Comprehensive characterization of toxins defines progression and stages in a non-human primate model of inhalation anthrax

Anne E. Boyer[1], Maribel G. Candela[1], Renato C. Lins[1,2], Maria I. Solano[1], Adrian R. Woolfitt[1], John Lee[3], Daniel C. Sanford[4], Katherine Knostman[4,5], Conrad. P. Quinn[6], Alex R. Hoffmaster[6], James L. Pirkle[1], John R. Barr[1].

[1]Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 4770 Buford Highway Mailstop 110-5, Atlanta, GA 30341
[2]Battelle Atlanta Analytical Services, 2987 Clairmont Road NE, Suite 450 Atlanta, GA 30329
[3]Biomedical Advanced Research and Development Authority, 200 Independence Ave., SW, Washington, DC 20201
[4]Battelle Biomedical Research Center, 1425 Plain City Georgesville Rd. SR 142 NE, West Jefferson, OH 43162
[5]Currently at Sarepta Therapeutics, Genetic Therapies Center of Excellence, 4201 Easton Commons, Columbus, OH 43219
[6]Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 1600 Clifton Road, Atlanta, GA 30333

Abstract

Inhalation anthrax has three clinical stages: early-prodromal, intermediate-progressive and late-fulminant. The toxins produced during infection exert pathologic effects leading to death, but they have not been comprehensively characterized throughout the course of infection. Mass spectrometry methods for anthrax toxins, total-protective antigen (PA), total-lethal factor (LF), total-edema factor (EF), and toxin complexes, lethal toxin and edema toxin were used to characterize the stages of inhalation anthrax in 23 cynomolgus macaques. The target aerosol dose was 200 LD_{50} *B. anthracis* Ames spores. 22 animals died during the study. Different patterns of toxemia and bacteremia were observed in 11 animals with the shortest survival times (fast progression), the 11 animals with longer survival (slow progression), and the one survivor. Toxemia and bacteremia were predominantly triphasic with an early rise (phase-1), a plateau/decline (phase-2), and a final rapid rise (phase-3). The patterns were consistent for all toxins. The end-of-phase-1 LF was higher in fast progression [median(lower quartile–upper quartile)] of [195(57.4–326)-ng/mL], than in slow progression [23.8(15.6–26.3)-ng/mL] (p=0.0001), or the surviving animal [11.1-ng/mL]. End-of-phase-1 EF was also higher in fast [22.2(2.7–42.8)-ng/mL] than slow progression [0.17(0.064–0.066)-ng/mL] (p=0.0005), or the surviving animal [0.040-ng/mL]. Animals with slow progression and lower end-of-phase-1 toxemia, had an extended plateau/decline (≥24-hours), with low variability of PA, LF, and LTx across all animals. Its characterization revealed an upper threshold; a limit for exiting phase-2 and entering the critical phase-3, 342-ng/mL (PA), 35.8-ng/mL (LF), and 1.10-ng/mL (EF). The thresholds were exceeded early in animals with fast progression (38.3±7.4-hours) and later in slow progression (78.7±14.1-hours). Once the threshold was passed toxin levels rose rapidly, differences in toxemia were reduced, and the duration to terminal was rapid and similar; 21.0±7.3-hours for fast and 20.4±7.3-hours for slow. This first comprehensive evaluation of anthrax toxins defined all stages, providing insights into disease progression.

Abbreviations

Total lethal factor (LF), total edema factor (EF), total protective antigen (PA), full length 83-KDa PA

(PA83), active 63-KDa PA (PA63), lethal toxin (LTx), edema toxin (ETx). Non-human primate (NHP). Large

unstained cells (LUC), neutrophil lymphocyte ratio (NL Ratio), white blood cells (WBC), red blood cells

(RBC), corpuscular hemoglobin concentration mean (CHCM), mean corpuscular hemoglobin (MCH),

mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration (MCHC), mean platelet volume (MPV), mean corpuscular

volume (MCV), red cell distribution width (RDW).

Author Summary

The comprehensive analysis of all major anthrax toxins and bacteremia in a non-human primate model

of inhalation anthrax revealed a triphasic kinetics of toxemia that aligns with the three clinical stages,

early-prodromal, intermediate-progressive and late-fulminant. End of phase-1 toxin levels may predict

the subsequent speed of progression. Phase-2 toxemia helped define critical thresholds representing

the entry to phase-3. Exceeding these thresholds was associated with a short remaining survival time

(about 21 hours). This first comprehensive characterization of toxemia provides knowledge and

guidance for better management of anthrax.

Introduction

Bacillus anthracis is a gram positive, spore-forming bacterium and the causative agent of anthrax

(1). Anthrax can take many forms, cutaneous, gastrointestinal, injection, and the most lethal, inhalation.

As such, *B. anthracis* is a U.S. Category A priority pathogen, and Tier 1 select agent

(www.selectagents.gov), with the potential for aerosol dispersion and mass casualties (2). Historically,

the fatality rate of untreated inhalation anthrax ranged from 89%-100% (3-6). In 2001, anthrax spores

were intentionally distributed through the U.S. mail. Even with the use of antimicrobial agents and

modern intensive medical support, the fatality rate was 45% (7-9). The high rate of fatality is due to the

production of two binary toxins that disable host's immune response, cause endothelial barrier

dysfunction, edema, and hemorrhage (10). Even after the clearance of bacilli by antimicrobial treatment,

the toxins persists for days, causing further damage and death (11). A better understanding of the levels

of anthrax toxins during the stages of infection provides insights into their role in pathogenicity.

The two major *B. anthracis* toxins consist of binary combinations of protective antigen (PA), which

binds enzymatic factors, lethal factor (LF) and edema factor (EF), forming active toxin complexes lethal

toxin (LTx) and edema toxin (ETx), respectively (12). PA is secreted as an 83-kDa protein (PA83) that

binds cell surface receptors TEM8 and CMG2 (13, 14). There it is hydrolyzed by furin-like proteases to 63

kDa (PA63), which causes it to form heptamers/octamers that readily bind LF and EF, forming the LTx

and ETx complexes (15-18). PA83 is also hydrolyzed by serum proteases, forming PA63, and ultimately,

LTx and ETx (19-23). LF, a 90-kDa zinc-dependent endoproteinase, hydrolyzes and inactivates several

members of the mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase (MAPKK) family of proteins that are central to

various cell signaling responses (24). EF, an 89-kDa calcium and calmodulin dependent adenylate

cyclase, has a high rate of catalysis of ATP to cyclic AMP (25). The accumulation of cyclic AMP

contributes locally to edema, but also activates protein kinase A and exchange protein, both of which

control a variety of cellular functions. In early stages of infection, LTx and ETx synergistically suppress

innate immune responses, allowing the infection to take hold, bacteria to proliferate, and toxins to

accumulate (10, 26-28). In later stages the toxins contribute to disruption of endothelial barrier

integrity, causing edema, pleural effusions, hemorrhage, and hemodynamic instability (29-31). After a

certain point, the damage becomes insurmountable and largely resistant to standard procedures of

cardiovascular support (32). It is not yet known what toxin levels correlate with these stages and their

clinical impact.

Clinically, inhalation anthrax has been described as having three-stages: 1) the early-prodromal

stage, 2) intermediate-progressive stage, and 3) late-fulminant stage (33, 34). The first stage presents

with non-specific symptoms, often resembling the flu. The cure rate is highest in this early stage, but

since anthrax is rare, a low index of suspicion at clinical presentation can delay appropriate treatment. In

the second stage, non-specific symptoms continue but pathology and the clinical signs progress. The

potential for survival is still high in this stage but requires aggressive medical intervention. Onset of the

third stage is rapid with respiratory failure, shock, and often meningitis. The likelihood of survival is low

in the third stage. This was most evident during the anthrax letter attacks of 2001. All 11 cases with

inhalation anthrax received aggressive medical intervention. However, it was the stage at presentation

that was associated with outcome. The six that presented during stage-2 survived, while the five

presenting in stage-3 did not (7, 8, 34). Novel treatments such as antitoxins developed in more recent

years may have helped to improve outcome (35). However, more needs to be learned about the

progression of anthrax to help discern stages.

Of the animal models for inhalation anthrax, non-human primates (NHP), both rhesus macaques and

cynomolgus macaques have been extensively studied for anthrax pathology, therapeutics, and vaccines

(36-43). However, of the many toxins and biomarkers of anthrax, only PA and bacteremia have been

characterized in cynomolgus macaques (42). We have developed and validated sensitive and specific

mass spectrometry (MS) methods for all major anthrax toxin proteins and their toxin complexes. They

include methods for total-LF (LF+LTx) (44), LTx (PA-LF) (22), total-EF (EF+ETx), ETx (PA-EF) (23), and PA

(total PA, full length PA83, and PA63) (45). Application of the methods in five rhesus macaques showed a

triphasic kinetics of toxemia (22, 23, 45, 46). These were too few and limited in scope to draw major

conclusions about staging. Here, these MS methods were applied to measure and characterize anthrax

toxins over the course of infection in the cynomolgus macaque NHP model. This study provides the first

comprehensive assessment of all the major anthrax toxins during infection which, along with

traditionally measured bacteremia, addresses the complexities of anthrax progression, yielding insights

that may improve medical management and public health outcomes during an exposure event.

Results

1.   Cynomolgus macaque study outcomes

Exposures and clinical outcomes. The study included 23 cynomolgus macaques, 12 males and 11

females, with a mean±standard deviation weight of 4.0±0.61 kg at challenge (Table 1). The weight for

females was 3.7±0.48 kg and males was 4.3±0.61 kg. The NHP's were randomized and challenged in two

groups. Group-1 included 10 animals with two non-challenged control, for 8 challenged in group-1. The

two controls did not develop disease or detectable toxemia/bacteremia. Group-2 included the two

control animals from group-1 which were challenged with 13 others, for 15 animals. The collective

exposure dose of 221(±29.2) Ames LD_{50} and that of both group-1 (218±32 LD_{50}) and group-2 (223±29

LD_{50}) were similar. There were 22 non-survivors, ordered by time to death or euthanasia which ranged

from 48.5-201.9 hours-h (Table 1 and S1 Fig, survival curve). One animal survived to the end-of-study.

When adjusted by weight, the Ames LD_{50} exposure dose (LD_{50}/kg) tended to be higher in animals that

had shorter survival times with some notable exceptions. The animal with the shortest survival time

(48.5 hours) dose (48 LD_{50}/kg) was similar to the animal that survived (49 LD_{50}/kg), and lower than the

animal with the latest time to death (60 LD_{50}/kg). The mean±standard deviation spore dose/kg of the 11

animals with shorter survival times was 61.6±11.7 LD_{50}/kg and for the 11 non-survivors with longer

survival was 51.9±11.0 LD_{50}/kg. These differences did not meet the alpha level of 0.05 for significance

(p=0.0583). As can be seen in Table 1, a longer time to death does not correlate with lower doses.

Table 1. Cynomolgus macaques, challenge, symptoms, and survival time.

	Animal ID	Gender	Weight (Kg) Day 0	Ames LD$_{50}$	LD$_{50}$ per kg	Symptom Onset-h	First Symptom	Hours to Death (Days)	Manner of Death	Pathology Cause of Death
1	C58282[1]	M	4.6	219	**48**	<u>29.1</u>	HP	48.5 (2.0)	Euth	Sepsis
2	C59621	F	3.2	230	72	47.4	N/Eu	48.9 (2.0)	FD	Sepsis
3	C60763	M	3.3	200	61	54.7	FD	54.7 (2.3)	FD	Sepsis
4	C58176	M	4.2	280	67	38.2	W	55.2 (2.3)	FD	Sepsis
5	C58003[+]	F	4.2	232	55	40.3	HP	57.3 (2.4)	FD	Sepsis
6	C59656	F	3.7	206	56	40.9	HP	57.9 (2.4)	FD	Sepsis
7	C58214[1]	F	3.4	246	72	<u>28.5</u>	HP	58.4 (2.4)	FD	Sepsis
8	C60732	M	3.1	258	83	35.8	HP	59.0 (2.5)	Euth	Sepsis
9	C59669	F	3.4	223	66	56.3	HP, L	64.8 (2.7)	Euth	Sepsis
10	C57161[1]	F	3.7	203	55	41.5	HP	66.9 (2.8)	FD	Sepsis
11	C58170[+]	M	4.8	208	43	61.4	HP	74.1 (3.1)	Euth	Sepsis
12	C59619	F	3.6	270	75	35.3	W, HP, V	76.4 (3.2)	FD	Sepsis
13	C58135	M	4.0	186	47	<u>34.9</u>	HP	90.4 (3.8)	Euth	Sepsis
14	C57793	M	4.1	187	46	67.0	FA	91.1 (3.8)	FD	Sepsis
15	C58167	M	4.9	215	44	37.3	HP, W	91.7 (3.8)	FD	Sepsis
16	C57998[1]	F	3.5	199	57	77.2	L, W	100.8 (4.2)	FD	Sepsis
17	C59617	F	4.9	203	41	88.1	HP	105.1 (4.4)	FD	Meningitis / Sepsis
18	C58159[1]	M	4.2	188	45	<u>30.2</u>	HP	109.0 (4.5)	Euth	Meningitis
19	C58122[1]	M	4.8	181	38	35.6	DI	115.1 (4.8)	FD	Sepsis
20	C57997[1]	F	3.9	234	60	53.9	W	125.9 (5.2)	FD	Sepsis
21	C58156[1]	M	4.7	274	58	60.7	HP	140.1 (5.8)	FD	Meningitis
22	C59618	F	3.4	202	60	57.0	HP	201.9 (8.4)	Euth	Sepsis
23	C58174	M	4.9	239	**49**	108.4	FA	336.6 (14)	EOS	NA
	Mean±SD		4.0±0.61	221±29.2	56.4±12.0	50.4±20.2		86.1±37.1		

23 animals were challenged in two groups. [1]First group challenged included 8 challenged animals and 2 non-challenged controls. The second group challenged included 15 animals, among these were the 2 controls from the first group[+]. SD-standard deviation. LD$_{50}$/Kg in bold font show similar exposure doses for the animal with shortest survival and the surviving CM. *Survivor sacrificed at the end-of-study (EOS), 14 days. Animals were observed every 6 hours for symptoms and criteria for euthanasia. Symptom onset is the time from challenge to first symptom. Symptoms included hunched posture (HP), wheezing (W), lethargic (L), vomiting (V), facial edema (FA) and diarrhea (DI), or none (N) until euthanized (E), found dead (FD).

Symptom onset. The onset of symptoms has been represented by an increase in body temperature from normal or baseline (47). Body temperatures were monitored by telemetry before and after challenge. However, the increase in body temperature was not a consistent indicator of symptoms. It was present in only 12 animals for the shoulder transponder and 11 animals for the hip. When present, the elevated temperatures were brief, even transient in most, except in the shoulder of three animals with the longest survival time (S2 Fig).

Symptoms were also monitored visually by veterinarians, every 6 hours after challenge. The first clinical sign(s) and the time of occurrence (symptom onset) was recorded (Table 1). The time from challenge to symptom onset ranged from 28.5 hours at the earliest, to 108.4 hours at the latest, in the survivor. Mean±standard deviation time to symptom onset was 50.4±20.2 hours. The most common first clinical sign was hunched posture, present in 15 animals and the least common was diarrhea and

vomiting, present in only one each. Four animals had two or more symptoms at onset, while two had no clinical signs recorded before early death/euthanasia at 48.9- and 54.7-hours, suggesting the progression from normal behavior to death or moribund occurred in less than 6 hours.

Cause of death. Terminal microscopic and gross pathology, to be described later, provided the final determination of the cause of death as being due to either sepsis, for which bacteremia was found in multiple organs, or meningitis, for which whole brain pathology was primary and bacteremia was limited to lymphatic organs (Table 1). Only three animals, all with longer survival times, showed whole brain pathology; two of these were considered meningitis alone (pathology details below).

2. Anthrax toxemia and bacteremia

2.1 Pre-symptom onset detection of anthrax biomarkers

The limits of detection for all the anthrax toxin methods are summarized in Table 2. Total-LF and -EF methods detect and measure the enzymatic activity which gives lower detection limits, whereas the PA method detects and measures the specific trypsin-digest peptide fragments of PA itself which has a higher detection limit. Figure 1 compares earliest detection of total toxins LF, EF, and PA, and bacteremia relative to symptom onset. This showed that LF was the first biomarker detected and it preceded symptom onset in all exposed animals. EF was the next biomarker detected and was first observed at the same time as LF in 9 of the animals, after LF but still before symptoms in 13 animals, and at symptom onset in one animal. PA and bacteremia were detected later with bacteremia detection preceding PA detection in 12 animals and coinciding in 11 animals.   Bacteremia and PA detection was before symptom onset in 18 and 16 animals, respectively.

Table 2. Anthrax toxin mass spectrometry (MS) 3-step methods summary.

Analyte	Pre-MS Sample Prep	LOD (ng/mL)	pmol/mL
LF Total	IP-catalysis	0.0027	NA
LTx	IP-catalysis	0.0075	NA
EF Total	IP-catalysis	0.00002	NA
ETx	IP-catalysis	0.00002	NA
PA Total	IP-tryp digest	1.87	0.0225
PA83	IP-tryp digest	1.22	0.0147

Immunoprecipitation (IP), limit of detection (LOD), tryptic (tryp).

Figure 1. First detection of anthrax biomarkers. First detection of biomarkers relative to symptom onset in 23 cynomolgus macaques with inhalation anthrax. Pre-symptom onset period (gray bar) and post-symptom onset period (blue bar) out to 144 hours, for total lethal factor (LF), total edema factor (EF), total protective antigen (PA), and confirmed bacteremia. Detection limits for LF (0.0027 ng/mL), EF (0.00002 ng/mL), PA (1.87 ng/mL) and confirmed bacteremia (reported to 25 cfu/mL). Non-confirmed results of '+' excluded here but included in Table 2.

