



1 13 December 2012  
2 EMA/CVMP/SAGAM/119489/2012 - CONSULTATION  
3 Committee for Medicinal Products for Veterinary Use (CVMP)

4 Reflection paper on use of pleuromutilins in food-  
5 producing animals in the European Union: development of  
6 resistance and impact on human and animal health  
7 Draft

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Draft Agreed by Scientific Advisory Group on Antimicrobials	29 November 2012
Adoption by Committee of Medicines for Veterinary Use for release for consultation	13 December 2012
End of consultation (deadline for comments)	30 June 2013

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## 12 CVMP recommendations for action

13 Pleuromutilins (tiamulin and valnemulin) are used predominately in pigs but to some extent also in  
14 poultry and rabbits. It is an essential group of antimicrobial agents in veterinary medicine especially as  
15 it is the sole treatment option for enteritis in pigs caused by *Brachyspira hyodysenteriae* (swine  
16 dysentery) resistant to macrolides. The negative consequences in case such a pathogen becomes  
17 pleuromutilin resistant would thus be considerable both from an economical and an animal welfare  
18 perspective.

19 There are several products available on the EU market and most of the use is for group medication in  
20 feed or water. In addition to the originator products there are a number of different tiamulin containing  
21 generics available on the market and the approved indications varies considerably. The overall use  
22 differs considerably between EU countries without known rationale. Partly the difference might reflect  
23 difference in prevalence for the major diseases where pleuromutilins is used but there is likely  
24 additional explanation that would merit further exploration.

25 To contain resistance it is crucial to reduce unnecessary use and to avoid that antimicrobial agents are  
26 used preventively without applying adequate control programmes. For this reason it is important that  
27 responsible use principles are outlined in the SPCs for approved products.

28 The CVMP notes that medicinal products containing pleuromutilins are being developed for treatment  
29 against infections caused by methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) in humans. MRSA may  
30 be a zoonosis and thus the risk for spread of resistance from animals to humans is also to be  
31 considered. As detailed in the reflection paper on MRSA in food producing and companion animals in  
32 the EU (EMA, 2009), the CVMP believes the animal associated MRSA is best addressed by promotion of  
33 responsible use of antimicrobials in general and therefore all measures listed below would indirectly be  
34 effective reducing also the risk for MRSA although they are primarily intended to reduce the risk for  
35 resistance in target animal pathogens.

36 For veterinary medicinal products containing pleuromutilins the CVMP concluded that the following  
37 recommendations are for consideration by Competent Authorities:

38 Pleuromutilins should only be used for treatment of disease. The exception would be in well-defined  
39 eradication programme for swine dysentery. Such eradication programmes should be restricted in time  
40 and include appropriate measures of effectiveness. This should be clearly stated in the SPCs for all  
41 products. Approved indications for unspecified prevention of disease should be withdrawn.

42 Indications should be worded to clearly express the intended use. General indications against infections  
43 in general should be avoided. Enhancement of production (e.g. increase of feed efficiency or growth  
44 promotion) is not regarded as an acceptable indication and should be withdrawn.

45 Duration of treatment should be limited to the time needed for cure of diseases. Summary of Product  
46 Characteristics where the approved treatment duration is found unnecessarily long should be reviewed.

47 To the extent possible doses should be selected considering antimicrobial resistance related risks. In  
48 case data on dose selection are sparse doses should anyway be reviewed and in case they are too low  
49 (e.g. compared to other products containing the same active substance) this should be addressed.  
50 Notably there are often several different doses approved for different indications and thus there is an  
51 option to increase doses where relevant without asking for new tolerance or safety data.

52 **Additional comments**

53 Notwithstanding the list of recommendations above, the CVMP is of the opinion that antimicrobial  
54 resistance should not be considered in isolation but a global approach to the problem is needed.  
55 Implementation of prudent use principles remains a cornerstone to contain resistance together with  
56 biosecurity and other measures to promote animal health and thereby reduce the need for treatment.

57 Swine dysentery is a major disease in pig production in EU. Eradication programme have successfully  
58 been applied in some countries in EU and CVMP would like to stress that such programme are crucial to  
59 reduce the need for pleuromutilins. CVMP would therefore recommend responsible bodies to take  
60 further action against this disease. Noteworthy, control of spread of disease is crucial as resistant  
61 bacteria will spread with transport and trade of animals.

62 There is today no system in place to provide harmonised monitoring data for pleuromutilin resistance  
63 in *Brachyspira hyodysenteriae*. CVMP would recommend responsible bodies to create such a monitoring  
64 system, first to allow baseline data to be collected and later to allow impact assessment of taken  
65 measures. Ideally, early warning systems should be created where treatment failures in case of swine  
66 dysentery is systematically monitored. Furthermore, it is recommended to further explore the  
67 differences in pleuromutilin use between EU countries and investigate possible co-variability between  
68 use and resistance.

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## 86 1. Introduction

87 Pleuromutilin is a natural antimicrobial substance produced by the fungus (basidiomycete) *Pleurotus*  
88 *mutilus* (Kavanagh et al., 1951) now called *Clitopilus scyphoides* (Singer, 1986). Tiamulin and  
89 valnemulin are semi-synthetic derivatives of pleuromutilin. Both tiamulin and valnemulin are used  
90 exclusively in veterinary medicine. Tiamulin was approved for use in veterinary medicine in 1979,  
91 followed by valnemulin in 1999 (Sader et al., 2012a). Retapamulin was the first pleuromutilin approved  
92 for topical use in humans in 2007 (Novak, 2011). BC-3781, a pleuromutilin for systemic use in  
93 humans, is currently under development (Sader et al., 2012a; Sader et al., 2012b).

94 Pleuromutilins are antibacterial agents that inhibit protein synthesis by binding to the 50S subunits of  
95 ribosomes of bacteria. Pleuromutilins are active against Gram-positive bacteria such as streptococci  
96 and staphylococci, anaerobic bacteria and *Mycoplasma* (Giguere, 2006; Islam et al., 2009; Jones et  
97 al., 2006). They have been used for decades in veterinary medicine for the control of respiratory and  
98 intestinal infections in different animal species, especially in pigs and to a lesser extent in poultry and  
99 rabbits (Giguere, 2006; Islam et al., 2009). The objective of this reflection paper is to summarize  
100 current knowledge on resistance development and the potential impact of this resistance on animal  
101 and human health as detailed in a concept paper  
102 ([http://www.ema.europa.eu/ema/pages/includes/document/open\\_document.jsp?webContentId=WC50](http://www.ema.europa.eu/ema/pages/includes/document/open_document.jsp?webContentId=WC500116978)  
103 [0116978](http://www.ema.europa.eu/ema/pages/includes/document/open_document.jsp?webContentId=WC500116978)).

