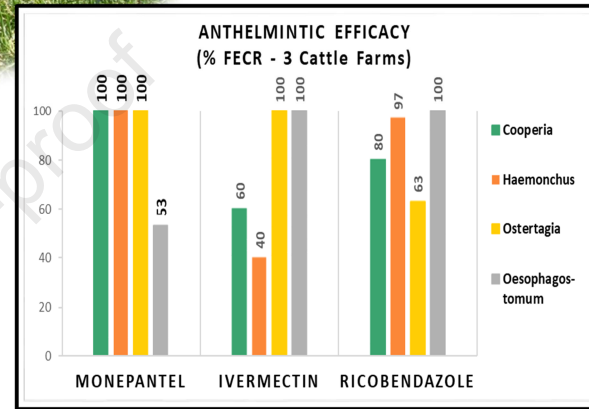
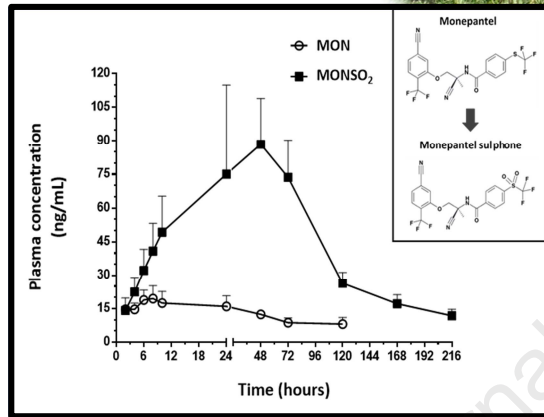
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1 MONEPANTEL PHARMACO-THERAPEUTIC EVALUATION IN CATTLE: PATTERN OF EFFICACY  
2 AGAINST MULTIDRUG RESISTANT NEMATODES

3

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15

16 **ABSTRACT**

17 The goal of the current work was to perform an integrated evaluation of monepantel (MNP)  
18 pharmacokinetics (PK) and pharmacodynamics, measured as anthelmintic efficacy, after its  
19 oral administration to calves naturally infected with GI nematodes resistant to ivermectin  
20 (IVM) and ricobendazole (RBZ) on three commercial farms. On each farm, forty-five calves  
21 were randomly allocated into three groups (n= 15): MNP oral administration (2.5 mg/kg); IVM  
22 subcutaneous (SC) administration (0.2 mg/kg); and RBZ SC administration (3.75 mg/kg). Eight  
23 animals from the MNP treated group (Farm 1) were selected to perform the PK study. Drug  
24 concentrations were measured by HPLC. The efficacy was determined by the faecal egg  
25 count reduction test (FECRT). MNP and MNP-sulphone (MNPSO<sub>2</sub>) were the main analytes  
26 recovered in plasma. MNPSO<sub>2</sub> systemic exposure was markedly higher compared to that  
27 obtained for MNP. Higher C<sub>max</sub> and AUC values were obtained for the active MNPSO<sub>2</sub>  
28 metabolite (96.8 ± 29.7ng/mL and 9220 ± 1720ng.h/mL) compared to MNP (21.5 ±  
29 4.62ng/mL and 1709 ± 651ng.h/mL). The MNPSO<sub>2</sub> AUC value was 6-fold higher compared to  
30 the parent drug. Efficacies of 99% (Farm 1), 96% (Farm 2) and 98% (Farm 3) demonstrated  
31 the high activity of MNP (P< 0.05) against GI nematodes resistant to IVM (reductions  
32 between 27 and 68%) and RBZ (overall efficacy of 75% on Farm 3). While IVM failed to  
33 control *Haemonchus* spp. and *Cooperia* spp., and RBZ failed to control *Cooperia* spp. and  
34 *Ostertagia* spp., MNP achieved 100% efficacy against *Haemonchus* spp., *Cooperia* spp. and  
35 *Ostertagia* spp. However, a low efficacy of MNP against *Oesophagostomum* spp. (efficacies  
36 ranging from 22 to 74%) was observed. In conclusion, oral treatment with MNP should be  
37 considered for dealing with IVM and benzimidazole resistant nematode parasites in cattle.

38 The work described here reports for the first time an integrated assessment of MNP  
39 pharmaco-therapeutic features and highlights the need to be considered as a highly valuable  
40 tool to manage nematode resistant to other chemical families.

41

42 **Keywords:** Monepantel - Cattle - Resistant nematodes - Pharmaco-parasitological  
43 assessment

44

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## 45 1.INTRODUCTION

46 Considering the increasing prevalence and worldwide dissemination of gastrointestinal (GI)  
47 nematodes resistant to most of the available anthelmintic families, drug resistance is  
48 considered one of the main sanitary problems in extensive cattle production systems today  
49 (Kaplan, 2020). During the last decades, chemical control has been mainly based on the use  
50 of only three anthelmintic chemical families: macrocyclic lactones (ML), benzimidazoles  
51 (BZD) and imidazothiazoles. Furthermore, since GI parasitism has a high impact on animal  
52 production, these anthelmintic drugs have been intensively used at short intervals in  
53 different cattle production grazing systems worldwide. This heavy reliance on anthelmintics  
54 to control parasitism and the limited implementation of refugia-based sustainable control  
55 programmes have led to the development of resistance to all the available chemical groups.  
56 Unfortunately, resistance is becoming a worldwide serious problem, particularly in countries  
57 such as New Zealand (Waghorn et al., 2006), Brazil (Ramos et al., 2016), Australia (Rendell,  
58 2010), Uruguay (Mederos et al., 2019), United States (Kaplan, 2020) and Argentina (Cristel et  
59 al., 2017) among many others. Despite the complex current situation regarding the  
60 widespread development of anthelmintic resistance, dependence on chemically-based  
61 control continues to be high since it is still the most practical option for parasite control on  
62 commercial beef cattle farms.