Table 3 includes the summary for pre-symptom onset detection for total toxins, toxin complexes,

LTx and ETx, and full length PA83 for 1) the mean time to first detection, 2) the time that first detection

occurred before symptom onset, and 3) the percent of animals positive for each biomarker at each early

time point. It showed that LF was detected earliest, well before symptoms, and most frequently, in

100% of animals by 24 hours. EF was detected second earliest and most frequently, in 65% by 24 hours

and 100% by 30 hours. Detection of bacteremia followed. Toxin complexes, LTx and ETx, were detected

on average about 9 hours after their total-LF and total-EF counterparts and may reflect the

accumulation and activation of PA83 to PA63, binding LF and EF in circulation. Total PA was detected

later, even though PA was present earlier in the form of LTx and ETx. Detection limits are lower for the

two enzymatic methods, allowing detection of lower levels earlier. Full length PA83 was the last to test

positive and never reached 100% positivity at any time point for available samples. Later results show

that PA83, when detectable, was only a small fraction of the total PA measured. Therefore, most of the

PA was in the PA63 form throughout the entire course of infection.

Table 3. Pre-symptom onset detection.

Biomarker	Time first detected (h)	Time detected before symptoms (h)	Percent positive at post-challenge time				
			18h	24h	30h	36h	48h
Total LF	20.9±3.1	29.6±20.5	52.2	100.0	100	100	100
Total EF	24.5±4.4	25.9±19.8	21.7	65.2	100	100	100
Bact NC (+)	30.0±7.0	20.4±19.1	17.4	26.1	52.2	100	100
LTx	30.5±4.4	19.9±19.5	0	22.7	100	100	100
ETx	33.4±7.6	17.0±22.6	0	21.7	52.2	73.9	100
Bact Confirmed	34.2±6.1	16.2±19.0	0	17.4	30.4	87.0	100
Total PA	38.1±7.4	12.3±19.7	0	8.70	26.1	50.0	100
PA83 (n=21)	59.9±39.1	-11.2±36.2	0	0	4.3	18.2	40.9

First appearance of anthrax toxins and bacteremia. Mean time (hours-h) each biomarker was first
detected post-challenge and the mean time (h) the first detected occurred before symptom onset in
each animal. The percent positive for each biomarker of 23 animals at all early time points (prior to the
mean symptom onset at 50.4 hours). Bacteremia was quantified by serial dilution, plating in triplicate
and colony counting which has an LOD of 100 cfu/mL. Only bacteremia reported ≥100 cfu/mL were
confirmed. Results below this were reported as + for two of three plates with less than 10 colonies.
Inclusion of the non-confirmed (NC) + results were included for Bact NC (+).

207   **2.2 Biomarker levels at symptom onset**

Toxin levels measured at the time points closest to symptom onset were determined for each

animal (Table 4). LF, LTx and EF were positive at symptom onset in all 23 animals (100%). Although the

detection of LTx in all animals at symptom onset indicates that PA is present (as PA-LF), total PA, with a

higher detection limit, was not detected in four animals in which the LTx levels were below 0.26 ng/mL.

Total PA was detectable in 19 of the 23 animals (83%) at symptom onset, one of which had lower LTx of

0.893 ng/mL. ETx and bacteremia were detectable in 20 and 21 of 23 animals, respectively. PA83 was

only positive in 7 animals (30.4%). Median symptom onset levels for all 23 animals were in the mid-low

ng/mL for PA, LF, and LTx and sub-ng/mL for EF and ETx. The median for bacteremia was 1.3E+04

cfu/mL. Lower and upper quartiles for all 23 animals, demonstrate a broad range which was due to

either or both the variable rates of progression and the different stages during which symptoms were

first observed. As related to progression, median symptom onset levels were higher in 11 animals that

died at earlier time points. The median symptom onset levels of PA, LF, LTx and bacteremia were 2.3-,

10-, 14-, and 22-fold higher and EF and ETx were 91- and 136-fold higher, respectively, for the 11

animals with the shortest survival times, than the 11 animals with longer survival times. As related to

time of symptom onset, the four animals with earliest symptoms (28.5–34.9 h) had the lowest LF, LTx

and EF levels at symptom onset. PA was <LOD in all four of these animals, ETx was <LOD in three of

these animals, and bacteremia was negative in two and a low positive (+) in one. In these four animals

with earliest symptoms, LF ranged from 0.076–1.3 ng/mL. The next sample, 6 hours later, showed that

LF increased 5- to 13-fold to 0.538–6.4 ng/mL. However, PA and ETx remained <LOD, 6-hours later, in

the two animals with LF levels below 1 ng/mL.

Table 4. Symptom onset biomarker levels.

Animal ID	Hours to term	Symptom Onset-h	Sample time-h	Bact (next/term*)	Total-LF (next)	LTx	Total-EF	ETx (next)	Total-PA (next)	PA83
1) C58282	48.5	29.1	30	pos (5.3E+02)	0.235 (2.99)	0.103	0.00068	<LOD (0.0045)	<LOD (9.11)	<LOD
2) C59621	48.9	47.4	42~	2.9E+06 (1.3E+09*)	57.8 (NA)	23.7	20.7	1.87	333 (NA)	67.4
3) C60763	54.7	54.7	48~	5.4E+06 (6.2E+08*)	366 (NA)	203	74.7	15.7	2222 (NA)	259.4
4) C58176	55.2	38.2	42	9.1E+04 (3.1E+06)	190 (NA)	63.9	40.6	10.3	199 (NA)	47.3
5) C58003	57.3	40.3	42	5.9E+06 (2.6E+05)	220 (NA)	97.8	6.89	2.0	1143 (NA)	<LOD
6) C59656	57.9	40.9	42	7.0E+03 (3.6E+06)	8.5 (75.2)	0.893	0.059	0.00082	13.6 (731)	<LOD
7) C58214	58.4	28.5	30	neg (3.0E+02)	0.136 (0.839)	0.058	0.0005	<LOD (<LOD)	<LOD (<LOD)	<LOD
8) C60732	59.0	35.8	36	7.4E+06 (2.9E+03)	313 (557)	165	39.2	7.1	1189 (693)	<LOD
9) C59669	64.8	56.3	60	1.9E+05 (4.0E+08*)	200 (NA)	149	5.62	0.872	282 (NA)	<LOD
10) C57161	66.9	41.5	48	7.2E+06 (1.1E+06)	366 (741)	245	53.4	15	2221 (2303)	516
11) C58170	74.1	61.4	60~	6.3E+04 (8.3E+08*)	189 (NA)	139	0.194	0.034	428 (NA)	<LOD
Mean-h Median Fast	58.7±7.6	43.1±10.8	41.3±9.9	1.9E+05 (3.5E+04–5.7E+06)	190 (33.2–267)	97.8 (12.3–157)	6.9 (0.13–40)	1.9 (0.017–8.7)	333 (106–1166)	ND
12) C59619	76.4	35.3	36	1.8E+05 (1.5E+04)	32.5 (37.4)	12.5	0.661	0.278	368 (367)	36.2
13) C58135	90.4	34.9	36	2.5E+02 (5.3E+03)	1.30 (6.4)	0.256	0.0053	0.00035	<LOD (7.21)	<LOD
14) C57793	91.1	67.0	72	9.2E+04 (1.2E+08)	33.3 (7996)	15.8	0.933	0.272	275 (34638)	<LOD
15) C58167	91.7	37.3	42	8.5E+03 (7.1E+03)	18.9 (19.4)	6.49	0.38	0.082	129 (65.0)	<LOD
16) C57998	100.8	77.2	84	2.9E+04 (3.1E+07)	22.6 (1754)	9.59	0.459	0.035	144 (15503)	5.565
17) C59617	105.1	88.1	84	9.6E+03 (5.9E+04)	93.8 (178)	64.1	1.95	0.511	599 (813)	25.4
18) C58159	109.0	30.2	30	neg (pos)	0.076 (0.538)	0.029	0.00056	<LOD (<LOD)	<LOD (<LOD)	<LOD
19) C58122	115.1	35.6	36	8.4E+03 (3.6E+03)	5.33 (22.0)	1.29	0.044	0.00042	18.7 (152)	<LOD
20) C57997	125.9	53.9	60	3.7E+02 (5.3E+02)	15.5 (10.4)	6.97	0.048	0.014	200 (96.7)	<LOD
21) C58156	140.1	60.7	60	1.3E+04 (2.6E+02)	19.8 (11.7)	8.68	0.076	0.014	172 (137)	<LOD
22) C59618	201.9	57.0	60	9.2E+02 (pos)	8.51 (6.3)	1.05	0.021	0.00065	25.7 (28.3)	<LOD
Mean-h Median Slow	113±34.4	52.5±19.5	54.5±19.8	8.5E+03 (6.5E+02–2.1E+04)	18.9 (6.9–27.6)	7.0 (1.2–11.0)	0.076 (0.033–0.56)	0.014 (0.00054–0.18)	144 (22.2–238)	ND
23) C58174	EOS	108.4	108	3.4E+02 (neg)	7.3 (4.2)	1.6	0.041	0.0058	43.8	<LOD
Mean-h 22-NS Median All 23	86.1±37.1	47.8±16.1	48.9±17.4	1.3E+04 (6.5E+02–1.9E+05)	22.6 (7.9–190)	9.6 (1.2–81.0)	0.38 (0.043–6.3)	0.035 (0.00074–1.4)	199 (22.2–398)	

Biomarker levels at the sample time (hours-h) closest to symptom onset for toxins (ng/mL) and bacteremia (cfu/mL), in cynomolgus macaques (CM) with
inhalation anthrax. ~ Last available sample was used when symptom onset sample was not available. CM listed by survival time (h) from challenge to terminal
(term). Symptom onset is the time from challenge to first observed symptom. Mean±standard deviation-SD for hours (survivor excluded) and median and
interquartile range (IQR) presented as median (lower–upper IQR) for all biomarker levels, except PA83. For calculations, values <LOD were included at ½ the
LOD per method (Table 2) and for bacteremia (Bact) a '+' for low positive (pos) was 6 cfu/mL and '0' negative (neg) was 3 cfu/mL [35]. CM with earliest
symptom onset (underlined) had low/negative toxemia. Measurements for the next time point were included for <LOD ETx, bacteremia, LF and PA levels 6-12
hours later; *bacteremia when the next measurement was at terminal time. CM were analyzed collectively (all, n=23) and separately for fast (n=12) and slow
progression (n=11). End of study (EOS). Not determined (ND).

2.3 Kinetics of toxemia and bacteremia

Variable Kinetics of LF and bacteremia. During anthrax, vegetative *B. anthracis* and the toxins are found in circulation at varying levels at varying times. Bacteremia and LF represent the two sides of anthrax, infection, and intoxication. Bacteremia and LF graphed over time in all 23 animals demonstrate the variability of progression and the differences in these two biomarkers (Fig 2A,B). Most, but not all, of the animals appeared to have a triphasic kinetics of bacteremia and LF, with an initial rapid increase (phase-1), a plateau or decrease (phase-2), and a rapid increase leading to terminal stage (phase-3). The kinetics of bacteremia and LF were dramatically different in the 11 animals that progressed faster and died earlier compared to the 11 with longer survival times and slower progression. Specifically, early levels of bacteremia and LF appeared to be much higher in animals with faster progression and shorter survival than in the 11 animals with longer survival, and the one animal that survived. Overall, the kinetic trends, rises and declines, were similar between bacteremia and LF, but the phase-2 declines were more dramatic, declining for bacteremia compared to a plateau for LF.

Figure 2. Kinetics of bacteremia and lethal factor in 23 cynomolgus macaques with variable progression.
Bacteremia (Bact) in (cfu/mL) (A) and total lethal factor (LF) in (ng/mL) (B) over the course of infection in 23 cynomolgus macaques with inhalation anthrax. 11 animals had higher early bacteremia/toxemia and shorter survival (fast progression) (red/orange/purple lines), and 11 animals had lower early toxemia and longer survival (slow progression) (aqua/green lines), and one survivor with low early toxemia (blue line, square symbols). Most animals had triphasic kinetics consisting of an initial rise (phase-1), plateau or decline (phase-2), and final rise to terminal (phase-3). Bacteremia and LF in 7 animals with fast triphasic kinetics (C) and (E) and 4 animals with monophasic kinetics, a single rapid rise, (D) and (F), respectively. Bacteremia and LF in 11 animals with slow progression and survivor, (G) and (H), respectively. The last time point for 22) C59618 that died at 8.4 days (8.4D) and the survivor, 23) C58174, which declined to less than the limit of detection (LOD) at the end-of-study (EOS, 14-days/336 hours) are not to scale. For bacteremia (bact), non-quantifiable results of low positive were assigned a value of 6 and negative at 3 cfu/mL. Bacteremia and LF below LOD (x-symbol). Boxes represent the broad range of bacteremia in phase-2 (G) and narrow range of LF levels during phase-2 (H).

Disease progression. So, with higher early bacteremia and LF for the 11 animals with shorter survival time (faster progressing) and lower levels for the 11 animals with longer survival times (slower progressing), these early biomarker levels may distinguish subsequent progression. Separating these two groups, we show that of the 11 faster progressing animals, 7 had a triphasic kinetics of bacteremia and LF (Fig 2C, E), and 4 had monophasic progression, where bacteremia and LF appeared to have a single stage that increased directly from detection to terminal time (stage-3), unbroken by a plateau/decline (Fig 2D, F). The speed of progression meant that terminal plasma samples were not obtained for LF (or any toxin measurement) (Fig 2E, F). However, terminal measurements for bacteremia were available and provided evidence of the final rise to terminal (Fig 2 C, D). In animals with fast progression, end-of-phase-1 bacteremia and LF levels were significantly higher than in slow progression and the phase 2 plateaus were short in length, only 6 to 12 hours, compared to 24 hours and longer for animals with slow progression.

In the 11 non-survivors with slower progression, almost all had a triphasic kinetics of bacteremia and

LF (Fig 2 G,H). In phase-1, LF increased to lower levels at the end-of-phase-1 (Fig 2H). In these animals,

phase-2 provided a stable feature, with LF levels that varied by less than one order of magnitude from

lowest at 4.8 ng/mL to highest at 41.5 ng/mL across all animals and time points (boxed area) (Fig 2H).

Conversely, phase-2 bacteremia varied over 4-orders of magnitude, from 1.76E+05 cfu/mL to low '+' and

was even non-detectable at several time points in the animal that survived to the end-of-study (Fig 2G).

For other toxins, phase-2 for PA and LTx had less variability (similar to LF) and EF and ETx had more

variability (similar to bacteremia) (S3 Fig). The final phase-3 rise in LF and bacteremia was rapid and to

high levels for most animals. Those that did not reach high terminal bacteremia of 10^7-10^9 cfu/mL, or

high LF, were either euthanized, for which timing may vary, or were determined to have died from

meningitis rather than sepsis.

The progression of toxemia and bacteremia for the one animal that survived to the end of the study

and one animal that survived to 8.4 days were similar for bacteremia out to 144 hours and LF out to 108

hours. Both animals had the lowest but positive bacteremia in phase-2, but the survivor had some

negative points later (Fig 2G). The survivor resisted the pressures of toxemia and infection, whereas in

the non-survivor, resistance was overcome.

All toxins and bacteremia: kinetics in individual animals. A complete list of all toxin levels for each

animal at each time point is included in a separate file (S1 File) and bacteremia is included in S2 File. All

toxins and bacteremia were graphed together for all 23 individual animals, numbered by survival time

(Fig 3). Due to the speed of progression and hematological changes in the latest hours of anthrax,

terminal plasma samples for toxin measurements were not available in 17 animals, all 11 with short

survival and 6 with longer survival (Fig 3, animals 1-16, 19). However, whole blood for bacteremia was

collected at terminal stage, allowing visualization of kinetic trends in the final hours of progression.

Figure 3. Anthrax toxins and bacteremia during inhalation anthrax in individual cynomolgus macaques.
Total PA, PA83, LF, EF, LTx and ETx (ng/mL) and bacteremia (cfu/mL) in 11 animals with fast progression (numbered
1-11), 11 with slow progression (12-22), and the survivor (23). Phase-1 (P1), phase-2 (P2) and phase-3 (P3) are
indicated when present. Blue vertical dashed lines indicate the point separating the phases; the end-of-P1 (EOP1)
that ends the P1 rise and begins the P2 plateau and the end-of-P2 (EOP2) that ends P2 and begins P3. Black arrows
indicate the time of symptom onset. Survival time-days (D), hours (h). Black rectangles at the end-of-phase-1 show
how toxin levels are convergent (lower differences between highest toxin PA and lowest toxin ETx) in animals with
shorter survival or divergent (higher differences between PA and ETx) in animals with longer survival. Red
rectangles in phase-3 in animals with longer survival show convergent levels at terminal infection. Though units for
toxins (ng/mL) and bacteremia (cfu/mL) are not directly comparable, both were graphed on a similar scale (10-
orders of magnitude) for comparison of dynamic changes, orders of magnitude. Aqua horizontal dashed line at 1
ng/mL toxin concentration and 1.0E+05 cfu/mL bacteremia. Dynamic changes of bacteremia trended most closely
with EF and ETx. Low positive culture (+) graphed at 6 cfu/mL and negative culture (-) at 3 cfu/mL. Less than the
limit of detection (<LOD).

The toxin/bacteremia profiles of the 11 animals with shortest survival (fast progression) included

four with monophasic progression with an initial rise in phase-1 and a continued rise in bacteremia at

terminal stage (Fig 3, animals 1, 2, 6, 7). Animal 1 only had toxins measured out to 36 hours post-challenge and therefore, didn't reach levels as high as the other three monophasic animals with toxins measured at 42 hours (animal 2) and 48 hours (animals 6, 7). Terminal stage bacteremia measured after the last toxin samples, reached high levels of 10^8 to more than 10^9 cfu/mL. In the other seven animals with fast progression, toxin levels only showed the phase-1 increase and a short phase-2 plateau/decline (6 to 12 hours). However, a third stage was evident with the phase-3 increase in bacteremia, also to high levels (animals 3-5, 8-11).

Kinetic profiles for the 11 non-survivors with longer survival (slow progression) were triphasic with one exception discussed below. Three phases were observed for all toxins, even in the six animals missing terminal toxemia (Fig 3, animals 12-16, 19). These 6 showed the phase-1 increase, the phase-2 plateau, and the final rise in phase-3 approaching terminal. The changes in bacteremia in the final few hours showed a continued rise in four (animals 12, 13, 15, 19), and a decline in two (animals 14, 16). For these two, changes in the internal environment, hypoxia, or other conditions near the terminal stage may have inhibited further replication of the bacilli. Animal 20 had a terminal low positive (+) bacteremia in the presence of high toxemia and was excluded. It was presumed to be a failed test since all other animals with high toxemia had high bacteremia.

