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4 Reflection paper on anthelmintic resistance

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7 Reflection paper on anthelmintic resistance

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33 1. Introduction

34 Helminth infestations are common in most animals. Usually, there is a balance between helminth
35 infestation and the immune system of the animal and thus helminths may not lead to clinical signs of
36 disease. However, helminth infestation may impact severely on the health status of animals that do
37 not have sufficient immunity against worms *e.g.* young, diseased animals, or those exposed to high
38 infestation pressure. This might subsequently impact on performance (*e.g.* sports horses) and
39 production (*e.g.* reduced milk and weight gain in sheep). It is therefore important to ensure the
40 availability of effective veterinary anthelmintics. However, resistance to anthelmintics in veterinary
41 medicines is an increasing problem worldwide, especially in ruminants and horses.

42 The scope of this reflection paper is to describe the current resistance situation in Europe for different
43 helminths and anthelmintic classes and to reflect current knowledge on known resistance mechanisms.
44 For companion animals, there is currently limited knowledge about anthelmintic resistance. Thus, this
45 reflection paper focuses mainly on food producing animals and horses. Moreover, monitoring systems
46 and methods of detecting resistance are described, as well as the currently applied management
47 strategies to delay resistance development. Finally, this paper provides some recommendations on
48 measurements that might delay resistance development.

49 2. Definition of resistance

50 In line with the World Association for the Advancement of Veterinary Parasitology (WAAVP) Guideline
51 on anthelmintic combination products targeting nematode infections of ruminants and horses (18),
52 anthelmintic resistance can be defined accordingly: "*the ability of parasites to survive doses of drugs*
53 *that would normally kill parasites of the same species and stage*". It is inherited and selected for,
54 because the survivors of drug treatments pass genes for resistance on to their offspring. These
55 resistance genes are initially rare in the population or arise as rare mutations, but, as selection
56 continues, their proportion in the population increases as does the proportion of resistant parasites.
57 Cross resistance can be defined as acquired resistance to an anthelmintic, not as a result of direct
58 exposure but by exposure to another anthelmintic.

59 3. Current resistance situation (overview)

60 There is evidence for the development of anthelmintic resistance to various helminths in almost all
61 animal species and to various classes of anthelmintics.

62 Several scientific reports indicate, to different extents, an increase of helminth resistance to the
63 established classes of anthelmintics (benzimidazoles, tetrahydropyrimidines, imidazothiazoles and
64 macrocyclic lactones) in the EU (4, 51, 52). However, isolated reports on cases of helminth resistance
65 to the newest classes of anthelmintics have also been published (*e.g.* resistance of *Haemonchus*
66 *contortus* to monepantel, an amino-acetonitrile derivative, 58).

67 Benzimidazoles are the oldest class of modern anthelmintics; thiabendazole was introduced in the
68 1960's. The first report of decreased efficacy of thiabendazole against *Haemonchus contortus* strains
69 dates from 1964, just 3 years after its introduction into the market (57). Resistance has developed
70 rapidly to other anthelmintic classes, particularly those used in sheep and horses, after their
71 introduction into the market. For example, resistance to imidazothiazoles-tetrahydropyrimidines and
72 avermectin-milbemycins classes developed within 3 – 9 years in sheep (26). Today, resistance to
73 anthelmintics is a major constraint in the sheep industry in Australia but resistance is also evident in
74 Europe. Papadopoulos *et al.* (2012) reported the widespread incidence of multidrug-resistant

75 populations of *Haemonchus contortus*, *Teladorsagia* and *Trichostrongylus* to benzimidazoles,
76 imidazothiazoles and macrocyclic lactones in sheep throughout Europe (43).