63

64 The increasing levels of resistance to all traditional drug classes and the still high  
65 dependence on anthelmintics for controlling parasitic nematodes, have encouraged the  
66 introduction of new molecules with different modes of action into the veterinary

67 pharmaceutical market. The compound monepantel (MNP) is a compound of a new family of  
68 anthelmintics, the amino-acetonitrile derivatives, developed to treat ruminants infected  
69 with GI nematodes (Kaminsky et al., 2008). Its mode of action is different from the other  
70 available anthelmintic families since it acts as a positive allosteric modulator of the  
71 nematode specific acetylcholine receptor MPTL-1 (Rufener et al., 2009, 2010). MNP binding  
72 to this receptor results in a constant uncontrolled flux of ions and finally in a depolarization  
73 of muscle cells leading to nematode paralysis (Epe and Kaminsky, 2013). The cellular target  
74 of MNP, the MPTL-1 receptor, is so far only present in nematodes, which might explain the  
75 excellent tolerability of MNP in mammals and its high efficacy against multidrug-resistant  
76 parasites to other anthelmintic classes in sheep and cattle (Baker et al., 2012; King et al.,  
77 2015). The first formulation of MNP, launched in 2009, was licensed for exclusive use in  
78 sheep, and some years later was also introduced in a limited number of countries as an oral  
79 formulation for use in cattle (King et al., 2015). The disposition kinetics and distribution to  
80 target tissues of MNP have been previously described in sheep (Lifschitz et al., 2014), and  
81 some data on plasma profiles in dairy cows have been also reported (Ballent et al., 2017).  
82 However, until now there have been no published reports regarding the relationship between  
83 MNP pharmacokinetics and its efficacy against resistant GI nematodes in beef cattle.

84

85 The goal of the work described here was to perform an integrated evaluation of MNP  
86 pharmacokinetics (PK) and pharmacodynamics (PD), assessed as anthelmintic efficacy, after  
87 its oral administration to calves naturally infected with GI nematodes resistant to ivermectin  
88 (IVM) and ricobendazole (RBZ) on three commercial farms.

89

## 90 **2. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

### 91 *2.1. Field Trial*

92 This study was conducted on three cattle commercial farms located in the Humid Pampean  
93 Region, Argentina. All farms (Farms 1, 2 and 3) had a grazing system of meat production  
94 representative of Argentina bovine production. The resistance status of the nematode  
95 population characteristic of each farm was previously determined by the faecal egg count  
96 reduction test (FECRT) (Canton et al., 2019). In this way, the study included two farms with a  
97 predominance of IVM and RBZ-resistant nematode population (Farms 1 and 3) and one farm  
98 with only an IVM-resistant nematode population (Farm 2).

99

### 100 *2.2. Animals*

101 All the farms involved in the trial raise calves acquired from other producers. The herd on  
102 each farm from which the animals were selected were treated with levamisole prior to the  
103 study to remove their worm infections. It is important to point out that resistance to  
104 levamisole has not been reported in this region of Argentina (Cristel et al., 2017). They had  
105 then grazed on the study farms for at least two months prior to the study, which ensured  
106 that their parasite burden was native from each Farm. All the animals had free access to  
107 water.

108

109 On day -1, 60 (Farms 1 and 3) or 80 (Farm 2) male Aberdeen Angus calves, aged 9–11  
110 months old, naturally infected with GI nematodes resistant to IVM and RBZ (Farms 1 and 3)



111 or resistant to IVM (Farm 2), were checked for worm egg per gram (EPG) counts, ear-tagged,  
112 and the individual body weights were recorded. The animals for inclusion in the trial were  
113 then selected based on the EPG counts. Forty-five (45) animals on each farm, with at least  
114 100 EPG on day -1, were selected for inclusion in the study. Experimental animals had an  
115 average of 508 EPG counts ranging from 100 to 2440 on Farm 1, 274 EPG counts ranging from  
116 100 to 660 on Farm 2, and 450 EPG counts ranging from 140 to 1440 on Farm 3.

117

118 Animal procedures and management protocols were approved by the Ethics Committee (act  
119 11/2020) of the Facultad de Cs. Veterinarias, Universidad Nacional del Centro de la Provincia  
120 de Buenos Aires (UNCPBA), Tandil, Argentina.

121

### 122 *2.3. Treatments*

123 On each farm (1, 2 and 3), all parasitized animals (n= 45) were ranked according to EPG counts,  
124 and then randomly assigned into three groups of 15 animals each: MNP: animals were treated  
125 with MNP (Zolvix<sup>®</sup>, 2.5% solution, Elanco, Argentina) by the oral route at a dose of 2.5 mg/kg;  
126 IVM: animals were treated with IVM (Ivomec<sup>®</sup>, 1% solution, Boehringer Ingelheim, Argentina)  
127 by the subcutaneous (SC) route at 0.2 mg/kg and RBZ: animals were treated with RBZ  
128 (Bayverm PI<sup>®</sup>, 15% solution, Bayer, Argentina) by the SC route at 3.75 mg/kg. The mean EPG  
129 were similar (P> 0.05) across all groups on each farm at the beginning of the trial.

130

### 131 *2.4. Monepantel PK trial*

132 The PK trial was carried out on Farm 1. Eight randomly selected animals from the MNP  
133 treated group were used in the PK trial. Blood samples (10 mL) were taken from the jugular  
134 vein in heparinised Vacutainer<sup>®</sup> tubes (Becton Dickinson, NJ, USA) before treatment and at  
135 2,4, 6, 8 and 10 h and 1, 2, 3, 5, 7 and 9 days post-treatment. Plasma was separated by  
136 centrifugation at 3000 g for 15 min, placed into plastic tubes and frozen at -20°C until  
137 analysis by High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC).