Overall, trends were consistent in all animals. The detection of PA83 was sporadic indicating that PA63 was the predominant form of PA circulating in cynomolgus macaques. The kinetic trends were similar for bacteremia and all toxins, LF, LTx, EF, ETx, and PA. However, phase-2 declines in EF and ETx were more dramatic, similar to declines in bacteremia, whereas PA, LF, and LTx tended to plateau rather than decline in phase-2. The similar trends occurred whether the kinetics were monophasic with one continuous rise, or triphasic, with the rise-plateau/decline-rise. All toxins followed the same general pattern, with two exceptions. Animal 11 had a mixed triphasic kinetics with phase-2 declines for EF, ETx and bacteremia, while PA, LF, and LTx levels did not appear to plateau but continued to rise, albeit more slowly than in phase-1 (Fig 3, 11). Animal 21 had a long phase-2 plateau to terminal for all toxins, while only bacteremia started to rise in phase-3. The pathological cause of death in animal 21 was meningitis rather than sepsis.

Potential relationship with survival time. As seen above, LF and bacteremia rose to higher levels early in the 11 animals with fast progression. As ordered by survival time, there appeared to be an association between early toxin levels and subsequent survival time. Early toxin levels and bacteremia, for example, at the end-of-phase-1 (black box), were higher in animals with shorter survival and lower in those that survived longer. Using the horizontal line at 1 ng/mL toxin concentration and 1.0E+05 cfu/mL bacteremia as a gauge, you can see that at the end-of-phase-1 (first rise), toxins and bacteremia trended lower with longer survival. Another trend was the magnitude and length of the phase-2 plateau, with

higher concentrations and shorter duration in animals with short survival and lower concentrations and longer duration with longer survival. This indicated that early toxin levels appeared to be associated with subsequent survival time. This association was explored in detail below.

Relationship of toxins to each other. In every animal, total PA, once positive, was the most abundant toxin, with PA>LF>LTx>EF>ETx (Fig 3). In animals with longer survival, the ranges of these toxins during phase-2 were more divergent, with 4- to 5-orders of magnitude between the concentrations of PA (highest) and ETx (lowest) and most divergent in animals 16-23 (Fig 3, black boxes). In phase-3, all toxins increased rapidly and converged (Fig 3, red boxes). In contrast, in animals with shorter survival, toxins reached higher levels and converged much earlier, approaching or at the end-of-phase-1 (Fig 3, animals 2-11). Lower toxin levels were associated with overall divergent toxin levels and high toxin ratios and higher toxemia with convergent toxin levels and lower toxin ratios.

2.4   Characterization of toxins, bacteremia, and toxin ratios stratified by phase as defined by toxemic profiles.

2.4.1 Phase-1.

Toxemia in the early Incubation period. The earliest time points at 18- and 24-hours post-challenge were collected before earliest symptoms at 29 hours post-challenge. LF was positive in 12 animals by 18 hours post-challenge and in all 23 by 24 hours. Combined 18-to-24-hour median (interquartile range-IQR) LF was 0.025 (0.013–0.115) ng/mL (n=35). EF was positive in 5 animals at 18 hours and 16 at 24 hours, at 0.00021 (0.0014-0.00007) ng/mL (n=21). Other toxins and bacteremia were not detected at these early time points in sufficient numbers for assessment. These early phase-1 levels were similar for animals with fast and slow progression (Fig 4C, Phase-1).

Figure 4. Stage-dependent biomarker levels. Lethal factor levels in animals with fast and slow progression, and survivor, at the end-of-phase-1 (A) and 48 hours (B). Box plot is for median and quartiles, error bars for minimum and maximums, excluding outliers, median levels and p-values included for Wilcoxon rank sum test. (C) LF, EF levels (upper panel), and LF/EF ratio (lower panel), during earliest detection in phase-1 (P1), at the end-of-phase-1 (EOP1), subsequent phase-2 (P2), and phase-3 (P3) for fast progression (left panel) and slow progression (right panel). Lines connect the medians and error bars give quartiles for each stage. Red dashed line represents the LF threshold and blue line the EF threshold for phase-2. P-values included for testing differences in toxin levels and toxin ratios between phases. Black font includes all parameters unless another color font is shown for a specific parameter. Black rectangle shows similarity of low LF/EF ratios at the EOP1 for fast progression and P3 for slow progression.

End-of-phase-1.The end-of-phase-1, also the beginning of the phase-2 plateau, was readily apparent in all but the four animals with monophasic progression (Fig 3). In these four, the phase-1 rise continues to terminal bacteremia, corresponding to the late-fulminant stage-3 (phase-3 without an observable phase-2). By the end-of-phase-1, all toxins and bacteremia, except for the unprocessed PA83, were positive in all animals. The timing to reach the end-of- phase-1 ranged from 30 to 60 hours post-challenge. Levels at the end-of-phase-1 were higher in the fast progression group, than in the slow

progression group, and the survivor (Table 5 and Fig 4A). The differences were also observed at a

specific time point near the end-of-phase-1, at 48h (Fig 4B). For either feature, the kinetically defined

end-of-phase-1, or a timed collection at 48 h, higher toxemia at this early stage was associated with a

faster course of infection and a shorter survival time. In addition to LF, end-of-phase-1 levels of all toxins

and bacteremia were significantly higher in fast progression compared to slow (Table 5). Higher toxemia

at the end-of-phase-1 in fast progression had lower toxin ratios and lower toxemia had higher ratios.

Differences between end-of-phase-1 ratios were significant for LF/EF and PA/ETx (Table 5). LF/LTx and

EF/ETx trended lower for fast progression but the differences were not significant. PA/LF did not fit the

trend and was similar for fast and slow progression at the end-of-phase-1. Individual animal

measurements at the end-of phase-1 (or within 12 hours when later toxin samples were not available)

for all toxins (including PA83), toxin ratios, and bacteremia, are included in S1 Table.

Table 5. Stage-dependent biomarker levels.

Parameter	End-of-Phase-1 (Beginning-of-Phase-2)			All of Phase-2				Phase-3 (≤12 hours from terminal)	
	Fast (n=10)[10]	Slow (n=11)[11]	Survived (n=1)[1]	Fast (n=7)[15]	Slow (n=11)[52]	Survived (n=1)[10]	Slow Phase-2 Threshold# (n=11)[52]	Fast (n=9)[9] 7.2(6.8–10.2)-hours	Slow (n=10)[11] 4.4(0–7.1)-hours
Total-PA (ng/mL)	620 (328–1447)	133 (54.2–200)[c]	33.9	326 (199–1189)	137 (67.4–205)[a]	34.6 (26.2–41.3)	342	509 (308–1477)	8547 (813–34638)[d]
Total LF (ng/mL)	138 (54.9–326)	23.8 (15.6–26.3)[b]	11.1	200 (98.1–366)	20.2 (13.9–26.1)[a]	6.7 (5.6–9.8)	35.8	200 (66.5–337)	1754 (171–7996)[f (ns)]
Lethal Toxin (ng/mL)	54.7 (19.5–188)	8.6 (4.6–10.3)[b]	3.25	139 (50.9–245)	7.38 4.51–10.3)[a]	1.3 (0.89–2.0)	18.9	97.8 (25.7–192)	1799 (92.9–7991)[e]
Total EF (ng/mL)	22.2 (2.7–42.8)	0.17 (0.064–0.66)[a]	0.040	2.68 (1.8–34.9)	0.172 (0.042–0.47)[a]	0.025 (0.0074–0.040)	1.10	20.7 (5.6–37.75)	201 (6.5–797)[e (ns)]
Edema Toxin (ng/mL)	3.4 (0.51–9.1)	0.0057 (0.0020–0.15)[b]	0.0023	0.663 (0.294–7.1)	0.035 (0.0048–0.095)[a]	0.0028 (0.0013–0.0046)	0.312	2 (0.62–11.9)	54.8 (2.9–272)[d]
Bact (cfu/mL)	4.8E+06 (1.2E+06–7.6E+06)	1.1E+04 (5.6E+03–6.2E+04)[a]	6.4E+03	2.6E+05 (6.3E+04–7.2E+06)	4.9E+03 (7.1E+02–1.4E+04)[a]	2.4E+02 (5.3E+00–1.2E+03)	1.6E+05	1.3E+06 (2.2E+05–3.4E+06) 0h-Term (n=11) 6.3E+08 (4.0E+08–8.8E+08)	6.7E+06 (3.9E+05–9.7E+07)[f (ns)] 0h-Term (n=10) 4.4E+07 (1.2E+06–2.1E+08)[c]
PA/LF Ratio	4.8 (2.9–7.1)	5.6 (3.4–7.9)[g (ns)]	3.1	2.9 (1.4–3.8)	7.0 (4.4–8.8)[a]	5.3 (2.9–6.9)	2.5	3.1 (1.4–7.6)	4.3 (3.4–6.3)[f (ns)]
LF/LTx Ratio	2.4 (1.8–2.9)	2.7 (2.5–5.2)[f (ns)]	3.4	1.8 (2.4–1.4)	2.6 (2.3–3.8)[b]	5.0 (4.4–6.6)	1.7	2.2 (1.5–2.7)	1.20 (1.0–1.8)[d]
LF/EF Ratio	9.0 (4.4–18.2)	103 (49.2–270)[b]	278	31.9 (12.7–74.6)	127 (50.8–400)[b]	350 (234–761)	21.4	10.1 (3.7–33.8)	11.0 (8.6–22.8)[g (ns)]
EF/ETx Ratio	5.4 (4.2–12.3)	16.0 (6.0–30.7)[e (ns)]	17.4	4.5 (3.6–5.7)	5.5 (3.7–11.7)[f (ns)]	9.9 (6.8–16.7)	2.7	4.8 (3.5–8.8)	3.7 (2.6–4.3)[e (ns)]
PA/ETx Ratio	190 (148–615)	19,733 (2144–31,667)[c]	14739	323 (167–986)	4565 (1383–23,958)[a]	13,467 (8967–35804)	506	171 (118–733)	198 (86.6–338)[g (ns)]

Triphasic kinetics of toxemia is defined by LF levels that increase to the end-of-phase-1, a plateau/decline in phase-2, and a final rapid increase in phase-3. Median (lower quartile–upper quartile) are given for fast (n=11) and slow (n=11) progression groups, and the animal that survived (animal 23, C58174) at the end-of-phase-1, all points making up phase-2, and phase-3 (available measurements within 12 hours of terminal). The survivor did not have phase-3. Toxin ratios were included for PA/LF, LF/EF, LF/LTx, EF/ETx and PA/ETx (showing the span from highest- to lowest-level toxin). PA83, not consistently positive, was excluded. Of 23 animals, all but one animal (fast) had an end-of-phase-1 sample. Phase-2 was evaluated as an entire period. Numbers of animals included in each measurement (n) with the superscripts for the number of measurements eg (n=10)[10] included in the statistics for each parameter and phase of infection. With several points per animal for phase-2 with slow progression (n=11)[52], except for ETx (n=11)[51]. The limits of phase-2 for slow progression, the upper 95th percentile (%) for toxins and bacteremia and lower 95th percentile for toxin ratios, was included for evaluation as a threshold for exiting phase-2 (critical threshold for entry to phase-3). P-values are from Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test in JMP, for differences between fast vs slow progression. Letter superscripts indicate p-values where, a (p≤0.0001), b (p≤0.001), c (p≤0.01), d (p≤0.05), e (p≤0.1), f (p≤0.5), g (p≤1.0). Alpha level set at 0.05 indicating significant differences were observed for superscripts a-d, but e-g were not significant (ns).

2.4.2 Phase-2.

The phase-2 plateau/decline varies in levels and length, ranging from 6 to 12 hours in faster progressing anthrax to more than four days in animals with slower progression (Fig 2 and 3). The end-of-phase-1 is also the beginning of phase-2. Therefore, the differences at the end-of-phase-1 continued during phase-2, though only briefly in fast-progression, with significantly higher levels of all toxins and bacteremia for the 7 animals with phase-2 in fast progression, compared to phase-2 in the 11 animals with slow progression (Table 5). Phase-2 toxin ratios were lower in fast progression compared to slow progression. The differences in all ratios were significant except for EF/ETx. In the one survivor (animal 23), phase-2 toxin levels and bacteremia were even lower and toxin ratios higher (except for PA/LF), than in animals with slow progression.

Phase-2 critical thresholds for entry to phase-3. In slow progression, phase-2 LF levels varied less than one order of magnitude for the entire phase-2 period in all 11 animals (Fig 2H). This represents a period of relative stability that seems to be sustained only over a narrow range of LF. As such, it also represents a period where relatively small increases in LF may move infection to the final stage 3. Median, interquartile ranges and upper (95%) and lower (5%) confidence intervals characterize this stable period in slow progression. The upper 95% interval of phase-2 toxemia is like an upper confidence limit. Numbers above this limit fail the criteria for being classified or included in the phase-2 plateau (for these animals and this study). Therefore, the upper limit represents a potential threshold for phase-2, above which an animal has exited phase-2 and entered phase-3. For toxin ratios, the lower 95% confidence limit applies. The thresholds for all toxins and ratios are included (Table 5) and were used to determine the timing of entry to phase-3 below.

2.4.3 Phase-3.

Stage-3, late-fulminant anthrax, is the stage where cure is the most unlikely. The remaining survival time after reaching this stage can be as short as a few hours and usually no longer than one day (48). Phase-3, as defined by toxin kinetics, is the final rise during the final hours of terminal infection as seen for each animal (Fig 3). Both toxemic phase-3 and clinical stage-3 represent the final hours of survival. Characterization of phase-3 requires consideration of two main points. One point is the speed of this stage which resulted in relatively few samples collected for toxin measurements and few at terminal times. Therefore, to characterize phase-3 for toxins which lack terminal samples, we chose to include any measurements for time points collected within 12 hours of terminal time. The second point is that for animals with fast progression, the kinetic features are compressed within the last 12-to-24 hours (Fig 3, animals 1-11). As such, for animals with fast progression, points within 12 hours of terminal may include those at the end-of-phase-1 or phase-2. Bacteremia, which did have terminal measurements, was characterized two ways; 1) with the same time points as available for toxins and 2) with only the final terminal time points (0 hours before terminal).

With the limitations described above, phase-3 toxemia was compared between animals with fast

and slow progression (Table 5 and Figure 4C). Available phase-3 samples for fast progression were

collected at 7.2 (6.8–10.2) hours before terminal and earlier than those for slow progression at 4.4 (0–

7.1) hours before terminal. Phase-3 toxin levels and bacteremia were higher for animals with slow

progression than fast progression for all points within 12 hours of terminal, but the differences were not

significant except for PA and ETx (Table 5). Of the toxin ratios only LF/LTx was significantly lower in slow

progression than fast progression. With rapid changes during this stage, these differences may simply be

an artifact of the differences in collection times. To support this, we compared bacteremia at final

terminal collection times, which was significantly higher in animals with fast progression than in those

with slow progression (Table 5). Of the significant changes in ratios, LF/LTx had the lowest ratio in

phase-3, approaching 1.0, indicating that LTx nearly equals total LF and 100% existing in complex with

PA63.

Overall, for stage progression, all toxins and bacteremia increase from first detection to the terminal

stage, whereas all toxin ratios (except PA/LF) declined from earlier stages to terminal phase-3. PA/LF

was the only toxin ratio to deviate from this pattern. PA/LF did not change consistently through all the

stages. These trends, increasing toxemia and declining ratios through the phases may be used to define

early and intermediate stages, with the phase-2 thresholds indicating the transition to late-stage

anthrax.

Comprehensive staging with anthrax progression. Figure 4C summarizes four aspects of these three

phases, early phase-1, the end-of-phase-1, subsequent phase-2, and phase-3. LF, EF, and LF/EF ratios are

representative of differences between phases and between fast and slow progression. In early phase-1,

LF and EF levels, and LF/EF ratios, were similar between fast and slow progression with low levels and

high ratios. From early phase-1 to the end-of-phase-1, there were significant increases in LF and EF

levels and decreases in LF/EF ratios in both groups, but to higher levels and lower ratios in animals with

fast progression. At the end-of-phase-1, most points in animals with fast progression were above the

phase-2 thresholds indicated for LF and EF, whereas all points in animals with slow progression were at

or below the thresholds. LF/EF ratios at the end-of-phase-1 in fast progression were low and similar to

those at phase-3 in slow progression. For fast progression, LF levels did not change from the end-of-

phase-1, through phase-2, and phase-3. Thresholds were already exceeded and only a short time

followed. EF levels declined significantly from the end-of-phase-1 to phase-2, then increased from

phase-2 to phase-3. The changes in EF between these phases also resulted in inverse changes in the

LF/EF ratio. For slow progression LF and EF levels increased from early phase-1 to the end-of-phase-1,

and LF/EF ratios declined significantly. There were no significant changes between the end-of-phase-1

and phase-2, whereas between phase-2 and phase-3 LF and EF levels increased, and LF/EF ratios

declined significantly.

2.5 Relationship of toxemia and time.

2.5.1 Time to reach phase-2 threshold and time from threshold to terminal.

The relationship between phase-2 toxin levels and the time to reach the toxin thresholds was calculated for each animal for all toxins and bacteremia. The survivor never even reached the phase-2 mean so was excluded. Animals with fast progression reached the thresholds at 38.3±7.4 hours and those with slow progression at 78.7±14.1 hours (Fig 5A). Thus, on average, the threshold was reached in half the time in the 11 animals that had shortest survival times compared to the 11 animals with longer survival times. Most of the animals in the fast progression group exceeded the phase-2 threshold by the end-of-phase-1 and levels of most toxins remained above it throughout their short phase 2 plateaus (when present). After reaching the threshold, the time to terminal was remarkably similar for all animals, with 21.0±7.3 hours for fast and 20.4±7.3 hours for slow progression. These calculations were consistent for all biomarkers. This suggests that the time to reach critical toxin thresholds is variable but once it is exceeded, the course is rapid and similar.

