

KUCERS' THE USE OF ANTIBIOTICS

A CLINICAL REVIEW OF ANTIBACTERIAL, ANTIFUNGAL, ANTIPARASITIC AND ANTIVIRAL DRUGS

VOLUME 1

6TH EDITION

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British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data

A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

A catalog record for this book is available from the Library of Congress

ISBN 978 0 340 927 670

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I. DESCRIPTION

Azithromycin (CAS number: 83905-01-5) was obtained by Beckman rearrangement of the oxime derivative of the ketone of erythromycin (see Chapter 59, Erythromycin), leading to a 15-membered macrocycle, followed by its reduction and N-alkylation (hence the name of azalide given to this class of compounds (Djokic *et al.*, 1987; Bright *et al.*, 1988). The molecular formula is $C_{38}H_{72}N_2O_{12}$ and the molecular weight is 749; the structure is shown in Figure 62.1.

Azithromycin has greater *in vitro* activity than erythromycin against some Gram-negative bacteria and improved pharmacokinetics with a

relatively long half-life (Dunkin *et al.*, 1988; Maskell *et al.*, 1990). It accumulates significantly intracellularly. It also shows activity against nontuberculous mycobacteria, including *Mycobacterium avium* complex (MAC) (Watt *et al.*, 1996a), and some parasites, such as *Toxoplasma gondii* (Araujo *et al.*, 1988). Apart from its use as an antimicrobial agent, it is increasingly used as an anti-inflammatory agent, in particular in patients with cystic fibrosis.

2. ANTIMICROBIAL ACTIVITY

2a. Routine susceptibility

Macrolides are bacteriostatic antibiotics, characterized by a moderately broad spectrum of activity, which includes most Gram-positive but only selected Gram-negative organisms, as well as several bacteria responsible for intracellular infection, such as *Mycobacteria* spp., *Chlamydia* spp., or *Legionella* spp. Their activity is markedly reduced in acidic environments. Table 62.1 lists the susceptibilities observed for wild strains of the most relevant target organisms.

Gram-positive bacteria

Similar to erythromycin (see Chapter 59, Erythromycin), azithromycin is active against erythromycin-susceptible strains of *Streptococcus*

pyogenes, group B, C and G streptococci, *S. pneumoniae*, *S. viridans*, *S. bovis*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, coagulase-negative staphylococci, *Enterococcus faecalis*, and *E. faecium*. *Listeria monocytogenes* is also moderately susceptible (Seral *et al.*, 2003b). Azithromycin MICs are similar to or slightly higher than those of erythromycin against these organisms.

Gram-positive anaerobic cocci such as the *Peptostreptococcus* spp. are also azithromycin susceptible. The same is true for Gram-positive anaerobic rods, such as *Clostridium*, *Actinomyces*, *Propionibacterium*, *Eubacterium*, *Lactobacillus* spp., and *Corynebacterium diphtheriae* (Barry *et al.*, 1988; Maskell *et al.*, 1990; Williams *et al.*, 1992; Engler *et al.*, 2001).

Gram-negative bacteria

Overall, azithromycin is more active than erythromycin toward Gram-negative bacteria, probably because of a high penetration inside these bacteria due to its higher lipophilicity and/or cationic character (Farmer *et al.*, 1992; Vaara, 1993).

Azithromycin is more active against *Neisseria meningitidis* and *N. gonorrhoeae* than erythromycin (Barry *et al.*, 1988; Slaney *et al.*, 1990). *Haemophilus influenzae* and *Moraxella catarrhalis* are some 4-fold more susceptible to azithromycin than to erythromycin and clarithromycin (Barry *et al.*, 1988; Maskell *et al.*, 1990; Barry and Fuchs, 1995; Zhanel *et al.*, 2003a). *H. ducreyi* is also more susceptible to azithromycin than erythromycin (Slaney *et al.*, 1990; Aldridge *et al.*, 1993; Jonas *et al.*, 2000). Azithromycin is about as active as erythromycin against *Legionella pneumophila* and *L. micdadei* *in vitro*, but more active against these pathogens intracellularly (Edelstein and Edelstein, 1991; Donowitz and Earnhardt, 1993). *Campylobacter jejuni* and *C. coli* are about as susceptible to azithromycin as to erythromycin (Taylor and Chang, 1991).

Unlike erythromycin, azithromycin is active against some of the Enterobacteriaceae, particularly the enteropathogens, such as enteropathogenic *Escherichia coli* and the *Shigella* and *Salmonella* spp. Azithromycin is particularly effective against these pathogens intracellularly (Retsema *et al.*, 1987; Gordillo *et al.*, 1993; Rakita *et al.*, 1994). It also has some activity against other *E. coli* strains, *Y. enterocolitica*, *Leclercia adecarboxylata*, *Plesiomonas shigelloides*, and *C. diversus* (Stock and Wiedemann, 2001; Stock *et al.*, 2004). *Kluyvera*

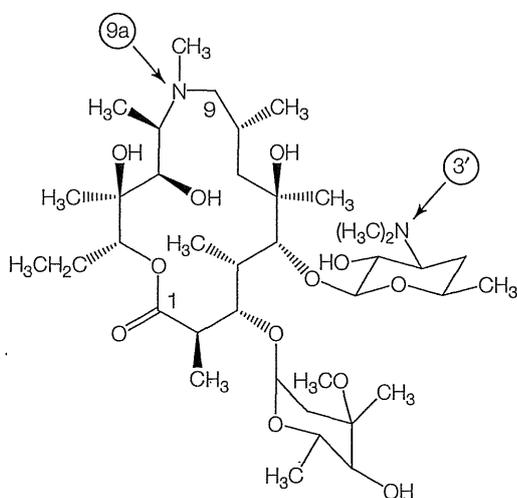


Figure 62.1 Molecular structure of azithromycin. Chemical stability in acid medium is due to absence of a keto group in position 9. Note that azithromycin is built on a 14-membered cycle and is a diaminated compound (Djokic *et al.*, 1987).

Table 62.1 MIC ($\mu\text{g/ml}$) of azithromycin for target bacteria compared with susceptibility breakpoints.

Bacteria	Wild-type strains (EUCAST distributions of MIC)			Study period	Clinical isolates			Breakpoints		Resistance issues	References
	Range	MIC ₅₀	MIC ₉₀		Range	MIC ₅₀	MIC ₉₀	CLSI breakpoint (S \leq /R \geq)	EUCAST breakpoint (S \leq /R \geq)		
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	0.032–2	0.5	1	1994–1998 (Japan)	0.5 to >128		>32	2/8	1/2	HA-MRSA frequently multiresistant	Okamoto <i>et al.</i> , 2000
<i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i>	0.032–0.25	0.125	0.125	1994–2001	\leq 0.016 to >64			0.5/2	0.25/0.5	High prevalence in many countries; often multiresistant strains	Kosowska <i>et al.</i> , 2005
<i>Streptococcus pyogenes</i>	0.032–0.25	0.064	0.25	2002–2003 (Japan) 1999–2000 (Europe) 1994–1998 (Japan)	\leq 0.06 to >16	4	16	0.5/2	0.25/0.5		Sunakawa and Farrell, 2007 Canton <i>et al.</i> , 2002
<i>Haemophilus influenzae</i>	0.064–4	1	2	2007 (Spain)	0.5–8	2	4	4/–	0.12/4		Garcia-Cobos <i>et al.</i> , 2008
<i>Moraxella catarrhalis</i>				1997–2002 (Canada)	\leq 0.06–2	0.06	0.12		0.5/0.5		Zhanet <i>et al.</i> , 2003b
<i>Legionella pneumophila</i>				1999–2004 (Europe, USA)	\leq 0.06–0.5	\leq 0.06	0.25				Dunbar and Farrell, 2007
<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i>				1997–1999 (Israel)	0.06–0.125	0.06	0.125				Samra <i>et al.</i> , 2001
<i>Neisseria gonorrhoeae</i>	0.016–0.25	0.125	0.25		0.016–0.25	0.064	0.19		0.25/0.5		Khaki <i>et al.</i> , 2007
<i>Mycobacterium avium</i> and complex				(UK)	<8–64	32	32				Watt <i>et al.</i> , 1996a

CLSI: Clinical Laboratory Standards Institute; EUCAST: European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing; HA-MRSA: hospital acquired methicillin-resistant *S. aureus*; R: resistance; S: susceptibility.

ascorbata is less susceptible than *K. cryocrescens* (Stock, 2005). *Klebsiella* and *Enterobacter* spp. and *C. freundii* are more resistant and the *Proteus* and *Serratia* spp. and *Y. pestis* are completely resistant (Retsema *et al.*, 1987; Smith *et al.*, 1995).

