Pharmacokinetics of praziquantel in gilthead seabream (*Sparus aurata*)
 plasma and gills

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12 1 Abstract

The pharmacokinetics (PKs) of dietary administered praziguantel (PZQ) were determined in 13 gilthead seabream (Sparus aurata), the most commercialized marine farmed fish species in the 14 Mediterranean area. Gilthead seabreams weighting 52 g were given a single dietary dose of 15 either 75 or 150 mg/kg fish at 21 °C. The low dosing was also intravascularly (i.v) injected to 16 assist the calculation of drug bioavailability (F). Plasma and gill samples were measured on 1, 2, 17 4, 6, 8, 12, 24, 48, 72, and 96 h post-administration. PZQ was rapidly absorbed in fish circulation 18 19 as the maximum plasma concentration was achieved as early as 4 h (6.7 μ g/mL) and 6 h postadministration (8.2 μ g/mL), for the low and high dosing, respectively. The two-fold increase in 20 dosing led to significant differences during the first six hours post administration, while the 21 highest increase was less than 50%. The advantage of the higher dosing schedule was also 22 apparent in PZQ measurements in gills, where maximum drug levels were measured to be 20.7 23 and 39.1 μ g/g at 75 and 150 mg/kg fish, respectively. Albeit, plasma elimination half-life ($t_{1/2\beta}$) 24 was shorter at high (14.4 h) compared to that calculated for the low PZQ dosing (25.7 h), 25 depletion of PZQ from all gilthead seabream tissues examined was considered rapid at both 26 27 dosing regimens. The F of PZQ was calculated to be 49%, confirming a high absorption in fish circulation. Due to the clearance pattern and the rapid removal of PZQ from fish circulation, 28 daily dosing should be divided into two medicated meals, to ensure adequate drug circulatory 29 30 levels during treatment. Overall, PZQ is readily bioavailable in gilthead seabream while the dosing of 150 mg/kg fish is preferable resulting in higher circulatory and gill levels compared to 31 the low dose tested. 32

33 Keywords: Praziquantel, pharmacokinetics, plasma, gills, gilthead seabream, Sparus aurata

34 **1. Introduction**

As in all intensive animal production systems, disease may seriously threaten the well-being of 35 aquaculture enterprises. The full assessment of the economic impact of disease on finfish 36 production is rather unrealistic since is handicapped by occasionally incomplete information on 37 mortalities, reduced growth, therapeutic expenses, and other related costs. Parasites are among 38 the main limiting factors of the aquaculture industry, as they cause financial losses that 39 accounted for about 20% of the total production value. Among them, it is estimated that the 40 41 world annual grow-out loss due to parasites in finfish farming ranges from 1% to 10% of harvest 42 size, with an annual cost that can exceed \$10 billion (Shinn et al. 2015).

Aquaculture medicine is generally lacking vaccination strategies or other effective prevention 43 measures against parasites, and on many occasions, the use of therapeutic approaches seems the 44 single tool to battle the disease. Among parasitic pathogens, ectoparasites are of the most serious 45 inducing severe impact on important European aquaculture activities, including the salmon 46 47 industry and the Mediterranean marine finfish farming. The intensive use of sea cages in the Mediterranean region and elsewhere has allowed higher volumes of fish biomass but has 48 contributed also to the dispersal of parasitic diseases. Poor net hygiene and other environmental 49 upsets may stimulate the occurrence of parasitic epizootics which can be devastating to caged 50 fish. Ectoparasitic infestations have acquired a severe role among the factors limiting the 51 52 production of mainly caged gilthead seabream (Sparus aurata) and to a lesser extent European seabass (Dicentrarchus labrax) (Fioravanti et al. 2006), both attained the higher production 53 volumes in Mediterranean mariculture. Indeed, Sparicotyle chrysophrii, a microcotylid blood-54 55 sucking monogenean, is undoubtedly the most serious pathogen for gilthead seabream farming causing mortalities at a high prevalence and a notable growth reduction of the farmed stock
partly due to emaciated and anemic survivors (Sitjà-Bobadilla *et al.* 2009).