Figure 5. Relationship of toxemia and time. (A) Time in hours (h) from exposure to reach the phase-2 (P2) threshold and time from threshold to terminal. The 95th percentile of phase-2 for all toxins and bacteremia in animals with slow progression represent an upper threshold for exiting phase-2 and entry to phase-3 (Table 5). The time to reach this threshold was calculated for individual animals and means for the number (n) animals for fast and slow progression. Error bars represent the standard deviation (SD). The overall mean±SD for all toxins and bacteremia combined for fast and slow progression is included above the bars. (B) Relationship between LF levels and survival time (days). Mean log_{10} concentrations and standard deviations as error bars for total LF over the time post-challenge (hours-h) for animals that died/euthanized at 1.9-3.0 days (n=10), 3.1 to 4.0 days (n=5), 4.1 to 5 days (n=4) and 5.1 to 6 days (n=2), and for one animal at 8.4 days and survivor to end-of-study (End). Final time points for the C59618 at 8.4 days and for C58174 the survivor at end-of-study (14 days) were included together (End). Horizontal lines shown for median phase-2 LF (dashed grey) and LF phase-2 threshold (red dotted line). The black rectangle for LF at 60 h showed mean log_{10} LF graphed for mean subsequent survival time (60-h to terminal) (inset), fitted with a power regression, indicating the inverse relationship of early LF levels with subsequent survival time.

2.5.2 Relationship between LF levels and survival time.

Our results for the fast and slow progression groups showed that animals with faster progression reached critical thresholds of toxin levels earlier and died sooner than those with slow progression. However, the time-to-death for animals with slow progression varied from 3.8- to 14-days. The relationship between LF levels and the time-dependent interval to death was demonstrated by grouping animals by survival time (Fig 5B). LF levels in animals surviving 1.9- to 3.0-days (n=10) reached the LF threshold first. Those surviving 3.1 to 4.0 days (n=5) reached the threshold second and the pattern continued with fewer animals and longer survival times reaching critical levels later. LF levels in the animal with the longest survival remained well below the phase-2 median until 108 hours, and in the animal that survived to the end of the study, LF levels remained below the phase-2 median throughout

the entire course of infection. At 60 hours there was a negative relationship between LF levels and subsequent survival time. This relationship will be characterized in detail in the future. The pattern observed was strongest for LF but was present for all toxins and bacteremia (S4 Fig). Separation by survival time showed the relationship between toxin levels and survival time and the reliability with which exceeding the phase-2 threshold was followed by a short interval to death.

2.5.3 Long progression of inhalation anthrax.

The toxemia profiles for animal 23 that survived to the end of the study and animal 22 that survived 8.4 days were very similar with nearly identical for LF in these two animals out to 108 hours, both below the means for phase-2 (Figure 5B). Toxins were even lower in the non-survivor at 96 hours. By 108- to 120-hours toxins start to diverge. In the non-survivor. EF and ETx approached the phase-2 threshold at 120 hours, and LF by 144 hours (S4 Fig). PA and bacteremia remained below the mean in both animals out to 144 hours (the last scheduled sample before terminal). In the final sample, all toxins and bacteremia were non-detectable for the survivor and all toxin levels were high for the non-survivor.

3. Early hematology associated with time and progression.

Samples were collected for hematological parameters through 72 hours in challenge group-1 and 144 hours in challenge group-2, prohibiting full comparison of hematology in all animals beyond 72 hours. Comparison of hematology was further limited to 48h because only two of 11 animals with fast progression had later measurements, prohibiting comparisons beyond 48h. All or most animals had measurements on day -7, 24-, 36- and 48-hours post-challenge, so these four time points were assessed for both changes with time and differences between fast (high early toxemia) and slow (low early toxemia) progression groups and the survivor. There were no combined effects of time and progression on early hematology. All hematology measurements are included in S3 File.

Changes in early hematology with time. Changes during early infection were significant ($p \leq 0.05$) for many hematological parameters (Figure 6). P-values for time overall (TO) are included. There were significant increases through 48 hours in parameters associated with innate immunity, neutrophils, neutrophil%, neutrophil/lymphocyte (NL) ratio, NL% ratio, and white blood cells (WBC). Monocytes, monocytes%, large unstained cells, basophils, basophil%, eosinophils and eosinophil percentage increased at 24 hours and/or 36 hours, then declined at 36 hours and/or 48 hours. Lymphocytes and lymphocyte percentage declined from 36 hours to 48 hours. Parameters associated with red cells and oxygenation, hemoglobin, hematocrit, and red blood cells (RBC) declined significantly through 48 hours. These changes were observed for both fast and slow progression. Other parameters did not change significantly over time.

Figure 6. Early hematology during inhalation anthrax. Means and 95% confidence intervals graphed from Day -7 to 48 hours(h) post-challenge for fast progression (n=11, n=9 at 48 hours), slow progression (n=11), and survivor (n=1). Differences between animals with fast and slow progression at individual time points were determined by one-way ANOVA. P-values ≤0.10 were included in black font and p-values ≤0.05 in red font. All means, confidence intervals and p-values are included in Table 6. JMP fit model was used to test the effect of hematology with time (day -7, 24 hours-h, 36h and 48h) and progression (fast vs slow). P-value for time overall (TO) and progression overall (PO) is given. Basophils (Baso), eosinophils (Eos) large unstained cells (LUC), monocytes (Mono), neutrophils (Neu), lymphocytes (Lymph), neutrophil lymphocyte ratio (NL Ratio), white blood cells (WBC), red blood cells (RBC), hemoglobin (Hgb), hematocrit (Hct), corpuscular hemoglobin concentration mean (CHCM), mean corpuscular hemoglobin (MCH), mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration (MCHC), platelets (PLT), mean platelet volume (MPV), mean corpuscular volume (MCV), red cell distribution width (RDW).

Differences between early hematology with progression. Considering the speed with which some animals hit the late stage, differences at any one or more early time points may influence progression. Differences in hematology parameters between animals with fast progression and slow progression were determined at individual time points (Table 6) and overall. P-values for significant parameters at individual time points, and all p-values for progression overall (PO) for the entire period are included (Fig 6). For progression overall, monocyte% was significantly higher in slow progression than fast progression (Fig 6). Conversely, red cell distribution width (RDW), corpuscular hemoglobin concentration mean (CHCM), and mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration (MCHC) were higher in fast progression than slow, approaching significance (p ≤ 0.1) for the entire early period (p ≤ 0.0921) (Fig 6). These parameters and others were significantly higher at individual time points (Table 6 and Fig 6). Innate immune parameters were higher in animals with fast progression than slow; specifically, monocyte% on day -7, and monocyte count and white blood cells at 24 hours. Platelets were also higher in slow progression, approaching significance at 24 hours and 48 hours. CHCM was significantly higher in fast progression than slow progression at 24- and 48 hours and approached significance at 36 hours. RDW was significantly higher in fast progression than slow progression and 36 and 48 hours and approached significance at day -7 and 24 hours. Compared to all non-surviving animals, with both fast and slow progression, the survivor had higher lymphocytes, lower NL ratios, among the highest WBC count, exceptionally high RBC, hemoglobin, and hematocrit, higher MCV, and low MCHC and CHCM (Fig 6 and Table 6).

Table 6. Early hematology in cynomolgus macaques with inhalation anthrax.

Parameter	Day -7 Fast (n=11)	Day -7 Slow (n=11)	Surv	p-value	24 hours Fast (n=11)	24 hours Slow (n=11)	Surv	p-value	36 hours Fast (n=11)	36 hours Slow (n=11)	Surv	p-value	48 hours Fast (n=9)	48 hours Slow (n=11)	Surv	p-value
Baso (10e3/µL)	0.046 (0.024–0.067)	0.054 (0.032–0.075)	0.080	0.576	0.092 (0.023–0.161)	0.155 (0.085–0.224)	0.090	0.1965	0.082 (0.057–0.106)	0.089 (0.065–0.114)	0.15	0.6657	0.083 (0.039–0.128)	0.093 (0.052–0.133)	0.09	0.7476
Baso%	0.373 (0.258–0.488)	0.409 (0.294–0.524)	0.60	0.647	0.764 (0.243–1.28)	1.03 (0.507–1.55)	0.50	0.4639	0.446 (0.377–0.514)	0.509 (0.441–0.577)	0.60	0.185	0.367 (0.270–0.464)	0.364 (0.276–0.451)	0.30	0.9617
Eos (10e3/µL)	0.117 (0.0595–0.175)	0.188 (0.130–0.246)	0.260	0.0851	0.184 (0.100–0.267)	0.186 (0.102–0.269)	0.35	0.9747	0.309 (0.116–0.502)	0.306 (0.114–0.499)	0.38	0.9835	0.104 (0.023–0.186)	0.082 (0.008–0.155)	0.06	0.6689
Eos%	1.06 (0.424–1.70)	1.77 (1.13–2.41)	1.70	0.118	1.45 (0.817–2.07)	1.25 (0.626–1.88)	2.00	0.659	2.13 (0.693–3.56)	1.95 (0.521–3.39)	1.7	0.8608	0.656 (0.042–1.27)	0.473 (-0.082–1.03)	0.20	0.6479
LUC (10e3/µL)	0.036 (0.017–0.054)	0.050 (0.031–0.069)	0.040	0.270	0.045 (0.025–0.064)	0.062 (0.043–0.081)	0.070	0.1995	0.060 (0.036–0.084)	0.081 (0.057–0.105)	0.12	0.2132	0.046 (0.020–0.071)	0.060 (0.037–0.083)	0.02	0.3847
LUC%	0.327 (0.212–0.443)	0.409 (0.294–0.524)	0.30	0.307	0.355 (0.242–0.467)	0.409 (0.297–0.521)	0.40	0.4816	0.382 (0.231–0.532)	0.491 (0.340–0.641)	0.5	0.2978	0.233 (0.053–0.414)	0.318 (0.155–0.481)	0.10	0.4735
Lymph (10e3/µL)	5.01 (3.48–6.54)	5.11 (3.57–6.64)	9.46	0.930	5.99 (4.52–7.47)	6.22 (4.74–7.69)	9.35	0.8239	6.05 (4.29–7.81)	6.53 (4.77–8.29)	10.2	0.6928	3.75 (2.41–5.09)	3.75 (2.54–4.97)	5.35	0.9948
Lymph%	43.2 (33.5–53.0)	42.0 (32.2–51.8)	63.3	0.857	46.4 (38.6–54.2)	41.3 (33.5–49.2)	53.4	0.3501	38.8 (27.6–50.1)	39.3 (28.0–50.6)	45	0.9532	21.9 (12.8–31.0)	19.2 (10.9–27.5)	18.1	0.6521
Mono (10e3/µL)	0.346 (0.181–0.512)	0.561 (0.396–0.726)	0.350	0.0701	0.497 (0.359–0.635)	0.696 (0.558–0.835)	0.480	**0.0462**	0.660 (0.483–0.837)	0.663 (0.486–0.840)	0.83	0.9821	0.538 (0.268–0.807)	0.766 (0.523–1.01)	0.51	0.2028
Mono%	2.90 (2.00–3.79)	4.41 (3.52–5.30)	2.40	**0.0216**	3.84 (3.09–4.59)	4.63 (3.88–5.38)	2.70	0.1352	4.07 (2.97–5.18)	3.89 (2.78–5.00)	3.6	0.8112	2.82 (1.79–3.85)	3.25 (2.31–4.18)	1.7	0.5299
Neu (10e3/µL)	6.09 (4.45–7.73)	6.11 (4.47–7.76)	4.76	0.982	5.97 (4.65–7.29)	7.59 (6.27–8.91)	7.15	0.0851	10.4 (5.62–15.2)	10.1 (5.33–14.9)	11.0	0.9281	17.2 (9.29–25.1)	19.1 (11.9–26.2)	23.53	0.7187
Neu%	52.1 (41.6–62.6)	51.0 (40.4–61.5)	31.8	0.874	47.2 (39.0–55.5)	51.4 (43.1–59.6)	40.9	0.4651	54.1 (41.3–67.0)	53.9 (41.0–66.7)	48.6	0.9762	74.0 (63.8–84.3)	76.4 (67.1–85.7)	79.6	0.7216
NL Ratio	1.46 (0.769–2.14)	1.63 (0.947–2.32)	0.503	0.707	1.17 (0.066–1.67)	1.49 (0.986–1.99)	0.765	0.3542	2.76 (0.19–5.33)	2.80 (0.231–5.37)	1.08	0.9813	7.48 (-1.32–16.3)	9.74 (1.78–17.7)	4.398	0.6937
NL% Ratio	1.45 (0.767–2.14)	1.63 (0.947–2.32)	0.502	0.704	1.17 (0.663–1.67)	1.49 (0.986–1.99)	0.766	0.355	2.76 (0.198–5.31)	2.79 (0.236–5.35)	1.08	0.9828	7.48 (-1.44–16.4)	9.81 (1.75–17.9)	4.398	0.6883
PLT (10e3/µL)	404 (351–457)	452 (399–505)	418	0.192	415 (356–475)	489 (430–549)	421	0.0826	382 (311–453)	451 (380–522)	370	0.1687	364 (302–426)	440 (384–497)	357	0.0718
MPV (femtoL)	8.77 (7.81–9.74)	8.42 (7.46–9.38)	8.10	0.593	8.92 (8.10–9.74)	8.74 (7.92–9.55)	8.00	0.746	9.1 (8.09–10.1)	8.76 (7.76–9.77)	9.0	0.6273	9.27 (8.34–10.2)	8.55 (7.71–9.38)	8.1	0.2407
WBC (10e3/µL)	11.6 (9.69–13.6)	12.1 (10.1–14.0)	15.0	0.753	12.8 (11.3–14.3)	14.9 (13.4–16.4)	17.5	**0.046**	17.6 (13.6–21.6)	17.8 (13.8–21.8)	22.7	0.9387	21.7 (14.1–29.3)	23.8 (16.9–30.7)	29.56	0.6736
CHCM (g/dL)	32.1 (31.4–32.8)	31.4 (30.7–32.1)	30.5	0.199	32.5 (32.0–33.0)	31.7 (31.2–32.2)	30.8	**0.0448**	32.1 (31.6–32.6)	31.4 (30.9–31.9)	30.8	0.0772	32.6 (32.1–33.0)	31.9 (31.5–43.2)	31.4	**0.0455**
Hbg (g/dL)	12.8 (12.3–13.3)	12.4 (11.9–12.9)	14.4	0.294	12.1 (11.6–12.6)	12.0 (11.5–12.5)	14.1	0.753	11.9 (11.4–12.3)	11.9 (11.4–12.3)	13.7	0.9775	11.4 (10.7–12.2)	11.7 (11.0–12.4)	13.3	0.5534
Hct%	40.6 (38.6–42.7)	40.2 (38.1–42.2)	48.0	0.755	38.7 (36.9–40.5)	38.9 (37.1–40.7)	47.6	0.8791	37.9 (36.2–39.6)	38.4 (36.7–40.1)	45.9	0.6802	36.1 (33.5–38.8)	37.6 (35.1–40.0)	44.2	0.4188
MCH (pg)	24.3 (23.6–24.9)	23.7 (23.0–24.3)	24.0	0.178	23.8 (23.1–24.5)	23.4 (22.7–24.1)	23.5	0.379	24.1 (23.5–24.7)	23.7 (23.0–24.3)	23.7	0.3269	23.8 (23.1–24.5)	23.5 (22.9–24.1)	23.4	0.4909
MCHC (g/dL)	31.5 (31.0–32.0)	30.9 (30.3–31.4)	30.1	0.109	31.3 (30.7–32.0)	30.9 (30.3–31.6)	29.7	0.3892	31.3 (30.8–31.8)	30.9 (30.4–31.4)	29.9	0.2525	31.6 (31.2–31.9)	31.2 (30.8–31.5)	30.2	0.1435
MCV (femtoL)	77.1 (75.2–79.1)	76.7 (74.7–78.6)	79.9	0.744	76.1 (74.1–78.0)	75.7 (73.7–77.6)	79.2	0.7752	77 (75.4–78.6)	76.6 (75.0–78.2)	79.3	0.6938	75.4 (73.4–77.3)	75.4 (73.6–77.1)	77.6	0.9842
RBC (10e6/µL)	5.27 (5.04–5.50)	5.24 (5.01–5.47)	6.01	0.833	5.09 (4.88–5.31)	5.14 (4.92–5.35)	6.01	0.7655	4.93 (4.72–5.14)	5.02 (4.81–5.23)	5.8	0.5467	4.8 (4.45–5.14)	4.98 (4.67–5.30)	5.7	0.4047
RDW%	14.1 (13.7–14.6)	13.6 (13.2–14.1)	14.5	0.0879	14.1 (13.7–14.5)	13.6 (13.1–14.0)	14.0	0.0933	14.1 (13.6–14.5)	13.4 (13.0–13.9)	14.0	**0.0366**	14.5 (14.0–14.9)	13.6 (13.2–13.9)	13.8	**0.0039**

Means and 95% confidence intervals from Oneway ANOVA, assuming equal variances, for 11 animals with fast progression, 11 animals with slow progression, and one animal that survived to the end-of-study, on on day -7, 24-, 36-, and 48-hours post-challenge. P-values ≤0.10 are underlined and p-values ≤0.05 are in bold font. Basophils (Baso), eosinophils (Eos) large unstained cells (LUC), monocytes (Mono), neutrophils (Neu), lymphocytes (Lymph), neutrophil lymphocyte ratio (NL Ratio), white blood cells (WBC), red blood cells (RBC), hemoglobin (Hgb), hematocrit (Hct), corpuscular hemoglobin concentration mean (CHCM), mean corpuscular hemoglobin (MCH), mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration (MCHC), platelets (PLT), mean platelet volume (MPV), mean corpuscular volume (MCV), red cell distribution width (RDW).

These results suggest that hematological differences may make for a more or less robust innate

immune response (defense) or render the animal more or less susceptible to the destruction of red cells

and associated physiologic consequences of anthrax (resilience). Collectively, the results suggest that

higher levels of innate immune parameters (such as monocytes and WBC) at early time points (such as

day -7 and 24 hours), were associated with slower progression and lower levels with fast progression.

