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Systematic Review of Salivary Versus Blood Concentrations of Antituberculosis Drugs and Their Potential for Salivary Therapeutic Drug Monitoring

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Abstract

Background: Therapeutic drug monitoring is useful in the treatment of tuberculosis to assure adequate exposure, minimize antibiotic resistance, and reduce toxicity. Salivary therapeutic drug monitoring could reduce the risks, burden, and costs of blood-based therapeutic drug monitoring. This systematic review compared human pharmacokinetics of antituberculosis drugs in saliva and blood to determine if salivary therapeutic drug monitoring could be a promising alternative.

Methods: On December 2, 2016, PubMed and the Institute for Scientific Information Web of Knowledge were searched for pharmacokinetic studies reporting human salivary and blood concentrations of antituberculosis drugs. Data on study population, study design, analytical method, salivary Cmax, salivary area under the time–concentration curve, plasma/serum Cmax, plasma/serum area under the time–concentration curve, and saliva–plasma or saliva–serum ratio were extracted. All included articles were assessed for risk of bias.

Results: In total, 42 studies were included in this systematic review. For the majority of antituberculosis drugs, including the first-line drugs ethambutol and pyrazinamide, no pharmacokinetic studies in saliva were found. For amikacin, pharmacokinetic studies without saliva–plasma or saliva–serum ratios were found.

Conclusions: For gatifloxacin and linezolid, salivary therapeutic drug monitoring is likely possible due to a narrow range of saliva– plasma and saliva–serum ratios. For isoniazid, rifampicin, moxifloxacin, ofloxacin, and clarithromycin, salivary therapeutic drug monitoring might be possible; however, a large variability in saliva– plasma and saliva–serum ratios was

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observed. Unfortunately, salivary therapeutic drug monitoring is probably not possible for doripenem and amoxicillin/clavulanate, as a result of very low salivary drug concentrations.

Keywords

tuberculosis; therapeutic drug monitoring; saliva; oral fluid

INTRODUCTION

Tuberculosis (TB) is an infectious disease that is still a huge problem worldwide, although it is curable with antibiotics. In 2015, approximately 10.4 million people worldwide had TB for the first time, including 480,000 patients with multi–drug-resistant TB (MDR-TB).¹ MDR-TB is caused by strains of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* resistant to at least the firstline drugs isoniazid and rifampicin. Drug-susceptible TB is treated with a standard combination of isoniazid, rifampicin, ethambutol, and pyrazinamide during 2 months followed by 4 months of only isoniazid and rifampicin.² The treatment of MDR-TB consists of a combination of at least 5 antibiotics that are likely to be effective.³

Therapeutic drug monitoring (TDM) can be used to assure adequate exposure, minimize antibiotic resistance, and reduce side effects. 4 TDM is, however, not a part of the standard TB treatment according to the World Health Organization (WHO) guidelines. Subtherapeutic drug concentrations cause decreased cure rates and can induce antibiotic resistance.^{5,6} On the other hand, too high concentrations of some anti-TB drugs can lead to serious toxicity.^{4,7} In addition, pharmacokinetics of anti-TB drugs show large interindividual variability.⁸ Thus, applying TDM in TB therapy could be helpful to achieve therapeutic drug concentrations in an early stage of treatment.

Although blood samples have been routinely used for TDM, venipuncture is an invasive procedure with increased risks of infection, local hematoma, and pain at the puncture site. $9,10$ In addition, pain-related fear plays a major role for patients.⁹ In addition, venipuncture is rather expensive because it requires qualified staff and appropriate materials.^{9,10} Blood sampling is undesirable for some patient groups because of limited blood supply (eg, neonates), less accessible veins (eg, elderly), or religious objections.⁹ Because of these disadvantages, alternatives to regular blood sampling (eg, saliva) are being studied.

Oral fluid is a mixture of saliva secreted by all glands present in the oral cavity.11 The terms saliva and oral fluid are used interchangeably in the literature.