58 Therapeutic attempts against ectoparasites are commonly based on bathing. Among the bath chemicals, formalin solution is undoubtedly the most commonly used therapeutic against 59 ectoparasitic infections (Leal et al. 2018). Although formalin baths are usually very effective 60 61 against fish ectoparasites, their use has been blamed for several issues including human, animal, and more importantly, environmental side effects (Leal et al. 2018). Formalin baths are moreover 62 laborious, time-consuming and weather-dependent processes. Consequently, an effective dietary 63 anthelmintic would be an ideal measure to overcome the drawbacks associated with bath 64 applications in large cages. 65

Praziquantel (PZQ), a synthetic drug discovered earlier to battle human parasites, has been 66 widely used in veterinary medicine and is considered an ideal antiparasitic compound against 67 fish platyhelminths. Based on a recent opinion of the Committee for Veterinary Medicinal 68 Products (CVMP), PZQ has been included in the group of 'allowed substances' with a proposed 69 maximum residue level (MRL) of 20 µg/kg in finfish muscle plus skin (Commission 70 Implementing Regulation (EU) 2023/981 amending Annex to Commission Regulation No 71 37/2010) (EMA, 2022). So far, the use of PZQ in Europe was feasible as fish medicine within 72 the 'off-label' framework (Council Directive 90/676/EEC, Directive 2001/82/EC and 73 74 Commission Regulation 37/2010) including its use in Norway against tapeworms of Salmonidae (Lunestad et al. 2015). Elsewhere, PZQ is registered as fish anthelminthic under specific 75 conditions, having valid permits in Australia, Japan and several other Asian countries including 76 77 Vietnam, Thailand, Malaysia, and the Philippines (ASEAN 2013).

Two recent and comprehensive reviews have provided wide evidence of the effective use of PZQ 78 to control platyhelminth parasites (Bader et al. 2019; Norbury et al. 2022), covering additionally 79 all relevant aspects of PZQ use in aquaculture (Norbury et al. 2022). Dietary PZQ preparations at 80 numerous therapeutic schedules have been tested with success against helminths infecting a 81 variety of cultured fish species (Kim et al. 2001; Tubbs & Tingle 2006a; Shirakashi et al. 2012). 82 83 In Mediterranean farmed fish, a single study evaluating the efficacy of PZQ revealed promising findings against the gill fluke Zeuxapta seriolae, a severe pathogen of farmed greater amberjack 84 (Seriola dumerili) (Rigos et al. 2021). To our knowledge, there is however, no literature 85 assessing the pharmacokinetic (PKs) properties of PZQ in gilthead seabream, thus, this study 86 aimed to determine the kinetic profile and bioavailability (F) of dietary administered PZQ 87 following a single oral administration, as a first step to optimizing PZQ dosing regimens against 88 S. chrysophrii infections in gilthead seabream. 89

90 2 Materials & methods

91 **2.1 Ethical statement**

The trials were carried out at the licensed facility (EL-43BIO/exp-01) of the Aquaculture Laboratory of the Department of Ichthyology and Aquatic Environment (DIAE), University of Thessaly, Greece. All the approvals required by the legislation were given by the Ethical Committee of the Department and competent authorities for the experimentation to be carried out under EU guidelines on the protection of animals used for scientific purposes (Directive 2010/63/EU, experimental protocol 114134/30-03-21). The '3Rs' and the ARRIVE guidelines endorsed for experiments using live animals, were applied during the experimental process. All 99 procedures involving fish were performed according to well-defined work protocols for the 100 applied procedure based on standardized SOPs, under the supervision of FELASA-accredited 101 scientists.

102 **2.2** Chemicals

PZQ analytical standard was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (USA). High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) chemicals were purchased from Fisher Scientific (USA). Other solvents and reagents of analytical grade were supplied by Fisher Scientific (USA). MS-222 was provided by Sigma-Aldrich Chemie GmbH (Germany). PZQ powder used for medicated administrations was obtained by Vethellas S.A. (Greece).