Azithromycin is more active than erythromycin against *Brucella* spp. with MICs of 0.5–2.0 µg/ml (Landinez *et al.*, 1992; Garcia-Rodriguez *et al.*, 1993) and *Vibrio cholerae*, with an MIC of 0.25 µg/ml (Jones *et al.*, 1988). Azithromycin also shows some activity against other Gram-negative bacteria such as the *Bartonella* spp., *Cardiobacterium hominis*, and the *Pasteurella*, *Aeromonas* and *Acinetobacter* spp., but *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is completely resistant (Retsema *et al.*, 1987; Kitzis *et al.*, 1990; Lion *et al.*, 2006; Timurkaynak *et al.*, 2006). Azithromycin is ineffective against *Coxiella burnetii* (Lever *et al.*, 2004). Only a small minority of *Burkholderia pseudomallei* are sensitive to azithromycin (Karaunakaran and Puthuchear, 2007).

Among the Gram-negative anaerobic bacteria, the *Prevotella* spp., *Porphyromonas* spp., *Fusobacterium* spp., *Actinobacillus actinomycetemcomitans*, *Peptostreptococcus micros*, and *Eikenella corrodens* are azithromycin-susceptible (Muller *et al.*, 2002; Kuriyama *et al.*, 2007). *Veillonella* spp., *Bacteroides fragilis*, and other members of the *B. fragilis* group are moderately resistant (Barry *et al.*, 1988; Kitzis *et al.*, 1990; Chen *et al.*, 1992; Pajukanta *et al.*, 1992).

Other bacteria

Azithromycin is active against MAC, with MICs similar or slightly higher than those of clarithromycin (Bermudez and Young, 1988; Perronne *et al.*, 1991). It is also as active as clarithromycin (see Chapter 61, Clarithromycin) against other nontuberculous mycobacteria, such as *M. kansasii*, *M. xenopi*, *M. simiae*, *M. malmoense*, and *M. celatum* (Klemens and Cynamon, 1994; Fattorini *et al.*, 2000). *M. marinum* is resistant to azithromycin; however, clarithromycin has moderate activity (Aubry *et al.*, 2000).

Azithromycin is highly active against *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* (Ishida *et al.*, 1994), and *Chlamydia trachomatis*, *Chlamydia pneumoniae*, or *C. psittaci* (Walsh *et al.*, 1987; Hammerschlag *et al.*,

1992; Niki *et al.*, 1994). It also demonstrated activity *in vitro* or in animal models of infection by *Ureaplasma urealyticum* (Rylander and Hallander, 1988), *Treponema pallidum* (Lukehart *et al.*, 1990), *Borrelia burgdorferi* (Johnson *et al.*, 1990; Hunfield *et al.*, 2004), or *T. gondii* (Araujo *et al.*, 1988). Azithromycin and clarithromycin are equally active against leptospira (Ressner *et al.*, 2008). Azithromycin also has some *in vitro* activity against *Cryptosporidium parvum* in cell lines (Rehg, 1991; Giacometti *et al.*, 2000); however, there have been concerns about clinical efficacy (Giacometti *et al.*, 1999). Azithromycin has antimalarial activity on its own, as well as synergistic interactions with artemisinin derivatives or quinine (Gingras and Jensen, 1992; Noedl *et al.*, 2007). *Ehrlichia phagocytophila* is uniformly resistant to azithromycin using standardized sensitivity testing with cell cultures (Horowitz *et al.*, 2001).

2b. Emerging resistance and cross-resistance

Resistance to macrolides has become a major issue for most of the bacteria originally described as susceptible, including among *Staphylococcus* spp., *Streptococcus* spp., *N. gonorrhoeae*, *Bacteroides* spp., *Enterococcus* spp., *Clostridium* spp., *Bacillus* spp., *Lactobacillus* spp., *M. pneumoniae*, *M. genitalium*, *Campylobacter* spp., *C. diphtheriae*, and *Propionibacterium*, as well as many members of the Enterobacteriaceae (Leclercq and Courvalin, 1991; Engler *et al.*, 2001; Martin *et al.*, 2006; Jensen *et al.*, 2008). There is complete cross-resistance between erythromycin and roxithromycin. The main mechanisms of resistance are similar to erythromycin and include target modification, antibiotic inactivation and efflux mechanisms (see Chapter 59, Erythromycin).

Because of its use as an immunomodulatory agent, the drug has been given for prolonged periods of time to cystic fibrosis patients. Phaff *et al.* (2005) showed that long-term use of azithromycin led to increased resistance of *S. aureus* and *H. influenzae*, and thereby decreasing its potential use as an antimicrobial.

3. MECHANISM OF DRUG ACTION

The mechanism of action is similar to erythromycin (see Chapter 59, Erythromycin).

4. MODE OF DRUG ADMINISTRATION AND DOSAGE

4a. Adults

Oral administration

Azithromycin is mainly given by the oral route. The adult dose for most indications is 500 mg once daily on the first day and 250 mg once daily for the next 4 days, or, alternatively, 500 mg once daily for only 3 days (Foulds *et al.*, 1990; Foulds and Johnson, 1993). The shortness of treatment duration with azithromycin is made possible by its particular pharmacokinetic profile (high and persistent tissue concentrations; see below under 5. Pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic features) (Klein, 1994). For specific indications, however, other dosages are used.

For MAC, the dosage is 1200 mg once weekly for primary prevention, or 500 mg daily (combined with ethambutol or rifampicin) for the secondary prevention in immunocompromised patients (Benson, 1994), and 600 mg daily in combination with other antimycobacterial agents for the treatment of disseminated infection, or 500–600 mg three times a week or 300 mg daily for the treatment of lung disease (Griffith *et al.*, 2007). For the treatment of sexually transmitted diseases, a single dose of 1 g (to 2 g for cervicitis or

urethritis due to *N. gonorrhoeae*) is recommended (Steingrimsson *et al.*, 1994; Workowski and Berman, 2006).

A daily dose of 500 mg, but for a longer period of time, is administered for typhoid fever (7 days) or acute toxoplasmic encephalitis in AIDS patients (4 weeks) (Saba *et al.*, 1993; Girgis *et al.*, 1999).

An extended-release formulation has recently been developed, allowing for use of a single 2-g dose in respiratory tract infections (Swainston and Keam, 2007).

Parenteral administration

Azithromycin can be administered by the intravenous route. The powder is first reconstituted at a concentration of 100 mg/ml (it cannot be used for intramuscular or for bolus injection), and is further diluted to 1 mg/ml for an administration over 3 hours or to 2 mg/ml for an administration over 1 hour (Luke and Foulds, 1997).

Other routes of administration

A 1% ophthalmic suspension is available for topical use only.

4b. Newborn infants and children

The dosage for children age six months or older is 10 mg/kg as a single dose on day 1 followed by 5 mg/kg once daily for the next 4 days, or, alternatively 10 mg/kg once daily for 3 days only (Hamill, 1993; Nahata *et al.*, 1993; Schaad, 1993). In otitis media, a single dose of 30 mg/kg has also been approved. For disseminated infection by *M. avium*, a daily dose of 10–12 mg/kg azithromycin (combined with antimycobacterial agents) is recommended. For typhoid fever, 20 mg/kg/day for 5 days or 10 mg/kg/day for 7 days have been used successfully (Frenck *et al.*, 2000; Frenck *et al.*, 2004). The extended release formulation should be administered as a single dose of 60 mg/kg in children older than six months.

4c. Altered dosages

Impaired renal function

No dosage adjustment is required in patients with a glomerular filtration rate of ≤ 80 ml/min (Hoffler *et al.*, 1995), but azithromycin

should be used with caution when this rate becomes lower than 10 ml/min. Most guidelines do not recommend dose adjustment in renal impairment (Aronoff *et al.*, 1999; Gilbert *et al.*, 2008). Dose reduction is not necessary for patients on hemodialysis, continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis or continuous arteriovenous hemofiltration (Aronoff *et al.*, 1999).

Impaired hepatic function

A study with 16 cirrhotic patients with moderate hepatic impairment (Pugh's class A and B) suggested that no modification of azithromycin dosage is necessary for short-course treatment (Mazzei *et al.*, 1993).

The elderly

No dosage adjustment is needed for geriatric patients, as pharmacokinetic parameters, efficacy, and toxicity measures are similar to younger populations.

5. PHARMACOKINETICS AND PHARMACODYNAMICS

The main pharmacokinetic properties of azithromycin are summarized in Table 62.2.