Conversely, higher levels of parameters associated with disparately sized red blood cells, or hemolytic

anemia (CHCM, MCHC and RDW) favored fast progression and lower ones slow.

590   **4. Pathology**

Assessment of terminal stage pathology can provide evidence of the impact of the toxemia and

bacteremia measured during infection. Animals underwent complete necropsy, and gross and

microscopic observations were recorded. Microscopic observations were assigned a semi-quantitative

severity score as follows: minimal for a minimally detectable lesion (Grade 1), mild for an easily

visualized lesion (Grade 2), moderate for a lesion affecting larger areas of the tissue (Grade 3) and

marked for lesions affecting maximum areas of the tissue (Grade 4). Microscopic observations attributed

to anthrax in this study included the presence of bacteria and other pathologic changes, such as fibrin,

hemorrhage, necrosis, and inflammation (Table 7).

Table 7. Microscopic and gross pathology summary.

Group	Animal ID	Bact Brain	Bact Kidney	Bact Liver	Bact Lung	Bact BLN	Bact MnLN	Bact MsLN	Bact Spleen	Total Bact	Brain Fibrin	Brain Infl	Brain Hem	Brain Nec	Kidney Infl	Kidney Hem	Kidney Nec	Liver Infl	Liver Hem	Liver Nec	Liver Leuk	Lung Fibrin	Lung Infl	Lung Hem	Lung Nec	Lung Edema	BLN Fibrin	BLN Infl	BLN Hem	BLN Nec	BLN Edema	Mand Fibrin	Mand Infl	Mand Hem	Mand Nec	Mes Fibrin	Mes Infl	Mes Hem	Mes Nec	Mes Edema	Spleen Fibrin	Spleen Infl	Spleen Hem	Spleen Nec	Thymus Edema	Gross codes	Gross incidence	Total Path
Fast	1) C58282	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	2	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	4	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	1	-		0	13
Fast	2) C59261	2	2	2	2	2	0	0	4	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	-		0	5
Fast	3) C60763	1	2	2	2	2	1	1	3	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	2	-		0	13
Fast	4) C58176	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	4	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	1	0	2	0	1	4	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	2	-		0	19
Fast	5) C58003	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	3	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	2	-		0	10
Fast	6) C59656	1	1	2	2	2	2	1	3	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	-		0	12
Fast	7) C58214	1	1	1	2	1	0	1	2	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	3	3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	2	-		0	16
Fast	8) C60732	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	-		0	7
Fast	9) C59669	0	2	1	1	1	1	2	4	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	-		0	6
Fast	10) C57161	1	2	2	0	1	1	2	2	11	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	-		0	8
Fast	11) C58170	0	2	2	3	1	0	2	4	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	2	-	A	1	14
	% affected	**81.8**	**100**	**91.7**	**91.7**	**100**	**66.7**	**75.0**	**100**		0	0	9.1	0	9.1	0	18.2	0	0	0	**90.9**	0	63.6	27.3	0	45.5	0	27.3	36.4	72.7	27.3	0	0	9.1	9.1	0	9.1	9.1	36.4	0	45.5	**63.6**	9.1	**90.9**	-		9.1	
	Mean Fast	0.91	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.3	0.7	0.9	**3.1**	11.7	0	0	0.09	0	0.09	0	0.18	0	0	0	**1.4**	0	0.82	0.27	0	0.91	0	0.27	**0.91**	1.5	0.45	0	0	0.09	0.09	0	0.09	0.09	0.36	0.00	0.73	**1.1**	0.09	**1.6**	-		0.1	**11.2**
	Std Dev	0.54	0.52	0.69	0.79	0.47	0.65	0.70	0.83	2.5			0.30	0.0	0.30		0.40				0.67		0.87	0.47		1.3		0.47	1.4	1.1	0.82			0.30	0.30		0.30	0.30	0.50	0.00	0.90	1.0	0.30	0.67	-		0.3	4.4
Slow	12) C59619	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	3	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	B	1	16
Slow	13) C58135	0	2	1	3	1	2	1	4	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	-		0	8
Slow	14) C57793	0	1	2	1	1	1	1	4	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	1	0	2	-		0	13
Slow	15) C58167	0	2	1	3	2	1	2	4	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	3	2	0	2	0	2	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	-		0	23
Slow	16) C57998	1	1	2	2	1	0	0	2	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	-		0	15
Slow	17) C59617	2	1	2	3	2	2	1	4	17	0	2	2	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	2	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	-	C	1	22
Slow	18) C58159	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	5	2	2	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	-	C	1	21
Slow	19) C58122	0	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	2	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	3	0	2	-		0	19
Slow	20) C57997	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	2	4	4	0	0	1	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-		0	23
Slow	21) C58156	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	3	2	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	0	0	0	1	2	2	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	2	-	C, D	2	33
Slow	22) C59618	0	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	4	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	3	0	1	2	0	0	-	A,E,F	3	25
	% affected	**45.5**	**81.8**	**81.8**	**81.8**	**81.8**	**81.8**	**90.9**	**90.9**		18.2	27.3	27.3	9.1	9.1	0.0	36.4	27.3	9.1	45.5	90.9	36.4	63.6	45.5	0	54.5	9.1	45.5	**90.9**	**100**	36.4	18.2	36.4	27.3	36.4	9.1	9.1	0.0	27.3	9.1	36.4	**81.8**	27.3	**45.5**	N/A		45.5	
	Mean Slow	0.64	1.1	1.4	1.7	1.1	1.1	1.1	**2.4**	10.5	0.27	0.6	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.5	1.3	0.4	0.9	0.7	0.0	0.7	0.1	0.6	**1.7**	2.5	0.7	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.8	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.6	0.1	0.5	**1.5**	0.3	**0.8**	N/A		0.7	**19.8**
	Std Dev	0.81	0.70	0.81	1.10	0.70	0.70	0.54	1.5	4.6	0.65	1.12	0.93	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.5	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.9	0.9	0.0	0.8	0.3	0.8	1.3	1.0	1.0	0.6	0.5	0.5	1.2	0.3	0.3	0.0	1.1	0.3	0.8	1.0	0.5	1.0	N/A		1.0	6.7

Microscopic observations of bacteria (left) and other anthrax-related pathology were recorded for each animal. Organs evaluated microscopically in all animals included brain, kidney,
liver, lung, spleen, bronchial lymph nodes, mandibular lymph nodes, and mesenteric lymph nodes. Thymus was evaluated in animal 20) C57997 due to the presence of a gross lesion.
Parameters scored semi-quantitatively included bacteria and other microscopic pathology, including fibrin, hemorrhage, inflammation, necrosis, and edema. Severity scores were
minimal (grade 1, yellow), mild (grade 2, orange), moderate (grade 3, red) or marked (grade 4, dark red). A pathology score of 0 was included for microscopically normal tissues. The
percent (%) of animals affected (incidence), and the mean severity scores with standard deviations (Std Dev) were calculated by group for fast and slow progression. A total score for
bacteria (Total Bacteria) and a total score for other pathology findings (Total Pathology) was calculated for each animal. Group mean and Std Dev for Total Bacteria and Total Pathology
scores were calculated for fast and slow progression groups. The single surviving animal 23 (C58174) did not have any pathologies consistent with anthrax and is not included. **Bold** font
indicates a high percentage (%) of animals affected and/or the highest one or two mean scores. **Bold underlined** fonts indicate parameters where the % affected or means were notably
different between fast and slow progression. Cell type-specific necrosis involved lymphocytes in lymph nodes, lymphoid follicles in spleen, hepatocytes in liver, and renal tubules in
kidney. Gross pathology findings (far right column) were coded as: A) 10-15 milliliters red fluid (ascites), B) 10 mL clear fluid in thymus, C) dark or red discoloration of meninges, brain,
D) multiple dark liver foci, E) multiple pale liver foci, F) multiple enlarged, dark bronchial lymph nodes.

Bacteremia and sepsis. Based on histopathological evaluation, both fast and slow progression animals

had a high incidence (67 – 100%) of bacteria in organs and associated vascular spaces (Table 7). Overall,

the spleen represented the greatest bacterial reservoir, with 21 animals affected and a severity grade of

3 or above in many of the animals (8 among fast progression and 5 among slow progression animals).

Thus, the highest group mean severity scores for bacteria were in the spleen, averaging 3.1 in the fast

progression group and 2.4 in the slow progression group, followed by a mean severity score of 1.7 in the

lungs in both groups. The only notable difference in bacterial tissue distribution between fast and slow

progression animals was the presence of bacteria in brain in 81.8% of animals with fast progression and

only 45.5% of animals with slow progression.

All but three of 23 animals in this study presented with features of fatal sepsis, as defined by *B.*

anthracis dissemination to non-lymphoid organs including kidneys, liver, and lungs. Of the three animals

without apparent sepsis, one (animal 23, C58174) survived *B. anthracis* challenge with no bacteria visible

in any tissue. Two others, animals 18 (C58159) and 21 (C58156), were in the slow progression group and

only had bacteria visible in the brain and lymphoid organs. Both animals had macroscopic observations of

dark or red meninges at necropsy that correlated with microscopic fibrin, inflammation, and/or

hemorrhage. Additionally, seizures were observed in animal 18 prior to euthanasia, and terminal

bacteremia measurements in animal 18 and terminal toxin measurements in animal 21 were lower than

those seen in animals with sepsis (Fig 3, animal 18, 21). Together, these findings supported that death in

these two animals was a consequence of meningitis rather than sepsis. A third animal in the slow

progression group, animal 17 (C59617), also had macroscopic and microscopic evidence of meningitis but

with concurrent sepsis, disseminated bacteria to all organs, and high terminal toxemia (Fig 3, animal 17).

Histopathology. Among the tissues collected and processed for histopathological analysis, liver, lung,

bronchial lymph nodes and spleen had highest incidence of anthrax-related microscopic lesions, including

edema, fibrin, inflammation, hemorrhage, and necrosis (Table 7). The incidence and severity of

microscopic changes in the kidney, liver, and lung were comparable between fast and slow progression

animals. Lesions in other organs often had higher incidence and/or severity among slow progression than

fast progression animals, including brain fibrin, inflammation, hemorrhage, and necrosis; liver

inflammation, hemorrhage, and hepatocellular necrosis; bronchial lymph node edema, inflammation,

hemorrhage, and lymphocyte necrosis; mandibular lymph node fibrin, inflammation, hemorrhage, and

lymphocyte necrosis; mesenteric lymph node lymphocyte necrosis; and splenic inflammation. Among fast

progression animals, a higher incidence and mean severity of splenic lymphoid necrosis was noted as

compared to slow progression animals.

Despite most fast progression animals having bacteria visible in the brain, there was little associated

tissue change (fibrin, inflammation, or necrosis) and only one animal with minimal hemorrhage. As

previously noted, tissue changes in the brain of animals with slow progression were primarily limited to the three animals with meningitis, and meningitis was not seen in any animal that died less than 105 hours (4.4 days) post-challenge.

To facilitate global comparison between fast and slow progression animals, Total Bacteria scores were calculated for each animal by adding the individual microscopic severity scores for bacteria in all examined organs. Total Pathology scores were calculated for each animal by adding the individual microscopic severity scores for all anthrax-related lesions (except for bacteria) in all examined organs as well as the incidence of any anthrax-related gross lesions. Group mean (±standard deviation) Total Bacteria scores were 11.7±2.5 for fast progression and 10.5±4.6 for slow progression. Conversely, group mean Total Pathology scores were 11.2±4.4 for fast progression and 19.8±6.7 for slow progression, demonstrating higher pathology overall for animals with longer survival times and thus longer toxin exposure.

The single animal surviving to end-of-study (day 14) had non-specific pathology that included minimal chronic active inflammation in the lung and pale liver nodules, thought to be from a prior unrelated infection, with no microscopic evidence of anthrax.

Discussion

Anthrax progression. Historically, clinical inhalation anthrax was described as a biphasic disease, with two stages of 'illness', early-prodromal and late-fulminant (3, 48). The first stage lasted several days and was followed by either direct progression to the late-fulminant stage or a period of improvement before entry to the late stage. During a 1957 outbreak, Plotkin et al described five inhalation anthrax cases where after initial symptoms, one patient continued to work and two of the patients' conditions were briefly 'improved' (48). However, after onset of the final stage in four patients, they only survived 7 to 25 hours. The 2001 inhalation anthrax cases allowed refinement of the clinical description to include three stages: 1) the early-prodromal, 2) intermediate-progressive, and 3) the late-fulminant stage (7, 33, 34). The kinetics of anthrax toxins determined previously in five rhesus macaques showed that PA, LF, LTx, EF, and the poly-glutamic acid capsule kinetics were triphasic, with a rise, a plateau (or decline), and a final rise: potentially comparable to the three human clinical stages of anthrax (22, 23, 45, 46). This study, with 23 cynomolgus macaques, allowed the first determination of all major anthrax toxins collectively, along with quantitative bacteremia, through all stages of anthrax progression. The larger numbers of animals (cynomolgus macaques) in this study yielded variations in progression compared to that seen in rhesus macaques.

Two different patterns of toxemia emerged in the cynomolgus macaques in this study. In 11 animals the toxin levels and bacteremia reached higher levels early, at 30-to-48 hours, compared to the other 12

animals in the study, which had much lower levels during this period. The 11 animals with high early

toxemia/bacteremia happened to have the fastest disease progression and earliest deaths. In contrast,

the animals with lower early toxemia survived longer. Thus, the kinetics defined two distinct survival

groups, one with high early toxemia and fast progression and one with lower early toxemia and slow

progression. This allowed characterization and comparison of both types of infection progression in a

way that has not been done before. Some differences might be related to the higher spore dose per body

weight in fast progression, but the differences were not statically significant. Furthermore, there was no

significant correlation between LD_{50}/kg and time-to-death, or LD50/kg and early toxin levels or

bacteremia (data not shown). Nonetheless, there was a higher average LD_{50}/kg for animals with fast

progression. This prompts consideration, if feasible, for tailoring animal study design to target the spore

dose according to an animals' body weight.

Animals with slow progression exhibited a rise/plateau/rise, a triphasic kinetics, similar to the five

rhesus macaques described previously. The triphasic kinetics of slow progression can be aligned with the

3 clinical stages (Fig 7), similar to that suggested previously (49). Phase-1 begins with early toxemia, LF

and EF, appearing during the incubation period, before symptom onset. In the later part of phase-1,

other toxins, LTx, ETx, PA, and bacteremia appear, along with early symptom onset in some animals.

Toxins continue to rise to intermediate levels at the end-of-phase-1 (Table 5, median levels of 23.8 ng/mL

for LF). This period is analogous to the early-prodromal clinical stage. The end-of-phase-1 begins phase-2

where toxins levels plateau (PA/LF/LTx) or decline (EF/ETx/bacteremia) for an extended period,

analogous to the intermediate-progressive stage 2. LF levels throughout phase-2 were stable, ranging less

than one order of magnitude over all time points and animals as described. Characterizing the entire

stable phase-2 period allowed determination of the upper 95% confidence limits of this range,

establishing a phase-2 threshold, above which phase-2 has ended and phase-3 commenced. After the

plateau, toxins started to rise again and animals reached the phase-2 threshold (35.8 ng/mL for LF),

marking entry to phase-3 with rapid accumulation of toxemia and rapid demise, corresponding with the

late-fulminant stage.

Figure 7. Proposed relationship of toxemia-defined progression with clinical staging. The triphasic (TP) kinetics of
anthrax toxemia with slow progression in non-human primates mirrors the clinical staging algorithm. A brief
incubation period is followed by 1) the early-prodromal stage 1 with the onset of non-specific symptoms which
coincides with the early rise in toxemia to the end-of-phase-1 (EOP1). This is followed by 2) the intermediate-
progressive stage which coincides with the plateau/decline in toxemia of variable duration that continues to the
end-of-phase-2 (EOP2) when the critical toxemic thresholds of phase-2 are exceeded. Exceeding the threshold(s)
coincides with entry to 3) the late-fulminant stage with a rapid decline in clinical stability and rapid rise in
toxemia/bacteremia. In fast progression this occurs over a compressed timeline during which the phase-2 plateau
may be observed (fast triphasic-TP) or may not be observed (fast monophasic-MP) kinetics. The dependence of
progression on toxemia can be seen with the shorter time-to-threshold for fast progression than slow and the
similar time from threshold-to-terminal for both. Progression may be reoriented from an apparent time/clinical-
dependent staging to suggest possible toxin/clinical-dependent staging.

For fast progression, the kinetics was predominantly triphasic with a rapid rise, shorter phase-2 plateau, and final rapid rise. A few animals appeared to be monophasic, with the phase-2 plateau skipped, or not discernable within the early 6-hour collection times of this study. The kinetics of all animals with fast progression occurred within a compressed time frame (Fig 7). As such, they reached higher levels at the end-of-phase-1 (Table 5, 138 ng/mL for LF), already above the phase-2 threshold of 35.8 ng/mL for LF and for all toxins and bacteremia, indicating early entry to phase-3. In monophasic progression the end-of-phase-1 and end-of-phase-3 are virtually synonymous. Passing the critical phase-2 toxin thresholds early led to rapid death, even before symptoms were observed in two of the animals.

An early study by Smith and Keppie identified a bacteremia threshold above which antibiotic treatment failed (11). This bacteremia threshold represents a point of no return beyond which an animal will not recover with antimicrobial treatment. In clinical anthrax the late-fulminant stage 3 has the lowest cure rate, 97% fatality for a century of inhalation anthrax cases (5). Thus, it is analogous to the point of no return. Stage-3 is analogous to phase-3 in this cynomolgus macaque model, indicating the phase-2 bacteremia/toxemia thresholds for entry to phase-3 may also predict stage-3 based treatment failures. When toxemia went above the phase-2 threshold, toxins levels rapidly increased leading to the terminal phase. The mean time to reach the thresholds and enter phase-3 was on average, twice as long in slow progression as fast. In contrast, the mean time from threshold to terminal was nearly identical for both fast and slow progression at 20-21 hours, consistent with the duration of stage 3 described in clinical cases (3, 7, 48, 50). The findings support reorientation of the progression scheme from a time-dependent to a toxin-dependent one (Fig 7). Animals that rapidly pass the critical threshold in phase-1 show a compression (or elimination) of the intermediate-progressive phase-2. The 11 animals with the shortest survival times had an accelerated progression due to early high toxemia. Evaluation of toxemia by survival time supports the critical phase-2 threshold of toxin levels in the cynomolgus macaque model, since no matter the time post-challenge, once the threshold is passed, terminal stage-3 follows rapidly and within about 21 hours (Fig 5).