77 In Europe, an emerging problem is the decreased efficacy of triclabendazole against liver fluke
78 (*Fasciola hepatica*) in sheep and cattle (46). Resistant populations of *Cooperia* spp to ivermectin were
79 observed in cattle (13). In horses, resistance was reported for *Cyathostominae* and *Parascaris*
80 *equorum* to benzimidazoles, pyrantel and macrocyclic lactones (19, 40, 41). *Oesophagostomum* spp
81 has been reported to be resistant to pyrantel in pigs (50), and resistance in ascarids and hookworm to
82 pyrantel has been observed in dogs and cats (28, 47).

83 **4. Mechanisms of resistance**

84 Due to modern molecular technology, mechanisms of resistance in worms are becoming increasingly
85 understood. As described by James *et al.* (2007) and Prichard (2001) and Wolstenholme *et al.* (2004),
86 resistance in worms can be the result of a variety of mechanisms and can be roughly categorised as
87 genetic changes in the drug target, changes in the drug transport (*e.g.* ATP-binding Cassette (ABC)
88 transporters), or changes in the metabolism of the drug within the parasite.

89 The relationship between the above mentioned changes and resistance varies between helminth
90 species. Whereas benzimidazole resistance in nematodes can be due to a mutation in the gene coding
91 for the target site, the same mutation does not seem to cause resistance to triclabendazole in the
92 trematode *Fasciola hepatica* (62). Even within a single worm species different mutations can lead to
93 resistance to the same anthelmintic. For instance, benzimidazole resistance in *Haemonchus contortus*
94 can be caused by the phenylalanine to tyrosine mutation at amino acid position 200 of the isotype 1 β -
95 tubulin gene (31). However, the frequency of this resistance point mutation (single nucleotide
96 polymorphism, SNP) varies considerably and it can be low even in benzimidazole (BZ)-resistant
97 populations (25, 20) which carry other mutations (*e.g.* codon 167). Although genetic selection
98 contributes to resistance, changes in drug transport mechanisms or in the metabolism of the drug
99 within a worm species also account for different resistance mechanisms to the same anthelmintic (3,
100 59). The P-glycoprotein, a cell membrane transport protein able to transport many different drugs
101 (including ivermectin, benzimidazoles and imidazothiazole derivatives), may lead to multi drug
102 resistance by increasing the active transport of drugs (25, 27, 65). Therefore, it can be concluded that
103 more research is needed in order to understand the mechanisms and to develop suitable assays for
104 detection of resistance.

105

106 **5. Monitoring resistance**

107 Investigations on resistance in helminths is a demanding task since mechanisms of resistance are
108 complex and suitable methods of detecting and evaluating resistance are limited. A worm species
109 which has developed resistance towards a certain anthelmintic substance might still be susceptible
110 towards other classes of antiparasitics, implying that treatment alternatives may also be applicable for
111 resistant species. It may be of interest to evaluate the occurrence of cross-resistance between different
112 substance classes to inform the user on potential treatment options.

113 Prevalence of resistance in helminth species to different classes of anthelmintics in different target
114 species is not systematically documented throughout Europe, and the development of resistance
115 across Europe is therefore difficult to estimate.

116 **5.1. Monitoring systems**

117 There are only a few monitoring programmes running in the EU, which are mostly organised locally. It
118 would be helpful to establish surveillance programmes to get a better insight into the evolution of
119 resistance. It would also be useful to gather information on any academic studies being conducted in
120 the Community.

121 **5.2. Pharmacovigilance system**

122 Reports of a “lack of expected efficacy” are part of the EU-wide pharmacovigilance system comprising
123 the spontaneous adverse event reporting system and periodic safety update reports (PSURs). The
124 currently available reports might be supportive in providing an indication of potential development of
125 resistance to a particular active substance.

126 However, the system has some limitations partly because resistance might not be immediately
127 recognisable in the field and there is underreporting of lack of efficacy and the true incidence of lack of
128 efficacy is likely to be underestimated.

129 **5.3. Methods of detecting resistance**

130 There are various *in vivo* and *in vitro* methods available to assess the efficacy of anthelmintics.
131 Furthermore, specific laboratory methods can be applied to confirm a suspicion of resistance in the
132 field, e.g. as described in the WAAVP study recommendations and guidelines (64, 6).