138

#### 139 *2.5. Anthelmintic efficacy trial: faecal egg count reduction test and coprocultures*

140 Faecal samples were individually collected directly from the rectum of each calf during pre-  
141 treatment (day -1) and again on day15 post-treatment. A modified McMaster technique with a  
142 sensitivity of 10 EPG (Roberts and O'sullivan, 1950) was used to analyse the faecal samples and  
143 estimate EPG counts. Additionally, 10 g of faeces (obtained from an individual animal and/or  
144 from a pool of each experimental group) was used to prepare coprocultures on each sampling  
145 day. The nematode genera and species were identified through the third-stage larvae  
146 recovered from these coprocultures (MAFF, 1986). Third stage larvae (L<sub>3</sub>) were collected by  
147 the Baermann technique and approximately 100 L<sub>3</sub> were differentiated from each sample.  
148 Thus, the relative participation of each genus per experimental group was determined.

149

150 The anthelmintic efficacy of the different treatments was assessed by the faecal egg count  
151 reduction test (FECRT), calculated according to the following formula (McKenna, 1990):

$$152 \text{ FECRT (\%)} = 100 (1 - [T2/T1])$$

153 where T2 is the arithmetic mean EPG count in each treated group at 15 days post-treatment,  
154 and T1 is the arithmetic mean EPG count in each treated group on day -1. The 95% confidence  
155 intervals were calculated as reported by Coles et al. (1992). Besides, efficacy against different  
156 genera was calculated by dividing the mean faecal egg count of each treatment group at day -  
157 1 and 15 post-treatment, by the proportion of L<sub>3</sub> of each genus in the associated coproculture  
158 (McKenna, 1990).

159

## 160 *2.6. Analytical procedures*

161 MNP and its metabolite, MNP-sulphone (MNPSO<sub>2</sub>), concentrations were determined in  
162 plasma by HPLC with UV detection. Briefly, MNP/MNPSO<sub>2</sub> were extracted from plasma (0.5  
163 mL) by the addition of 1 mL of acetonitrile. The preparation was mixed with a high-speed  
164 shaker (Multi Tube Vortexer, VWR Scientific Products, West Chester, PA) for 15 minutes at  
165 room temperature to allow phase separation. The solvent-sample mixture was centrifuged  
166 at 2000 g for 10 min at 4 °C and the supernatant was manually transferred into a clean tube.  
167 This volume was evaporated to dryness under a gentle stream of dry nitrogen at 56 °C in a  
168 water bath. Finally, the dried residue was reconstituted with 250 µL of mobile phase  
169 (acetonitrile:methanol:water 60:8:32, v/v/v) and 200 µL of this solution was injected directly  
170 into the chromatography system.

171

172 MNP plasma concentration was determined by HPLC (Shimadzu 10 A-HPLC System, Kyoto,  
173 Japan) with a UV detector set at 230 nm following a method previously developed (Ballent et  
174 al., 2017; Lifschitz et al., 2014). A C<sub>18</sub> reversed-phase column (Kromasil, Eka Chemicals,

175 Bohus, Sweden, 5  $\mu\text{m}$ , 4.6  $\times$  250 mm) was used for separation. Elution of MNP and MNPSO<sub>2</sub>  
176 from the stationary phase was carried out at a flow rate of 0.8 mL/min (MNP) using  
177 acetonitrile/methanol/water (60:8:32, v/v/v). Under the described chromatographic  
178 conditions, the retention times (min) were established at 9.3 (MNPSO<sub>2</sub>) and 12.5 (MNP).  
179 There was no interference of endogenous compounds in any of the chromatographic  
180 determinations. A calibration curve in the range between 4-400 ng/mL was prepared for  
181 both molecules. The plasma calibration curve had a correlation coefficient  $\geq 0.998$ . Mean  
182 absolute recovery percentages for concentrations ranging between 4 and 400 ng/mL (n= 6)  
183 were 74.9% (MNP) and 74.1% (MNPSO<sub>2</sub>) with coefficients of variation (CV) of 14.1% and  
184 15.7, respectively. Accuracy (expressed as the relative error) and precision (expressed as the  
185 coefficient of variation) were 10% and 5.2%, respectively. The limit of quantification (LOQ)  
186 was established at 4 ng/mL for MNP and MNPSO<sub>2</sub>, which is the lowest concentration  
187 measured with a recovery higher than 70% and a CV < 20%. In all cases, concentration values  
188 below the LOQ were not considered for the kinetic analysis of experimental data.

189

### 190 *2.7. Pharmacokinetic analysis of the data*

191 The concentration vs. time curves for MNP and MNPSO<sub>2</sub> in plasma for each animal after the  
192 different treatments was fitted with the PK Solution 2.0 software (Summit Research Service,  
193 CO, USA). The peak concentration (C<sub>max</sub>) and time to peak concentration (T<sub>max</sub>) were  
194 recorded directly from the measured concentration data. The elimination half-life (T<sub>½el</sub>) and  
195 absorption half-life (T<sub>½abs</sub>) were calculated as  $\ln 2/\lambda_{el}$  and  $\ln 2/k_{abs}$ , respectively, where  $\lambda_{el}$  is  
196 the elimination rate constant and  $k_{abs}$  represents the first-order absorption rate constant.