5a. Bioavailability

After a single 500 mg oral dose of azithromycin, a mean peak serum level of 0.4 μ g/ml was reached in 2–4 hours. The serum levels in children are similar to those in adults if they are given a single dose of azithromycin 10 mg/kg on day 1 and 5 mg/kg daily for the next 4 days (Nahata *et al.*, 1993). The oral bioavailability of azithromycin is 38%. The AUC of azithromycin was unaffected by food intake (but C_{max} is increased by 56%) and by the co-administration of antacids or of cimetidine.

After administration of a single dose of 2 g of the extended-release formulation, serum C_{max} and AUC_{24h} are 3- to 4-fold higher than with a conventional dose of 500 mg of the immediate release formulation, with serum concentrations remaining > 1 μ g/ml for 120 hours, as was the case after a conventional 3 days' treatment (Ehnage *et al.*, 2008). The extended release formulation shows an improved bioavailability (83%) compared with the conventional formulation. It is best absorbed when taken on an empty stomach and can be co-administered with antacids (Chandra *et al.*, 2007).

5b. Drug distribution

After reaching the C_{max} , the serum level of azithromycin thereafter declines to 0.1 μ g/ml at 6 hours and 0.04 μ g/ml at 12 hours. This initial

rather rapid fall of serum levels is not due to the drug's elimination, but is due to extensive uptake of azithromycin in the tissues.

Probably the most striking pharmacokinetic property of azithromycin is its large volume of distribution, which is related to its exceptional ability to accumulate inside eukaryotic cells. This can be ascribed to the fact that azithromycin possesses two portonable amine functions, responsible for a higher retention in the acidic compartments of the cells than for the other, monocationic macrolides (de Duve *et al.*, 1974; Carlier *et al.*, 1994). The consequences of this large volume of distribution is that the serum level of azithromycin is low, which may limit its efficacy, whereas its tissue and cellular concentrations are high, which may be an advantage for the treatment of infections localized in these compartments (Schentag and Ballow, 1991; Zhanel *et al.*, 2001). Thus, in animal models, tissue-serum concentrations as high as 100-fold have been found in spleen, liver, kidneys, lung, lymph nodes, and tonsils, 20-fold in the eye, 10-fold in muscle and fat, but only 1.2-fold higher in the brain (Shepard and Falkner, 1990; Davila *et al.*, 1991; Carceles *et al.*, 2007). This high tissue concentration has been correlated with efficacy in models of infections by *S. pyogenes*, *S. pneumoniae*, group B streptococci, and *H. influenzae* (Girard *et al.*, 1987; Tissi *et al.*, 1995). Its high cellular concentration has been correlated with its high activity against intracellular pathogens, including *L. pneumophila* (Stamler *et al.*, 1994), *C. trachomatis* (Raulston, 1994), *M. avium* (Bermudez *et al.*, 1991), and *T. gondii* (Blais *et al.*, 1994; Schwab *et al.*, 1994). However, it is poorly effective in experimental *S. aureus* osteomyelitis (O'Reilly *et al.*, 1992), despite bone concentrations 30 times higher than levels in the serum (Foulds *et al.*, 1990; O'Reilly *et al.*, 1992), as well as against *S. aureus* ingested by polymorphonuclear neutrophils (PMNs), or macrophages (Meyer *et al.*, 1993; Pascual *et al.*, 1995; Seral *et al.*, 2003a; Barcia-Macay *et al.*, 2006). This could be ascribed to the fact that *S. aureus* is localized in phagolysosomes, where this acidic pH drastically impairs the activity of azithromycin (Seral *et al.*, 2003a; Barcia-Macay *et al.*, 2006).

In humans also, a broad tissue distribution has been demonstrated, with tissue concentrations after administration of 500 mg of 0.4–5.1 μ g/g in tonsillar tissue even after 1 week (Schmedes *et al.*, 1998), of 9 μ g/g in the lung (Danesi *et al.*, 2003), giving rise to tissue-concentration ration > 100 in the lung and the tonsil, 70 in the cervix, and 30 in the sputum or in the skin. It is still more effective with the extended release formulation. Thus, after administration of a single 2-g dose of the extended-release formulation, the maximal concentration was reached after 16–24 hours in the sinus, the lung or the alveolar macrophages, and after 48 hours in the epithelial lining fluid; however

Table 62.2 Pharmacokinetic parameters of azithromycin.

Pharmacokinetic parameter	Azithromycin (500 mg, 2 days)	Extended release (2 g)
C_{max} (μ g/ml)	0.4	~1
t_{max} (hours)	2.5	4
$t_{1/2}$ (hours)	72	59
Bioavailability (%)	37	83
Protein binding (%)	12–40	
Tissue serum concentration	50–1150	
AUC (mg/h) 24 h	2–3.4	7–10

Compiled from Foulds *et al.* (1990); Peters *et al.* (1992); Chandra *et al.* (2007); Ehnage *et al.* (2008); Lucchi *et al.* (2008).

the AUC was three to four times higher than with the conventional treatment and about four to five times higher in the sinus and in the epithelial lining fluid, and seven times higher in the lung or the alveolar macrophages than in the serum (Ehnhage *et al.*, 2008; Lucchi *et al.*, 2008).

In pregnancy, there is limited transplacental transfer of azithromycin; mean placental transfer was 2.6%, a ratio between the steady state concentrations in fetal venous and maternal arterial circulations (Heikkinen *et al.*, 2000). However, azithromycin has a rapid serum half-life in term gravid women with a prolonged tissue half-life (levels sustained for up to 72 hours) and high sustained antibiotic levels within the myometrium, adipose, and placental tissue (Ramsey *et al.*, 2003).

In animal models, tissue serum concentrations of azithromycin are 1.2-fold higher in the brain (Davila *et al.*, 1991).

5c. Clinically important pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic features

Cure rates for macrolides mainly depend on the AUC/MIC ratio (Andes *et al.*, 2004), based on their time-dependent effect coupled with a postantibiotic effect, both *in vitro* and in animal models (Rolin and Bouanchaud, 1989; Novelli *et al.*, 2002). Girard *et al.* (2005) also showed the AUC/MIC ratio as the most important pharmacodynamic index correlated with efficacy in a mouse model of infection.

The pharmacodynamic activity of azithromycin against macrolide-susceptible and -resistant *S. pneumoniae* was examined *in vitro* by simulating clinically achievable free serum, epithelial lining fluid (ELF), and middle ear fluid concentrations in their models, leading to the conclusion that a free azithromycin AUC/MIC of ≥ 36.7 allows for a bactericidal effect against a macrolide-susceptible *S. pneumoniae* with an MIC of ≤ 0.05 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (Zhan *et al.*, 2003a). In bacteremic patients with pneumococcal infections, it was shown that azithromycin AUC/MIC averaged ten in failure patients and 17 in controls (Schentag *et al.*, 2007), suggesting a pharmacodynamic breakpoint of 0.2 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ based on an AUC of ~ 3 mg/h. This is in the order of magnitude of the European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing breakpoint for resistance (0.5 $\mu\text{g/mL}$), but is well below the Clinical Laboratory Standards Institute breakpoint (2 $\mu\text{g/mL}$).

However, it is important to remember that azithromycin is highly concentrated within the host cells. It may therefore have a more favorable pharmacodynamic profile toward intracellular bacteria. Moreover, concentrations in human PMNs after conventional treatments peak to ~ 120 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ and remain above 60 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ 7 days after the final dose, and the concentration is about twice as high in inflamed as noninflamed blister fluid (Ballou *et al.*, 1998), which has led some to propose a role for PMNs in the delivery of azithromycin at the site of infection (Schentag and Ballou, 1991).

With respect to other routes of administration, once-daily instillation of 1.0% eye drops was shown to reach an AUC/MIC above the required threshold for antibacterial activity against Gram-positive bacteria (25–35). A twice-daily instillation is likely to ensure antimicrobial activity against Gram-negative bacteria (threshold > 100) (Chiambaretta *et al.*, 2008).

5d. Excretion

Owing to its high cellular retention, the elimination of azithromycin is extremely slow. The drug is still detected in the serum 3 weeks after its administration, with concentrations > 1 $\mu\text{g/L}$ during 15–30 days (Crokaert *et al.*, 1998). The persistence of subinhibitory concentrations in the serum raises potential questions regarding the potential for selection of resistance.

Biliary excretion of azithromycin, predominantly as unchanged drug, is a major route of elimination. Only 4–6% of an orally administered

dose of azithromycin is excreted via the kidney as the active drug (Cooper *et al.*, 1990; Wildfeuer *et al.*, 1993).