133 **5.3.1. Nematodes**

134 **5.3.1.1. Faecal egg count reduction test**

135 Reduced efficacy, that may reflect the development of resistance, can be detected by using the Faecal
136 Egg Count Reduction Test (FECRT). This test estimates the anthelmintic efficacy by comparing the
137 worm eggs counted in faeces of naturally infected animals before and after treatment. This test can be
138 used for all anthelmintic classes, which is a great advantage compared to other tests. However, the
139 sensitivity of the FECRT may be low. For example, it detects only BZ-resistance of *Teladorsagia*
140 *circumcincta* and *Trichostrongylus colubriformis* in sheep when the proportion of resistant worms is
141 greater than 25% (39). In addition, the egg output of some helminth species varies depending on the
142 density of the adult worm population (30). This is the case for *Ancylostoma caninum*, in dogs (29) or
143 *Oesophagostomum dentatum* in pigs (5). In cattle, there is also no clear correlation between egg

144 output and worm number in cattle (8, 22, 30). This implies there is a risk for biased assessments when
145 using the FECRT for the detection of resistance.

146 In general, FECRT can be used in horses, ruminants and pigs (6) for nematodes which shed their eggs
147 in the faeces. The interval between treatment and second sampling should be shorter than the pre-
148 patent period of the specific worm, thus the genus and (where possible) the species should be
149 determined before testing. Nevertheless, the correct sampling interval depends on the type of
150 anthelmintic (6, 7).

151 Different FECRT methodologies and thresholds for interpretation of efficacy are recommended for
152 investigation of different anthelmintics in different target species e.g. different minimum group sizes,
153 minimum pre-treatment faecal egg counts, presence/absence of a control group, time between
154 anthelmintic administration and repeat egg counting. The WAAVP guideline on anthelmintic resistance
155 (6)¹ interprets a faecal egg count reduction of less than 90% (arithmetic mean) as indicative of
156 resistance in pigs, provided that a minimum pre-treatment individual egg count is present.

157 In horses, a reduction of less than 90% can be seen as indicative of resistance but there is some
158 discussion on this point. Some prefer a 95% mean cut off value (9, 32) whereas others suggest
159 different cut-off values for different classes of drugs e.g. 90% for pyrantel and 95% for benzimidazoles
160 and macrocyclic lactones (10). Therefore further research is required in horses (8).

161 In small ruminants, the WAAVP guideline defines resistance as when the percentage reduction in egg
162 count (arithmetic mean) is less than 95% and when the 95% confidence level is less than 90%; if only
163 one of the two criteria is met, resistance is suspected.

164 Resistance is more difficult to accurately determine in cattle than in small ruminants, since the faecal
165 egg counts tend to be lower (22). The major limitation of the FECRT is its lack of sensitivity. Another
166 disadvantage is that it is not species-specific since eggs of different nematode species cannot be
167 differentiated. Moreover, the interpretation of the test depends upon various factors including the
168 detection limit of the method, the number of animals per group, the host species, and the level of egg
169 excretion by the helminths (22).

170 Although FECRT can be very useful in the field, it is not sufficient to prove resistance to an active
171 substance of a worm strain and other methods have to be used to confirm any suspected finding to
172 support an SPC claim.

173 **5.3.1.2. Egg reappearance period test**

174 Egg reappearance period (ERP) is defined as the time interval between the last anthelmintic treatment
175 and the resumption of significant helminth egg shedding (8). The ERP after dosing should be compared
176 with the historical ERP of the veterinary medicinal product. The ERP is a more sensitive method of
177 detecting a reduction in efficacy than the FECRT in some helminth species (1, 41).

178 **5.3.1.3. Molecular assays**

179 Molecular techniques, such as polymerase chain reaction (PCR) or pyrosequencing, can reveal
180 mutations in helminth genes responsible for resistance to a certain anthelmintic class. Currently, in
181 helminths, only resistance to benzimidazoles can be detected by PCR (31).