108 2.3 Fish & experimental design

Three hundred healthy gilthead seabreams (52 ± 3.7 g), were obtained from a commercial fish 109 110 farm in central-east Greece and transferred to the DIAE experimental aquarium facilities. Fish were equally randomized in three tanks (0.5 m³) forming three fish groups (100 fish/group). 111 Experimentation was preceded by an acclimatization period of two weeks, during which the fish 112 fasted for the last 24 h. During the experimental procedure, fish were hand-fed once a day, 113 assuring that the feed was consumed. Tanks were supplied with recirculating running and aerated 114 artificial seawater. Experimental conditions were stable, with the water temperature maintained 115 at 21 \pm 1 °C, pH at 8.0 \pm 0.3, salinity at 33 \pm 0.5 g/L, dissolved oxygen at >6.5 mg/L, total ammonia 116 nitrogen at <0.1 mg/L, photoperiod at 12h light:12h darkness. 117

118 2.3.1 Oral administration

Oral administration of PZQ was applied in two fish groups (n=100/group) described as low and high, in which fish were fed with experimental diets supplemented with 75 or 150 mg PZQ/ kg fish, respectively (Table 1). The medicated fish feed was administered once, while fish were fed with commercial dry pellets in the following days.

123 2.3.2 Intravascular injection

To contribute to the estimation of the *F* of PZQ, fish were injected intravascularly (i.v) with the low drug dosing in the third fish group (n=100). In particular, fish were anaesthetized (buffered MS-222 (50 mg/L - pH 7) and received intravenously via the caudal vein a PZQ dosing of 75mg/kg fish dissolved in DMSO (0.5 mL/kg BW). The injection was applied with a 1 mL Terumo insulin syringe with a 27-gauge needle (Terumo Medical Corporation, Somerset, NJ, USA). After the injection, anaesthetized fish were transferred until recovery and sampling to the experimental tank. Fish were daily fed with commercial dry pellets.

131 **2.3.3 Samplings**

Ten fish per group were anesthetized (buffered MS-222, 150 mg/L - pH 7) and blood samples were collected 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 12, 24, 48, 72, and 96 h post-treatment. Blood sampling was performed from the caudal vein, using a 2.5 mL Terumo syringe with a 23-gauge needle (Terumo Medical Corporation, Somerset, NJ, USA) coated with heparin (Merck KGaA, Germany). The blood was placed in Eppendorf tubes and it was centrifuged at 3000 *g* for 10 min (4 °C) to separate the plasma. Subsequently to blood collection, fish were then killed by an overdose of anaesthetic (buffered MS-222 500 mg/L) and gill samples from fish that received the
medicated diets were collected. All samples were kept at -20 °C until analyzed.

140 **2.4** Chromatography

An HPLC apparatus, combining a Waters 600 Pump and a 600 Pump system Controller, a 141 Waters 717 Plus Autosampler set at 10°C injection temperature, a Waters 2487 UV detector set 142 at 210 and an Empower Chromatography Software (Waters, Milford, MA, USA) was used for 143 drug analysis. PZQ separation was achieved using a reverse-phase chromatographic column 144 145 (Luna-C18, 150 mm \times 4.6 mm, 5 µm, Phenomenex, USA) equipped with a security guard 146 cartridge (C18, 4 mm \times 3.0 mm, Phenomenex, USA). As a mobile phase, an isocratic mixture of 35:65 v/v acetonitrile:water was used at a flow rate of 1.0 mL/min. Column temperature was 147 maintained at 30 °C, the injected sample volume was 200 μ L and the total run time was 25 min 148 (PZQ retention time: 18.7 min). 149

150 **2.4.1 Sample preparation**

151 Plasma samples were prepared using a modified method (Kogiannou et al. 2021), based on a previous analytical method (Ridtitid et al. 2002). Briefly, in 0.5 mL plasma, 2 mL acetonitrile 152 and 0.1 mL of zinc sulphate solution (0.2 M) were added. The mixture was then placed on a 153 magnetic stirrer for 10 min. After centrifugation (at 10000 g for 10 min at 10 °C), the supernatant 154 155 was collected and transferred to a 15 mL polypropylene centrifuge tube, and the extraction step was repeated. The combined extract was then evaporated to dryness at 45 °C under a gentle 156 stream of nitrogen. The dry residue was reconstituted by 1 mL of mobile phase solution, filtered 157 158 $(0.22 \ \mu m nylon filter)$ and injected into the HPLC.