Saliva sampling is less complicated compared with taking blood samples and reduces costs. 10,12 An economic study about saliva collection in children showed 58% savings with the saliva sampling procedure alone compared with blood sampling, caused by a shorter sampling time and less expensive materials.¹³ If parents were collecting saliva samples instead of medical staff, the savings could increase up to 90%.13 Collecting saliva samples is also experienced as more comfortable by patients. $9,12,14$ For certain patient groups, such as children, elderly, and people with disabilities, saliva sampling is a preferred method.^{10,12,14} Stimulated saliva samples can be taken by chewing on absorbent cotton rolls, paraffin, or

after applying citric acid under the tongue. For nonstimulated saliva samples, the passive drooling technique is regularly used.

Dried blood spot (DBS) sampling is another less invasive method. However, DBS sampling can be painful, is more complicated, and has higher failure rates than saliva sampling.15 The drug concentrations in DBS are influenced by the hematocrit value and spot volume.¹⁶ In addition, free (unbound) drug concentrations are not determinable in DBS , ¹⁶ whereas salivary concentrations generally represent the free (unbound) drug concentrations.^{14,17}

Distribution of drugs from blood to saliva generally occurs by passive diffusion. Protein binding, negative log of acid dissociation constant (pKa), molecular mass, lipid solubility, and chemical stability in saliva are physicochemical properties of drugs that influence the salivary drug concentration. Salivary pH value, salivary flow rate, and some diseases of the oral cavity are physiological properties that determine drug penetration into saliva.^{12,18} Actively stimulating saliva flow will increase the excretion of bicarbonate and therefore can influence the drug distribution and concentration in saliva.^{11,14} Generally, concentrations in saliva reflect the free (unbound) drug concentrations in plasma at a certain ratio.^{14,17} The saliva–plasma ratio can be determined not only by calculating the mean saliva–plasma ratio of all chosen time points but also by using the area under the time– concentration curve (AUC) values of the time–concentration curves in saliva and plasma. For some anti-TB drugs, saliva– plasma or saliva–serum ratios are studied, but a clear overview of the comparison of salivary to blood-based TDM for anti-TB drugs is not available.

The aim of this systematic review was to investigate whether TDM of anti-TB drugs using saliva samples is feasible, and if so, for which of these drugs which bioanalytical assays for saliva-based TDM should be established and validated.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

A protocol of this systematic review was registered at PROSPERO with registration number CRD42017051749 and available through [www.crd.york.ac.uk/prospero/display_record.asp?](http://www.crd.york.ac.uk/prospero/display_record.asp?ID=CRD42017051749) [ID=CRD42017051749.](http://www.crd.york.ac.uk/prospero/display_record.asp?ID=CRD42017051749) The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) statement was used for this review.¹⁹

For this review, the first-line and second-line anti-TB drugs were selected from the WHO guidelines.^{2,3} Ertapenem, faropenem, doripenem, ofloxacin, and clarithromycin were added to this list.

PubMed and Institute for Scientific Information (ISI) Web of Knowledge searches were performed on the December 2, 2016. The keywords used for this systematic search were (isoniazid OR rifampicin OR pyrazinamide OR ethambutol OR levofloxacin OR moxifloxacin OR gatifloxacin OR amikacin OR capreomycin OR kanamycin OR streptomycin OR ethionamide OR prothionamide OR cycloserine OR terizidone OR linezolid OR clofazimine OR bedaquiline OR delamanid OR paraaminosalicylic acid OR imipenem/cilastatin OR imipenem OR cilastatin OR meropenem OR amoxicillin/clavulanate OR amoxicillin OR clavulanate OR thiacetazone OR ertapenem OR faropenem OR doripenem OR ofloxacin OR clarithromycin) AND saliva AND (pharmacokinetics OR

saliva–plasma ratio OR saliva–serum ratio OR TDM OR penetration OR distribution OR drug concentration). No limitation of publication date was used. A second reviewer checked the reproducibility of the search using the stated keywords.