182 These methods are useful when resistance is caused by a single gene mutation (i.e. SNP), or by a
183 small number of such mutations. The relevance of the mutation in the development of resistance to a

¹ The WAAVP anthelmintic resistance guideline is currently under revision. The date of publication of the revision is currently unknown

184 certain anthelmintic class can be substantiated by controlled laboratory, field studies or documented in
185 literature.

186 **5.3.1.4. Other methods**

187 Other methods for detection of resistance are the egg hatch assay (EHA) and the microagar larval
188 development assay (LDA), which have been developed for detection of resistance to benzimidazoles or
189 levamisole in horses, pigs or small ruminants. Coles et al. (8) have described the procedure of these
190 assays and the interpretation of the results. A novel method for detection of drug resistant helminths is
191 based on the objective and digitalised evaluation of worm motility. Continued motility of nematodes
192 after administration of an anthelmintic that should lead to paralysis of the parasite could indicate a lack
193 of efficacy. This method has been described for larval *Haemonchus contortus*, *Strongyloides ratti*, adult
194 hookworms and blood flukes (54).

195 **5.3.2. Trematodes and cestodes**

196 At present, there are no validated tests available for evaluation of resistance in trematodes and
197 cestodes.

198 Coles et al. (7) propose a “dose and slaughter” trial to further substantiate suspected resistance of
199 trematodes in the field: After artificial infestation followed by treatment with a flukicide (e.g.
200 triclabendazole), the animals are killed and the number of flukes in the liver are counted. However, at
201 the moment there is no agreed view on how to determine the occurrence of resistance on the basis of
202 these counts.

203 FECRT has not been standardised for tapeworms or flukes. An egg hatch assay (EHA), recently
204 developed for the detection of resistance of *Fasciola hepatica* to albendazole, still needs to be validated
205 (49). Fairweather et al. (14) developed an EHA test for the detection of triclabendazole (TCBZ)
206 resistance in *Fasciola hepatica*.

207 The coproantigen reduction test (ELISA test in faecal samples) might be a useful alternative to
208 investigate resistance in flukes, also in the pre-patent stage, but further evaluation of interpretation
209 criteria are still needed (15, 16, 21, 42).

210 PCR could potentially be used to confirm resistance suspected on the basis of these tests (49), but
211 current literature on this topic is very scarce.

212 **6. Management strategies to delay the development of** 213 **resistance**

214 Different management strategies are used with the purpose of preventing infestation and/or keeping
215 infestation pressure low, i.e. pasture management and refugia. This would result in a reduced need for
216 anthelmintics and consequently a delay in the development of resistance. In addition, when
217 anthelmintic treatment is applied different aspects of use could influence the risk for resistance
218 development. Some methods are well established and often reflected in the product information of
219 authorised VMPs whereas others may require further investigation, as detailed below.

220 **6.1. Correct use of anthelmintics**

221 Each time helminth populations are exposed to an anthelmintic there is a risk of resistance
222 development. Repeated underdosing and/or a too frequent use of anthelmintics belonging to the same
223 class (53) will increase the risk for selection of resistance.

224 Rotation of anthelmintics classes has been recommended to delay the development of resistance.
225 Routine deworming leading to some unnecessary treatment can also contribute to the increase of the
226 selection pressure.
227 Farming practices such as “drench -and- move” may provide a survival advantage for resistant
228 parasites. To decrease the selection pressure, treatment and pasture management need to be
229 implemented to maintain refugia (22).
230 Treatment recommendations should be based on an in-depth understanding of the helminth
231 epidemiology (53). It is important that deworming is based on the confirmation of worm burden and
232 that treatment with a relevant product is applied at the right time in relation to the life cycle of the
233 parasite to obtain sufficient effect without unnecessary exposure (2, 53).