197 The rates were calculated by performing regression analysis using data points belonging to  
198 the terminal or absorption phase concentration-time plot. The area under the plasma  
199 concentration-time curve from zero up to the quantification limit ( $AUC_{0-LOQ}$ ) was calculated  
200 using the trapezoidal rule (Gibaldi and Perrier, 1982) and further extrapolated to infinity  
201 ( $AUC_{0-\infty}$ ) by dividing the last experimental concentration by the terminal elimination rate  
202 constant ( $\lambda_{el}$ ). Statistical moment theory was applied to calculate the mean residence time  
203 (MRT) according to Perrier and Mayersohn (1982). PK analysis of the experimental data was  
204 performed using a non-compartmental model method.

205

#### 206 *2.8. Statistical analysis of the data*

207 The PK parameters and concentration data are reported as arithmetic mean  $\pm$  Standard  
208 Deviation (SD). PK parameters for MNP and MNPSO<sub>2</sub> were statistically compared using  
209 Student t-test. Faecal egg counts (reported as arithmetic mean  $\pm$  SD) were compared by non-  
210 parametric Kruskal–Wallis test. A value of  $P < 0.05$  was considered statistically significant. The  
211 statistical analysis was performed using the InStat 3.0 software (Graph Pad Software, CA, USA).

212

### 213 **3. RESULTS**

214 MNP and MNPSO<sub>2</sub> were the main analytes recovered in plasma after oral administration of  
215 MNP to cattle. The mean ( $\pm$  SD) plasma concentrations profiles of MNP and its MNPSO<sub>2</sub>  
216 metabolite are shown in Fig. 1. MNPSO<sub>2</sub> systemic exposure was markedly higher compared  
217 to that obtained for MNP. It accounted for  $>80\%$  of the total amount of the analytes  
218 recovered in plasma. While low concentrations of MNP were measured in plasma only up to

219 120 h (5 days) post-administration, the persistence of the sulphone metabolite was longer in  
220 the bloodstream, being recovered up to 216 h (9 days). These differences were reflected in  
221 the values estimated for the main PK parameters. Table 1 summarizes the plasma PK  
222 parameters for MNP and MNPSO<sub>2</sub> obtained after the oral administration of MNP to cattle.  
223 Higher C<sub>max</sub> and greater AUC values were obtained in plasma for MNPSO<sub>2</sub> compared to  
224 MNP. In fact, the AUC value for MNPSO<sub>2</sub> were 6-fold higher compared to those reported for  
225 the parent drug (MNPSO<sub>2</sub>/MNP AUC ratio= 5.99 ± 2.08).

226

227 Table 2 shows the overall faecal egg counts (arithmetic mean) and reduction percentages of  
228 faecal egg counts (FECR) (undifferentiated) with its 95% lower and upper confidence  
229 intervals obtained for all experimental groups on Farms 1, 2 and 3. The results of the FECRT  
230 with 99%, 96% and 98% of reduction for MNP on Farms 1, 2, and 3, respectively,  
231 demonstrated the high efficacy of this amino-acetonitrile derivative against GI nematodes  
232 resistant to IVM and RBZ in cattle. In fact, the low efficacies obtained for IVM (43%, 68% and  
233 27% of reduction) confirm the presence of resistant parasites to this anthelmintic. On the  
234 other hand, the overall efficacy for RBZ on Farm 2 was 98%, demonstrating that this farm was  
235 the only one included in the study with a predominance of a RBZ-susceptible nematode  
236 population. Although the total efficacy for RBZ on Farm 1 was 94%, the 95% lower  
237 confidence interval for this anthelmintic was less than 90%, indicating an initial level of  
238 resistance. Finally, a higher level of resistance for RBZ was reported on Farm 3, where an  
239 overall reduction of 75% confirms the presence of resistant GI nematodes. In this context,  
240 whilst on Farms 1 and 2 significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) differences were only observed between EPG

241 counts post-IVM and MNP treatments, on Farm 3, the EPG counts after MNP were  
242 significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) lower than the egg counts after both IVM and RBZ.

243

244 The anthelmintic efficacies against *Cooperia* spp., *Haemonchus* spp., *Ostertagia* spp. and  
245 *Oesophagostomum* spp. for the different treatments on Farms 1, 2 and 3, are shown in Table  
246 3. On Farms 1 and 3 IVM failed to control *Haemonchus* spp. and *Cooperia* spp., showing  
247 efficacies ranging from 0% to 80%. In the case of Farm 2, only IVM-resistant *Cooperia* spp.  
248 was present, being the others GI nematode genera susceptible to RBZ. The BZD treatment  
249 failed to control *Cooperia* spp. and *Ostertagia* spp. on Farms 1 and 3 (FECR below 90% for  
250 both nematode genera). In contrast, MNP was the only treatment that achieved 100%  
251 efficacy against *Cooperia* spp., *Haemonchus* spp. and *Ostertagia* spp., including against  
252 resistant parasites (99% against *Ostertagia* spp. on Farm 3). However, MNP failed to control  
253 *Oesophagostomum* spp., showing low efficacies of 74%, 22% and 64% against this genus on  
254 Farms 1, 2, and 3, respectively.

255 Finally, no adverse events were observed in any of the cattle treated with MNP.

256

#### 257 **4. DISCUSSION**

258 Since GI parasitism negatively affects weight gain in grazing animals (Charlier et al., 2014a),  
259 parasite control is necessary to ensure adequate production levels on beef cattle farms.  
260 Alternative nematode control strategies, such as grazing management, host genetic  
261 resistance and helminth vaccines, are now being developed for further reduce reliance on  
262 chemically-based parasite control (Charlier et al., 2014b). However, dependence on

263 anthelmintics continues to be high, since it is still being the most practical tool for parasite  
264 control on large scale commercial beef cattle farms. Due to the enormous difficulties  
265 involved in the development of novel anthelmintic molecules, such as the lastly introduced  
266 amino-acetonitrile derivative MNP, it is essential to understand its pharmacological  
267 behaviour to optimize its use in cattle under natural field conditions. The work described  
268 here reports for the first time an integrated assessment of MNP pharmacokinetics and  
269 pharmacodynamics (measured as anthelmintic efficacy), in cattle naturally infected with GI  
270 nematodes resistant to IVM and RBZ on a field trial performed on three different commercial  
271 farms.