Gill samples were prepared according to Tubbs and Tingle (2006b). Particularly, 1 g of ground 159 tissue sample was weighed into a centrifuge tube. Following the addition of 6 mL of ethyl 160 acetate, sample was homogenized for 30 s at16,000 rpm/min (IKA®-Werke GmbH & Co. KG, 161 Staufen, Germany). The mixture was agitated for 10 min and the supernatant was collected after 162 centrifugation (10,000 g for 10 min at 10 °C). Tissue PZQ extraction was repeated with 4 mL 163 ethyl acetate. The pooled extract was then evaporated to dryness at 45 °C under a nitrogen 164 stream. The dried residue was resuspended in 5 mL hexane and a clean-up step was followed as 165 described previously (Tubbs and Tingle, 2006b; Kogiannou et al., 2021). 166

167 2.4.2 Method validation

Plasma and gill samples of untreated fish were spiked with PZQ standard solutions at final concentrations ranged from 0.01 to 10 µg/mL in order to establish the calibration curves for quantification of drug concentration in the examined tissues. Three replicates of spiked tissues (0.5-5 µg/mL) were analyzed as described above, to evaluate the recovery rate of the methods. The limits of detection (LOD) and the limits of quantification (LOQ) for PZQ analysis in both examined tissues were calculated by $3.3*\sigma/S$ and $10*\sigma/S$, respectively (σ = standard deviation of the y-intercept of the regression line; S = slope of the calibration curve).

175 **2.5 Pharmacokinetics**

The plasma and gill levels obtained from low and high PZQ dosing after oral administration and plasma levels after i.v injection, were analyzed for the best fit to a one-, two- or threecompartment open pharmacokinetic models using non-linear regression analysis programs (NLREG, P.H. Sherrod). The distribution $(t_{1/2\alpha})$ and the elimination half-lives $(t_{1/2\beta})$ were estimated as follows: $t_{1/2\alpha}=0.693/\alpha$ and $t_{1/2\beta}=0.693/\beta$. The area under the concentration-time curve (AUC_{0- ∞}) was calculated using the trapezoidal rule and was extrapolated to infinity. The *F* was calculated according to:

$$F = \frac{\text{AUC}_{oral}}{\text{AUC}_{iv}}$$

184 **2.6 Statistics**

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Results are presented as mean \pm st.dev. The Student's t-test was used to evaluate statistical difference on mean PZQ concentrations in plasma and gills between the two oral dosing regimens. The levels of significance were set at P<0.05. The SPSS version 25.0 (International Business Machines Corporation, Armonk, NY, USA) was used for the statistical analysis.

189 **3 Results**

190 **3.1** Calibration curve and recovery rates

A linear relationship for PZQ existed in the calibration curves over the range of 0.01-10 μ g/mL or g of plasma and gill tissues, respectively. The coefficients of correlation were greater than 0.999 for both tissues examined. The average recovery rates of PZQ were 95% in plasma and 98% in gill and the limits of quantification (LOQ) were set at 0.03 μ g/mL or μ g/g in plasma and gill samples, respectively.

196 **3.2 Oral administration**

A one-compartmental model provided the best fit after oral PZQ treatment, in gilthead seabream 197 plasma and gill tissues. The concentrations of PZQ found in plasma after oral administration are 198 shown in Figure 1. Maximum PZQ plasma concentration in fish fed 75 mg/kg was achieved at 4 199 h post-feeding (6.7 μ g/mL), while the corresponding value in the high-dose group was measured 200 201 at 6h post-feeding (8.2 μ g/mL) (Table 2). The two-fold increase in dosing led to significant differences between the mean PZQ plasma concentrations in sampling points up to 6 h, while the 202 203 highest increase measured as mean plasma drug concentration was less than 50%. Moreover, AUC_{0-∞} revealed values 225.7 and 262.3 µg h/mL for fish fed the low and the high drug 204 concentration, respectively (Table 2). Clearance of PZQ in gilthead seabream plasma did not 205 follow a simple decay model at the low dosing regimen, as PZQ levels increased again 6 h post 206 treatment. PZQ concentration declined relatively sharply at the 12 h sampling point 207 (approximately 50%), however, minimum plasma concentration remained approximately at 1 208 μ g/mL, 96 h post-treatment for both dosing regimens examined. The $t_{1/2\beta}$ of the drug from 209 plasma was calculated to be 25.7 h and 14.1 h for low and high dosing regimens, respectively, 210 reflecting a faster PZQ elimination at the high dosing (Table 2). 211