234 **6.2. Refugia**

235 The rate of development of anthelmintic resistance is increased by providing a survival advantage for
236 parasites carrying mutations that reduce drug efficacy. “*Refugia*” is being advocated as an important
237 tool to slow the progress of anthelmintic resistance (61). Parasites *in refugia* are those that have not
238 been exposed to an anthelmintic, including those present as free-living stages in the environment, in
239 untreated individuals, and any lifecycle stages in the host that are refractory to anthelmintic treatment
240 (17, 61). Maintenance of a population of parasites *in refugia* is a strategy that aims to slow the rate of
241 development of anthelmintic resistance. To decrease the selection pressure, treatment and pasture
242 management need to be implemented to maintain *refugia* (22).

243 Sargison has published an extensive overview of management measures to create refugia in sheep
244 helminths (53). Selective deworming of those animals that are predicted to be most infested by
245 nematodes and/or to contribute most towards pasture contamination should slow the development of
246 anthelmintic resistance but maintain a parasite population in refugia (2, 53). In horses, this practice
247 still needs further scientific evidence, however, the underlying principle remains the same (41).
248 According to Van Wyk *et al.*(61), the subpopulation of encysted equine cyathostomin larvae may be
249 considered as refugia as they escape the effect of the drug and reduce the selection for resistance by
250 eliminating the susceptible worm eggs onto pasture.

251 The value of maintaining a population of parasites *in refugia* to slow down the development of
252 anthelmintic resistance has been demonstrated in a model using sheep. In this bioeconomic model,
253 besides the number of flock treatments, the proportion of the worm population in *refugia* had a
254 significant influence on the rate of development of anthelmintic resistance (44).

255 **6.3. Use of multiactive anthelmintic products**

256 A treatment strategy to delay resistance development may include the use of products (so called
257 multiactive anthelmintic products) containing two or more substances with activity against the same
258 target helminths but with a different mode of action. Modelling studies and some field studies have
259 indicated that this strategy may delay the development of resistance to active classes (33, 34, 35), or
260 delay development of anthelmintic resistance to existing anthelmintic classes (36, 37). However, there
261 are also concerns that the use of multiactive anthelmintics could potentially lead to the selection of
262 multiple resistance to different anthelmintic classes particularly when livestock grazes low
263 contamination pasture with insufficient refugia population.

264 **6.4. Other options**

265 Other management measures aimed to decrease helminth infestations are pasture management *e.g.*
266 removal of faeces from pasture to reduce the level of infective larvae, reducing stocking densities,
267 preventing high degree of infestation or improving drainage of pastures to decrease the risk of liver
268 fluke infestations (53). In addition to this, there are other biological control methods which are
269 currently under development (23, 60, 24). One approach that has been tested to reduce helminthic
270 burden in small ruminants is to select genetically less susceptible livestock (55).

271 **7. Discussion**

272 **7.1. Resistance mechanisms and assessment of resistance**

273 The development of anthelmintic resistance is a highly complex process influenced by the host, the
274 parasite, environment and VMPs. At present, the resistance mechanisms to a number of
275 anthelmintics/anthelmintic classes are not yet completely known. In addition, there is a lack of
276 standardised/validated test systems for diagnosing resistance in helminths. More research is necessary
277 in order to understand the resistance mechanisms and to develop easy detection methods, usable in
278 practice. The commonly used FECRT is labour intensive. It provides reliable results only if more than
279 approximately 25% of the nematode population is resistant (7, 39). Moreover, there still is some
280 debate on which percentage reduction in the FECRT should be used to decide on resistance in some
281 target helminths and target species. For liver flukes, the coproantigen reduction test (ELISA test in
282 faecal samples) might be a useful alternative to necropsy or FECRT, which is not reliable for this
283 helminth. Resistance detection tests in helminths based on molecular techniques (PCR) can be very
284 specific but are not useful in the field.

285 **7.2. Monitoring of resistance**

286 Currently, there are no systematic surveillance programmes running in any EU country, to study the
287 prevalence of anthelmintic resistance.