The fast progression observed in almost half of the animals is a challenging problem since it leaves little time for successful treatment after symptoms. A rapid course has been suggested by evidence from the Sverdlovsk outbreak for which dates of both symptom onset and death were available for 50 cases (51). The time from onset to death was on the same day for one case and within one day for 8 cases, consistent with the faster progression in this study. For all other cases, the time from symptom onset and death were 2 days and longer, which is more consistent with slow progression in our cynomolgus macaque study. A systematic review for a century of inhalation anthrax reported four cases with 1.5- to 1.6-days following initial symptoms (5). Though the incubation periods and exposure doses are not certain, the rapid death following onset suggest the possibility of rapid progression in humans following inhalation of *B. anthracis* spores, especially the weaponized spores in the Sverdlovsk cases.

Other factors. Although, the average spore dose per kg was higher for fast progression than slow,

there was no correlation of LD_{50}/kg with early toxemia (data not shown). Vasconcelos *et al.* also observed

'a tendency' for cynomolgus macaques receiving higher spore doses to die more quickly than those that

received lower doses (37). Early hematology showed trends related to time or progression. There were

time-dependent changes over the first 48 hours, increases in innate immune cells, such as white blood

cells and neutrophils, and declines in red blood cells, hemoglobin, and hematocrit. These occurred in

both fast and slow progression, consistent with those seen in other animal models (52, 53). However,

there were key differences between fast and slow progression for some parameters. Means for innate

immune markers, especially, monocytes, were lower in fast progression than slow progression. Of course,

this means that monocytes were higher in slow progression, perhaps offering more defense in these early

stages. Red cell distribution width (RDW) and corpuscular hemoglobin concentration mean (CHCM) were

higher in animals with fast progression and lower in animals with slow progression. High RDW is

associated with deficiencies of iron, B-12, or folate and can be due to macrocytic anemia, underlying

chronic inflammation, or infection (54). Studies in middle aged and older adults showed that even

modestly elevated RDW was associated with an increased risk of all-cause mortality (55). Elevated RDW

was also associated with increased severity of sepsis (56, 57).

The anthrax toxins actions make the differences in these factors even more important. LTx is known

to cause anemia and has also been shown to suppress erythropoiesis, exacerbating the anemia, and

promoting progression (58). Hemoglobin and hematocrit have been shown to drop during clinical

inhalation anthrax and was observed here (59). In this study, the lone survivor, animal 23, had higher

early white blood cells, notably lymphocytes, but also had exceptionally elevated red blood cell count,

hemoglobin, and hematocrit (Fig 6). In contrast to animals with fast progression that had higher CHCM,

the survivor also had the lowest CHCM (and MCHC) of all animals. These hematological markers will be

further evaluated for their association with progression and outcome in future studies.

Two animals with long progression, animal 23 that survived and animal 22 that succumbed at 8.4

days, had very similar toxemic profiles, especially for LF. All toxins and bacteremia were well below the

phase-2 mean out to 108 to 120 hours, but eventually diverged with toxins increasing in the non-survivor

and declining to non-detectable in the survivor (Fig 5B and S4 Fig). There were some differences in these

animals that might have contributed to the final outcome. The LD_{50} spore dose was higher in the survivor

but when adjusted for weight was higher in the non-survivor (Table 1). Also, at 132 hours, the RBC count

was within normal limits (5.0 to 7.6 e^6/μL, Battelle report) at 5.24 e^6/μL in the survivor but was below

normal in the non-survivor (3.85 e^6/μL). The higher beneficial hematological features described above for

the survivor may have provided a better level of resilience against toxins and defense against the

organism for recovery.

Pathological factors associated with disease progression. Assessment of the degree of microscopic bacteria and other pathology at terminal-stage provides an assessment of the burden and impact of anthrax resulting from the varying toxemic progressions. The general findings were consistent with those described for cynomolgus macaques previously, with primary involvement in the spleen, bronchial lymph nodes, and lungs (37). Overall, animals with longer survival times and thus longer toxin exposure had a higher incidence and/or severity of pathologic findings but slightly lower severity of intralesional bacteria.

While both fast and slow progression groups had similar incidences of bacteria in the spleen, the greatest bacterial reservoir organ in this study, the mean severity of splenic bacteria was higher in animals with fast progression than slow progression. Splenic lymphoid necrosis was also seen in twice as many fast progression animals, and with twice the average severity, as compared to those with slow progression. Thus, both bacterial colonization and necrosis in the spleen were early to develop in the course of rapidly progressing anthrax. Conversely, microscopic lesions in other organs were often similar among all animals or had higher incidence and/or severity among slow progression animals. The latter category included bronchial lymph node lymphocyte necrosis and hemorrhage, suggesting that longer toxin exposure may allow for lesion development.

Although there were more fast progression animals with visible bacteria in the meninges than slow progression animals, they had little to no associated brain pathology. Studies have indicated that ETx plays a role in disrupting the blood brain barrier (BBB) function and LTx in promoting microbial BBB penetration (60). The higher early toxemia in fast progression may allow BBB penetration and penetration of bacilli, but death is rapid with little associated pathology. In animals with slow progression, the lower end-of-phase-1 and phase-2 toxemia may not facilitate penetration of the BBB quite as readily, but when bacteria did gain access to the brain, the longer low-level toxin exposure in phase-2 may have contributed to gross and microscopic fibrin accumulation, inflammation, and hemorrhage. These differences suggest the rapid sepsis of fast progression doesn't allow sufficient time for a tissue response in the brain, whereas the longer course in slow progression allows for longer toxin exposure resulting in meningitis and death. Notably, meningitis was only seen in animals surviving at least 105 hours post-challenge. More may be learned from later studies in cynomolgus macaques, which have included the analysis of toxin levels in terminal organ tissues to help understand differences in the organ pathologies observed.

Symptom onset biomarkers. LF, LTx, and EF were positive in all 23 animals at or before symptom onset, with LF the most abundant and EF the least abundant of these (Table 3). Although median PA levels at symptom onset were higher than LF, four animals were negative for PA. However, LTx (PA-LF) was positive (LOD of 0.0075 ng/mL) in these, indicating PA is present but below the PA detection limit (1.87 ng/mL) (Table 2). These four negative PA animals also had the earliest time of symptom onset of

about 30 hours. Six hours later, LF increased 5- to 10-fold, leading to a conversion of PA positivity in two animals at low ng/mL levels, but not enough for all to be above the LOD for PA. The important conclusion is that we have defined the range of levels of multiple toxins at symptom onset in this high dose exposure model. These may help guide development of point of care diagnostics.

Pre-symptom onset detection. Early diagnosis and treatment will improve the odds of surviving anthrax. With the analytical methods used in this study, LF was the best biomarker for pre-symptom onset detection. It was detected earliest and at higher levels than the next earliest detected biomarker, EF. In this study, LF and EF were detected before bacteremia and before symptom onset in every animal (Fig 1 and Table 3). We previously measured LF in human cutaneous anthrax in the absence of sepsis, and even after antibiotic treatment (61). In these cases, we presume that the LF detected is secreted locally from the site of infection, the cutaneous lesion, and is detected in circulation. Early detection of LF during inhalation anthrax, before bacteria are detectable in the blood, may originate from early events, such as germinating spores within macrophages (62).

Toxemia in the absence of bacteremia. As shown at pre-symptom onset, anthrax toxins are often present in the serum in the absence of detectable bacteremia. In this study, LF and EF were detected before bacteremia in all of the cynomolgus macaques. In a previous study with 5 rhesus macaques, LF also tested positive before bacteremia, and it continued to test positive throughout the course of infection (46). In that rhesus macaque study, bacteremia went from positive - to negative (during phase 2) in some animals - back to positive, while LF was positive at all time points. As described above, LF was detected in serum of patients with cutaneous anthrax; after up to 7 days of antimicrobial treatment, and often when swabs of the cutaneous lesion were negative for tests detecting the bacterium (61). Furthermore, LF was detected in serum and pleural fluid in two inhalation anthrax patients up to 11 days after initiation of antibiotic treatment when bacteria would no longer be detectable, and 5 days after antitoxin treatment. LF was also detected in an anthrax-like illness in a welder, caused by infection with *Bacillus tropicus* that produced anthrax toxins (in review). In this case, LF was detected in serum or plasma 11 days after antibiotics and in pleural fluid collected 38 days after antibiotics and two doses of antitoxin.

Stage dependent toxemia and the phase-2 threshold. We identified toxemia associated with specific stages (Phase-1, -2, and -3). In the earliest stages of infection, detection was limited to LF and EF. The detection of other toxins and bacteremia came at later stages of phase-1 or early phase-2. The analytic sensitivity of the catalytic toxin methods allowed LTx and ETx to be detected before total-PA, though at lower levels than the total toxins, LF and EF. Both LTx and ETx comprise a fraction of the available PA63 and signal the point when active toxin complexes begin to accumulate. The appearance of LTx at 30.5 hours closely coincides with the earliest detection of bacteremia at 30.0 hours (including bacteremia that

was below the LOQ and reported as a low '+') (Table 3). The appearance of ETx at 33.4 hours coincides

with the detection of low level but quantifiable bacteremia at 34.2 hours. This suggests that toxin

complexes (LTx and ETx) are detectable in blood at the same time as bacteremia. PA was detected later,

due in part to the higher detection limit, but also possibly due to the rate of cellular uptake of PA during

early stages, resulting in less PA in circulation. Though first detection of total-PA was latest, once positive,

it was the most abundant toxin; approximately 2.4-fold more abundant than LF at first positive PA. PA83

was only detected sporadically and was most consistently positive at high levels of total PA. This indicates

that PA83 is rapidly hydrolyzed and activated to PA63, early and at all stages, in all cynomolgus

macaques, as also seen in rhesus macaques (45). Therefore, PA83 detection by MS in these studies may

occur only when it is being secreted in high levels and has not yet had the time to be processed to PA63.

As such, any measures with PA83 are not useful in predicting anthrax stages.

Phase-2 of slow progression was the most important feature characterized here, since once it is

passed, death followed rapidly, irrespective of time. Phase-2 appeared to correspond with the

intermediate-progressive clinical stage where the host battles the organism and the effects of

intoxication begin to accumulate but have not yet surpassed host defenses. Of all the toxins, LF was the

most stable (least variable) during this period, with only one order of magnitude range, from 4.2 to 41.5

ng/mL, for all 11 animals and all 58 time-points comprising phase-2. Related toxins, PA and LTx, were also

less variable (S3 Fig). The level of stability of LF during phase-2 suggests the possibility that levels are

somewhat controlled, either by the host or organism (or both), held below the threshold until host

defenses are overcome and disease progresses to the rapidly fatal phase-3. Bacteremia and ETx were the

most variable during phase 2. Lower levels seen for ETx may be influenced more by the fluctuations in

bacteria and dynamics of intoxication during phase-2.

In phase-3, whether fast or slow progression, toxins and bacteremia increase rapidly after passing the

phase-2 threshold. So, any toxin levels or bacteremia that are higher than the thresholds suggest there

are less than 20 hours of life remaining. The higher the levels, the shorter the interval to death (Fig 5B). In

phase-1, lower toxin levels correlate with higher toxin ratios. Conversely, in phase-3 higher toxin levels

correlate with lower toxin ratios. This includes all ratios except PA/LF which doesn't change in a

consistent manner through the stages of progression. The threshold for LF/LTx is 2.5-5.2 in early stages

but declines to 1.7 at the phase-2 threshold and declines further to 1.2 at terminal. It was even as low as

1.0 (100% LTx) in some animals with high toxemia (Table 5). This indicates that most of the LF is present

as LTx at terminal stage.

Phase-2 threshold and the point of no return. In 1954, using intradermal _B. anthracis_ infection in the

guinea pig model, Smith and Keppie described a critical level for bacteremia, a point of no return, above

which animals died even after treatment had cleared the organism (11, 63). Animals recovered if treated

when bacteremia was 0.7 to 1.5x10^6 cfu/mL and died when it was greater than the critical level (3x10^6

cfu/mL). The threshold for bacteremia in cynomolgus macaques at 1.6E+05 cfu/mL was 20-fold lower

than that described in guinea pigs. This is not surprising for different models with different infection

routes. Smith and Keppie also described the relationship between the bacterial count in the blood and

the time-dependent interval to death. We observed a similar relationship in cynomolgus macaques, a

correlation of toxins and bacteremia with survival time. We also determined the phase-2 threshold for

entry to phase-3. Medical intervention is usually unsuccessful in the late-fulminant stage-3 (33)

(equivalent to phase-3), the phase-2 thresholds could represent the potential point of no return for

treatment failures.

Conclusions.

The assessment of all major anthrax toxins and bacteremia, along with hematology and pathology

allowed a comprehensive evaluation of the natural history of inhalation anthrax in the cynomolgus

macaque NHP model. We defined a triphasic kinetics of toxemia which could be aligned with the three

clinical stages of anthrax. This alignment for fast and slow survival groups indicated that anthrax

progression is toxin-dependent rather than time-dependent. Hematological fitness factors may influence

the disease course and will be evaluated in other studies. Lethal factor represented the most significant

indicator of anthrax progression with a remarkably invariable phase-2, such that a small increase

potentially advances infection to phase-3 and a relatively rapid death. Phase-2 thresholds identified,

represent a potential point of no return. Ongoing studies will test the critical thresholds for predicting

antimicrobial treatment failures. Future studies with combined antimicrobial and antitoxin treatment

may advance our understanding of anthrax in humans and when specialized treatments are most

efficacious.

____

Methods

Reagents. Materials and reagents were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St Charles, MO) except where

indicated. LF, PA83, and PA63 were obtained from List Biological Laboratories (Campbell, CA) and EF was

from Dr. Stephen Leppla' s laboratory NIH/NIAID as described (23). All other reagents, materials and

methods for anthrax toxin measurements were described previously (22, 23, 44, 45, 64).

Safety and quality. The animal exposure study was conducted in 2014 at Battelle Biomedical

Research Center (Columbus, OH) in a BSL3 secured laboratory registered with the Centers for Disease

Control and Prevention (CDC) for select agents and inspected by the Department of Defense and U.S.

Department of Agriculture. All requirements for select agent laboratories and handling of *B. anthracis*

were followed. Battelle performed all aspects of the animal study as well as sample analyses for

quantitative bacteremia and hematology as described in detail below. Samples sent from Battelle to the

CDC for analysis of anthrax toxins were filter sterilized and sterility confirmed prior to shipment. Sample

analysis at CDC was performed in a BSL2 laboratory and followed all safety requirements for handling

biological specimens. All personnel have full training required for safety and follow all general laboratory,

chemical and bloodborne pathogens procedures. Chemical hygiene plans are in place. All sample analyses

followed high quality procedures using validated methods and conducted in a CLIA-certified laboratory

following strict adherence of CLIA regulations. Battelle follows good laboratory practice guidelines as

available in their standard operating procedures and facility practices.

Animal study. The animal exposure study was conducted at Battelle (Columbus, OH), a Public

Health Service (PHS) Animal Welfare Assurance approved facility. The study protocol was approved by

the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) (Approved Protocol #3013) as required by PHS

policy following HHS, NIH, Office of Laboratory Animal Welfare principles. Work with animals followed all

safety and select agent guidelines described above. All aspects of the animal study protocols were

designed to minimize stress in the animals. CDC received study samples from Battelle for toxin analysis

and was not involved with any component of the animal protocol. Chief of CDC Animal Care confirmed

that the use that Battelle IACUC was sufficient.

Twenty-three *Macaca fascicularis* cynomolgus macaques (12 males, 11 females) from Covance, Inc.,

Alice, TX, weighing 3.1-4.9 kg prior to spore exposure, were confirmed to be healthy, negative for

tuberculosis, seronegative for Simian Immunodeficiency Virus, Simian T-Lymphotropic Virus-1, and

Macacine herpesvirus 1 and PCR negative for Simian Retrovirus 1 & 2. Animals were quarantined for 5

weeks in paired housing, then acclimated to single housing in the biosafety level 3 (BSL3) laboratory one

week before exposure.

This study was conducted in two challenge groups with the first exposures (Group-1) taking place in

November 2013 and the second in February 2014 (Group-2). Group-1 included 10 animals of which 8 (4

males, 4 females) were challenged and 2 (1 male, 1 female) were not challenged (naïve controls). In

Group-2, 15 CM (8 males, 7 females), which included the 2 controls from Group-1, were challenged.

Spore challenge exposures in this model were performed as described previously with a target dose of

200 median lethal dose (LD_{50}) *B. anthracis* Ames spores via head-only inhalation exposure, and

measurement of actual spore dose per animal by plethysmography (37, 42).

Animals were routinely monitored, and clinical signs recorded twice-daily pre-challenge and every

6±1 hours commencing at 12 hours post-challenge. The following clinical signs of anthrax were

monitored, anorexia, lethargy, respiratory distress, moribundity, abnormal activity such as recumbency,

weak, or unresponsive, as well as seizures or any other abnormal signs. Signs of symptoms recorded

included normal (N), hunched posture (HP), no stool (NS), soft stool (SS), diarrhea (DI), vomiting (V),

lethargic (L), seizures (SE), labored breathing (LB), wheezing (W), moribund (M), unresponsive (UR), prostrate (P). Animals found to be moribund were humanely euthanized. Time to symptom onset was the difference in time hours and minutes from challenge to the hours and minutes of first specific clinical sign described from the 6-hour monitoring during the post-challenge period. NS was not included as a specific sign since it was also described prior to exposure and was not specific.

Body temperatures for all animals including group-1 controls were monitored via an implantable programmable temperature transponder (IPTT-300 BMDS, Seaford, DE), one each between the shoulder blades and left hip. Temperatures were recorded daily from day -7 through 0 (before exposure) and every 6±1 hours post-challenge. The threshold for a significant increase in body temperature (SIBT) was previously established as the mean pre-challenge (or baseline) temperature plus 2 standard deviations (SD) of the pre-challenge temperature (47).