5e. Drug interactions

Drug interactions with macrolides can be a considerable problem, which may seriously limit their use in at-risk patients. The main mechanism involved in these interactions is the ability of macrolides to bind to cytochrome P450 (group 3A4), thereby impairing the subsequent metabolism of other substrates of the same cytochrome (Periti *et al.*, 1992). The elimination of these co-administered drugs is therefore reduced, causing a potential risk of toxicity (Periti *et al.*, 1992; von Rosensteil and Adam, 1995). This risk, however, is the lowest with azithromycin, so that its use is contraindicated only when the interaction may have a life-threatening risk (see Table 62.3) (Pai *et al.*, 2000). This is the case for ergotamine (risk of ergotism) or for drugs that result in prolongation of the cardiac QT interval (e.g. terfenadine), thereby increasing the risk of torsades de pointes due to the macrolides (Curtis *et al.*, 2003). Among the newer antihistamines, peak fexofenadine concentrations were increased by 67% in the presence of azithromycin, whereas the desloratidine and azithromycin combination was better tolerated with only a small ($< 15\%$) increase in mean pharmacokinetics (Gupta *et al.*, 2001). However, both antihistamines in combination with azithromycin did not significantly alter the electrocardiogram. Azithromycin does not significantly alter the pharmacokinetics of rupatadine, an oral antihistamine and platelet-activating factor antagonist (Solans *et al.*, 2008).

Azithromycin is also described as an inhibitor and a substrate of P-glycoprotein, which may explain how it increases the serum level of ciclosporin (Page *et al.*, 2001) or digoxin (Eberl *et al.*, 2007). Conversely, nelfinavir increases the serum concentration and AUC of azithromycin probably by inhibiting its transport by P-glycoprotein in the gut (Amsden *et al.*, 2000), justifying a close monitoring for known azithromycin side-effects, such as liver enzyme abnormalities and hearing impairment.

Azithromycin potentially interacted with ciclosporin to increase ciclosporin levels in a case report; however, two follow-up studies of a total of 14 renal transplant patients did not show an interaction (Ljutić and Rumboldt, 1995; Gomez *et al.*, 1996; Bachmann *et al.*, 2003). There has been a case report of a marked increase in tacrolimus blood levels after two doses of azithromycin (Mori *et al.*, 2005). Tacrolimus undergoes extensive cytochrome P450 (CYP) 3A4 metabolism, and, although azithromycin has minimal effects on CYP, there may be an interaction between the two drugs.

Similar to other macrolides, azithromycin is thought to eliminate *Eubacterium lentum*, which can inactivate up to 40% of intestinal digoxin (Pai *et al.*, 2000). A case series of two patients with elevated digoxin concentrations with co-administration with azithromycin has been reported (Thalhammer *et al.*, 1998).

Table 62.3 Drug interactions with azithromycin.

Contraindicated drugs (careful monitoring required)	Drugs increasing azithromycin concentrations
Digoxin	Nelfinavir
Disopyramide	
Ergotamine or dihydroergotamine	
Tacrolimus	
Terfenadine	
Ciclosporin	
Hexobarbital	
Lovastatin	
Melegestrin	
Phenytoin	
Rifampicin	
Warfarin	

Compiled from www.drugbank.ca/drugs/DB00207.

Although co-administration of rifabutin and azithromycin has not been shown to alter the pharmacokinetics of either drug, the combination increases the risk of severe neutropenia. A controlled study comparing the effects of clarithromycin and azithromycin on the pharmacokinetics of rifabutin involving 30 healthy volunteers was terminated after neutropenia developed in 14 participants (Apseloff *et al.*, 1998). The incidence of neutropenia was greater in the combination group than in patients solely receiving rifabutin. The combination of azithromycin and rifabutin should be used cautiously with close monitoring for neutropenia.

Owing to the lack of cytochrome P450 interactions, azithromycin is considered to be the macrolide of choice for patients taking warfarin. However, there are at least seven case reports suggesting an azithromycin-warfarin interaction with resultant increase in international normalized ratio. However, confounding variables existed in each of the cases, including hepatic dysfunction, poor appetite, and concomitant medications (Lane, 1996; Woldtved *et al.*, 1998; Foster and Milan, 1999; Wiese and Cosh, 1999; Williams and Ponte, 2003; Shrader *et al.*, 2004). In a recent case report, a decrease in cigarette smoking from 1 pack/day to 1 pack every 3 days was the only confounding variable (Shrader *et al.*, 2004). In contrast, a retrospective review of 52 cases did not demonstrate a drug interaction (Beckey *et al.*, 2000). The accumulating case reports suggest that clinicians should be mindful of a potential warfarin-azithromycin interaction.

6. TOXICITY

Azithromycin is well tolerated with few side-effects, although the use of higher doses may be associated with greater toxicity. For instance, high-dose azithromycin (600 mg daily) used in mycobacterial infections is associated with 82% patients experiencing gastrointestinal disorders, 2% hearing impairment, tinnitus in 46%, and poor balance or dizziness in 28% (Brown *et al.*, 1997); adverse effects were generally associated with higher serum concentrations.

6a. Gastrointestinal adverse effects

These are the most common side-effects and easily observed by patients (Periti *et al.*, 1993; Treadway *et al.*, 2002), with diarrhea/loose stools (4–5%), nausea (3%), and abdominal pain (2–3%) being the most frequently reported. With the extended release formulation (2 g azithromycin), the reported rates are 17% nausea, 18% diarrhea/loose stools, 4% vomiting, and 36% abdominal pain (Chandra *et al.*, 2007). The incidence of gastrointestinal reactions is lower with azithromycin than that reported with erythromycin (Periti *et al.*, 1993). The mechanism for the gastrointestinal effects is macrolide-induced endogenous release of motilin that stimulates motilin receptors and has a prokinetic effect on the gut (Catnach and Fairclough, 1992).

6b. Hepatotoxicity

Transaminase elevation may occur upon treatment in 7% of patients but it is reversible upon completion of the therapy (Vergis *et al.*, 2000). Rare cases of more severe reactions (e.g. intrahepatic cholestasis and hypersensitivity hepatitis) have been reported (Longo *et al.*, 1997; Cascaval and Lancaster, 2001; Chandrupatla *et al.*, 2002).

6c. Cardiac effects

Macrolides have been associated with prolongation of cardiac repolarization (prolongation of the QT interval). The molecular mechanism appears to be a blockade of the HERG channel-dependent potassium current in myocyte membranes (Roden, 2008). These interactions may give rise to polymorphic ventricular tachycardia, torsades de pointes, or ventricular fibrillation. In a rat model, the

Two cases of rhabdomyolysis have occurred with co-administration of lovastatin, a hydroxymethylglutaryl-coenzyme A reductase inhibitor, and clarithromycin and azithromycin. Both cases had been treated for over five years with lovastatin, and the development of rhabdomyolysis coincided with co-administration with the macrolides (Grunden and Fisher, 1997). "Statin" monotherapy is known to cause rhabdomyolysis and rhabdomyolysis with the newer macrolides may occur when co-administered with other "statins".

Azithromycin has been reported to cause disopyramide toxicity with ventricular arrhythmias, presumably by inhibiting dealkylation of disopyramide to its major metabolite mono-*N*-dealkyldisopyramide (Grañowitz *et al.*, 2000).

Azithromycin increased the exposure of melagatran, the active form of the oral direct thrombin inhibitor ximelagatran, although the activated partial thromboplastin time (APTT) was not significantly altered (Dorani *et al.*, 2007).

Azithromycin has not been shown to significantly interact with carbamazepine, cimetidine, didanosine, indinavir, zidovudine, sildenafil, theophylline, zafirlukast, ciapride, and midazolam (Foulds *et al.*, 1991; Rapeport *et al.*, 1991; Chave *et al.*, 1992; Foulds *et al.*, 1999; Garey *et al.*, 1999; Michalets and Williams, 2000; Pai *et al.*, 2000; Muirhead *et al.*, 2002; Ito *et al.*, 2003).

potency of macrolides to induce QTc prolongation was ranked as follows: erythromycin > clarithromycin > roxithromycin > azithromycin (Ohtani *et al.*, 2000). Rare cases of QTc interval prolongation (Matsunaga *et al.*, 2003; Russo *et al.*, 2006), sometimes leading to torsades de pointes, have been reported (Huang *et al.*, 2007; Kezerashvili *et al.*, 2007).