272

273 The MNP plasma disposition kinetics has not been described in beef cattle. However, in line  
274 with previous PK studies in sheep (Karadzovska et al., 2009; Lifschitz et al., 2014) and dairy  
275 cows (Ballent et al., 2017), a rapid decline in the plasma profiles of the parent drug and the  
276 recovery of the MNPSO<sub>2</sub> metabolite as the main analyte detected in the bloodstream, were  
277 observed in beef calves in the current trial. The metabolic conversion of MNP into MNPSO<sub>2</sub>  
278 also involves the production of an intermediate sulphoxide derivative (Karadzovska et al.,  
279 2009), which is rapidly and almost completely converted into MNPSO<sub>2</sub>, being undetectable  
280 in plasma of MNP treated animals. In fact, the C<sub>max</sub> of the sulphone metabolite was four  
281 times higher than the corresponding parent concentration (21.5 vs 96.8 ng/mL for MNP and  
282 MNPSO<sub>2</sub>, respectively). Moreover, when MNP reached the C<sub>max</sub> (at 8 h post-oral  
283 treatment), the MNPSO<sub>2</sub> metabolite was already about twice as high. Since MNPSO<sub>2</sub> is an  
284 active metabolite against nematodes (Karadzovska et al., 2009), its high plasma and GI



285 exposure greatly contribute to the overall MNP nematocidal efficacy. In fact, the ratio of  
286 the total plasma AUC of MNPSO<sub>2</sub> over the total AUC of MNP in both species, exhibited higher  
287 systemic exposure for MNPSO<sub>2</sub> compared to the parent drug after the oral administration of  
288 MNP. However, interspecies differences in MNPSO<sub>2</sub> systemic availability were observed  
289 between cattle and sheep. While Lifschitz et al. (2014) reported a MNPSO<sub>2</sub>/MNP AUC ratio  
290 of about 12 in sheep, a 50% lower value is described for that ratio after oral administration  
291 of MNP in cattle (Table 1). This finding may be explained by the different patterns of MNP  
292 liver metabolism (S-oxidation) between sheep and cattle. The rate of MNP conversion into  
293 MNPSO<sub>2</sub> was five-fold higher in sheep compared to cattle (Ballent et al., 2016). While in  
294 sheep, the formation of the sulphone metabolite is based on the enzymatic activity of both  
295 flavin-monooxygenase (FMO) and cytochrome P- 450 (CYP), in cattle MNP is converted into  
296 MNPSO<sub>2</sub> only in a CYP- mediated metabolic reaction (Ballent et al., 2016). These interspecies  
297 differences do not necessarily imply lower exposure of worms to the active drug. Moreover,  
298 considering MNP anthelmintic activity may be mainly based on a considerable  
299 drug/metabolite accumulation in the GI tissues and fluid contents during the first 2 to 3 days  
300 post-treatment, the different patterns of MNP liver metabolism between sheep and cattle  
301 should not affect its efficacy against GI nematodes (Lifschitz et al. 2014).

302

303 The results of the current PK assessment in cattle and those reported in sheep by Lifschitz et  
304 al. (2014) on the characterization of MNP accumulation in target tissues, give strong  
305 pharmacological support to the anthelmintic efficacy findings. The increasing worldwide  
306 prevalence of GI nematodes resistant to most of the traditional anthelmintic groups such as

307 ML and BZD, therapeutic failures associated with anthelmintic resistance has enormous  
308 economic importance of global significance, particularly in countries where weather and  
309 production conditions contribute to a high incidence of parasitism. For instance, resistance  
310 to IVM was diagnosed in 93% of the farms tested in Argentina, while resistance to RBZ was  
311 diagnosed in 28% of the farms included in a nation-wide survey (Cristel et al.,2017). The  
312 main resistant genera were *Cooperia* spp. and *Haemonchus* spp. to IVM, and *Ostertagia* spp.  
313 and *Cooperia* spp.to RBZ (Cristel et al., 2017). Therefore, the efficacy of MNP was evaluated  
314 in scenarios where the nematode population was representative of the real situation on  
315 most commercial cattle farms. In this context, the efficacy results showed 99%, 96% and 98%  
316 of reduction for MNP on Farms 1, 2 and 3, respectively. These results demonstrated the high  
317 efficacy of MNP against resistant GI nematodes in cattle. Only limited information is  
318 available on MNP efficacy against GI nematodes in cattle (King et al. 2015). In that particular  
319 trial, MNP was administered in a combined formulation with abamectin. However, the  
320 reported efficacy results are consistent with those observed in our current trial with  
321 efficacies measured by FECR ranging from 98.3 to 99.9%. Similarly, the efficacy results  
322 observed in the present work are consistent with several studies in sheep (Bustamante et al.,  
323 2009; Hosking et al., 2009; Kaminsky et al., 2009; Sager et al., 2009). Bustamante et al.  
324 (2009) also evaluated MNP efficacy against IVM resistant nematode parasites. The low IVM  
325 efficacies obtained in the current work (43%, 68% and 27% of reduction on Farms 1, 2 and  
326 3), confirm the presence of resistant nematode populations to this ML anthelmintic.  
327 Additionally, MNP was the only treatment that achieved >95% both in the overall efficacy  
328 and in the 95% lower confidence interval.