## 104 2. The use of pleuromutilins in veterinary medicine

105 In the Member States of the European Union tiamulin is authorised nationally and available in most of  
106 the EU Member States. Following a recent referral, the indications for tiamulin (EMA, 2010a) in pigs  
107 are treatment and prevention of swine dysentery (*Brachyspira hyodysenteriae*), treatment of colitis  
108 (*Brachyspira pilosicoli*), treatment of ileitis (*Lawsonia intracellularis*) and treatment of enzootic  
109 pneumonia (*Mycoplasma hyopneumoniae*). However as different products containing tiamulin are  
110 nationally approved other indications might still be listed. Tiamulin is also authorised for *Gallus gallus*  
111 (chickens) for the treatment and prevention of chronic respiratory disease (CRD) and airsacculitis  
112 caused by *Mycoplasma gallisepticum* and *Mycoplasma synoviae* and for turkeys for treatment and  
113 prevention of infectious sinusitis and airsacculitis caused by *Mycoplasma gallisepticum*, *Mycoplasma*  
114 *meleagridis* and *Mycoplasma synoviae* and for rabbits for treatment of epizootic rabbit enterocolitis.  
115 Valnemulin is authorised centrally for treatment and prevention of swine dysentery, spirocheatal  
116 diarrhoea and enzootic pneumonia and for treatment of clinical sings of porcine proliferative  
117 enteropathy<sup>1</sup>. Tiamulin is available as medicated feed premix and as a solution for medication in  
118 drinking water (Islam et al., 2009). In addition it is available as injectable for pigs. Valnemulin is  
119 available as premix for feed and oral powder<sup>2</sup>. Pleuromutilins are also used off-label to treat the  
120 polyetiological disease porcine respiratory disease complex (PRDC), and more rarely, leptospirosis  
121 (Giguere, 2006).

122 Pleuromutilins have become frequently used drugs in the treatment of swine, especially in weaner pigs  
123 and finisher pigs (Jensen et al., 2012).

124 In pigs the dose of valnemulin varies between 1 and 12 mg/kg bw according to the indication and the  
125 duration of treatment can be related to clinical response and varies between 7 and 28 days (EMA,

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<sup>1</sup> See

[http://www.ema.europa.eu/ema/index.jsp?curl=pages/medicines/veterinary/medicines/000042/vet\\_med\\_000116.jsp&mid=WC0b01ac058001fa1c](http://www.ema.europa.eu/ema/index.jsp?curl=pages/medicines/veterinary/medicines/000042/vet_med_000116.jsp&mid=WC0b01ac058001fa1c)

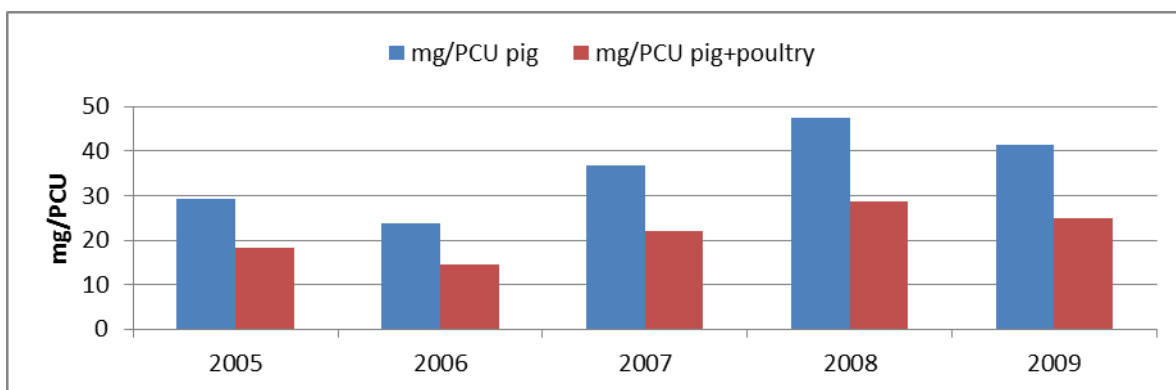
<sup>2</sup> [http://www.ema.europa.eu/docs/en\\_GB/document\\_library/EPAR\\_-\\_Assessment\\_Report\\_-\\_Variation/veterinary/000042/WC500100721.pdf](http://www.ema.europa.eu/docs/en_GB/document_library/EPAR_-_Assessment_Report_-_Variation/veterinary/000042/WC500100721.pdf)

126 2011). According to the authorisation for valnemulin, long term preventative use of valnemulin should  
127 be avoided by improving management practice and thorough cleansing and disinfection and  
128 consideration should be given to the eradication of infection from the farm.

129 In pigs the dose following the article 34 referral for tiamulin premix (EMA, 2010b) varies between  
130 2 and 10 mg/kg bw according to the indication and the duration of treatment can be related to clinical  
131 response and varies between 7 and 28 days. According to the outcome of the referral (EMA, 2010b)  
132 preventive treatment with tiamulin should only be initiated after confirmed infection with *B.*  
133 *hyodysenteriae* and then as part of a program including measures aiming to eradicate or control the  
134 infection in the herd. It is not known if such recommendation is included in the SPC for other products  
135 containing tiamulin.

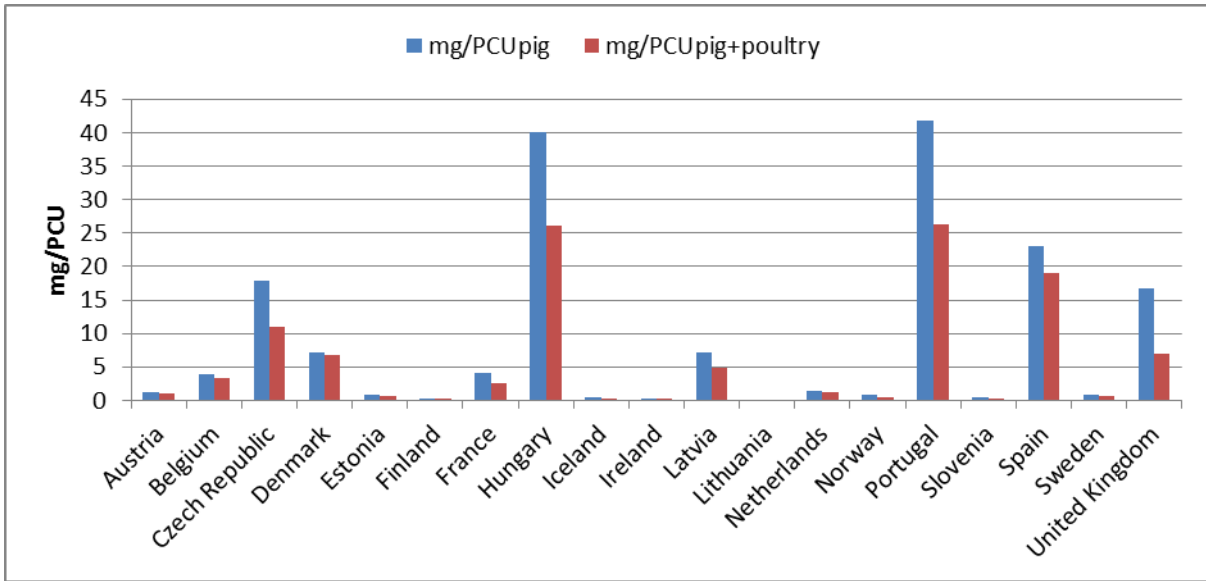
136 There is limited data on the extent to which this advice on preventive use is followed; it is very  
137 important that such use is not undertaken without appropriate accompanying measures in order to  
138 minimise the emergence of resistance.