Gill concentrations of PZQ after oral administration are shown in Figure 2. Doubling PZQ dosing caused significant differences between the mean PZQ gill concentrations at sampling points up to 8 h post-treatment. Maximum PZQ values in fish fed 75 and 150 mg/kg were achieved at 4 h post-feeding (20.7 for the low and 39.1 μ g/g, for the high dosing) and were threeand five-fold higher compared to corresponding plasma values, 4 h post drug administration,

respectively. The two-fold increase in drug dosing led to a significant dose-dependent effect in 217 the relative exposure to PZQ in the target tissue of gilthead seabream since AUC_{0-∞} revealed 218 values of 186.3 and 378.9 µg h/mL for fish fed the low and the high dosing, respectively. 219 Regarding drug elimination from gills, a different pattern between the two dosing regimens was 220 observed. The $t_{1/2\beta}$ of PZQ in the gills of the low dosed group was shorter compared to that 221 calculated for the high-dose group and ranged between 8.9-11.7 h, reflecting a faster PZQ 222 elimination. Moreover, the elimination of PZQ from gills was rapid as its concentration 223 diminished to 0.35 µg/g at 72 h post treatment, for the low-, and to 0.52 µg/g at 96 h post-224 225 treatment for the high-dose group.

226 **3.3** i.v. injection

PZQ concentrations, after i.v. administration, are shown in Figure 3. The best fit of plasma PZQ concentrations following i.v injection was obtained by a three-compartment open pharmacokinetic model. The estimated PKs of PZQ delivered by i.v. are given in Table 3. The $t_{1/2\alpha}$ and the $t_{1/2\beta}$ of PZQ were measured to be 3.4 and 28.8 h, respectively. The apparent volume of distribution of the drug at steady-state (V_{dss}) was found to be 6.1 L/kg. Using an AUC_{0- ∞} of 455.6 µg h/mL, the *F* of PZQ was calculated as high as 49%.

233 **4 Discussion**

In aquatic medicine, therapeutic attempts to newly treated fish species with established fish antimicrobials is traditionally implemented by extrapolation of existing treatment regimens from other fish species or animals. This approach however can create inefficiencies in several aspects connected to drug use including drug acceptance, absorption, removal, and efficacy and so on.
New knowledge nevertheless, produced by assessing drug PKs in the targeted farmed organism,
can optimize treatment schedules by increasing efficacy and reducing cost and duration, while at
the same time, enhancing environmental welfare. This practice maximizes prudent drug use and
perhaps delays the potential development of antimicrobial resistance, which in some cases with
PZQ use in fish, has been associated with extended exposure to subcurative treatments (Tubbs &
Tingle 2006a).

Medication with PZQ is perhaps the most promising dietary anthelmintic and an ideal solution 244 for formalin alternative in Mediterranean fish farming and elsewhere, as evidenced by the high 245 efficacy of the drug against a wide range of parasitic helminths affecting numerous farmed fish 246 species (Bader et al. 2019; Norbury et al. 2022). The present study is however the first attempt to 247 investigate the PKs of dietary-administered PZQ in gilthead seabream, which substantially 248 suffers from monogeneans infections (Sitjà-Bobadilla et al. 2009), although its depletion profile 249 250 from the edible tissues has been previously studied (Baralla et al. 2020; Kogiannou & Rigos 2021). 251

A one-compartmental model provided the best fit after oral PZQ treatment, in gilthead seabream herein, which agrees to the findings of Xu *et al.* (2016) and Kogiannou *et al.* (2021) in rice field eels (*Monopterus albus*) and greater amberjack, respectively. On the contrary, in the study of Xie *et al.* (2015) a two-compartmental model best described the PKs of PZQ in grass carp (*Ctenopharyngodon idellus*) after oral administration, while Tubbs and Tingle (2006a) reported a non-compartmental model to best fit the data from oral treatment in yellowtail kingfish (*Seriola* *lalandi*). These inter-studies discrepancies could be attributed to varied factors such as fish
species, size and experimental conditions (Rigos *et al.* 2002) among the comparable studies.