After duplicate articles were removed, titles and abstracts were screened for eligibility, and the selected manuscripts were read by 2 independent reviewers. Exclusion factors were as follows: no human study, no anti-TB drug concentration was measured in saliva or plasma/ serum, and if the manuscript was a review article. Primary references of the excluded reviews were checked and included if the study was relevant and obtainable.

Data extraction of the included articles was performed by 1 person. A reviewer independently checked the data extraction afterward. Data on study population, study design, saliva sampling method, analytical method, peak concentration (Cmax) in saliva, AUC in saliva, Cmax in plasma or serum, AUC in plasma or serum, and saliva–plasma or saliva–serum ratio were extracted from the included articles. Authors of included articles were contacted if numerical Cmax values were missing, although a time–concentration curve was stated.

If the article contained a time–concentration curve of the drug, but no numerical Cmax value was available, the Cmax was estimated using the graph. If AUC values of both saliva and plasma or serum were given, the ratio was manually calculated by dividing the salivary AUC by the plasma or serum AUC. The saliva–plasma or saliva–serum ratio was calculated (1/ plasma–saliva ratio or 1/serum–saliva ratio, respectively) if the article only mentioned the plasma–saliva or serum–saliva ratio. All calculated ratios and estimated Cmax values were marked in the table.

As no validated tool for risk of bias assessment of pharmacokinetic studies is available, we used the Risk Of Bias In Nonrandomized Studies—of Interventions (ROBINS-I) tool.²⁰ This tool was validated for nonrandomized intervention studies. Changes were made in the confounding section to make the tool more suitable for pharmacokinetic studies. The assessment was checked by a second reviewer.

RESULTS

A total of 162 records were found in the PubMed ($n = 108$) and ISI Web of Knowledge ($n =$ 54) search (Figure 1). After duplicates were removed, a number of 129 articles remained, of which 58 were classified as not relevant based on title and abstract. After full-text assessment, 30 records were excluded. One article, Ichihara²¹ was included after searching the references of the excluded review articles. Overall, 42 articles were included in this systematic review.

No articles concerning salivary pharmacokinetics of first-line anti-TB drugs ethambutol, pyrazinamide and second-line anti-TB drugs levofloxacin, capreomycin, kanamycin, streptomycin, ethionamide, prothionamide, cycloserine, terizidone, clofazimine, bedaquiline, delamanid, paraaminosalicylic acid, imipenem/cilastatin, meropenem, thiacetazone, ertapenem, or faropenem were found in the systematic search.

Study populations of the included articles were composed of healthy volunteers, patients with TB, children, neonates, or patients with numerous diseases and ranged from studies as few as 2 to as many as 80 participants. For each anti-TB drug, variable dosage regimens were administered, and multiple saliva sampling methods as well as several analytical methods were used (Table 1).

All included articles were assessed for risk of bias. Baglie et al, 22 Biasini et al, 23 Brown et al,²⁴ Fujita et al,²⁵ Goddard et al,²⁶ and Ohkubo et al²⁷ were considered at a serious risk of bias (Table 2). This means that the studies have some serious problems with bias for a nonrandomized study.²⁰ Baglie et al²² and Brown et al²⁴ both used different analytical methods for saliva and plasma. This could have introduced bias in the measurement of outcomes. Fujita et al²⁵ and Biasini et al²³ were judged at a serious risk of bias because important information, for instance, the sampling or analytical procedure, was scarcely described. Fujita et al²⁵ did not mention any validation of the analytical method, whereas Biasini et al^{23} provided too little information about the analytical procedures to estimate the risk of bias. Goddard et al²⁶ did not use paired sampling for all time points. Ohkubo et al²⁷ sampled saliva after tooth brushing. This could have contaminated the samples with blood. All other studies were estimated at a moderate risk of bias, meaning the study provides evidence for a nonrandomized study but is not comparable with a well-performed randomized trial.²⁰