139 Data on trends in sales of antimicrobials 2005-2009 in nine countries were used to assess trends over  
140 time (ESVAC, 2011). Data for one country (Switzerland) was excluded as no data was available for  
141 2005. The total sales of pleuromutilins expressed in tonnes active substance was divided by an  
142 estimate of the live weight of pigs expressed as mg per population correction unit (PCU). The PCU  
143 takes into account the estimated weight of livestock, slaughtered animals and transport of animals for  
144 fattening and slaughter in another Member State. It is probable that in most countries, most of the  
145 sales are for pigs but as pleuromutilins are also authorised for poultry, data are expressed both as  
146 mg/PCU pigs and as mg/PCU of pigs and poultry. The results shown in Figure 1 indicate an overall  
147 increasing trend in overall sales from 2005 to 2008 followed by a slight decrease in 2009.



148  
149 Figure 1. Total sales of pleuromutilins in eight countries expressed as mg/population correction unit  
150 (PCU) pigs and as mg/ PCU pig+poultry.

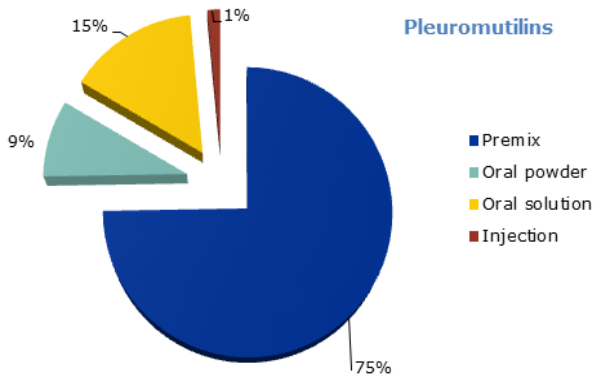
151 Data on sales of pleuromutilins in 19 countries in 2010 are shown in Figure 2 (based on data from  
152 (ESVAC, 2012)). One Member State, Lithuania had no sales of pleuromutilins in 2010. As above, the  
153 sales in tonnes were calculated to mg/PCU pig and mg/PCU pig and poultry to represent an  
154 approximation of the exposure of the pig or pig and poultry population. Acknowledging that in some  
155 countries pleuromutilins will be used only for pigs while in others they are also used in poultry, the  
156 data still indicate that the population exposure varies widely between countries.



157

158 Figure 2. Sales of pleuromutilins expressed as mg/population correction unit (PCU) of pigs and of pigs  
 159 and poultry.

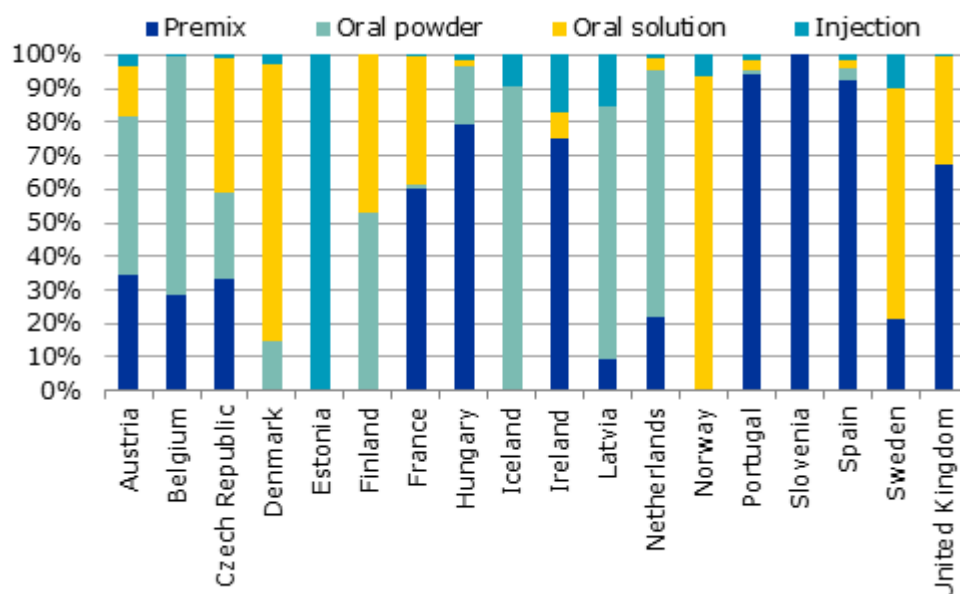
160 Almost all of the sales are products formulated for in feed or in water medication (Figure 3), although  
 161 the relative proportion between the different formulations varies between countries (Figure 4).



162

163 Figure 3. Sales of pleuromutilins by pharmaceutical form in 18 countries (no sales in Lithuania)  
 164 expressed as percent of total sales in tonnes.

165



166  
 167 Figure 4. Sales of pleuromutilins in 18 countries (no sales in Lithuania) by pharmaceutical form  
 168 expressed as percentage of the sales in tonnes in each country.

169 **3. Mechanisms and emergence of resistance in relevant**  
 170 **bacteria**

171 Pleuromutilins act by inhibiting protein synthesis by binding to the 50S subunit of the bacterial  
 172 ribosome. They are strong inhibitors of peptidyl transferase. Resistance derives from chromosomal  
 173 mutations in the 23 rRNA and *rplC* genes. These chromosomal mutations emerge relatively slowly and  
 174 in a stepwise fashion and are not transferred horizontally (Giguere, 2006). In addition, resistance  
 175 genes can be located on plasmids or on transposons like the *vga* genes and the *cfp* gene (Long et al.,  
 176 2006; Mendes et al., 2011; Novak, 2011; Schwendener and Perreten, 2011; Witte and Cuny, 2011).  
 177 This type of resistance is transferable between bacteria and bacterial species. The mechanism of  
 178 antimicrobial resistance varies according to the bacterial species investigated (Gentry et al., 2008;  
 179 Long et al., 2006; Malbruny et al., 2011; Pringle et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2012a; Wang et al., 2012b;  
 180 Wang et al., 2012c).