260 The high oral dosing of PZQ was readily accepted by gilthead seabream and appeared superior to 261 low dosing, leading to significant differences in mean PZQ plasma concentrations, mostly in the first sampling period. Significant higher plasma concentrations of PZQ (approximately 50%) 262 263 were also detected for yellowtail kingfish fed 150 vs 50 mg/kg 1.5 h post-treatment, while the three-fold increase in dosing resulted in smaller differences in PZQ levels between the two doses 264 24 h post drug administration (Tubbs & Tingle 2006b). Similar to the present study absorption 265 profile was also evident in greater amberjack following a single oral administration of 30 and 60 266 mg/kg (Kogiannou et al. 2021). Maximum plasma concentrations of PZQ were measured early 267 in both fish groups (T_{max} of 4 and 6h in fish fed 75 and 150 mg/kg, respectively), indicating that 268 PZQ is readily absorbed in the plasma of gilthead seabream, while its clearance was found to be 269 relatively sharp for both examined dosing regimens. Rapid absorption of orally administered 270 271 PZQ preparations has been also demonstrated in other fish species. In Seriola spp. the time to reach peak concentrations in plasma ranged from 2-8 h after oral administration of PZQ (Tubbs 272 & Tingle 2006a; Partridge et al. 2019; Kogiannou & Rigos 2021). Fast absorption has been also 273 274 reported for rockfish (Sebastes schlegeli) (T_{max} of 9; Kim et al., 2001) and rice field eels plasma (Xu et al. 2016), fed with PZQ-medicated diets. 275

The maximum plasma concentration value of PZQ in gilthead seabream plasma was found 6.7 μ g/mL in fish fed 75 and 8.2 μ g/mL in fish fed 150 mg/kg, while long exposure duration was evident (AUC: 225.7 and 267.4 μ g h/mL for low and high dosing regimens, respectively). Interestingly, shorter exposure time to PZQ was determined in yellowtail kingfish (100-159 μ g

h/ml), albeit similar C_{max} were achieved (5.5-10.6 µg/mL) (Partridge et al., 2019, Tubbs and 280 Tingle, 2006). This trend in AUC plasma values is expected when smaller dosing regimens are 281 offered (40-50 vs 75-150 mg/kg). The higher metabolic rates characterizing Seriola spp. may 282 additonally interpret the aforementioned discrepancies in PK parameters. Furthermore, the 283 concentrations that Kim et al. (2001) reported in rockfish were similar to those achieved in the 284 285 high dosing examined in the present study, even though a considerably higher dose was administered (400 mg PZQ/kg fish). On the contrary, Kogiannou et al.(2021) reported lower 286 C_{max} and AUC_{0-∞} plasma values (3.0 and 4.2 µg/mL; AUC_{0-∞}: 50.3 and 66.3 µg h/mL), when 287 lower PZQ dosing regimen was delivered in greater amberjack (30 and 60 PZQ/kg). In 288 agreement with that, lower Cmax and AUC_{0-∞} plasma values were reported in rice field eel (0.4 289 μ g/mL and 6.1 μ g h/mL, respectively), after receiving an oral dosing of 10 mg PZQ /kg fish (Xu 290 et al. 2016). 291

292 The $t_{1/2\beta}$ of PZQ in gilthead seabream plasma was calculated to be 25.7 h for the low and 14.1 h 293 for the high PZQ dosing group, reflecting a faster drug elimination in fish circulation when the PZQ dose is increased. This finding was also observed in the study of Kogiannou et al. (2021) 294 295 and Tubbs and Tingle (2006b), who examined the PKs of PZQ following dietary treatments in 296 greater amberjack and yellowtail kingfish, respectively. It was hypothesized that these PZQ dose-dependent differences may be due to the enzymatic auto-induction effect, interpreted as a 297 dose-dependent process in which the elimination clearance of a drug increases following 298 multiple doses and the increase in clearance is greater after a high than after a low dose (Lin, 299 1994; Kogiannou et al., 2021). In numerous other fish species such as rockfish, yellowtail 300 kingfish, rice field eel, grass carp, Pacific bluefin tuna (Thunnus orientalis) and greater 301

amberjack, the estimated $t_{1/2\beta}$ of PZQ in plasma or serum ranged from 5.4 to 120 h, after oral administrations.(Kim *et al.* 2001; Tubbs & Tingle 2006b; Ishimaru *et al.* 2013; Xu *et al.* 2016; Partridge *et al.* 2019; Kogiannou & Rigos 2021). Such differences can can be attributed to the varied experimental setup between different PK studies.