329

330 It should be considered that GI parasitism in cattle always involves different parasite genera.  
331 In this sense, while on Farms 1 and 3 IVM failed to control *Cooperia* spp. and *Haemonchus*  
332 spp., on Farm 2 *Cooperia* spp. was the only genus resistant to IVM. *Cooperia* spp. is  
333 commonly present in the cases of IVM resistance in cattle. In fact, resistant *Cooperia* spp.  
334 was recovered in 100% of the farms where resistance to IVM were present in a survey carried  
335 out in Argentina in 2017 (Cristel et al. 2017). *Cooperia* spp. is one of the genera in which  
336 resistance to IVM is more frequent not only because it is a “dose-limiting” parasite for IVM  
337 (Benz et al., 1989), but also because routine IVM treatments are administered in the absence  
338 of any significant larval population in refugia (Sauermann and Leathwick 2018). However,  
339 similarly to our findings, some studies have also reported both *Cooperia* spp. and  
340 *Haemonchus* spp. resistant to IVM (Anziani et al., 2004; Ramos et al., 2016; Canton et al.,  
341 2018). Although RBZ achieved higher overall efficacies than IVM, the BZD treatment did not  
342 show effective control against all the GI nematodes present on Farms 1 and 3. Indeed, on  
343 these farms, RBZ failed to control *Cooperia* spp. and *Ostertagia* spp. (FECR below 90% for  
344 both nematode genera). In contrast, MNP was the only treatment that achieved 100%  
345 efficacy against *Cooperia* spp., *Haemonchus* spp. and *Ostertagia* spp. Similar results were  
346 found in different studies in sheep against resistant GI nematodes. Hosking et al. (2008) and  
347 Sager et al. (2009) demonstrated high (>95%) efficacy of MNP administered orally to sheep  
348 against GI nematodes resistant to either BZ or levamisole. Furthermore, Steffan et al. (2011)  
349 and Baker et al. (2012) showed almost 100% efficacy of MNP against GI nematodes multiple

350 resistant to BZ, levamisole and ML. Although those studies were performed in sheep, their  
351 results and resistance scenarios were comparable with the current trial of MNP in cattle.

352

353 Efficacy of MNP against *Oesophagostomum* spp. is a particularly relevant issue due to  
354 efficacy results failed to meet an adequate reduction. The findings of the present study in  
355 cattle demonstrated that MNP failed only to control *Oesophagostomum* spp., with efficacies  
356 ranging from 22% to 74%. Similarly, it has been reported in sheep that *Oesophagostomum*  
357 was only reduced by 88% (Sager et al., 2009) and 61.9% (Bustamante et al., 2009).  
358 Furthermore, Hosking et al. (2009) also found efficacies below 90% against this nematode in  
359 sheep. In fact, the dose of 2.5 mg/kg was established as a suitable minimum dose rate  
360 (Kaminsky et al., 2009), because lower doses failed to control *Oesophagostomum* spp.,  
361 which was established as the dose-limiting nematode for MNP (Hosking et al., 2010).  
362 Although a reduced sensitivity of this genus to MNP may explain its low efficacy, Lifschitz et  
363 al. (2014) suggested that a PK-related issue should contribute to this limited therapeutic  
364 response in sheep. The lower concentration of MNP achieved in the large intestine mucosa  
365 (225 ng/g) compared to that measured in the small intestine mucosa (562 ng/g in the ileum  
366 and 762 ng/g in the duodenum) may explain the efficacy levels obtained against  
367 *Oesophagostomum* spp. (Lifschitz et al., 2014), situation that could also occur in cattle. The  
368 PK/PD of MNP against GI nematodes may suggest that the high concentrations of MNP  
369 parental drug achieved in the GI contents and mucosa during 48-72 h after its oral  
370 administration are relevant to the effectiveness of this compound (Lifschitz et al., 2014).

371

372 The activity of MNP against multidrug-resistant parasites, which is based on its novel mode  
373 of action, is a highly favorable element. However, resistance to MNP has occurred on the  
374 field within less than 2 years of the product first being used in sheep and goats in New  
375 Zealand. In this first report of resistance in goats excessively treated with the amino-  
376 acetonitrile derivative, MNP was ineffective against at least two GI nematode species,  
377 *Teladorsagia circumcincta* and *Trichostrongylus colubriformis* (Scott et al., 2013). Moreover,  
378 Mederos et al. (2014) found *Haemonchus contortus* resistant to MNP on sheep farms in  
379 Uruguay. Lack of efficacy of MNP was also reported on sheep farms in the Netherlands (van  
380 den Brom et al., 2015), Brazil (Cintra et al., 2016), Australia (Sales and Love, 2016), Argentina  
381 (Illanes et al., 2018) and the United Kingdom (Hamer et al., 2018; Bartley et al., 2019).  
382 Considering that resistance to MNP has already been reported in sheep in different  
383 countries, it is essential to understand the mechanisms of resistance to this compound. In  
384 this way, the presence of multiple separate mutations in the MPTL-1 gene in field-derived *H.*  
385 *contortus* and *T. circumcincta* isolates may at least partly explain MNP resistance (Bagnall et  
386 al., 2017; Turnbull et al., 2019). The reports of resistance highlight the need to learn from  
387 the use of this anthelmintic on sheep farms. It is essential to maintain the awareness on the  
388 possibility of development of resistance to MNP in cattle nematode parasites, which includes  
389 the need to follow appropriate guidelines of parasite control (Bartley et al., 2019).