In general, a large variability in saliva–plasma and saliva–serum was observed for isoniazid, rifampicin, moxifloxacin, ofloxacin, and clarithromycin (Figures 2 and 3). The saliva– plasma and saliva–serum ratios of rifampicin were clustered in 2 groups: Murthy and Kumar,²⁸ Darouiche et al,²⁹ Ezejiofor et al,³⁰ and Gurumurthy et al,³¹ with ratios of 0.1–0.2, in contrast to Orisakwe et al, 32 and Orisakwe and Ofoefule 33 with ratios around 0.6. A similar clustering effect was seen with moxifloxacin. Kumar et al^{34} and Burkhardt et al^{35} reported saliva–plasma and saliva–serum ratios of $0.4-0.6$, whereas Stass et al,³⁶ Müller et al, 37 and Burkhardt et al 38 found ratios of 0.8–0.9. Isoniazid, ofloxacin, and clarithromycin showed an overall large diversity of reported saliva–plasma and saliva–serum ratios. For gatifloxacin, linezolid, and doripenem, relatively small ranges of saliva– plasma and saliva– serum ratios were found.

All included studies of amoxicillin/clavulanate administered only amoxicillin instead of the combination with clavulanate that is used in TB treatment. The small range of saliva– plasma ratios for amoxicillin is distorted. In fact, all studies, except Baglie et al,²² reported a very low or even no detectable salivary concentration of amoxicillin, indicating a saliva– plasma or saliva–serum ratio of close to 0. By contrast, Baglie et al^{22} reported amoxicillin quantifiable salivary Cmax and AUC values as well asa saliva–plasma ratio of 0.34–0.55. The 2 included studies of amikacin, Masumi et al^{39} and Biasini et al²³ did not report any saliva–plasma or saliva–serum ratios.

Several studies reported a time-dependent saliva–plasma or saliva–serum ratio. Suryawati and Santoso⁴⁰ reported a rifampicin saliva–serum ratio of 1.09 ± 0.29 during the absorption phase and 0.81 ± 0.05 during the elimination phase. For moxifloxacin, Burkhardt et al³⁸ and Müller et al³⁷ observed a saliva–plasma or saliva–serum ratio higher than 1 during the first 2

hours after administration. Thereafter, the ratio declined to below 1. A time-dependent saliva–serum ratio was also found for ofloxacin by Koizumi et al.⁴¹ During the first 4 hours after administration, the saliva–serum ratio was below 1, and during the following 4 hours, the ratio increased to above 1 and remained above 1 during 8–16 hours after administration. After 16 hours, a mean saliva–serum ratio of 1.14 was measured.

DISCUSSION

In this systematic review, we aimed to investigate whether TDM of anti-TB drugs using saliva samples is feasible. We found this to be likely possible for linezolid and gatifloxacin, whereas possible for isoniazid, rifampicin, ofloxacin, moxifloxacin, and clarithromycin. For other anti-TB drugs, either too few data were available, or the drugs seemed unlikely to be feasible for salivary TDM.

The review was strengthened by the inclusion of all WHO-approved anti-TB drugs as well as ertapenem, faropenem, and doripenem because interest in using these other carbapenems as part of anti-TB treatment has increased.42 Ofloxacin and clarithromycin were still included, despite the WHO recommendation to not use these drugs.³ In specific situations, ofloxacin and clarithromycin might be useful to treat difficult cases.43 The information gained from this systematic review could also be applied to other infectious diseases.