Sample collection. Samples collected for Group-1 included whole blood for quantitative bacteremia and plasma for toxins in EDTA tubes at -7 days pre-exposure (-7D) and post-exposure at 18-, 24-, 30-, 36-, 48-, 60-, 72-, 84-, and 96-hours and terminal sample when possible. Plasma sample collection was adjusted for Group-2 animals to include a 42-hour collection time and additional samples at 108-, 120-, 132-, and 144-hours and end of study (day 14). Whole blood for critical blood counts (CBC) (hematology) was collected in EDTA tubes for Group-1 animals at -7D, 18-, 24-, 30-, 36-, 48-, and 72-hours and for Group-2 at -7D, 18-, 24-, 30-, 36-, 48-, 72-, 84-, 96-, 108-, 120-, and 144-hours post-challenge.

Quantitative bacteremia. The concentration in colony forming units (CFU) of *B. anthracis* vegetative bacteria per mL of whole blood was determined by serial dilution, plating and colony enumeration as described previously (65). Briefly, 100 µL each whole blood sample was diluted in 900 µL phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), then serially diluted 10-fold in PBS up to 10^7. Then 100 µL of each sample and dilutions were plated in triplicate onto Tryptic Soy Agar, incubated at 37°C for 16-24 h. Mean colony counts from 25-250 cfu/mL, below the quantitative range, were approved for reporting by the Study Director and used here as reported. The quantitative LOD was 100 cfu/mL. Values down to 25 cfu/mL when reported were included. A result of '+' indicated that the mean colony counts for a dilution set (2 of 3 plates) was less than 10. For within group quantification, such as at symptom onset, values of '+' were assigned the qualitative bacteremia LOD of 6 cfu/mL (46) and negative samples were assigned a value at ½ the LOD, 3 cfu/mL.

Hematology. Hematology, CBC (whole blood) measurements were determined at Battelle with the Advia® 120 (Siemens, Deerfield, IL). Measurements included, white blood cell count and differential leukocyte count (absolute and percentage), hemoglobin, hematocrit, red blood cell count, mean corpuscular volume (MCV), mean corpuscular hemoglobin, mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration

(MCHC), corpuscular hemoglobin concentration mean (CHCM), red cell distribution width (RDW), platelet

count, mean platelet volume (MPV), neutrophil:lymphocyte ratio (N/L ratio).

Mass spectrometry (MS) methods for anthrax toxins. MS methods for anthrax toxins were

conducted at CDC. Validated methods for analysis of total-LF and LTx have been described previously (22,

44). Activity of EF monomer and ETx (PA$_{63}$-EF) are congruent and were analyzed for EF activity as

described (23). Analysis of total-PA and PA83 for select tryptic peptides in the PA20 and PA63 domains

was also performed as described (45). The limits of detection for all the anthrax toxin methods are

included in Table 2. Performance characteristics are detailed in the method publications (22, 23, 44, 45).

Anthrax toxin MS methods provide high sensitivity, specificity, and accurate measures of all anthrax

toxins (22, 45). Magnetic monoclonal antibody bead capture allows selective immunoprecipitation of

toxins, (Step 1), followed by endoproteinase activity of LF/LTx, adenylate cyclase activity of EF/ETx and

on-bead tryptic digest for PA (Step 2), and detection of LF/LTx and EF/ETx catalytic products and PA

tryptic peptides by isotope-dilution MS (Step 3). The detection of catalytic products of LF, LTx, EF and ETx

activity, facilitates signal amplification and enables exquisite analytic sensitivity. LC-MS/MS quantification

of specific PA tryptic peptides allows accurate quantification of both total-PA and PA83, and

determination of the amount of active PA63. These methods were used to measure toxins in cynomolgus

macaques throughout infection. Throughout this report, total LF is referred to as LF and the amount of LF

in complex with PA63 as LTx. Similarly, total EF is EF and in complex as ETx. Total PA is described as PA

and the individual components as PA83 or PA63.

Pathology. All cynomolgus macaques, including the survivor to the end of the study, underwent

complete necropsy with recording of gross observations. The brain, kidney liver, lung, bronchial,

mandibular, and mesenteric lymph nodes, spleen, and gross lesions were collected and preserved in 10%

neutral buffered formalin. Preserved tissues were trimmed, paraffin-embedded, sectioned to

approximately 5 microns in thickness, affixed to glass slides, and stained with hematoxylin and eosin for

brightfield microscopic examination by a board-certified veterinary pathologist. Microscopic findings

were graded semi-quantitatively using the following scale: minimal (grade 1) for a minimally detectable

lesion, mild (grade 2) for an easily visualized lesion, moderate (grade 3) for a lesion affecting larger areas

of the tissue and marked (grade 4) for lesions affecting maximum areas of the tissue. Group summary

incidence and average severity calculations were performed for fast and slow progression cohorts. Total

Bacteria scores were calculated for each animal by adding the individual microscopic severity scores for

bacteria in all examined organs. Total Pathology scores were calculated for each animal by adding the

individual microscopic severity scores for all anthrax-related lesions (except for bacteria) in all examined

organs as well as the incidence of any gross lesions in the animal.

Statistical Analysis and Reporting. Toxin levels for total LF (LF), LTx, total EF (EF) and ETx were

measured and reported in ng/mL. Total PA (PA) and PA83 were measured in pmol/mL and converted to

ng/mL. Calculations of total PA, PA63 and PA83 were determined as follows: In pmol/mL total PA minus

PA83 gives PA63 (pmol/mL). PA83 (83 kDa) and PA63 (63 kDa) pmol/mL value multiplied by unit adjusted

83 and 63 ng/pmol, respectively give ng/mL values each which were added to give total PA (PA63+PA83)

in ng/mL. Total PA is referred to as PA and any references to PA63 and PA83 are specified.

All calculations of mean, standard deviation, median and interquartile range (IQR), 95 percent

confidence intervals, and other analyses where reported were performed using standard equations in

Microsoft Excel or JMP®, Version 15, SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, 1989-2019. Levels of toxins and

bacteremia at specific time points or stages often varied by multiple logs and were skewed

(nonparametric). Median and interquartile ranges accurately represented the center of data and range.

Mann Whitney Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test (Wilcoxon/Kruskal-Wallis Rank Sum Test in JMP) was used to test

the probability that two populations are equal for toxin levels between animals with fast vs slow

progression (66). P-value (Prob>|Z|) is reported for the normal approximation test for the two groups (Z

test statistic. Alpha level set at 0.05.

For hematological parameters, time post-challenge was limited to 48h because only two animals with

fast progression had later measurements, prohibiting comparisons beyond 48h. This demonstrates early

changes and differences that may contribute to fast and slow progression. Oneway ANOVA was used to

compare differences in means between animals with fast and slow progression at specific time points.

JMP Fit model was used to test the effect of hematology over the time period day -7 pre-challenge, 24-,

36- and 48-hours and for progression (fast vs slow). P-value reported for each term was prob > |t| (t-

ratio) and for overall effect tests was prob > F (F-ratio). Alpha level set at 0.05

Progression determination and kinetics of toxemia. Animals fell into two groups defined by the

highest toxin levels and bacteremia reached by 48 hours. Toxemia/bacteremia was higher in 11 animals

that died early (fast progression) and were lower in 11 animals that survived longer (slow progression)

(n=11) and one animal that survived to the end of the study . In four of 23 animals the initial phase-1 rise

proceeded directly to terminal phase-3 (monophasic). The phases were primarily triphasic, consisting of

an initial rise (phase-1), plateau/decline (phase-2), and final rise (phase-3). Of all biomarkers measured,

LF appeared earliest and was the most consistent (least variable) biomarker during the phase-2 plateau.

Therefore, the kinetics of LF was used as the model to estimate the stages of each animal. This estimation

is limited by the collection time points. Bacteremia was used to evaluate the kinetics for missing toxin

measurements at terminal time points.

Phase-1 was defined by the time of first detection of LF during which it rises to a first peak, the end-

of-phase-1, before the plateau or decline. The end-of phase-1 was defined as the time point when

biomarker rise slowed or stopped and consequently begins phase-2. In phase-2 the phase-2 plateau

continued until the final rapid rise to terminal (phase-3). Phase-3 represents the end of the disease

course at (or near) death/euthanasia. Except for bacteremia, terminal toxin levels can only be estimated

'near' terminal since in each animal, final samples depended on the symptoms and time of euthanasia.

Also, unpredictability and speed of final progression sometimes meant end-stage plasma samples were

not available. A terminal whole blood sample for bacteremia was collected even when a plasma sample

was not.

Note that some animals were missing a sample collection related to a specific stage. Four animals had

no phase-2 (monophasic), of which one animal had no sample for toxemia after 36h (no terminal). Two

animals with long survival had a long collection gap between the sample prior to the terminal time and

terminal samples. Many were missing terminal plasma for toxins. For phase-3 terminal calculations, only

a sample measured ≤12h from the death/euthanasia time point were included.

Phase-2 and phase-2 threshold. In slow progression, the low variability of LF over the duration of

phase-2 (< 1-order of magnitude) allowed characterization of this stage as a whole. , Phase-2 was

characterized for all toxins, bacteremia, and toxin ratios and included all measurements for all time

points from the end-of- phase-1 to the end-of- phase-2 from all 11 animals (n=52, 51 for ETx). The

median, upper and lower quartiles, and 95% interval (upper limit) for toxins/bacteremia and 5% interval

(lower limit) for toxin ratios were determined in JMP. The phase-2 upper 95% intervals represent

potential critical toxin thresholds, which when exceeded signal departure from phase-2 and entry to

phase-3. Lower 95% interval applies to toxin ratios.

Time to threshold and time from threshold to terminal. The time to threshold was calculated

from a linear regression for the two time points between which the threshold fell for all animals with

available points. Animals with phase-2 levels within the typical standard error (≤10%) of the threshold for

LF and followed with lower levels for an extended phase-2, the threshold was determined not to have

been exceeded and was calculated at the later time when the final rise continued. Five animals were

excluded from the threshold calculations. For one animal with fast progression and one with slow

progression the threshold was not exceeded, but later (terminal) samples were missing so the time to

threshold could not be calculated for toxins (Fig 3, animal 1, 19). Animals 20 and 22 with slow progression

had large time-gaps in sample collection (32 and 58 hours) between the last sub-threshold level sample

and final/terminal samples, such that calculation of the time to threshold could not be estimated. The

survivor (animal 23) never exceeded the threshold. Two animals (Fig 3, animal 7, 10) were excluded from

calculations for PA and ETx because they were below the PA, ETx detection limit before the sample that

exceeded the threshold. An n=8 is indicated for the fast group for PA and ETx, versus n=10 for other

toxins. Mean time to threshold was calculated for 8-11 animals with fast progression and 8-9 animals

with slow progression (exact numbers-n in Fig 5). The time from threshold to terminal was determined by

subtracting the calculated time to threshold from the terminal time, estimating how long an animal lived

after reaching the threshold (time in phase-3).

Acknowledgements: This work was supported in part by Health and Human Services (HHS) Agencies: Biomedical Advanced Research and Development Authority (BARDA) and Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) – Center for Preparedness and Response (CPR). We are grateful to Greg Stark, Maya Sternberg, John Rees, and Susan Kuklenyik for statistical support and discussions.

References

1. Helgason E, Okstad OA, Caugant DA, Johansen HA, Fouet A, Mock M, et al. Bacillus anthracis, Bacillus cereus, and Bacillus thuringiensis--one species on the basis of genetic evidence. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2000;66(6):2627-30.
2. Goel AK. Anthrax: A disease of biowarfare and public health importance. World J Clin Cases. 2015;3(1):20-33.
3. Brachman PS. Inhalation anthrax. Ann N Y Acad Sci. 1980;353:83-93.
4. Friedlander AM. Anthrax. In: Zajtchuk R, editor. Textbook of Military Medicine: Medical Aspects of Chemical and Biological Warfare. 5. Washington, D.C.: Office of The Surgeon General; 1997. p. 467-78.
5. Holty JE, Bravata DM, Liu H, Olshen RA, McDonald KM, Owens DK. Systematic review: a century of inhalational anthrax cases from 1900 to 2005. Ann Intern Med. 2006;144(4):270-80.
6. Dixon TC, Meselson M, Guillemin J, Hanna PC. Anthrax. N Engl J Med. 1999;341(11):815-26.
7. Jernigan JA, Stephens DS, Ashford DA, Omenaca C, Topiel MS, Galbraith M, et al. Bioterrorism-related inhalational anthrax: the first 10 cases reported in the United States. Emerg Infect Dis. 2001;7(6):933-44.
8. Barakat LA, Quentzel HL, Jernigan JA, Kirschke DL, Griffith K, Spear SM, et al. Fatal inhalational anthrax in a 94-year-old Connecticut woman. JAMA. 2002;287(7):863-8.
9. Jernigan DB, Raghunathan PL, Bell BP, Brechner R, Bresnitz EA, Butler JC, et al. Investigation of bioterrorism-related anthrax, United States, 2001: epidemiologic findings. Emerg Infect Dis. 2002;8(10):1019-28.
10. Moayeri M, Leppla SH, Vrentas C, Pomerantsev AP, Liu S. Anthrax Pathogenesis. Annu Rev Microbiol. 2015;69:185-208.
11. Smith H, Keppie J. Observations on experimental anthrax; demonstration of a specific lethal factor produced in vivo by Bacillus anthracis. Nature. 1954;173(4410):869-70.
12. Collier RJ, Young JA. Anthrax toxin. Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol. 2003;19:45-70.
13. Liu S, Leppla SH. Cell surface tumor endothelium marker 8 cytoplasmic tail-independent anthrax toxin binding, proteolytic processing, oligomer formation, and internalization. J Biol Chem. 2003;278(7):5227-34.
14. Scobie HM, Rainey GJ, Bradley KA, Young JA. Human capillary morphogenesis protein 2 functions as an anthrax toxin receptor. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2003;100(9):5170-4.
15. Klimpel KR, Molloy SS, Thomas G, Leppla SH. Anthrax toxin protective antigen is activated by a cell surface protease with the sequence specificity and catalytic properties of furin. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 1992;89(21):10277-81.
16. Petosa C, Collier RJ, Klimpel KR, Leppla SH, Liddington RC. Crystal structure of the anthrax toxin protective antigen. Nature. 1997;385(6619):833-8.
17. Kintzer AF, Thoren KL, Sterling HJ, Dong KC, Feld GK, Tang, II, et al. The protective antigen component of anthrax toxin forms functional octameric complexes. J Mol Biol. 2009;392(3):614-29.

18. Mogridge J, Cunningham K, Collier RJ. Stoichiometry of anthrax toxin complexes. Biochemistry.
2002;41(3):1079-82.
19. Ezzell JW, Jr., Abshire TG. Serum protease cleavage of Bacillus anthracis protective antigen. J Gen
Microbiol. 1992;138(3):543-9.
20. Moayeri M, Wiggins JF, Leppla SH. Anthrax protective antigen cleavage and clearance from the blood
of mice and rats. Infect Immun. 2007;75(11):5175-84.
21. Panchal RG, Halverson KM, Ribot W, Lane D, Kenny T, Abshire TG, et al. Purified Bacillus anthracis
lethal toxin complex formed in vitro and during infection exhibits functional and biological activity. J
Biol Chem. 2005;280(11):10834-9.
22. Boyer AE, Gallegos-Candela M, Quinn CP, Woolfitt AR, Brumlow JO, Isbell K, et al. High-sensitivity
MALDI-TOF MS quantification of anthrax lethal toxin for diagnostics and evaluation of medical
countermeasures. Analytical and bioanalytical chemistry. 2015;407(10):2847-58.
23. Lins RC, Boyer AE, Kuklenyik Z, Woolfitt AR, Goldstein J, Hoffmaster AR, et al. Zeptomole per milliliter
detection and quantification of edema factor in plasma by LC-MS/MS yields insights into toxemia and
the progression of inhalation anthrax. Analytical and bioanalytical chemistry. 2019.
24. Duesbery NS, Webb CP, Leppla SH, Gordon VM, Klimpel KR, Copeland TD, et al. Proteolytic
inactivation of MAP-kinase-kinase by anthrax lethal factor. Science. 1998;280(5364):734-7.
25. Leppla SH. Anthrax toxin edema factor: a bacterial adenylate cyclase that increases cyclic AMP
concentrations of eukaryotic cells. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 1982;79(10):3162-6.
26. Baldari CT, Tonello F, Paccani SR, Montecucco C. Anthrax toxins: A paradigm of bacterial immune
suppression. Trends Immunol. 2006;27(9):434-40.
27. Mabry R, Brasky K, Geiger R, Carrion R, Jr., Hubbard GB, Leppla S, et al. Detection of anthrax toxin in
the serum of animals infected with Bacillus anthracis by using engineered immunoassays. Clin
Vaccine Immunol. 2006;13(6):671-7.
28. Kobiler D, Weiss S, Levy H, Fisher M, Mechaly A, Pass A, et al. Protective antigen as a correlative
marker for anthrax in animal models. Infect Immun. 2006;74(10):5871-6.
29. Suffredini DA, Cui X, Xu W, Li Y, Eichacker PQ. The Potential Pathogenic Contributions of Endothelial
Barrier and Arterial Contractile Dysfunction to Shock Due to B. anthracis Lethal and Edema Toxins.
Toxins (Basel). 2017;9(12).
30. Xie T, Auth RD, Frucht DM. The effects of anthrax lethal toxin on host barrier function. Toxins (Basel).
2011;3(6):591-607.
31. Warfel JM, Steele AD, D'Agnillo F. Anthrax lethal toxin induces endothelial barrier dysfunction. Am J
Pathol. 2005;166(6):1871-81.
32. Brojatsch J, Casadevall A, Goldman DL. Molecular determinants for a cardiovascular collapse in
anthrax. Front Biosci (Elite Ed). 2014;6:139-47.
33. Lucey D. Bacillus anthracis (anthrax). In: GL Mandell JB, and R Dolin, editor. Mandell, Douglas, and
Bennet's Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases. Philadelphia, PA: Elsevier Churchill
Livingstone; 2005. p. 2485-91.
34. Lucey D. An Improved Clinical Staging System for Inhalational Anthrax. Clinicians' Biosecurity News.
Johns Hopkins Center for Health Security2005.
35. Huang E, Pillai SK, Bower WA, Hendricks KA, Guarnizo JT, Hoyle JD, et al. Antitoxin Treatment of
Inhalation Anthrax: A Systematic Review. Health Secur. 2015;13(6):365-77.
36. Nagy CF, Mondick J, Serbina N, Casey LS, Carpenter SE, French J, et al. Animal-to-Human Dose
Translation of Obiltoxaximab for Treatment of Inhalational Anthrax Under the US FDA Animal Rule.
Clin Transl Sci. 2017;10(1):12-9.
37. Vasconcelos D, Barnewall R, Babin M, Hunt R, Estep J, Nielsen C, et al. Pathology of inhalation anthrax
in cynomolgus monkeys (Macaca fascicularis). Lab Invest. 2003;83(8):1201-9.
38. Fritz DL, Jaax NK, Lawrence WB, Davis KJ, Pitt ML, Ezzell JW, et al. Pathology of experimental
inhalation anthrax in the rhesus monkey. Lab Invest. 1995;73(5):691-702.
39. Chabot DJ, Ribot WJ, Joyce J, Cook J, Hepler R, Nahas D, et al. Protection of rhesus macaques against
inhalational anthrax with a Bacillus anthracis capsule conjugate vaccine. Vaccine. 2016;34(34):4012-6.