It is worth mentioning that a bimodal concentration-time profile of orally administered PZQ in 306 gilthead seabream plasma fed 75 mg/kg was revealed herein. Specifically, PZQ levels in fish-fed 307 low dosing reached the first peak at 4 h, declined at 6 h and increased again at 8 h post-308 309 adminitration. A double peak phenomenon was also apparent in greater amberjack (Kogiannou et 310 al. 2021), yellowtail kingfish (Tubbs & Tingle 2006b), rockfish (Kim et al. 2001) and Pacific 311 bluefin tuna (Ishimaru et al. 2013). This pattern has previously been attributed to enterohepatic 312 circulation where bile fluid, containing the drug, is evacuated into the intestine and subsequently partly reabsorbed into the fish circulation (Björklund & Bylund 1987). This could be an 313 314 additional explanation of the significant differences in $t_{1/2\beta}$ values between the two dosing 315 regimens (25.7 h and 14.1 h for the low and high PZQ dosing, respectively). Considering the sharp decrease in PZQ plasma levels after 8 h in gilthead seabream, a daily typical therapeutic 316 317 dosing should be divided into two medicated meals, to ensure adequate drug circulatory levels during treatment. 318

The present study also includes the first attempt to determine the PKs of PZQ in gilthead seabream gills. Interestingly, some discrepancies in the kinetic profiles of PZQ in fish plasma versus gills were observed. Maximum PZQ values in gills of fish fed 75 and 150 mg/kg were three- and five-fold higher compared to the corresponding plasma values, 4 h post-drug administration, respectively. Additionally, a dose-dependent effect in relative exposure to PZQ was observed in gills, while this was not distinguishable in plasma (Table 2). Furthermore, the $t_{1/2\beta}$ of PZQ was calculated to be shorter in gills. Gills represent an important site of xenobiotics elimination in fish (Hansen *et al.* 2001; Sun *et al.*, 2010), probably resulting in a lack of resemblance in the PK profile of antimicrobials between plasma and gills found herein and elsewhere (Mallik *et al.*, 2023). However, these assumptions have yet to be verified.

A three-compartmental model best described the PKs of PZQ in gilthead seabream after i.v. 329 injection. This finding is in agreement with the results of Xu et al. (2016) in rice field eels after 330 intravenous administration. On the contrary, a non-compartmental model was found to best fit 331 332 the data from intravenous treatment in yellowtail kingfish (Tubbs & Tingle 2006a). Once again, factors related to differences in fish species used and experimental conditions can explain the 333 reported discrepancies. Intravenous administration of PZQ in gilthead seabream produced PZQ 334 blood levels almost twice as high as compared to oral delivery, as reflected by the maximum 335 plasma levels and the calculated $AUC_{0-\infty}$. Similar observations have been evident in yellowtail 336 kingfish (Tubbs & Tingle 2006a). The estimated $t_{1/2\alpha}$ and $t_{1/2\beta}$ of PZQ in gilthead seabream were 337 slower compared to those calculated in ice field eels (Xu et al. 2016) (0.54 and 17.10 h, 338 339 respectively).

The *F* of PZQ in gilthead seabream after oral administration was estimated to be as high as 49%. The *F* of an antimicrobial is apparently influenced by the delivery mode in the targeted animal. Admittedly, drug deliveries by injection and intubation produce high drug absorption, however, they are considered rather impractical to farmed fish, therefore, for the veterinarian, dietary administration and hence the absorption properties of a compound following in-feed