Isoniazid,24,31,40 moxifloxacin,34–38 ofloxacin,21,25,27,41,44–49 and clarithromycin26,38,50–52 showed varying saliva–plasma and saliva–serum ratios. The same issue applied to rifampicin, although rifampicin showed some low saliva–plasma and saliva–serum ratios that could complicate the detection of the drug in saliva for low-dosage regimes. A wide range of saliva–plasma and saliva–serum ratios is especially caused by highly varying mean ratios across studies, not by wide ranges of study-specific ratios. A wide range of saliva–plasma and saliva–serum ratios could be caused by differences in study population, dose, saliva sampling method, and analytical method between the studies. The influences of these factors on the saliva–plasma and saliva–serum ratio are hard to determine because of the great variation of these factors among the included studies. Salivary TDM of these 5 anti-TB drugs may be possible; however, 1 workable saliva–plasma or saliva–serum ratio is required (Table 3). For instance, if the saliva–plasma ratio of isoniazid of 0.14 as found by Brown et $al²⁴$ is applied to predict AUC values in blood using salivary AUC, the calculated AUC in blood will be almost 7 times higher than if the ratio of Gurumurthy et al³¹ (0.95) or of Suryawati and Santoso⁴⁰ (0.90) is used. These substantial differences could have an effect on dosing recommendations based on such TDM results. However, the quality of Brown et al24 was unclear, as said study was classified as at a serious risk of bias.

For gatifloxacin and linezolid, salivary TDM is likely possible because of the narrow range of saliva–serum and saliva–plasma ratios.51,53,54 An additional study of gatifloxacin, preferably in patients with TB, should be performed to confirm the reported findings because pharmacokinetic parameters could significantly differ in patients with TB using several anti-TB drugs compared with healthy volunteers. However, in 2006, the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) officially warned that gatifloxacin is associated with an elevated risk of dysglycemia.55,56 So, gatifloxacin might be replaced in TB treatment by

other fluoroquinolones, such as moxifloxacin or levofloxacin, in the future. Additional studies of linezolid using other dosages are necessary to rule out any dose dependency of the saliva–serum ratio and to complete the salivary pharmacokinetic profile of linezolid.

For doripenem and amoxicillin/clavulanate, salivary TDM is probably not possible because of very low salivary drug concentrations (Table 3). Both doripenem and amoxicillin are hydrophilic drugs and this complicates passage through membranes.^{57,58} This problem could also apply to the other carbapenems. More studies comparing doripenem concentrations in blood and saliva are needed to confirm the results of Burian et al⁵⁹ and to rule out any dose dependency. Nearly all studies regarding amoxicillin/clavulanate reported undetectable amoxicillin concentrations in saliva.^{26,60–62} Only Baglie et al²² reported a substantial salivary concentration of amoxicillin and a saliva–plasma ratio. A possible reason is that this study administered the highest dose of all included studies. Besides, the variant results of Baglie et al^{22} could also be explained by the serious risk of bias.

More information is needed about the salivary pharmacokinetics of amikacin because no saliva–plasma or saliva– serum ratios or salivary AUC values are reported in the analyzed articles.23,39

For many anti-TB drugs, salivary pharmacokinetic information is lacking, even for the firstline drugs pyrazinamide and ethambutol (Table 3). As the incidence of drug-susceptible TB is significantly greater than the incidence of MDR-TB, the first-line drugs have to be prioritized in future studies of salivary TDM. Especially, for pyrazinamide, more information about the pharmacokinetic parameters in saliva versus blood is important, as it is part of the MDR-TB regimen.³ Besides, pyrazinamide is one of the few anti-TB drugs for which low serum concentrations are associated with poor treatment outcomes.^{63,64} The priority of second-line drugs should be ranked according to the grouping system of WHO as shown in Table 3. Anti-TB drugs in group A are considered the most beneficial in MDR-TB treatment and will be often used, whereas groups D2 and D3 contain add-on anti-TB drugs that will be less frequently prescribed.

Obviously, more pharmacokinetic studies comparing anti-TB drug concentrations in saliva and plasma or serum are needed before salivary TDM could be implemented in the treatment of TB. To overcome the observed variability in saliva–plasma and saliva–serum ratios, large study populations and comparable study designs, study populations, dosage regimes, saliva sampling methods (stimulated versus nonstimulated), and analytical methods should be used in future studies.