40. Chen L, Schiffer JM, Dalton S, Sabourin CL, Niemuth NA, Plikaytis BD, et al. Comprehensive analysis
and selection of anthrax vaccine adsorbed immune correlates of protection in rhesus macaques. Clin
Vaccine Immunol. 2014;21(11):1512-20.
41. Henderson DW, Peacock S, Belton FC. Observations on the prophylaxis of experimental pulmonary
anthrax in the monkey. J Hyg (Lond). 1956;54(1):28-36.
42. Henning LN, Comer JE, Stark GV, Ray BD, Tordoff KP, Knostman KA, et al. Development of an
inhalational Bacillus anthracis exposure therapeutic model in cynomolgus macaques. Clin Vaccine
Immunol. 2012;19(11):1765-75.
43. Vietri NJ, Purcell BK, Lawler JV, Leffel EK, Rico P, Gamble CS, et al. Short-course postexposure
antibiotic prophylaxis combined with vaccination protects against experimental inhalational anthrax.
Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2006;103(20):7813-6.
44. Gallegos-Candela M, Boyer AE, Woolfitt AR, Brumlow J, Lins RC, Quinn CP, et al. Validated MALDI-
TOF-MS method for anthrax lethal factor provides early diagnosis and evaluation of therapeutics.
Anal Biochem. 2017;543:97-107.
45. Solano MI, Woolfitt AR, Boyer AE, Lins RC, Isbell K, Gallegos-Candela M, et al. Accurate and selective
quantification of anthrax protective antigen in plasma by immunocapture and isotope dilution mass
spectrometry. Analyst. 2019;144(7):2264-74.
46. Boyer AE, Quinn CP, Hoffmaster AR, Kozel TR, Saile E, Marston CK, et al. Kinetics of lethal factor and
poly-D-glutamic acid antigenemia during inhalation anthrax in rhesus macaques. Infect Immun.
2009;77(8):3432-41.
47. Comer JE, Ray BD, Henning LN, Stark GV, Barnewall RE, Mott JM, et al. Characterization of a
therapeutic model of inhalational anthrax using an increase in body temperature in New Zealand
white rabbits as a trigger for treatment. Clin Vaccine Immunol. 2012;19(9):1517-25.
48. Plotkin SA, Brachman PS, Utell M, Bumford FH, Atchison MM. An epidemic of inhalation anthrax, the
first in the twentieth century. I. Clinical features. Am J Med. 1960;29:992-1001.
49. Tournier JN, Rougeaux C. Anthrax Toxin Detection: From in Vivo Studies to Diagnostic Applications.
Microorganisms. 2020;8(8).
50. Franz DR, Jahrling PB, Friedlander AM, McClain DJ, Hoover DL, Bryne WR, et al. Clinical recognition
and management of patients exposed to biological warfare agents. JAMA. 1997;278(5):399-411.
51. Meselson M, Guillemin J, Hugh-Jones M, Langmuir A, Popova I, Shelokov A, et al. The Sverdlovsk
anthrax outbreak of 1979. Science. 1994;266(5188):1202-8.
52. Savransky V, Sanford DC, Syar E, Austin JL, Tordoff KP, Anderson MS, et al. Pathology and
pathophysiology of inhalational anthrax in a guinea pig model. Infect Immun. 2013;81(4):1152-63.
53. Lawrence WS, Hardcastle JM, Brining DL, Weaver LE, Ponce C, Whorton EB, et al. The physiologic
responses of Dutch belted rabbits infected with inhalational anthrax. Comp Med. 2009;59(3):257-65.
54. Sanchez-Chaparro MA, Calvo-Bonacho E, Gonzalez-Quintela A, Cabrera M, Sainz JC, Fernandez-
Labandera C, et al. Higher red blood cell distribution width is associated with the metabolic
syndrome: results of the Ibermutuamur CArdiovascular RIsk assessment study. Diabetes Care.
2010;33(3):e40.
55. Patel KV, Semba RD, Ferrucci L, Newman AB, Fried LP, Wallace RB, et al. Red cell distribution width
and mortality in older adults: a meta-analysis. J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci. 2010;65(3):258-65.
56. Kim CH, Park JT, Kim EJ, Han JH, Han JS, Choi JY, et al. An increase in red blood cell distribution width
from baseline predicts mortality in patients with severe sepsis or septic shock. Crit Care.
2013;17(6):R282.
57. Mahmood NA, Mathew J, Kang B, DeBari VA, Khan MA. Broadening of the red blood cell distribution
width is associated with increased severity of illness in patients with sepsis. Int J Crit Illn Inj Sci.
2014;4(4):278-82.
58. Chang HH, Wang TP, Chen PK, Lin YY, Liao CH, Lin TK, et al. Erythropoiesis suppression is associated
with anthrax lethal toxin-mediated pathogenic progression. PLoS One. 2013;8(8):e71718.
59. Azarkar Z, Bidaki MZ. A case report of inhalation anthrax acquired naturally. BMC Res Notes.
2016;9:141.
60. Ebrahimi CM, Sheen TR, Renken CW, Gottlieb RA, Doran KS. Contribution of lethal toxin and edema
toxin to the pathogenesis of anthrax meningitis. Infect Immun. 2011;79(7):2510-8.

61. Boyer AE, Quinn CP, Beesley CA, Gallegos-Candela M, Marston CK, Cronin LX, et al. Lethal factor
toxemia and anti-protective antigen antibody activity in naturally acquired cutaneous anthrax. J
Infect Dis. 2011;204(9):1321-7.
62. Guidi-Rontani C, Weber-Levy M, Labruyere E, Mock M. Germination of Bacillus anthracis spores
within alveolar macrophages. Mol Microbiol. 1999;31(1):9-17.
63. Keppie J, Smith H, Harris-Smith PW. The chemical basis of the virulence of Bacillus anthracis. III. The
role of the terminal bacteraemia in death of guinea-pigs from anthrax. Br J Exp Pathol.
1955;36(3):315-22.
64. Boyer AE, Quinn CP, Woolfitt AR, Pirkle JL, McWilliams LG, Stamey KL, et al. Detection and
quantification of anthrax lethal factor in serum by mass spectrometry. Anal Chem. 2007;79(22):8463-
70.
65. Yamamoto BJ, Shadiack AM, Carpenter S, Sanford D, Henning LN, Gonzales N, et al. Obiltoxaximab
Prevents Disseminated Bacillus anthracis Infection and Improves Survival during Pre- and
Postexposure Prophylaxis in Animal Models of Inhalational Anthrax. Antimicrob Agents Chemother.
2016;60(10):5796-805.
66. Schober P, Vetter TR. Nonparametric Statistical Methods in Medical Research. Anesth Analg.
2020;131(6):1862-3.

1261

Supplemental Material

In order of their appearance in text:

S1 Fig. Survival curve for 23 cynomolgus macaques with inhalation anthrax. Proportion surviving vs

survival time (hours).

S2 Fig. Significant increase in body temperature post-challenge. The threshold for a significant increase

in body temperature (SIBT) is established as the mean pre-challenge (or baseline) temperature plus 2

standard deviations (SD) of the mean pre-challenge temperature. Left hip and right shoulder

transponders recorded temperatures in °F once daily for seven days. The pre-challenge mean, SD and

threshold (mean+2 SD) was determined for both the shoulder and hip transponders for each animal. The

deviation from the pre-challenge threshold was calculated by subtracting the normal threshold

temperature from the post-challenge temperatures. The solid horizontal line represents the thresholds

with zero for the threshold. Deviations from threshold for shoulder and hip graphed for each animal by

number according to survival time. Group-1 controls indicated with -1 (C58003) control corresponding to

group 2 challenged animal number 5 and 0 (C58170) corresponding to group 2 challenged animal number

11.

S1 File. All anthrax toxin results in cynomolgus macaques with inhalation anthrax.

S2 File. All bacteremia results in cynomolgus macaques with inhalation anthrax.

S3 Fig. Kinetics of anthrax biomarkers in cynomolgus macaques with slow progression. All toxins

(ng/mL) and bacteremia (cfu/mL) over the course of infection in 12 animals with inhalation anthrax and

slow progression, of which 11 were triphasic with phase-2 ≥24 hours and one with phase-3 decline and

survival. One negative value at the end-of-study (EOS) (animal 23 -C58174) was graphed at ½ the limit of

detection for each method as indicated in Table 2. For bacteremia (bact), non-quantifiable results of +

was assigned a 6 (+ symbols) and negative at 3 cfu/mL (x symbols). The last time point for C59618 at

terminal (Term, 8.4 days) and the survivor which declined to less than the limit of detection at the end-

of-study (EOS, 14-days/336 hours) are not to scale. Black boxes represent the range of levels during the

phase-2 for each biomarker.

S1 Table. End-of-phase-1 toxins, bacteremia, and toxin ratios. Individual results at the end-of-phase-

1(P1) are given for animals with high toxemia, low ratios, and early time-to-death (fast progression) and

animals with low toxemia, high ratios, and later time-to-death. Median, upper quartile, and lower

quartile, determined in JMP. P-values comparing fast and slow progression obtained by Mann-Whitney-

Wilcoxon rank sum (non-parametric) test. Levels for survivor shown separately. *Still in phase-1,

excluded. **Less than the limit of detection (<LOD) for PA83 (1.22 ng/mL) given a value at ½ times the

LOD for PA83 (0.61 ng/mL) for calculations.

S4 Fig. Relationship between anthrax biomarker levels and survival time (days). Mean $\log_{10}$

concentrations and standard deviations (error bars) for total LF, LTx, total EF, ETx, total PA, and

bacteremia, over the time post-challenge (hours-h) for animals that died/euthanized at 1.9-3.0 days

(n=10), 3.1 to 4.0 days (n=5), 4.1 to 5 days (n=4) and 5.1 to 6 days (n=2), and for one animal at 8.4 days

(animal 22) and survivor to end-of-study (End) (animal 23). Final time points for animal 22 (C59618) at 8.4

days and for 23 (C58174) at end-of-study (14 days) were included together (End). Gray dashed lines

shown for median phase-2 level and phase-2 thresholds (red dotted line).

S3 File. All hematology results in cynomolgus macaques with inhalation anthrax.

1303

1304

1305

1306

1307

1308

1309

1310

1311

1312

1313

1314

1315   **Figure 1. First detection of anthrax biomarkers.**

1316

1317

1318

1319

1320

1321

1322

1323

1324

1325

1326

1327

1328

1329

1330   **Figure 2. Kinetics of bacteremia and lethal factor in 23 cynomolgus macaques with variable progression.**

1332

1333

1334

1335

1336

Figure 3. Anthrax toxins and bacteremia during inhalation anthrax in individual cynomolgus macaques.

Figure 4. Stage-dependent biomarker levels.

Figure 5. Relationship of toxemia and time.

1359   **Figure 6. Early hematology during inhalation anthrax.**

Figure 7. Proposed relationship of toxemia-defined progression with clinical staging.

S1 Fig. Analysis of survival time in 23 cynomolgus macaques with inhalation anthrax.

1382 **S2 Fig. Significant increase in body temperature post-challenge.**

1383

1384

1385

1386

1387

1388

1389

1390

1391

1392

1393

1394

1395

1396

1397

1398

1399

1400 **S3 Fig. Kinetics of anthrax biomarkers in cynomolgus macaques with slow progression.**

1401
1402

S1 Table. End-of-phase-1 toxins, bacteremia, and toxin ratios.

Animal ID	Time to Death (hours)	End-of-P1 Time Point	Total-PA (ng/mL)	PA83 (ng/mL)	Total LF (ng/mL)	Lethal Toxin (ng/mL)	Total EF (ng/mL)	Edema Toxin (ng/mL)	Bact (cfu/mL)	PA/LF Ratio	LF/LTx Ratio	LF/EF Ratio	EF/ETx Ratio	PA/ETx Ratio	Phase
1) C58282*	48.5	48 h NA (36h shown)	9.11	<LOD	2.99	0.865	0.026	0.0045	5.3E+02	3.0	3.5	115.0	5.8	2024	P1*
2) C59621	48.9	42 h	333	67.4	57.8	23.7	20.7	1.872	2.9E+06	5.8	2.4	2.8	11.1	178	EOP1-P2
3) C60763	54.7	30 h	326	45.2	50.9	15.3	2.6	0.576	9.4E+05	6.4	3.3	19.6	4.5	566	EOP1-P2
4) C58176	55.2	30 h	188	25.6	200	81.7	2.68	0.635	8.3E+06	0.9	2.4	74.6	4.2	296	EOP1-P2
5) C58003	57.3	42 h	1143	163	300	169	23.7	5.64	5.9E+06	3.8	1.8	12.7	4.2	203	EOP1-P2
6) C59656	57.9	48 h	731	182	75.2	27.7	28	4.97	3.6E+06	9.7	2.7	2.7	5.6	147	EOP1-P2
7) C58214	58.4	48 h	509	97.6	56.2	21	5.58	0.307	1.3E+06	9.1	2.7	10.1	18.2	1658	EOP1-P2
8) C60732	59	36 h	1189	176	313	165	39.2	7.1	7.4E+06	3.8	1.9	8.0	5.5	167	EOP1-P2
9) C59669	64.8	48 h	3035	621	1038	573	208	38.9	3.2E+07	2.9	1.8	5.0	5.3	78	EOP1-P2
10) C57161	66.9	48 h	2221	516	366	245	53.4	15	7.2E+06	6.1	1.5	6.9	3.6	148	EOP1-P2
11) C58170	74.1	48 h	102	12.1	38.4	5.53	2.16	0.134	3.3E+05	2.7	6.9	17.8	16.1	761	EOP1-P2
	Median		620	130	138	54.7	22.2	3.4	4.8E+06	4.8	2.4	9.0	5.4	190	
	lower quartile		328	40.3	54.9	19.5	2.7	0.51	1.2E+06	2.9	1.8	4.4	4.2	148	
	upper quartile		1447	266	138	188	42.8	9.1	7.6E+06	7.1	2.9	18.2	12.3	615	
12) C59619	76.4	36 h	368	36.2	32.5	12.5	0.661	0.278	1.8E+05	11.3	2.6	49.2	2.4	1324	EOP1-P2
13) C58135	90.4	60 h	328	33.1	41.5	13	0.922	0.153	6.2E+04	7.9	3.2	45.0	6.0	2144	EOP1-P2
14) C57793	91.1	48 h	133	8.8	23.8	4.55	0.401	0.038	6.1E+04	5.6	5.2	59.4	10.6	3500	EOP1-P2
15) C58167	91.7	36 h	89.7	7.6	26.3	7.94	0.743	0.242	1.5E+05	3.4	3.3	35.4	3.1	371	EOP1-P2
16) C57998	100.8	48 h	41	<LOD**	16.2	6.32	0.064	0.001	5.6E+03	2.5	2.6	253.1	64.0	41000	EOP1-P2
17) C59617	105.1	48 h	54.2	<LOD**	12.4	1.91	0.032	0.002	3.3E+03	4.4	6.5	387.5	16.0	27100	EOP1-P2
18) C58159	109	48 h	121	7.89	23.8	8.76	0.231	0.0057	3.1E+04	5.1	2.7	103.0	40.5	21228	EOP1-P2
19) C58122	115.1	48 h	152	<LOD**	22	9.03	0.097	0.0048	3.6E+03	6.9	2.4	226.8	20.2	31667	EOP1-P2
20) C57997	125.9	48 h	165	11.8	15.6	8.62	0.166	0.020	1.1E+04	10.6	1.8	94.0	8.3	8250	EOP1-P2
21) C58156	140.1	48 h	200	<LOD**	26.1	10.3	0.081	0.0043	7.8E+03	7.7	2.5	322.2	18.8	46512	EOP1-P2
22) C59618	201.9	42 h	29.6	<LOD**	12.4	1.53	0.046	0.0015	9.4E+03	2.4	8.1	269.6	30.7	19733	EOP1-P2
	Median		133	7.6	23.8	8.6	0.17	0.0057	1.1E+04	5.6	2.7	103	16	19733	
	lower quartile		54.2	0.61	15.6	4.6	0.064	0.0020	5.6E+03	3.4	2.5	49.2	6.0	2144	
	upper quartile		200	11.8	26.3	10.3	0.66	0.15	6.2E+04	7.9	5.2	270	30.7	31667	
	Fast-v-Slow p-value		0.0035	0.0003	0.0002	0.0011	0.0001	0.0003	0.0001	0.5495	0.149	0.0004	0.098	0.0004	
23) C58174	Survivor	42 h	33.9	<LOD	11.1	3.25	0.040	0.0023	6.4E+03	3.05	3.42	278	17.4	14739	EOP1-P2

1   **S4 Fig. Relationship between anthrax biomarker levels and survival time (days).**