6d. Ototoxicity

Reversible ototoxicity is reported in patients receiving long-term therapy for *M. avium* infection and 8 days of intravenous azithromycin for pneumonia (Wallace *et al.*, 1994; Bizjak *et al.*, 1999). Clinicians should be aware that irreversible hearing loss has also been reported with low-dose oral azithromycin for a urinary tract infection (Ross and Gross, 2000). There have also been case reports of ototoxicity occurring in patients with HIV (Tseng *et al.*, 1997). Guinea-pig models have shown reversible reductions in transiently evoked otoacoustic emissions with clarithromycin and azithromycin, but not erythromycin (Uzun *et al.*, 2001). The authors attribute this to transient dysfunction of outer hair cells in the inner ear.

6e. Hypersensitivity reactions

Allergic reactions including eosinophilia, fever, and skin eruptions are rarely reported for macrolides (Periti *et al.*, 1993; Taylor *et al.*, 2003); but when they occur they usually resolve promptly with treatment cessation. In a small case series, four of 21 pharmaceutical workers exposed to powdered substances involved in azithromycin synthesis developed allergic contact dermatitis with positive patch testing (Milkovic-Kraus *et al.*, 2007).

6f. Other adverse reactions

Headache is commonly reported (1.3%) in patients taking 2 g of extended release formulation. Transient neutrophilia (1.5%) and neutropaenia (1.5%) has been documented (Hopkins, 1996). There is one report of severe exacerbation of *Myasthenia gravis* with azithromycin treatment (Cadisch *et al.*, 1996).

There have been case reports of azithromycin causing acute interstitial nephritis. An adult developed end-stage renal failure after receiving azithromycin for 9 days (Mansoor *et al.*, 1993). A 14-year-old child developed recurrent acute interstitial nephritis induced by azithromycin administration (Soni *et al.*, 2004).

A syndrome similar to Churg–Strauss with eosinophilia, arthralgia, fever and rash has occurred in a patient who received azithromycin and roxithromycin on separate occasions (Hubner *et al.*, 1997).

6g. Risk in pregnancy

Azithromycin belongs to the B category of risk in pregnancy; there is not enough clinical experience in pregnancy to confirm its safety, although animal studies have recently suggested teratogenicity. In rat

embryo models, macrolides significantly decreased all growth and developmental parameters dose dependently compared with controls (Karabulut *et al.*, 2008). Clarithromycin caused more developmental toxicity, whereas azithromycin had more teratogenicity potential and spiramycin had the lowest toxic and teratogenic effects observed. Two observational studies have suggested that gestational exposure to azithromycin is not associated with an increased risk of congenital malformations; however, study sizes were small (Sarkar *et al.*, 2006; Bar-Oz *et al.*, 2008). Although in pregnancy azithromycin has a rapid serum half-life and limited placental transfer (see above under 5b. Drug distribution), sustained high levels are obtained within myometrium, adipose, and placental tissue. This is consistent with animal and observational studies, and azithromycin should be used with caution during pregnancy.

7. CLINICAL USES OF THE DRUG

A key therapeutic benefit with azithromycin is its easy scheme of administration. Azithromycin has a number of indications, particularly in respiratory tract infections. Macrolides have long been considered an alternative to beta-lactams for the treatment of respiratory tract infections. Short courses of azithromycin are as effective as longer courses of other antibiotics for upper and lower respiratory tract infections (Cantopoulos-Ioannidis *et al.*, 2001; Ionnidis *et al.*, 2001). However, the increasing rate of resistance among many respiratory pathogens to macrolides (see Section 2b. Emerging resistance and cross-resistance) requires some caution when prescribing, such that macrolide usage for these indications should be limited to countries where resistance rates remain low (Brunton and Iannini, 2005; Lode, 2007).

7a. Upper respiratory tract infections

Azithromycin is proposed as a second-line therapy for tonsillopharyngitis. Recently, it was suggested that azithromycin (10 mg/kg/day for 3 days for 3 successive weeks) may be considered for symptomatic treatment in the eradication of atypical organisms (*M. pneumoniae* and *C. pneumoniae*) that can be found in children with acute tonsillopharyngitis who are at high risk of recurrence of respiratory illness (Esposito *et al.*, 2006).

Azithromycin is indicated in the treatment of acute otitis media (in children) and acute sinusitis caused by *S. pneumoniae*, *H. influenzae*, and *M. catarrhalis*.

Acute otitis media

Multiple clinical trials in pediatric patients with acute otitis media (AOM) have demonstrated that 3- and 5-day courses of azithromycin are safe and have similar clinical efficacy to other agents commonly used as a 10-day regime (Arguedas *et al.*, 1996; Khurana, 1996; McLinn, 1996; Arguedas *et al.*, 1997). Single-dose azithromycin therapy (30 mg/kg) is an alternative to short-course azithromycin or high-dose amoxicillin regimes of longer duration in the treatment of AOM in children, in whom high-level *S. pneumoniae* resistance is uncommon (Arguedas *et al.*, 2003; Block *et al.*, 2003; Dunne *et al.*, 2003; Soley and Arguedas, 2005). A randomized double-blinded study showed that single-dose azithromycin (30 mg/kg) was as effective as high-dose amoxicillin (90 mg/kg in two divided doses) for 10 days in uncomplicated AOM, with lower rates of adverse events (20% and 29%) and improved compliance (Arguedas *et al.*, 2005).

Acute bacterial sinusitis

Azithromycin is an alternative to amoxicillin or amoxicillin–clavulanate for the treatment of acute bacterial sinusitis (Rosenfeld *et al.*,

2007). Short-course azithromycin therapy (500 mg daily) for either 3 or 6 days was as efficacious as a 10-day regime of amoxicillin–clavulanate (500–125 mg three times a day) for clinically and radiologically documented acute bacterial sinusitis in a randomized controlled trial of 936 patients (Henry *et al.*, 2003). Telithromycin (800 mg daily for 5 days) was superior to azithromycin (500 mg daily for 3 days) in the eradication of *S. pneumoniae* from the nasopharynx of adults with acute maxillary sinusitis (Brook and Hausfeld, 2006).

7b. Lower respiratory tract infections

Azithromycin is indicated for acute exacerbations of chronic bronchitis caused by *S. pneumoniae*, *H. influenzae*, and *M. catarrhalis* (Amsden *et al.*, 2003; Swanson *et al.*, 2005; Zervos *et al.*, 2007), and of community-acquired pneumonia due to *C. pneumoniae*, *M. pneumoniae*, *L. pneumophila*, *H. influenzae*, or *S. pneumoniae* (Vergis *et al.*, 2000; Feldman *et al.*, 2003; Plouffe *et al.*, 2003).

Acute bronchitis and acute exacerbations of chronic bronchitis

Randomized placebo-controlled trials and subsequent metaanalyses have led to most clinical practice guidelines recommending antibiotics for the treatment of moderate to severe exacerbations (Anthonisen *et al.*, 1987; Bach *et al.*, 2001; Noura *et al.*, 2001; American Thoracic Society/European Respiratory Society Task Force, 2004; Ram *et al.*, 2006). However, there is insufficient evidence to support the use of antibiotic therapy in mild exacerbations (Ram *et al.*, 2006).

A Cochrane meta-analysis was performed to compare azithromycin and amoxicillin or amoxicillin–clavulanate for the treatment of lower respiratory tract infections, including acute bronchitis, acute exacerbations of chronic bronchitis, and pneumonia (Panpanich *et al.*, 2004). The pooled analysis of 14 trials concluded that the incidence of clinical failure on days 10–14 in the azithromycin group and amoxicillin or amoxiclav group was not statistically significantly different in terms of clinical failure, microbial eradication and adverse events, although there were some limitations relating to the quality of the analyzed studies. Adequate concealment of treatment allocations occurred in only three trials, and nearly half had no description of blinding. In patients with acute bronchitis of a suspected bacterial cause, azithromycin tended to be more effective as evidenced by the lower incidence of treatment failure than amoxicillin or amoxiclav. In clinical practice, the choice between azithromycin and amoxicillin or amoxiclav is often based on considerations such as cost, convenience, and compliance to treatment.

Two randomized studies have compared azithromycin and levofloxacin or moxifloxacin in treating acute exacerbations of chronic bronchitis. Azithromycin (500 mg on day 1, followed by 250 mg daily

for days 2–5) was clinically (89% vs 92%) and bacteriologically (96% vs 85%) equivalent to levofloxacin (500 mg daily for 7 days), in 235 outpatients, despite concerns over macrolide resistance and increasing Gram-negative pathogens (Amsden *et al.*, 2003). Five hundred and sixty-seven patients were randomized to receive moxifloxacin (400 mg daily) or azithromycin (500 mg daily for day 1; 250 mg for days 2–5) for 5 days (Deabate *et al.*, 2000). Clinical resolution rates were 88% for moxifloxacin and 86% for azithromycin, with similar bacteriologic eradication rates; 95% for moxifloxacin and 94% for azithromycin; although the *H. influenzae* eradication rate was greater for moxifloxacin.