An ideal design for this kind of study is proposed in Figure 4 to assist and advice all future researchers. Most important factors are inclusion of patients with TB, paired sampling, validation, salivary flow, salivary pH, and saliva–plasma or saliva–serum ratios calculated using AUC values.

A limitation of this systematic review is that many studies included healthy volunteers instead of patients with TB. It is hard to extrapolate the findings of these studies to the clinic because the effect of TB on the salivary pharmacokinetics is unknown. Furthermore, almost none of the included studies reported the saliva flow and pH, although both can influence the

salivary drug concentration.^{12,18} The salivary flow and pH values were not included in this review because of a lack of information. In future studies of salivary pharmacokinetics, salivary flow and pH should be measured to provide a complete profile. Besides, risk of bias assessment of the included articles was problematic because no tool is validated for pharmacokinetic studies. The ROBINS-I tool was not used in its validated structure as a result of changes in the confounding section. A validated and appropriate tool for the risk of bias assessment of pharmacokinetic studies is needed to assess the quality of these studies. Overall, our review found predictable saliva–plasma or saliva–serum ratios of less than 1. However, 3 studies of isoniazid and moxifloxacin reported saliva–plasma or saliva–serum ratios with values of above 1 during the absorption phase.^{37,38,41} A high ratio during the absorption phase could be explained by drug adhesion to the oral mucosa.³⁸ Normally, this effect is averted by rinsing the mouth with water before sampling, but this precaution was not reported in the 2 moxifloxacin studies.^{37,38} An active transport system across the salivary epithelium can also cause a high concentration in saliva.³⁷ However, this seems unlikely because not all studies of isoniazid and moxifloxacin reported this high saliva– plasma or saliva– serum ratios.

In the future, many TB endemic settings may benefit from TDM with saliva samples, particularly if the saliva sample collection is standardized and sample analysis is optimized. For instance, salivary TDM would allow patients the option to sample themselves at any location and afterward bring their saliva samples to a local health post. Importantly, for the first-line drugs isoniazid and rifampicin, several analytical methods using ultraviolet-visible (UV-VIS) spectrophotometry have been used in several studies.65–67 In addition, for ethambutol,⁶⁸ moxifloxacin,⁶⁹ levofloxacin,⁷⁰ ofloxacin,⁷¹ paraaminosalicylic acid,⁷² amoxicillin/clavulanate, 73 and imipenem/cilastatin, 74 UV-VIS spectrophotometry methods were described in literature. Remarkably, 1 analytical method that determines isoniazid, rifampicin, and pyrazinamide simultaneously with a UV-VIS spectrophotometer was published.75 After validation in both blood and saliva, these UV-VIS methods could easily be implemented in referral laboratories of more resource-limited settings because of their relative simplicity and lower costs. Of caution, however, before implementing salivary TDM, the chemical stability of anti-TB drugs in saliva should be thoroughly studied to determine the necessity for rapid sample analysis. Isoniazid, for instance, is known to be unstable in both saliva and blood.^{76,77} Furthermore, the eventuality of *M. tuberculosis* being culturable from the saliva of nonconverted patients with TB is an extra factor that must be taken into account. The sampling method should be thoroughly designed and tested in advance to create a safe technique for the investigators working with the saliva samples and all other people involved. A recent study showed that membrane filtration (pore size 0.22 mcg) is suitable for decontamination of saliva samples containing M . tuberculosis.⁷⁸ However, before membrane filtration can be implemented in salivary TDM, recovery testing should rule out any adhesion of the drug to membranes.