181 *B. hyodysenteriae*: The decreased susceptibility to tiamulin in *B. hyodysenteriae* clinical and in  
 182 laboratory selected isolates has been associated to point mutations in the domain V of the 23S rRNA  
 183 gene (positions 2032, 2055, 2447, 2499, 2504 and 2572 *Escherichia coli* numbering) and/or the  
 184 ribosomal protein L3 gene (Hidalgo et al., 2011; Pringle et al., 2004). Mutation in the nucleotide  
 185 position 2032 seems to cause resistance to pleuromutilins as well as decreased susceptibility to  
 186 lincosamides (Hidalgo et al., 2011). Tiamulin resistance in *B. hyodysenteriae* develops gradually and in  
 187 a stepwise manner both in vitro and in vivo suggesting that multiple mutations are needed to achieve  
 188 high level resistance (Karlsson et al., 2001; Karlsson et al., 2002). The MICs for valnemulin follow  
 189 those for tiamulin in most cases but are generally a few dilution steps lower (Pringle et al., 2012). No  
 190 resistance mechanism has yet been detected for *B. pilosicoli* (Pringle et al., 2012).

191 *Staphylococcus species*: Resistance in staphylococci can be due to point mutations in the domain V of  
 192 23S rRNA or in the *rplC* gene encoding the ribosomal protein L3. Selected mutants of *S. aureus*  
 193 resistant to linezolid exhibit cross-resistance to tiamulin (Gentry et al., 2007; Miller et al., 2008).



194 Transferable resistance in *S. aureus* and coagulase-negative staphylococci can be caused by *vga*  
195 genes, encoding ABC transporters, which export pleuromutilins, streptogramin A and lincosamides  
196 (Gentry et al., 2008; Hauschild et al., 2012). There are 7 known pleuromutilin-streptogramin  
197 resistance genes: *vga(A)*, *vga(A)v*, *vga(A)<sub>LC</sub>*, *vga(B)*, *vga(C)*, *vga(D)* and *vga(E)* (Allignet and El Solh,  
198 1997; Allignet et al., 1992; Jung et al., 2010; Kadlec and Schwarz, 2009; Schwendener and Perreten,  
199 2011). Except for *vga(D)* which was found on a plasmid in *Enterococcus faecium* (Jung et al., 2010) all  
200 other genes were found on plasmids or transposons of staphylococci. Transferable resistance to  
201 pleuromutilins due to *vga* genes has been reported in methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) (Kadlec et  
202 al., 2010; Kadlec and Schwarz, 2009). Since 2005, a specific clone of MRSA, ST398 has emerged  
203 worldwide in livestock, especially swine (Catry et al., 2010; de Neeling et al., 2007). This clone is  
204 referred to as livestock-associated MRSA (LA-MRSA). Mendes, Smith et al. (2011) report the plasmid  
205 borne *vga(A)* gene in MRSA ST398 from a pig and a pig farmer in the United States. Kadlec and  
206 Schwarz (2009) identified a novel ABC transporter gene *vga(C)* which is located on the multidrug  
207 resistance plasmid pKKS825 in MRSA ST398. The *vga(A)v* gene has been detected in MRSA ST49  
208 strains from pigs in Switzerland (Overesch et al., 2011). Porcine MRSA ST398 carrying small plasmids  
209 containing *vga(A)* or *vga(C)* genes have been identified in Portugal (Kadlec et al., 2010). Recently a  
210 new transposon Tn6133 containing *vga(E)* has been found in porcine MRSA ST398 isolates  
211 (Schwendener and Perreten, 2011). The *vga(E)* gene, located on the same transposon, has also been  
212 detected in MRSA ST398 in clinical isolates from turkey and cattle as well as from chicken and turkey  
213 meat in Germany (Hauschild et al., 2012). This indicates that this resistance gene is disseminating in  
214 different countries and different animal species. *S. hominis* clinical isolates with low-level resistance to  
215 quinupristin/dalfopristin have also been shown to contain *vga(A)* (Petinaki et al., 2005).

216 Transferable resistance against five chemically distinct classes of antimicrobials (oxazolidinones,  
217 phenicols, streptogramin A, lincosamides and pleuromutilins) is mediated by the gene *cfr* encoding a  
218 rRNA methylase (Kehrenberg et al., 2007; Kehrenberg and Schwarz, 2006; Shore et al., 2010; Witte  
219 and Cuny, 2011). These antimicrobials bind to overlapping sites at the peptidyl transferase center.  
220 Each of these classes of antimicrobials contains important drugs that are used in human and veterinary  
221 medicine. This gene has been reported from several countries including Germany, Denmark, Spain,  
222 Ireland and China. It has been found in humans and animals, including pigs (Gopegui et al., 2012;  
223 Kehrenberg et al., 2009; Morales et al., 2010; Shore et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2012c). The gene was  
224 first detected on a plasmid originating from a bovine strain of the coagulase negative *Staphylococcus*  
225 *sciuri* (Schwarz et al., 2000) and has also been found in other coagulase-negative staphylococci  
226 (Kehrenberg et al., 2007; Kehrenberg and Schwarz, 2006). The *cfr* gene has also been found on a  
227 plasmid in porcine MRSA and MSSA of different clonal lineages (ST398 and ST9) (Kehrenberg et al.,  
228 2009). Recently the *cfr* gene has been detected in a Pantone-Valentine-Leukocidin positive MRSA of ST8  
229 SCCmec type IV (USA300) (Shore et al., 2010). USA300 is a major community acquired MRSA causing  
230 skin and soft tissue infections in the United States of America and worldwide. A new multidrug  
231 resistance conjugative plasmid (pERGB) containing *cfr*, *tet(L)* (encoding tetracycline resistance),  
232 ant('4)-Ia (encoding tobramycin resistance) and *dfpK* (encoding trimethoprim resistance) was detected  
233 in a linezolid resistant MRSA strain with sequence type ST125. This MRSA strain was isolated from two  
234 patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in Spain and both patients had been treated with  
235 linezolid (Gopegui et al., 2012). An outbreak of linezolid resistant *cfr*-positive MRSA has been reported  
236 in a Spanish hospital (Sanchez Garcia et al., 2010).

237 Recently, the enterococcal ABC transporter gene *Isa(E)* conferring resistance to pleuromutilins,  
238 lincosamides and streptogramin A has been detected in MSSA and MRSA (Wendlandt et al., 2012),  
239 suggesting exchange of this gene between *Enterococcus* spp. and *Staphylococcus aureus*.

240 *E. coli*: *Cfr*-mediated resistance has also been detected in *E. coli* (Long et al., 2006; Wang et al.,  
241 2012a). Analysis of 1230 *E. coli* isolates from pigs, ducks and chickens in China revealed one *cfr*

242 positive isolate originating from a nasal swab of a pig. In addition to *cf*r this isolates also harboured the  
243 florfenicol resistance gene *fl*oR (Wang et al., 2012a).