Azithromycin has more activity against *H. influenzae* than other macrolides (Mandell *et al.*, 2007). However, it should be noted that a dosing regimen of 500 mg initially followed by 250 mg for 4 days was ineffective for eradicating *H. influenzae* from purulent exacerbations of chronic bronchitis (Davies *et al.*, 1989). Compared with other macrolides, a 3-day course of azithromycin is as effective and as well tolerated as a 10-day course of clarithromycin (Bradbury, 1993).

Community-acquired pneumonia

Azithromycin is proposed as first-line therapy of community-acquired pneumonia in previously healthy patients with no risk factors for drug-resistant *S. pneumoniae* by the Infectious Diseases Society of America/American Thoracic Society Consensus Guidelines (Mandell *et al.*, 2007). The presence of comorbidities, such as chronic heart, lung, liver or renal disease, or diabetes mellitus, alcoholism, malignancy, asplenia, immunosuppressing conditions, or use of immunosuppressant drugs, requires the use of either a respiratory fluoroquinolone or a beta-lactam plus azithromycin (Mandell *et al.*, 2007). For those patients requiring admission, including patients requiring intensive care, azithromycin in combination with a beta-lactam, or a respiratory quinolone, is recommended by these IDSA Guidelines, unless *Pseudomonas* or methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* is suspected (Mandell *et al.*, 2007). Randomized double-blinded studies of adults hospitalized for community-acquired pneumonia have demonstrated that parenteral azithromycin alone was as effective as intravenous cefuroxime, with or without erythromycin (Plouffe *et al.*, 2000; Vergis *et al.*, 2000; Kuzman *et al.*, 2005). Retrospective reviews have also suggested shorter length of stay (Feldman *et al.*, 2003) and lower 30-day mortality (Brown *et al.*, 2003) with azithromycin monotherapy than with those receiving ATS guideline-recommended therapy. However, such patients tended to be younger and were more likely to be in lower-risk groups (Mandell *et al.*, 2007). Azithromycin alone can be considered for hospitalized patients with nonsevere community-acquired pneumonia and no risk factors for infection with drug-resistant *S. pneumoniae* or Gram-negative pathogens (Mandell *et al.*, 2007).

A combination of azithromycin with amoxicillin–clavulanate (see Chapter 14, Amoxicillin–Clavulanic Acid (Co-Amoxiclav)) is recommended in countries with high rates of macrolide-resistant pneumococci when treatment for “atypical” pathogens is suitable (Garcia *et al.*, 2005; Mandell *et al.*, 2007; Tamm *et al.*, 2007).

Among the macrolides, azithromycin (500 mg once daily) is as clinically effective and as well tolerated as a 10-day course of clarithromycin (250 mg twice daily) in mild–moderate community-acquired pneumonia (O’Doherty and Muller, 1998). In hospitalized patients with moderate-to-severe community-acquired pneumonia, the combination of azithromycin and ceftriaxone was equivalent in efficacy and safety to ceftriaxone plus clarithromycin or erythromycin (Tamm *et al.*, 2007).

Azithromycin prophylaxis to asymptomatic employees during a hospital outbreak of *M. pneumoniae*, suggested azithromycin may be of value in reducing clinical illness, although carriage rates are similar (Hyde *et al.*, 2001).

Indications of the extended-release formulation of azithromycin are limited to pneumonia in both children and adults, and to sinusitis

in adults. D’Ignazio *et al.* (2005) demonstrated in a randomized double-blind noninferiority study that single-dose extended-release formulation azithromycin (2 g) was at least as effective as a 7-day course of levofloxacin for the treatment of mild-to-moderate community-acquired pneumonia (D’Ignazio *et al.*, 2005). In a randomized double-blind study, single-dose extended-release azithromycin (2 g) was as effective as a 7-day course of clarithromycin for mild-to-moderate community-acquired pneumonia in adults, with 92.8% pathogen eradication rates and 92.6% cure rates (Drehobl *et al.*, 2005).

7c. Pertussis

Azithromycin is preferred for the treatment of pertussis in persons aged <1 month, and is an alternative to other macrolides in older children and adults, although data on safety and efficacy of azithromycin use among infants aged <6 months are limited (Tiwari *et al.*, 2005). Azithromycin (10 mg/kg/day for 5 days; 500 mg in a single dose on day 1, followed by 250 mg daily on days 2–5) is as effective as erythromycin (40 mg/kg/day in three divided doses for 10 days), is better tolerated, and is associated with fewer and milder side-effects (Langley *et al.*, 2004). For postexposure prophylaxis, the benefits of administering an antimicrobial agent to reduce the risk of pertussis should be weighed against the potential adverse effects of the drug. The Centers for Disease Control (CDC) recommends administration of postexposure prophylaxis of asymptomatic household contacts within 21 days of onset of cough in the index patient (Tiwari *et al.*, 2005). The recommended antimicrobial agents and dosing are the same as those for the treatment of pertussis.

7d. Skin and skin structure infections

Azithromycin is indicated for uncomplicated skin and skin-structure infections due to *S. aureus*, *S. pyogenes*, or *S. agalactiae*. Antibiotics with antiinflammatory properties, such as the tetracyclines and macrolides, are the agents of choice for pustulopustular acne (Zouboulis and Piquero-Martin, 2003). For acne vulgaris, 12 weeks’ treatment with azithromycin 500 mg for 4 days per month was efficient with a favorable safety profile in a prospective randomized trial (Parsad *et al.*, 2001). Two open-label noncomparative studies have shown the effectiveness of azithromycin 500 mg three times a week for 8–12 weeks (Kapadia and Talib, 2004; Bardazzi *et al.*, 2007).

7e. Tick-borne infections and other zoonoses

Lyme disease

Azithromycin is an alternative for early localized or disseminated Lyme disease (*Borrelia* spp.) associated with erythema migrans or borrelial lymphocytoma, although it has been found in clinical trials to be less effective than other antimicrobials such as doxycycline, amoxicillin, and cefuroxime (Wormser *et al.*, 2006). The Infectious Diseases Society of America reserves the use of azithromycin (children: 10 mg/kg/day to a maximum of 500 mg; adults: 500 mg daily for 7–10 days) for patients who are intolerant of, or who should not take, amoxicillin, doxycycline, and cefuroxime axetil (Wormser *et al.*, 2006).

Babesiosis

The combination of atovaquone plus azithromycin (children: 10 mg/kg/day for day 1, 5 mg/kg/day after; adults: 500–100 mg on day 1, followed by 250 mg/day after) or clindamycin plus quinine for 7–10 days is recommended by the Infectious Diseases Society of America for the initial therapy of babesiosis (Wormser *et al.*, 2006). Severe babesiosis should be treated with quinine and azithromycin. Higher

doses of azithromycin (600–1000 mg/day) may be used in immunocompromised patients.

Scrub typhus and leptospirosis

Doxycycline is standard therapy for scrub typhus in nonpregnant adults. There have been reports of doxycycline-resistant strains of *Orientia tsutsugamushi* in Northern Thailand (Watt *et al.*, 1996b). The efficacy of azithromycin was recently compared with doxycycline in the treatment of acute fever (<15 days) without an obvious focus, in a randomized controlled trial in Thailand (Phimda *et al.*, 2007). Two hundred and ninety-six patients were randomized to either a 7-day course of doxycycline or a 3-day course of doxycycline. The cause of the fever was determined in 51%; 69 patients (23.3%) had leptospirosis, 57 (19.3%) had scrub typhus, 14 (4.7%) had murine typhus, and 11 (3.7%) had evidence of both leptospirosis and a rickettsial infection. Similar fever clearance times were obtained between the two treatment arms. For leptospirosis, fever clearance within 48 hours was 55.9% for doxycycline compared with 65.7% for azithromycin ($p = 0.33$). For scrub typhus, median time to fever clearance was 48 hours for doxycycline compared with 60 hours for azithromycin ($p = 0.13$). Significantly more patients treated with doxycycline became afebrile within 48 hours. Azithromycin was better tolerated and no relapses occurred in either group during a one-month follow-up period. Although doxycycline is an excellent initial agent for scrub typhus, azithromycin is an alternative, particularly in pregnancy given its favorable pregnancy outcomes (Kim *et al.*, 2006), and may play a role in doxycycline-resistant strains (Kim *et al.*, 2004; Phimda *et al.*, 2007). Similarly, azithromycin is an alternative to doxycycline in pregnant women for the treatment of leptospirosis (Phimda *et al.*, 2007).