CONCLUSION

In this systematic review, we summarized the current knowledge about the salivary and blood concentrations of anti-TB drugs and their saliva–plasma or saliva–serum ratio in

Unfortunately, for most anti-TB drugs, salivary pharmacokinetic information is entirely lacking. For these drugs, such as pyrazinamide, pharmacokinetic studies comparing drug concentrations in saliva and blood are needed. For amikacin, pharmacokinetic studies using saliva samples were found but without saliva–plasma or saliva–serum ratios. Salivary TDM is likely possible for gatifloxacin and linezolid because of their promising, narrow-ranged saliva–plasma and saliva–serum ratios. It may be possible for isoniazid, rifampicin, moxifloxacin, ofloxacin, and clarithromycin, but because of the wide range of saliva–plasma and saliva–serum ratios, further well-designed pharmacokinetic studies in patients with TB would be recommended. TDM with salivary samples is probably not feasible for doripenem and amoxicillin/clavulanate because of very low salivary concentrations. Overall, it seems worthwhile to further explore saliva as potential matrix for TDM of anti-TB drugs, especially for children.

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FIGURE 1.

Results of searches and study selection. Using the search terms, 162 records were found, 71 of which were assessed as relevant. After full-text assessment, 30 articles were excluded. A total of 42 articles were included in this systematic review.

FIGURE 2.

Saliva–plasma or saliva–serum ratio of anti-TB drugs. The weighted mean () and range of saliva–plasma or saliva–serum ratio are displayed per drug. Mean (range) of doripenem: 0.04 (0.01–0.07); amoxicillin: 0.43 (0.34–0.55); linezolid: 0.98 (0.95–1.03); gatifloxacin: 0.91 (0.81–1.00); clarithromycin: 0.62 (0.25–1.30); ofloxacin: 0.90 (0.29–1.25); moxifloxacin: 0.75 (0.31–1.03); rifampicin: 0.19 (0.00–0.67); and isoniazid: 0.84 (0.14– 1.38). For doripenem, amoxicillin, and linezolid, only 1 study with a saliva–plasma or saliva– serum ratio was included. For the other drugs, the numbers of included studies were as follows: gatifloxacin (n = 2), clarithromycin (n = 6), of loxacin (n = 9), moxifloxacin (n = 5), rifampicin ($n = 6$), and isoniazid ($n = 3$).

FIGURE 3.

Saliva–plasma or saliva–serum ratios of anti-TB drugs. Top left: isoniazid; top right: rifampicin; middle left: moxifloxacin; middle right: ofloxacin; bottom left: clarithromycin; and bottom right: gatifloxacin. As per drug, the saliva–plasma or saliva–serum ratios of the included articles are displayed as weighted mean () with range. In addition, the overall mean (♦) and range were determined for each drug. All numerical values of mean and range are presented to the right of the graphs.

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FIGURE 4.

Ideal study design for pharmacokinetic studies comparing anti-TB drug concentrations in saliva and plasma or serum. LLOQ, lower limit of quantification; N, number.

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TABLE 1.

Data of Included Pharmacokinetic Studies Comparing Salivary and Blood Anti-TB Drug Peak Concentrations, Values of AUC, and the Saliva-Plasma or
Saliva-Serum Ratio in Humans Data of Included Pharmacokinetic Studies Comparing Salivary and Blood Anti-TB Drug Peak Concentrations, Values of AUC, and the Saliva-Plasma or Saliva-Serum Ratio in Humans

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Day 7: 3.36 \pm .46

Day 7: 3.36 \pm .46

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Saliva Sampling Method

 $_{\text{Dose}}$

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Drug Study Study Population Studv Design Dose Saliva Sampling Method AUC: ND
 \sum_{inif}

Study Population

Study

 $_{\rm{Drag}}$

AUC: ND

Study Design

 100 mg : 7.00 ± 1.36 200 mg : 14.5 ± 2.6 400 mg: 32.4 \pm 4.1 600 mg : 53.5 ± 2.6