244 *Proteus vulgaris*: The *cf*r gene has been reported in one *Proteus vulgaris*. This isolate was found when  
245 screening 557 nasal swabs of Chinese swine for florfenicol resistance (Wang et al., 2011). The isolate  
246 was also positive for the *fl*oR gene.

247 *Enterococcus* species: Liu et al. (2012a) and Liu et al. (2012b) reported the occurrence of the *cf*r gene  
248 in *Enterococcus faecalis* isolated from bovine and pig faeces in China. Insertion elements have been  
249 detected on a plasmid containing *cf*r and are thought to play an important role in the dissemination of  
250 resistance genes (Liu et al., 2012b). In *Enterococcus faecalis* resistance to pleuromutilins,  
251 streptogramin A and lincosamides is mediated by the *Isa*(A) gene (Wendlandt et al., 2012).

252 *Bacillus* species: The *cf*r gene located on a plasmid has been found in a *Bacillus* species isolated from a  
253 nasal swab of a pig in China (Wang et al., 2012b). The plasmid also carried a novel streptomycin  
254 resistance gene. Another *Bacillus* isolate, containing *cf*r and *erm*(B) conferring resistance to  
255 macrolides, lincosamides and streptogramin B located on a plasmid and *fexA* conferring resistance to  
256 florfenicol located on the chromosomal DNA was found in an isolated from swine faeces in China (Dai  
257 et al., 2010).

258 *Streptococcus agalactiae*: Cross-resistance to pleuromutilins, lincosamides and streptogramin A has  
259 been found to be caused by a novel gene called *Isa*(C). Expression of this gene in *S. agalactiae* led to  
260 increased minimal inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of lincomycin, clindamycin, dalfopristin, and  
261 tiamulin (Malbruny et al., 2011). The gene was found in 18 clinical isolates from humans in New  
262 Zealand (Malbruny et al., 2011).

263 *Mycoplasma gallisepticum*: Li et al. (2010a) studied the in vitro development of resistance to tiamulin  
264 and valnemulin in *Mycoplasma gallisepticum*. A single mutation of the 23S rRNA gene could cause  
265 elevated tiamulin and valnemulin MICs, but combinations of two or three mutations were necessary to  
266 produce high level resistance to these drugs. All mutants were cross-resistant to lincomycin,  
267 chloramphenicol and florfenicol and some mutants also to erythromycin, tilmicosin and tylosin (Li et  
268 al., 2010b).

269 *Mycobacterium smegmatis*: Long et al. (2010) found that single or double mutations at various  
270 locations in the 23S rRNA of *Mycobacterium smegmatis* resulted in unpredictable cross resistance  
271 between linezolid, chloramphenicol, clindamycin and valnemulin.

272 Data on resistance mechanisms of *Lawsonia intracellularis* are lacking.

## 273 4. Problems of susceptibility testing

274 Generally, accurate antimicrobial susceptibility testing of anaerobic, fastidious bacteria can be difficult  
275 to achieve. Different anaerobes require different supplements to the growth medium and this causes  
276 problems with standardisation of the methods. The fastidious nature of *B. hyodysenteriae* and *B.*  
277 *pilosicoli* has hampered standardisation of methods for antimicrobial susceptibility testing.  
278 Antimicrobial susceptibility tests of *Brachyspira* spp. are not always performed on a routinely basis and  
279 there are no generally approved or recommended standards available. Different methods have been  
280 used such as broth dilution, microbroth dilution and agar dilution (Burch, 2005). Published  
281 susceptibility testing of *Brachyspira* spp. has been performed predominantly of *B. hyodysenteriae*  
282 isolates and by the agar dilution procedure. The most common medium used is trypticase soy agar  
283 (TSA) supplemented with 5% bovine or ovine blood. The MIC has been determined as the lowest  
284 concentration of the antimicrobial agent that prevents growth or hemolysis. A broth dilution method

285 has been evaluated for monitoring of antimicrobial susceptibility in *Brachyspira* spp. (Karlsson et al.,  
286 2003). MIC quality control ranges for the type strain of *B. hyodysenteriae*, B78T (ATCC® 27164T), has  
287 been established in an inter-laboratory study for this method (Pringle et al., 2006a). For  
288 pleuromutilins, this method has been compared with agar dilution (Rohde et al., 2004). Both methods  
289 gave reproducible results, but the broth method on average gave one dilution lower MICs for both  
290 tiamulin and valnemulin.

291 Antimicrobial susceptibility of *Lawsonia intracellularis* is difficult as this obligate intracellular bacterium  
292 needs complicated cell culture systems to grow and published data on their in vitro susceptibility are  
293 scarce and include only a very limited number of isolates (McOrist et al., 1995; Wattanaphansak et al.,  
294 2009; Yeh et al., 2011).

295 Internationally accepted interpretative criteria are lacking except for tiamulin for *Actinobacillus* species  
296 (Clinical Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) 2012). To date, no tiamulin or valnemulin breakpoints  
297 have been established for *Brachyspira* species, but breakpoints of  $\geq 2\mu\text{g/ml}$  (Clothier et al., 2011)  
298 have been used to classify isolates as resistant to tiamulin. According to Vyt and Hommez (2006) and  
299 Karlsson et al. (2003) this breakpoint for tiamulin is too high to indicate decreased susceptibility. On  
300 the basis of a field study on clinical efficacy it has been proposed that isolates with MICs  $\geq 1\mu\text{g/ml}$   
301 should be considered as not responding to therapy in vivo (Vyt and Hommez, 2006). Suggestion for  
302 interpretative criteria for tiamulin disk diffusion have been made for *Pasteurella multocida*,  
303 staphylococci, *Actinobacillus suis*, *Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae* and *Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae*  
304 (Jones et al., 2002). Burch (2005) suggested a breakpoint of  $>0.125\mu\text{g/ml}$  for valnemulin (75 ppm in  
305 feed) using broth dilution and  $>0.25\mu\text{g/ml}$  for the agar dilution method for *Brachyspira* species. For  
306 tiamulin (at a dose of 100 ppm) a breakpoint of  $>0.5\mu\text{g/ml}$  and  $>1.0\mu\text{g/ml}$  was suggested for broth  
307 dilution and agar dilution respectively (Burch, 2005). Pringle, Landen et al. (2012) suggest  
308 epidemiological cut-off values for monitoring antimicrobial susceptibility in *Brachyspira hyodysenteriae*  
309 of  $>0.25\mu\text{g/ml}$  for tiamulin and  $>0.125\mu\text{g/ml}$  for valnemulin.