390

391 Overall, there is no published reports on the simultaneous assessment of the relationship  
392 between the PK performance and the anthelmintic therapeutic response to MNP in cattle.  
393 The results of the current work determined that the oral route is a very efficient

394 administration route for MNP in beef cattle. This is particularly relevant when the described  
395 high systemic exposure of the anthelmintically active MNP and MNPSO<sub>2</sub> exposure is  
396 considered. MNP achieved effective control of GI nematodes with multiple anthelmintic  
397 resistance to ML and BZD. The widespread appearance of resistant parasites highlights the  
398 need for novel anthelmintics acting at novel target sites to be used in cattle, such as MNP.  
399 However, it is now crucial to accomplish adequate management of this novel compound to  
400 prolong its lifespan and optimize parasite control based on diagnosis and treatment  
401 strategies implemented on an individual cattle farm basis. The findings described here  
402 contribute to the knowledge on MNP pharmacology and efficacy against resistant GI  
403 nematodes in beef cattle.

404

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409

#### 410 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT**

411 There are no potential conflicts of interest associated with this study.

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555

## 556 **Figure Legends**

### 557 **Figure 1**

558 Plasma concentration profiles of monepantel (MNP) and monepantel sulphone (MNPSO<sub>2</sub>)  
559 obtained after the oral administration of monepantel (2.5 mg/kg) to parasitized calves (n=8).  
560 The insert shows the chemical structures of MNP and an its anthelmintically active  
561 metabolite MNPSO<sub>2</sub>.

**Table 1**

Plasma pharmacokinetic parameters (mean  $\pm$  SD) for monepantel (MNP) and monepantel sulphone (MNPSO<sub>2</sub>) obtained after the oral administration of MNP (2.5 mg/kg) to naturally parasitized calves.

<b>MONEPANTEL</b>		
<b>Pharmacokinetic parameters</b>	<b>MNP</b>	<b>MNPSO<sub>2</sub></b>
<b>T<sub>max</sub></b> (h)	8.00 $\pm$ 1.51 <sup>a</sup>	41.3 $\pm$ 17.9 <sup>b</sup>
<b>C<sub>max</sub></b> (ng/mL)	21.5 $\pm$ 4.62 <sup>a</sup>	96.8 $\pm$ 29.7 <sup>b</sup>
<b>AUC<sub>0-LOQ</sub></b> (ng.h/mL)	1709 $\pm$ 651 <sup>a</sup>	9220 $\pm$ 1720 <sup>b</sup>
<b>AUC<sub>0-∞</sub></b> (ng.h/mL)	2174 $\pm$ 783 <sup>a</sup>	10242 $\pm$ 1405 <sup>b</sup>
<b>MRT</b> (h)	112 $\pm$ 40.8 <sup>a</sup>	99.3 $\pm$ 21.0 <sup>a</sup>
<b>T<sub>½el</sub></b> (h)	81.0 $\pm$ 31.0 <sup>a</sup>	57.6 $\pm$ 13.9 <sup>a</sup>
<b>T<sub>½abs</sub></b> (h)	1.74 $\pm$ 0.66 <sup>a</sup>	9.79 $\pm$ 4.06 <sup>b</sup>
<b>Ratio of the AUC MNPSO<sub>2</sub>/MNP</b>	-	5.99 $\pm$ 2.08

T<sub>max</sub>: time to peak plasma concentration; C<sub>max</sub>: peak plasma concentration; AUC<sub>0-LOQ</sub>: area under the plasma concentration vs. time curve from 0 to the quantification limit; AUC<sub>0-∞</sub>: area under the concentration-time curve extrapolated to infinity; MRT: mean residence time; T<sub>½el</sub>: elimination half-life; T<sub>½abs</sub>: absorption half-life (the value express the metabolite formation half-life for MNPSO<sub>2</sub>).

Pharmacokinetic parameters with different superscript letters are statistically different (P<0.05).

**Table 2**

Nematode egg per gram counts (EPG, arithmetic mean, range) and reduction percentages of faecal egg counts (FECR) (undifferentiated) with its 95% lower and upper confidence intervals, after the oral administration of monepantel (MNP, 2.5 mg/kg), and the subcutaneous administration of ivermectin (IVM, 0.2 mg/kg) and ricobendazole (RBZ, 3.75 mg/kg) to naturally parasitized calves.

Experimental Group	FARM 1			FARM 2			FARM 3		
	EPG Counts (range)		FECR <sup>1</sup> (CI)	EPG Counts (range)		FECR <sup>1</sup> (CI)	EPG Counts (range)		FECR <sup>1</sup> (CI)
	Day -1	Day 15		Day -1	Day 15		Day -1	Day 15	
<b>MNP</b> (oral)	547 <sup>a</sup> (100-2440)	5.6 <sup>a</sup> (0-20)	<b>99%</b> (97-99)	188 <sup>a</sup> (100-400)	8 <sup>a</sup> (0-20)	<b>96%</b> (90-98)	374 <sup>a</sup> (140-740)	7 <sup>a</sup> (0-20)	<b>98%</b> (95-99)
<b>IVM</b> (sc)	469 <sup>a</sup> (100-1460)	269 <sup>b</sup> (0-1060)	<b>43%</b> (0-73)	351 <sup>a</sup> (100-660)	111 <sup>b</sup> (0-320)	<b>68%</b> (42-83)	498 <sup>a</sup> (140-1360)	362 <sup>b</sup> (20-1520)	<b>27%</b> (0-69)
<b>RBZ</b> (sc)	508 <sup>a</sup> (140-1380)	31 <sup>a</sup> (0-120)	<b>94%</b> (85-97)	283 <sup>a</sup> (120-580)	3 <sup>a</sup> (0-20)	<b>98%</b> (94-99)	480 <sup>a</sup> (140-1140)	115 <sup>b</sup> (0-320)	<b>75%</b> (45-89)

<sup>1</sup>FECR estimated according to McKenna, (1990). CI: lower and upper confidence intervals.

EPG counts on each column with different superscript letters are statistically different (P<0.05).