7f. Sexually transmitted diseases

Chlamydia trachomatis

The CDC recommends either single-dose azithromycin (1 g) or doxycycline (100 mg twice daily for 7 days) for the treatment of chlamydial genital infections, although single-dose regimens have improved compliance (Workowski and Berman, 2006). In genital chlamydial infections, a meta-analysis of 12 randomized clinical trials found azithromycin (single 1 g dose) and doxycycline 100 mg (twice daily for 7 days) to be equally efficacious in achieving microbial cure (97% and 98%, respectively) and to have similar tolerability (Lau and Qureshi, 2002). Azithromycin is recommended for treatment of pregnant women because of its favorable safety profile compared with other agents such as doxycycline (Workowski and Berman, 2006).

Patients with *C. trachomatis* infections are frequently coinfecting with *N. gonorrhoeae* and should receive a treatment regime effective against both infections (Workowski and Berman, 2006). Owing to the increasing prevalence of fluoroquinolone-resistant *N. gonorrhoeae*, the CDC no longer recommends the use of fluoroquinolones (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2007). Only one class of drugs, the cephalosporins, are recommended for the treatment of gonorrhoea.

Haemophilus ducreyi

Azithromycin is recommended by the CDC as first-line therapy for genital ulcer disease in men due to *H. ducreyi* (chancroid) (Workowski and Berman, 2006). However, the efficacy of azithromycin in the treatment of chancroid in women has not been established because of the low number of women included in clinical trials. Evidence is limited in the treatment of chancroid in HIV-infected patients, who tend to have slow-healing ulcers (Workowski and Berman, 2006). Close follow-up should occur in HIV-infected patients as they may require longer treatment.

Treponema pallidum

Although penicillin is the recommended treatment of early syphilis, preliminary data suggest that single-dose azithromycin (2 g) may be effective (Hook *et al.*, 2002; Riedner *et al.*, 2005). A randomized study in Tanzania of 328 subjects found single-dose oral azithromycin (2 g) to be as effective as penicillin G benzathine in treating early and latent syphilis, with 97.7% and 95% cure rates, respectively, after treatment, and 85.5% and 81.5%, respectively, at six months follow-up. However, several cases of azithromycin failure have been reported and resistance to azithromycin has been documented in several geographic areas, limiting the use of azithromycin to macrolide-susceptible *T. pallidum* areas (Lukehart *et al.*, 2004; Mitchell *et al.*, 2006). The CDC recommends azithromycin for the treatment of early syphilis in patients who are allergic to both penicillin and ceftriaxone (Riedner *et al.*, 2005).

Other sexually transmitted diseases

Azithromycin (1 g once per week for at least 3 weeks and until all lesions have healed) is a second-line treatment for granuloma inguinale (donovanosis) (Workowski and Berman, 2006). *M. genitalium* may respond better to azithromycin than to doxycycline (Falk *et al.*, 2003).

7g. Mycobacterium avium complex infection

Pulmonary Mycobacterium avium complex disease

Before the introduction of macrolides, antimicrobial therapy of pulmonary MAC disease in HIV-negative patients yielded inconsistent results, largely because of toxicity and poor *in vivo* activity (Griffith *et al.*, 2007). The newer macrolides have been a major therapeutic advance with substantial *in vitro* and clinical activity against MAC, which is attributed to their high concentration in phagocytes and tissues. All untreated strains of MAC are macrolide susceptible and microbiologic and clinical relapses are associated with the development of a point mutation in the macrolide-binding region (peptidyltransferase) of the 23S rRNA gene (Jost *et al.*, 1995; Nash and Indelied, 1995; Springer *et al.*, 1996). This mutation, measured by clarithromycin sensitivity testing (MICs >32 µg/ml), confers cross-resistance between clarithromycin and azithromycin, and presumably all macrolides (Heifets *et al.*, 1993). Macrolides should not be used as single agents, as resistance of *M. avium* develops (Chaisson *et al.*, 1994; Wallace *et al.*, 1994). In a prospective, noncomparative trial, patients with MAC pulmonary disease received azithromycin 600 mg/day as monotherapy for four months (Griffith *et al.*, 1996). Other agents, including streptomycin, ethambutol, and rifabutin or rifampicin, were added after four months, or when the sputum converted to AFB negative. Sputum conversion rates were 67% at six months, which was similar to clarithromycin (74%) in a similar trial (Griffith *et al.*, 2007). Together with the companion drugs, there was no difference in treatment success, defined by 12 months of negative sputum cultures whilst on therapy, between daily administration of azithromycin (300–600 mg) and three times per week (600 mg) administration, with rates of 59% and 55–65%, respectively (Griffith *et al.*, 2001).

Ethambutol (+ rifampicin) is used in first-line combinations with azithromycin (Benison, 1994; Griffith *et al.*, 2007); amikacin, moxifloxacin, or isoniazid are generally considered only in cases of resistance (Griffith *et al.*, 2007). For those patients who do not tolerate a daily treatment, intermittent, three-times-weekly therapy is recommended that includes (1) azithromycin 500–600 mg or clarithromycin 1000 mg, (2) ethambutol 25 mg/kg, and (3) rifampicin 600 mg given three times weekly. The more aggressive (but less well tolerated) treatment regimen for patients with severe and extensive disease consists of azithromycin 250 mg/day or clarithromycin

1000 mg/day (or 500 mg twice daily), rifabutin 150–300 mg/day or rifampicin 10 mg/kg/day (maximum 600 mg/day), ethambutol (15 mg/kg/day), and consideration of inclusion of either amikacin or streptomycin for the first two or three months of therapy (Griffith *et al.*, 2007).

Disseminated *Mycobacterium avium* complex in patients with AIDS

Successful treatment of disseminated MAC in persons with AIDS requires therapy targeting both the mycobacterial infection and the HIV infection to improve the underlying immunosuppression (Griffith *et al.*, 2007). Close monitoring is required for adverse drug effects and drug interactions. Combination therapy is recommended, and both clarithromycin and azithromycin have been shown to be effective, although clarithromycin tends to clear bacteremia more quickly (Gordin *et al.*, 1999; Lam *et al.*, 2006). Recommended initial therapy for disseminated MAC is azithromycin 250 mg/day or clarithromycin 1000 mg/day (or 500 mg twice daily), rifabutin 150–300 mg/day or rifampicin 10 mg/kg/day (maximum 600 mg/day), and ethambutol (15 mg/kg/day) (Griffith *et al.*, 2007). As with pulmonary MAC, amikacin or moxifloxacin are generally considered only in cases of resistance. Treatment of MAC in patients with AIDS should be considered life-long, unless immune restoration is achieved by antiretroviral therapy (Griffith *et al.*, 2007).

Azithromycin is the preferred macrolide for prophylaxis of MAC infections because of its easier therapeutic scheme (1200 mg once weekly), which favors compliance and therefore decreases the risk for selection of resistance (Oldfield *et al.*, 1998).

7h. Gastrointestinal infections

Azithromycin is an alternative for the treatment of traveler's diarrhea, particularly in the setting of high levels of resistance to the more commonly used fluoroquinolones in returned travelers (Cabada and White, 2008; Threlfall *et al.*, 2008). Azithromycin is similar to levofloxacin for the treatment of returned US travelers with acute diarrhea acquired in Mexico and Turkey (Adachi *et al.*, 2003; Sanders *et al.*, 2007). Single-dose (1 g) azithromycin is recommended for empirical therapy of traveler's diarrhea acquired in Thailand (Tribble *et al.*, 2007).

Salmonella typhi and *Salmonella paratyphi*

Numerous trials, which included multiple-drug-resistant (resistant to chloramphenicol, ampicillin, and cotrimoxazole) or nalidixic acid-resistant strains of *S. typhi* or *S. paratyphi* (52–96% of study participants), have demonstrated that azithromycin significantly reduced clinical failure and duration of hospital stay compared with the fluoroquinolones, ofloxacin and gatifloxacin (Chinh *et al.*, 2000; Parry *et al.*, 2007; Dolecek *et al.*, 2008; Effa and Bukirwa, 2008). Compared with ceftriaxone, azithromycin has similar clinical outcomes in the treatment of enteric fever, although azithromycin significantly reduces the rate of relapse (Frenck *et al.*, 2000; Frenck *et al.*, 2004; Effa and Bukirwa, 2008). In the UK, the reference center for *Salmonella enterica* serovars Typhi and Paratyphi A screens isolates from all cases of infection for resistance, and, currently, none of the isolates have exhibited resistance to azithromycin (Threlfall *et al.*, 2008).