## 310 **5. Occurrence of resistance in bacteria from food producing** 311 **animals**

312 *Brachyspira* species: An increase of the MICs of tiamulin and valnemulin for porcine *B. hyodysenteriae*  
313 isolates. An increase in MIC's of tiamulin and valnemulin against *B. hyodysenteriae* has been reported  
314 in several countries. Reduced in vitro susceptibility of *B. hyodysenteriae* has been reported from Japan  
315 (Ohya and Sueyoshi, 2010), Spain (Hidalgo et al., 2011), The Netherlands (Duijnhof et al., 2008),  
316 Germany (Rohde et al., 2004), Hungary (Molnar, 1996), the United Kingdom (Gresham et al., 1998)  
317 and Czech Republic (Lobova et al., 2004; Sperling et al., 2011). A study investigating 20 *Brachyspira*  
318 *intermedia* isolates from layers in Belgium and the Netherlands found that the MIC distribution was  
319 monomodal, but with tailing towards higher MIC values, possibly indicating low level acquired  
320 resistance in six isolates (Verlinden et al., 2011). Decreased susceptibility to tiamulin has also been  
321 found in *B. pilosicoli* isolates from Sweden (Pringle et al., 2006a) and in various *Brachyspira* spp. from  
322 the United States of America (Clothier et al., 2011). Seven out of 79 (4.7%) and 4/79 (3.2 %) *Brachyspira*  
323 *Brachyspira* isolates were resistant to tiamulin and valnemulin respectively applying a MIC  $\geq 2$  as  
324 breakpoint (Clothier et al., 2011). In Spain the susceptibility to tiamulin and valnemulin of  
325 *B. hyodysenteriae* decreased in 2008/2009 compared to previous years (Hidalgo et al., 2011).  
326 Resistance to pleuromutilins seems to be common in *B. hyodysenteriae* in Spain (Hidalgo et al., 2011).  
327 An increase in MICs was also seen in Japan where MICs for tiamulin and valnemulin were low and MIC  
328 distribution unimodal from 1985-2000, but higher MICs were recorded from 2001 onward and the  
329 distribution had a trend towards a bimodal distribution (Ohya and Sueyoshi, 2010). The MIC<sub>90</sub> of  
330 Czech *B. hyodysenteriae* isolates increased from  $0.25\mu\text{g/ml}$  in 1997 to  $4\mu\text{g/ml}$  in 2001 for tiamulin

331 and from  $\leq 0.031$  in 1997 to 8 in 2001 for valnemulin (Lobova et al., 2004). In Germany MIC<sub>90</sub> for  
332 tiamulin increased from 0.125 µg/ml (1989-1993) to 2-8 µg/ml (2000-2002). For valnemulin the  
333 MIC<sub>90</sub> increased from 0.063 µg/ml (1989-1993) to 2-4 µg/ml (2000-2002) (Rohde et al., 2004).

334 Resistance to tiamulin has also been reported in *Haemophilus parasuis* and *Actinobacillus*  
335 *pleuropneumoniae* (Aarestrup et al., 2008). To date, *cfr*-mediated resistance seems to be uncommon  
336 in *Enterobacteriaceae* such as *E. coli* and *Proteus vulgaris* (Wang et al., 2012a; Wang et al., 2011).

337 *S. aureus* and other staphylococci: A Canadian study found tiamulin MIC's to be significantly higher  
338 among MRSA ST398 than among human methicillin-susceptible *Staphylococcus aureus* and non-ST398  
339 MRSA and porcine MSSA isolates (Rubin et al., 2011). Several studies have found *S. aureus* and MRSA  
340 isolates resistant to pleuromutilins (Gentry et al., 2008; Hauschild et al., 2012; Kadlec et al., 2009;  
341 Mendes et al., 2011). A high percentage of *S. aureus* isolates (40%) from slaughter pigs in Uruguay  
342 have been reported as resistant to tiamulin (Meyer et al., 2012). As described above, *cfr* and *vga*  
343 related transferable resistance in *S. aureus* including MRSA has been reported in different countries  
344 and different clonal lineages, including the livestock-associated MRSA ST398. In China, 149  
345 staphylococcal isolates resistant to florfenicol were found when screening 557 pigs originating from  
346 3 farms by taking nasal swabs. Of these isolates, 33 (22%) were found positive for *cfr* including *S.*  
347 *arlettae*, *S. saprophyticus*, *S. cohnii*, *S. sciuri* and *S. aureus*. Several isolates contained the florfenicol  
348 resistance gene *fexA* in addition to *cfr*. Four different *cfr* carrying plasmids were identified and these  
349 plasmids sometimes also harboured other resistance genes such as *erm(C)* and *accA-aphD* (Wang et  
350 al., 2012c). Co-selection of *cfr* carrying isolates could therefore occur under selective pressure imposed  
351 by the use of florfenicol, aminoglycosides or macrolides.

352 *Lawsonia intracellularis*: In *Lawsonia intracellularis* no resistance to pleuromutilins has been reported,  
353 but only very few isolates have been investigated and accepted interpretative criteria for such  
354 susceptibility testing are lacking (McOrist et al., 1995; Wattanaphansak et al., 2009).

## 355 **6. Possible links between the use of pleuromutilins and** 356 **other antimicrobials in animals and resistance in bacteria of** 357 **animal origin**

358 *Brachyspira* species: The lack of authorised and effective drugs for the treatment of swine dysentery  
359 has increased the use of pleuromutilins, and this probably explains the emergence of resistant strains.  
360 In a Belgian study the MIC's of pleuromutilins for *B. hyodysenteriae* isolates from 17 farms were  
361 correlated with clinical efficacy of the drugs in the treatment of swine dysentery; 88% of the swine  
362 farms (n=15) that performed well were associated with susceptible isolates, whereas unfavourable  
363 clinical outcomes were associated with decreased susceptibility on two farrow-to-finish farms (Vyt and  
364 Hommez, 2006). In the Netherlands tiamulin resistant *B. hyodysenteriae* isolates were cultured from  
365 the faeces of pigs. The isolates were also resistant against lincomycin, tylosin, doxycycline, and  
366 tylvalosin. The repeated use of tiamulin on the affected farm was assumed to be the main cause of the  
367 development of resistance to the drug (Duijnhof et al., 2008). Generally the use of pleuromutilins is  
368 high in Spain, Portugal and Czech Republic and relatively high percentages of *Brachyspira* isolates  
369 resistant to pleuromutilins have also been reported from Spain (Hidalgo et al., 2011) and Czech  
370 Republic (Lobova et al., 2004; Sperling et al., 2011). Multidrug-resistant and pleuromutilin-resistant  
371 *B. hyodysenteriae* isolates were associated with farms with endemic incidence of swine dysentery  
372 (Sperling et al., 2011). Increased consumption of pleuromutilins has been incriminated as cause for  
373 the increase in MICs of tiamulin and valnemulin (Lobova et al., 2004).