administrations are of primary importance. A high F of PZQ has also been reported in yellowtail 345 kingfish (51%) (Tubbs & Tingle 2006a), while a lower value was estimated (21%) in rice field 346 eels (Xu et al. 2016). The diversity in F values observed between the three studies may be 347 attributed to the factors described earlier. On terrestrial food animals, corresponding values have 348 been found lower, ranging from 3 to 32% (Zeng et al. 1993; Cao et al. 2001; Giorgi et al. 2001; 349 350 Sun & Bu 2012), perhaps due to the considerable first-pass effect on absorbed PZQ on livestock (Andrews et al. 1983). These finding may be due to the rapid metabolism of the drug in the liver 351 of mammals, to mono- and dihydroxy derivatives (Schepmann & Blaschke 2001). On the other 352 hand in fish, at least 7 mono- or dihydroxylated derivatives of the parent compound were 353 identified in yellowtail kingfish, with the major metabolite being different from that found in 354 mammals (Tubbs et al. 2008). Whether hydroxylation of PZQ in farmed fish creates metabolites 355 with possible anthelmintic activity requires further investigation. Attempts to increase the 356 bioavailability, and hence efficacy, of PZQ in fish have also been carried out. Cimetidine co-357 358 administration of PZQ led to higher drug levels in the blood of rockfish and increased treatment efficacy against Microcotyle sebastis (Kim & Kim 2002). Alternatively, drug delivery 359 technologies e.g. nanobioparticles consist a promising alternative strategy to increase PZQ 360 361 efficacy against fish endoparasites (Madrid et al. 2021, Mathews et al. 2021), although lack of improvement in F of PZQ was evident in yellowtail kingfish after oral administration of PZQ 362 363 incorporations into solid-lipid nanoparticles which was attributed to the particles size (Partridge 364 et al. 2019).

365 In conclusion, the results of the present study indicate that PZQ is readily absorbed in 366 gilthead seabream circulation, while its clearance was found to be relatively sharp, at both

examined dosing regimens. Based on the information obtained from the PZQ analysis in fish 367 plasma, there is an apparent benefit from the 150 mg/kg dosing regimen, as confirmed by the 368 significantly higher drug levels compared to low dosing. The advantage of the higher dosing 369 schedule was also apparent in PZQ measurements in gills. Considering the sharp decrease in 370 PZQ concentration in gilthead seabream plasma after oral administration, a daily drug 371 372 administration should be divided into two medicated meals, to ensure adequate drug circulatory levels during treatment. Further field trials using dietary PZQ against S. chrysophrii are required 373 to verify that the suggested dosing schedules are also the most effective anthelmintic schemes. 374

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Ingredient	g/100g
Fish meal 68	60.00
Krill meal	12.00
Wheat meal	18.25
Wheat gluten	3.00
Fish oil	5.00
Vitamins	0.27
Shrimp-based attractant	1.50
PZQ low	0.75
PZQ high	1.50

479 **Table 1.** Ingredient inclusion (%) in the experimental diets

480 Table 2. Pharmacokinetic parameters of PZQ following two single oral PZQ doses (low=75

481 mg/kg, high=150 mg/kg) in gilthead seabream plasma at 21 $^{\circ}$ C

Parameters	low	high	low	high
Tissue	plasma		gills	

β	0.027	0.049	0.078	0.059
C_{max} (µg/mL)	6.7	8.2	20.7	39.1
T _{max} (h)	4	6	4	4
$t_{1/2\beta}$ (h)	25.7	14.1	8.9	11.7
AUC _{0-∞} (µg h/mL)	225.7	267.4	186.3	378.9

482 β :*slope*; $t_{1/2\beta}$: elimination half-life of the drug; AUC_{0-∞}: area under the drug concentration curve 483 extrapolated to infinity; C_{max}: maximum plasma/gill concentration; T_{max}: time of maximum 484 plasma/gill concentration

Table 3. Pharmacokinetic parameters of PZQ following i.v (75 mg/kg) in gilthead seabream
plasma at 21 °C

Parameters	i.v
Dose	75 mg/kg
β	0.024
<i>t</i> 1/2α (h)	3.4
<i>t</i> 1/2β (h)	28.8

V _{dss} (L/kg)	6.1
$AUC_{0-\infty}$ (µg h/mL)	455.6
F (%)	49



Figure 1. PZQ concentration (μg/mL) in gilthead seabream plasma after two single oral doses
(low=75 mg/kg, high=150 mg/kg). Values shown are mean±stdev (N=10). * indicates a
statistically significant difference (P<0.05).



Figure 2. PZQ concentration (μ g/g) in gilthead seabream gills after two single oral doses (low=75 mg/kg, high=150 mg/kg). Values shown are mean±stdev (N=5). * indicates a statistically significant difference (P<0.05).



Figure 3. PZQ concentration (μ g/mL) in gilthead seabream plasma following a single oral and 498 intravenous administration (75 mg/kg). Values shown are mean±stdev (N=10).