Shigellosis

Azithromycin is recommended by the American Academy of Pediatrics for the treatment of shigellosis in children, and by the World Health Organization as a second-line treatment in adults (WHO, 2005; Boumghar-Bourtchai *et al.*, 2008). However, recent data have suggested rapid emergence of resistance in shigella isolates in France

and Bangladesh, which may limit the use of azithromycin in regional areas (Rahman *et al.*, 2007; Boumghar-Bourtchai *et al.*, 2008).

Cholera

Azithromycin is indicated in the treatment of severe cholera in adults and children. Single-dose azithromycin (1 g) was compared with single-dose ciprofloxacin (1 g) in a randomized, double-blind trial in Bangladesh involving 195 men with severe cholera caused by *V. cholerae* (Saha *et al.*, 2006). Bacteriologic success was achieved in 78% of the azithromycin arm, compared with 10% in the ciprofloxacin arm. Shorter duration of diarrhea occurred with azithromycin. The diminished efficacy of ciprofloxacin may result from its diminished activity against *V. cholerae* circulating in Bangladesh.

Helicobacter pylori

The American College of Gastroenterology recommends a proton pump inhibitor, clarithromycin, and amoxicillin for the eradication of *H. pylori* infection (Chey *et al.*, 2007). Azithromycin has been considered as an alternative to clarithromycin owing to its ease of administration; however, low eradication rates have prevented its widespread use (Blandizzi *et al.*, 1998; Sullivan *et al.*, 2002; Silva *et al.*, 2008). Although azithromycin reaches high concentration in plasma and gastric mucosa, the low eradication rates can be explained by its low concentration in the gastric juice (Krichhoff *et al.*, 1999).

7i. Trachoma

Antibiotic therapy is aimed at reducing the burden of infection of trachoma, which in turn reduces progressive trachomatous scarring, although there is currently little direct evidence to support this (Burton, 2007). A single oral dose of azithromycin (20 mg/kg up to a maximum dose of 1 g) is equally effective as topical tetracycline applied twice daily for 6 weeks (Bailey *et al.*, 1993). Mass community-wide treatment with azithromycin in endemic areas has produced a marked reduction in the prevalence of Chlamydial infection (Schachter *et al.*, 1999; Solomon *et al.*, 2004; Burton *et al.*, 2005). There is growing concern that infection may return to communities that have lost some of their immunity to *Chlamydia* after antibiotics are discontinued (Brunham *et al.*, 2005; Atik *et al.*, 2006). Therefore, local elimination is not only preferable, but may be attainable. Solomon *et al.* (2004) reported the effect of high-coverage, single-dose mass azithromycin treatment on ocular *C. trachomatis* infection in a community of 978 people in Tanzania, of whom 97.6% of residents were treated; the prevalence fell from 9.5% at baseline to 0.1% 24 months later (Solomon *et al.*, 2004). A second round of mass treatment occurred at 24 months. Three years after the second mass treatment, *C. trachomatis* DNA was not detected on the conjunctiva of any of the 859 residents tested (Solomon *et al.*, 2008). Melese *et al.* (2008) compared annual and biannual mass antibiotic administration in severely affected villages in Ethiopia. Overall, 14,897 of 16,403 eligible individuals (90.8%) received their scheduled treatment. In the villages treated annually, the prevalence fell from 42% to 6.8% at 24 months, whereas in the villages treated biannually, prevalence fell from 31.6% to 0.9% at 24 months. The World Health Organization currently recommends annual mass azithromycin treatment for three years in communities in which the prevalence of the clinical sign "trachomatous inflammation-follicular" in children between one and nine years of age is 10% or more.

7j. Malaria

The spread of multidrug resistance to *P. falciparum* has led to interest in the development of antimalarial compounds with novel modes of action. In addition, artemisinin-based combination therapies have become standard of care for the treatment of *P. falciparum*. Azithromycin has been evaluated in phase II clinical trials, and further development is underway (Noedl *et al.*, 2006). Compared with

other antibiotics used for malaria (e.g. tetracyclines), azithromycin is favorable because of its safety in children and pregnancy. Azithromycin is relatively slow acting and therefore has to be combined with faster-acting compounds that will quickly reduce parasite burden (Noedl *et al.*, 2007). Azithromycin has intrinsic activity against *Plasmodium* spp. both *in vitro* and *in vivo* for prophylaxis and treatment (Anderson *et al.*, 1998; Ohrt *et al.*, 2002; Dunne *et al.*, 2005; Heppner *et al.*, 2005; Miller *et al.*, 2006; Noedl *et al.*, 2006). Noedl *et al.* (2007) recently confirmed that azithromycin, in combination with artemisinin derivatives or quinine, exerts additive to synergistic interactions, shows no cross-sensitivity with traditional antimalarials and has substantial antimalarial activity on its own (Noedl *et al.*, 2007). Azithromycin in combination with faster-acting antimalarials has demonstrated efficacy in phase II trials in treating *P. falciparum* malaria (Dunne *et al.*, 2005; Miller *et al.*, 2006; Noedl *et al.*, 2006). Although promising, azithromycin is not currently recommended in clinical practice guidelines for the treatment of malaria (WHO, 2006; Gilbert *et al.*, 2008).

7k. Coronary artery disease

An association between *C. pneumoniae* and atherogenesis has been suggested from various epidemiologic, laboratory, animal, and clinical studies. However, causality has not been established. Macrolides have been suggested to play a protective role against coronary artery disease, as a result of an antichlamydial or an anti-inflammatory effect on atheromata. Several large randomized trials examining antimicrobial therapy in stable coronary artery disease, postmyocardial infarction, and acute coronary artery disease have failed to demonstrate any significant reduction in coronary events. The ACES trial, a randomized prospective trial, evaluated 4012 patients with stable coronary artery disease (Grayston *et al.*, 2005). Participants were randomized to placebo or 600 mg azithromycin weekly for one year, and follow-up was for a mean of 3.9 years. The Wizard study randomized 7747 patients with previous myocardial infarction at least 6 weeks previously and a *C. pneumoniae* immunoglobulin G titer of 1:16 or more, to placebo or azithromycin (600 mg/day for 3 days during week 1, then 600 mg/week during weeks 2–12) (O'Connor *et al.*,

2003). Follow-up was a median of 14 months. The AZACS trial assigned 1439 patients with an acute myocardial infarction or unstable angina to a 5-day course of azithromycin (500 mg on the first day, then 250 mg daily) or placebo (Cercek *et al.*, 2003), and followed patients for six months. Other studies, which include other antimicrobials, have also failed to demonstrate significant benefit of antimicrobial therapy (Muhlestein *et al.*, 2000; Leowattana *et al.*, 2001; Sinisalo *et al.*, 2002; Wells *et al.*, 2004; Cannon *et al.*, 2005). A recent meta-analysis did not show any benefit with azithromycin in the secondary prevention of coronary artery disease (Baker and Couch, 2007). In addition, there is some evidence that the use of azithromycin and clarithromycin in coronary heart disease may significantly increase cardiovascular mortality (Jespersen *et al.*, 2006). Currently, insufficient evidence exists for the use of antichlamydial therapy in the secondary prevention of cardiovascular disease (Danesh, 2005; Watson and Alp, 2008).

7l. Use as an immunomodulating agent

Azithromycin is increasingly used as an immunomodulating agent in cystic fibrosis patients, although its mechanism of action remains unclear (Dinwiddie, 2005; Elizur *et al.*, 2008). Interestingly, azithromycin, although not directly active against *P. aeruginosa*, may have indirect actions against this organism. A Cochrane systematic review concluded that there is evidence from studies of a small but significant improvement in respiratory function among cystic fibrosis patients after treatment with azithromycin (Southern *et al.*, 2004). Recent clinical studies show that once-weekly azithromycin ameliorates inflammatory reactions and improved quality of life in cystic fibrosis patients chronically infected with *P. aeruginosa* (Steinkamp *et al.*, 2008), and that oral azithromycin three times weekly for 12 months significantly reduces the number of pulmonary exacerbations, the time elapsed before the first pulmonary exacerbation and the number of additional courses of oral antibiotics, regardless of the infectious status of the patient (Clement *et al.*, 2006). Nevertheless, the role and use of azithromycin for this indication appears to vary between specialist centers currently managing cystic fibrosis patients.

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