374 Staphylococci: It has been suggested that the use of pleuromutilins very likely selects for the  
375 emergence of *cfr* in animal isolates of staphylococci (Witte and Cuny, 2011). It must be noted that  
376 many isolates resistant to pleuromutilins are multidrug resistant. Mobile elements containing genes  
377 mediating resistance to pleuromutilins often contain resistance genes that confer resistance to other  
378 classes of antimicrobials. Therefore not only the use of pleuromutilins, but also the use of other  
379 antimicrobials can select for pleuromutilin resistance through co-selection. Plasmids carrying *vga(C)*  
380 genes have been found to contain the tetracycline resistance gene *tet(L)*, the kanamycin/neomycin  
381 resistance gene *aadD* and the trimethoprim resistance gene *dfpK* and therefore co-selection of *vga(C)*  
382 under selective pressure by the use of the other antimicrobials can potentially occur (Kadlec and  
383 Schwarz, 2009). Isolates harbouring the *vga(E)* gene were also resistant to beta-lactams,  
384 tetracyclines, trimethoprim, macrolides and lincosamides, spectinomycin and tiamulin and resistant or  
385 less susceptible to quinopristin/dalfopristin, which is used in human medicine to treat (severe)  
386 infections caused by MRSA and vancomycin resistant enterococci (Hauschild et al., 2012).  
387 Staphylococci carrying *cfr* were multidrug-resistant, resistance to erythromycin, tetracycline,  
388 spectinomycin, clindamycin and streptomycin being most common and three of six *cfr* positive isolates  
389 also carried the florfenicol resistance gene *flexA* (Kehrenberg and Schwarz, 2006).

390 Antibiotic usage records for Chinese pig farms indicate that multiple antimicrobial drugs, including  
391 florfenicol, lincomycin and tiamulin have been used on farms where *cfr* positive isolates have been found  
392 suggesting that selective pressure might have played a role (Wang et al., 2012b; Wang et al., 2011).

## 393 **7. Impact on animal health and production**

394 For most indications for which pleuromutilins are authorised there are alternative substances except for  
395 swine dysentery where high prevalence of resistance against alternative antimicrobials exists in many  
396 Member States. Therefore, pleuromutilins are the only remaining treatment option for this indication.  
397 Thus impact of resistance to pleuromutilins on animal health and production is likely to be highest in  
398 the case of swine dysentery. In herds affected by this infection, the disease usually has a considerable  
399 impact on animal health as well as on production economy (Hampson et al., 2006; Wood and Lysons,  
400 1988). Due to the lack of commercial vaccines, control and treatment of swine dysentery depends on  
401 the use of effective antimicrobial drugs. In most EU Member States there are no national programmes  
402 for control of swine dysentery.

403 Occurrence of resistance among *B. hyodysenteriae* to antimicrobial agents commonly used for  
404 treatment of swine dysentery such as macrolides (tylosin) and lincosamides is common (Hidalgo et al.,  
405 2011; Ohya and Sueyoshi, 2010; Sperling et al., 2011). Therefore the number of antimicrobials  
406 available for the treatment of swine dysentery is limited. Alternatives such as carbadox or olaquinox,  
407 which are used in the United States of America, are not authorised in the EU. Thus, in many cases  
408 pleuromutilins are the only potentially effective choice among antimicrobials with swine dysentery as  
409 authorised indication. However, isolates with reduced susceptibility to pleuromutilins have emerged  
410 among *B. hyodysenteriae* in many countries (Duinhof et al., 2008; Hidalgo et al., 2011; Karlsson et al.,  
411 2004; Lobova et al., 2004; Ohya and Sueyoshi, 2010; Rohde et al., 2004; Sperling et al., 2011).  
412 Several of these reports document an increase in proportion of isolates with decreased susceptibility  
413 over time (Hidalgo et al., 2011; Ohya and Sueyoshi, 2010; Sperling et al., 2011), and in some cases  
414 therapy failure is described (Rohde et al., 2004; Sperling et al., 2011; Vyt and Hommez, 2006).

415 Lack of effective treatment options of swine dysentery would have considerable consequences for  
416 production economy due to mortality, impaired growth and secondary costs (Hampson et al., 2006).  
417 Depopulation of the farm and replacement with non-infected animals may in such cases be a last  
418 resort measure (Hampson et al., 2006). To summarise, the loss of pleuromutilins as effective tools to

419 treat swine dysentery because of a further increase in resistance or as a consequence of restrictions  
420 would present a considerable threat to the pig health, welfare and productivity.

## 421 **8. Potential impact on human health**

422 To date only one product containing pleuromutilins (retapamulin) is authorised for humans for topical  
423 use only. Concerns about lack of sufficient bioavailability, gastrointestinal side effects, hepatotoxicity,  
424 and the challenging side-chain chemistry of pleuromutilins labelled these drugs as difficult and  
425 hazardous to develop and several companies stopped their efforts in developing these drugs for human  
426 medicine (Novak, 2011). A new product BC-3781 is now being developed for oral and intravenous  
427 administration to humans with serious multidrug-resistant skin infections and respiratory infections,  
428 including MRSA (Sader et al., 2012a; Sader et al., 2012b). Investigations exploring pleuromutilins for  
429 the treatment of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* infections in humans are ongoing (Lotesta et al., 2011).  
430 Therefore, potential implications of the emergence of resistance to pleuromutilins in *S. aureus* and  
431 MRSA, including the livestock associated MRSA ST398 need to be considered. The emergence of  
432 successful epidemic clones of MRSA, like ST8-Iva/USA300 and ST125 carrying plasmids containing *cfr*  
433 is cause for concern and warrants close surveillance, those PVL positive clones have not been reported  
434 in the EU pig population. Transfer of such plasmids between different bacteria and different hosts,  
435 including humans could potentially occur. The gene confers resistance to several important  
436 antimicrobials used in human medicine, such as oxazolidones and streptogramin A. Therefore, the  
437 emergence of this resistance gene in animals might pose a threat to human medicine as they might  
438 compromise empirical treatment of human MRSA infections. To date linezolid resistance in *S. aureus* of  
439 human origin is still uncommon. Resistance to linezolid can be mediated by chromosomal mutations,  
440 but also through the acquisition of *cfr* by horizontal transfer (Stefani et al., 2010). An outbreak  
441 involving 12 patients with linezolid resistant MRSA has been reported in an intensive care unit in a  
442 Spanish hospital. Eleven of these patients had been treated with linezolid. In addition 3 patients in  
443 other wards were also infected with the linezolid resistant MRSA. All 15 isolates from the outbreak  
444 carried *cfr*. Six patients died and one death was directly attributed to the resistant MRSA (Morales et  
445 al., 2010; Sanchez Garcia et al., 2010). Contact with animals was not investigated. Retapamulin  
446 demonstrated excellent in vitro activity against MSSA and MRSA strains, but not against MRSA isolates  
447 harbouring the *cfr* gene (Candel et al., 2011).