 100 mg: 7.00 ± 1.36 200 mg: 14.5 ± 2.6 400 mg: 32.4 ± 4.1

Serum $\mathrm{AUC}_{\mathrm{O-int}}$

1: 30.871 \pm 4.390

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Amikacin Paper disk method

Amikacin

with Bacillus subtilis

 Ξ

HPLC-MS/MS

Linezolid

 $Conc$

About 1

600 mg: 53.5 ± 2.6

Plasma Cmax

 C_{max}

Highest measured mean conc at $t = 3h$: Highest measured mean conc at $t = 3h$:
7.1–17.0

HPLC-UV

Highest measured mean plasma conc at $t=3$ Highest measured mean plasma conc at t=3
h: $10.4-14.1$

AUC: ND Plasma AUC: ND

Not detected Plasma Cmax: 14.56 (11.03–18.1)

Not detected

AUC: ND

Plasma Cmax: 14.56 (11.03-18.1)

Plasma AUC: ND

AUC: ND
Plasma AUC_{0–4h}: 24.4 (21.1–27.6)

AUC: ND

Plasma AUC_{0-4h}; 24.4 (21.1–27.6)

 $\|$

 $\overline{}$

Amoxicillin/clavulanate Bioassay with

Amoxicillin/clavulanate

Bioassay with
Sarcina lutea

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AUC: ND
 $\overline{AUC_{0-12h}}$

Serum $\mathrm{AUC}_{0-12\,\mathrm{h}}$ Day 1: 10.6 ± 2.51 Day 7: 18.0 ± 5.0

Day 1: 10.6 ± 2.51 Day 7: 18.0 ± 5.0

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The legend of the graph in the article referred to the upper curve as a result of a 4<X)-mg dose. We assumed this was a mistake; therefore, the Cmax values of -MX) and 600 mg arc exchanged. Authois of the article were contacted but did not respond.

 $\vec{r}_{\text{Estimated value.}}$ Estimated value.

 $\vec{\tau}_{\text{Calculated value.}}$

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alt. d., every other day; AOM, acme otitis media; AUC. area under the time-concentration curve; b.id.. twice a day; Cmax. peak concentration; conc, concentration; com. slope of correlation of saliva and alt. d., every other day; AOM, acme otitis media; AUC. area under the time-concentration curve; b.id.. twice a day; Cmax. peak concentration; concentration; com. slope of correlation of saliva and defined; NS. non-stimulated; NSCLC. non-small cdl lung cancer, p.o.. per oral; PI B. pulmonary TB; q.d., once a d3y; RP. reversed phase; S. stimulated; SCI. spinal cord injury; SP. spectrophotometry;
t.i.d.. three times a defined; NS. non-stimulatcd; NSCLC. non-small cdl lung cancer, p.o.. per oral; PI B. pulmonary TB; q.d., once a d3y; RP. reversed phase; S. stimulated; SCI. spinal cord injury; SP. spectrophotometry; plasma or scrum; EC. clectro-chemical; fluor, fluorescence; HD. hemodialysis; HPLC. high-performance liquid chromatography; HV. healthy volunteers; ITB. intestinal TB, i.v.. intrav enous; ND. not plasma or scrum; EC. clcctro-chcmical; fluor, fluorescence; HD. hemodialysis; HPLC. high-performance liquid chromatography; HV. healthy volunteers; ITB. intestinal TB, i.v.. intrav enous; ND. not t.i.d.. three times a day; Tmax, time of peak concentration; UV, ultraviolet-visible spectrophotometry.

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TABLE 2.

Results of Risk of Bias Assessment of Included Articles Using Risk of Bias in Nonrandomized Studies of Interventions (ROBINS-I) Tool Results of Risk of Bias Assessment of Included Articles Using Risk of Bias in Nonrandomized Studies of Interventions (ROBINS-I) Tool

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Low risk of bias (+), moderate risk of bias (+/-), serious risk of bias (-). and no information (?). Low risk of bias (+), moderate risk of bias (+/−), serious risk of bias (−). and no information (?).

Summary of Salivary TDM Potentials of all Anti-TB Drugs Summary of Salivary TDM Potentials of all Anti-TB Drugs

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conclusions.