**Table 3**

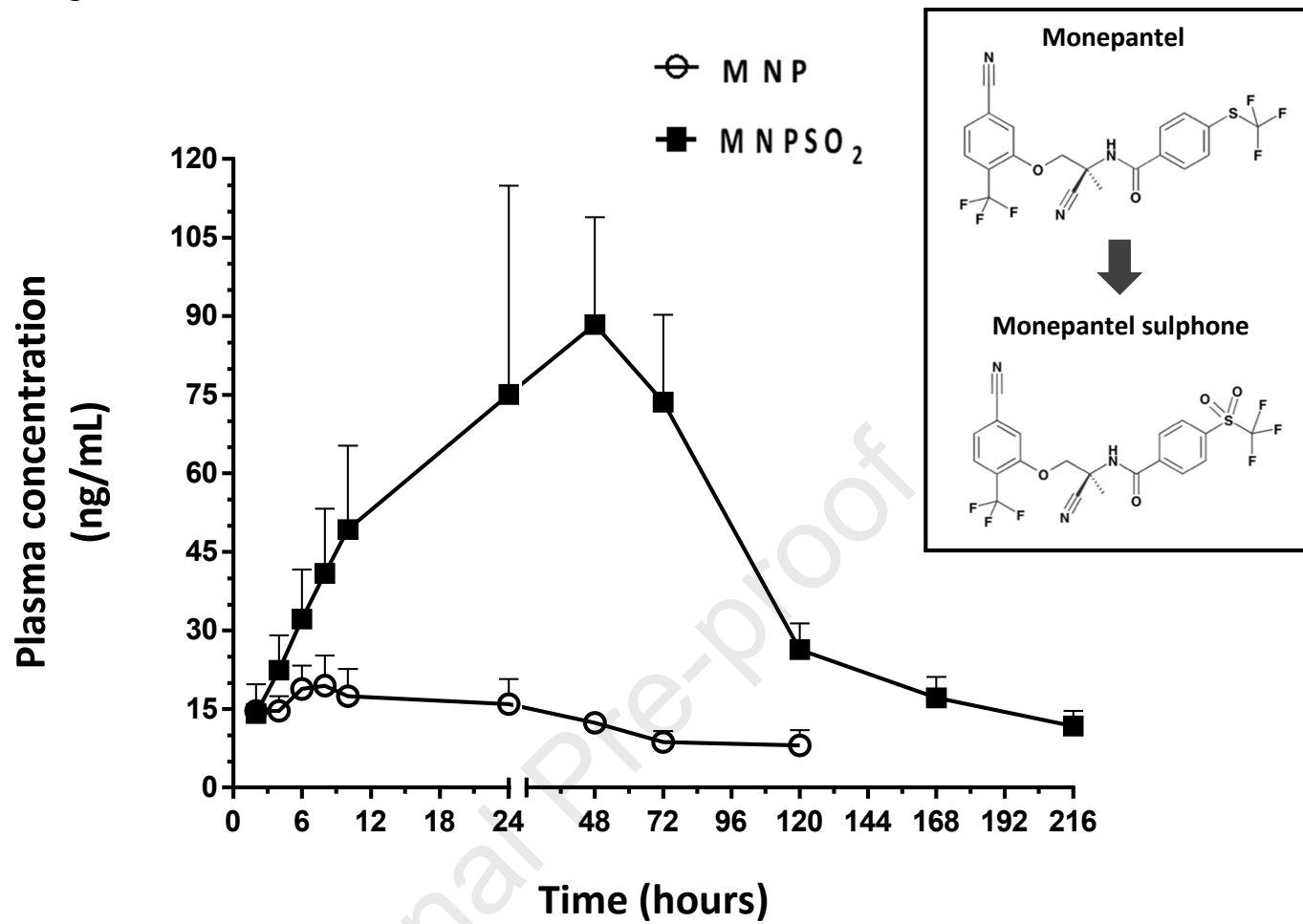
Reduction percentages of faecal egg counts (FECR) for *Cooperia*, *Haemonchus*, *Ostertagia* and *Oesophagostomum* spp. after the oral administration of monepantel (MNP, 2.5 mg/kg), and the subcutaneous administration of ivermectin (IVM, 0.2 mg/kg) and ricobendazole (RBZ, 3.75 mg/kg) to naturally parasitized calves.

Genus - Treatment	FECR <sup>1</sup> Day 15		
	FARM 1	FARM 2	FARM 3
<b><i>Cooperia</i> spp.</b>			
MNPoral	100%	100%	100%
IVMsc	80%	56%	43%
RBZsc	86%	99%	54%
<b><i>Haemonchus</i> spp.</b>			
MNPoral	100%	100%	100%
IVMsc	19%	100%	0%
RBZsc	99%	95%	98%
<b><i>Ostertagia</i> spp.</b>			
MNPoral	100%	100%	99%
IVMsc	100%	100%	100%
RBZsc	89%	100%	0%
<b><i>Oesophagostomum</i> spp.</b>			
MNPoral	74%	22%	64%
IVMsc	100%	100%	100%
RBZsc	100%	100%	100%

<sup>1</sup>FECR estimated according to McKenna, (1990).



Figure 1



## HIGHLIGHTS

- MNP and its anthelmintically active metabolite MNPSO<sub>2</sub> were the main analytes recovered in plasma
- The MNPSO<sub>2</sub> AUC value was 6-fold higher compared to the parent drug
- MNP obtained overall efficacies of 96-99% against IVM and BZD resistant nematode parasites in cattle
- MNP failed to control *Oesophagostomum* spp.
- The work described here reports for the first time an integrated assessment of MNP pharmaco-therapy features

**CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT**

There are no potential conflicts of interest associated with this study.

Journal Pre-proof