448 Retapamulin MICs of  $\geq 2$   $\mu\text{g/ml}$  were found in only 6 out of 5676 clinical *S. aureus* isolates. The ABC  
449 proteins Vga(Av) and Vga(A) were responsible for the reduced susceptibility to pleuromutilins in these  
450 six isolates (Gentry et al., 2008). Livestock-associated MRSA containing the plasmid-borne *vga(A)*  
451 gene has been reported from pigs and a pig farmer in the United States indicating that zoonotic  
452 transmission may occur (Mendes et al., 2011).

453 A special concern is the recent emergence of *cfr*-encoded plasmid-mediated linezolid resistance in  
454 *Enterococcus faecalis* and *Enterococcus faecium* in human clinical isolates in several countries,  
455 including Thailand (Diaz et al., 2012) and the United Kingdom  
456 ([http://www.hpa.org.uk/webc/HPAwebFile/HPAweb\\_C/1317135991530](http://www.hpa.org.uk/webc/HPAwebFile/HPAweb_C/1317135991530)).

## 457 **9. Summary assessment**

458 Pleuromutilins are antimicrobial agents that are mainly used in veterinary medicine, especially in swine  
459 and to a lesser extent in poultry and rabbits. In pigs, tiamulin and valnemulin are used to treat swine  
460 dysentery, spirochaetal diarrhoea, porcine proliferative enteropathy, enzootic pneumonia and other  
461 infections where *Mycoplasma* is involved.

462 The vast majority of the sales of pleuromutilins comprise oral medication. Data on sales of  
463 pleuromutilins in different countries presented in figure 2 indicate that the amounts of pleuromutilins  
464 used vary markedly between countries. One possible explanation for this might be that in some  
465 countries, these substances are used more widely for treatment and prevention of not only swine  
466 dysentery but also porcine respiratory disease complex associated with *Mycoplasma spp.* and of  
467 infections with *Lawsonia intracellularis*. Other possible explanations might be differences in the  
468 prevalence of swine dysentery between the MSs and a high prevalence of resistance to alternative  
469 antimicrobials used to treat swine dysentery, e.g. the macrolides in countries with the highest use. A  
470 better understanding of the various factors explaining the observed differences would be valuable to  
471 support responsible use initiatives.

472 Decreased susceptibility of *B. hyodysenteriae* to pleuromutilins develops slowly and is caused by  
473 chromosomal mutations. The reported increase of the MICs of tiamulin and valnemulin against porcine  
474 *B. hyodysenteriae* isolates from different European countries is nevertheless alarming, as there is only  
475 a limited number of antimicrobials available for the treatment of swine dysentery and resistance to  
476 these antimicrobials is already very common. Considering that swine dysentery is a common and  
477 economic important disease a possible future loss of effective treatment could have considerable  
478 consequences for swine production.

479 Given the potential impact of resistance to pleuromutilins in *B. hyodysenteriae* on pig health, welfare  
480 and production, there is a need to include *B. hyodysenteriae* in national resistance monitoring  
481 programmes. Establishing approved standards for the methods used for susceptibility testing and  
482 accepted criteria for the interpretation of the results could help to monitor the development of  
483 resistance.

484 Strategies to control or eradicate the infection from a herd or region could be implemented in order to  
485 reduce the continuous need for pleuromutilins on farms where swine dysentery is endemic. Such  
486 strategies rely on the supply of breeding animals that are certified free from *B. hyodysenteriae* and in  
487 most cases utilise strategic treatment with pleuromutilins for a limited period as part of the eradication  
488 protocol (Vyt et al., 2007; Vyt and Hommez, 2006). Successful programmes are in place in e.g.  
489 Sweden, Norway and Finland (Pringle et al., 2012). Another option to reduce the use of pleuromutilins  
490 would be to reserve this class of antimicrobials for the treatment of swine dysentery as alternative  
491 treatments for the other indications are available. Alternative strategies for the control of swine  
492 dysentery e.g. development of new antimicrobials, development of vaccines, increased hygiene and  
493 better management could be explored. Initiatives targeting responsible use of pleuromutilins could  
494 potentially reduce the risks associated with further emergence of resistance in *B. hyodysenteriae*.

495 To date the importance of pleuromutilins in human medicine is limited as only one product for topical  
496 treatment is authorised, but products for systemic use in humans with infections caused by multidrug-  
497 resistant bacteria are being developed. Therefore the importance of pleuromutilins for humans might  
498 increase in the future.

499 A special concern relating to human and veterinary medicine is the emergence of resistance to  
500 pleuromutilins in staphylococci (including MRSA) and enterococci, which can be located on mobile  
501 elements like plasmids and transposons and thus be horizontally transmitted (Kadlec et al., 2010;  
502 Kadlec and Schwarz, 2009; Witte and Cuny, 2011). A special concern are the *vga* genes conferring  
503 cross-resistance to pleuromutilins, streptogramin A and lincosamides and the *cfr* genes with an even  
504 broader spectrum conferring resistance to pleuromutilins, lincosamides, streptogramin A, phenicols and  
505 oxazolidinones.

506 Colonisation of animals with livestock-associated MRSA ST398 can lead to clinical infections in animals  
507 and zoonotic infections in humans and severe cases have been documented (Catry et al., 2010). The

508 prevalence of MRSA in pigs is very high in many Member States (Catry et al., 2010; de Neeling et al.,  
509 2007) and in such situations there is a high potential that the use of pleuromutilins for the treatment  
510 or prevention of other disease like swine dysentery further selects for pleuromutilin resistant  
511 staphylococci, including MRSA. The *vga* and *cfr* genes have been detected in isolates from humans and  
512 animals in many different countries (Gentry et al., 2008; Gopegui et al., 2012; Kadlec and Schwarz,  
513 2009; Mendes et al., 2011; Shore et al., 2010; Witte and Cuny, 2011), and *cfr*-mediated resistance  
514 has been detected in several bacterial species, indicating inter-species and inter-genus transfer (Liu et  
515 al., 2012b; Long et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2012a; Wang et al., 2012b; Wang et al., 2011). Resistance  
516 selection and spread between animals and humans might jeopardise the efficacy of antimicrobial  
517 agents. The emergence of these resistance genes in animals pose a potential threat to human medicine  
518 as they might compromise empirical treatment of human MRSA infections. The use of linezolid or  
519 dalbapristin in humans may also select for resistant staphylococci and enterococci which might also be  
520 transmitted between humans, but also from humans to animals. As the pleuromutilin resistant isolates  
521 are often multidrug-resistant co-selection under selective pressure by numerous other antimicrobial  
522 agents in human and veterinary medicine may potentially occur. Nevertheless, resistance seems to be  
523 emerging and to further access the situation, there is a need for the surveillance of bacteria especially  
524 staphylococci and enterococci from both animals and humans, for the presence of *vga* and/or *cfr*  
525 genes.

526 Co-selection for pleuromutilins with many different antimicrobials can potentially occur due to  
527 multidrug resistance genes and therefore prudent use of all antimicrobials in animals and humans is  
528 warranted.

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