288 **7.3. Treatment strategies**

289 Current knowledge indicates that the implementation of certain strategies can delay resistance
290 development. Management practices related to the handling of animals on pasture and stocking
291 density as well as applying treatment only on the basis of a confirmed worm burden, correct dosing
292 and alternation between different classes of anthelmintics are well known factors related to a delay in
293 resistance development. To combine substances with activity against the same helminth but with
294 different mechanisms of action (so called multiactive combinations) is proposed to delay the
295 occurrence of resistance to the included substance classes. However, there are concerns that such
296 practice could lead to development of simultaneous resistance to multiple anthelmintic classes. There
297 is currently not enough information available to conclude on the benefits and risks connected to the
298 combination of different substance classes.

299 Furthermore, the implementation of the refugia strategy is proposed as a means to delay resistance
300 development.

301 Alternative methods, such as biological control methods and selection of genetically less susceptible
302 livestock are under development.

303 Detailed recommendations regarding management practices are not provided in this document since
304 they should be tailored to each individual situation, taking into consideration epidemiology,
305 environment, farm demographics, housing conditions, resistance situation, available VMPs etc.

306 **7.4. Assessment of anthelmintic product applications**

307 Information on anthelmintic resistance needs to be provided in all marketing authorisation applications,
308 in particular those where efficacy is claimed against helminth strains known to be resistant to other
309 substances. However, guidance on how to assess anthelmintic resistance and how to reflect it in the
310 SPC and product information is limited. As anthelmintic resistance is becoming more common, it is
311 important to document if resistance has been reported in the claimed helminth species to the active
312 substance or other substances of the same class of anthelmintic.

313 More guidance is needed on how to elaborate meaningful data (from laboratory and field trials)
314 supporting treatment efficacy against helminth strains with documented resistance towards other
315 anthelmintics. Additionally, further guidance is required on how to address specific aspects of
316 anthelmintic resistance/susceptibility in the product literature, apart from the technical advice already
317 given in the Guideline on the summary of product characteristics for anthelmintics
318 (EMA/CVMP/EWP/170208/2005). This guideline was developed to recommend standard warnings in
319 regard to the possible development of resistance in the SPC of anthelmintics authorised for treatment
320 of ruminants (sheep, goats and cattle) and horses. However, other animal species (pigs, companion
321 animals, etc.) are not within the scope of that guideline, as no resistance of helminths was reported in
322 those species when the guideline was adopted. Investigations on anthelmintic resistance in parasites of
323 companion animals appeared only recently (29).

324 For applications claiming efficacy of a product against a worm that has documented resistance towards
325 another substance it is important that efficacy is supported for the new product against this resistant
326 strain. Different biochemical changes or genetic mutations can lead to resistance to an active
327 substance or to a class of anthelmintics. Moreover, a helminth can have separate (concomitant)
328 resistance mechanisms to different classes of active substances. It can, therefore, never be claimed
329 that a certain active substance will always remain effective in a helminth known to be resistant to
330 another anthelmintic substance (i.e. cross resistance may develop at any time). The absence of cross
331 resistance between anthelmintics in worm strains might be mentioned for an authorised product but
332 given that the situation may change over time it is not appropriate to include such information in the
333 indication.

334 **8. Conclusions**

335 Currently, there are no EU-wide programmes that systematically monitor the occurrence of
336 anthelmintic resistance in helminths of relevant animal species. Therefore trends in the development of
337 anthelmintic resistance in Europe are difficult to identify when based on local programmes.

338 Demonstration of anthelmintic resistance is difficult. At the moment there is a lack of
339 standardised/validated test systems for determining resistance in many helminth species. More
340 research is necessary in order to understand the mechanisms and to develop validated and practical
341 detection tests.

342 Prudent use of anthelmintics such as the avoidance of frequent use of the same class of anthelmintics
343 and underdosing as described in the guideline on the SPC for anthelmintics
344 (EMA/CVMP/EWP/170208/2005) is recommended.

345 Other strategies may delay the development of resistance such as treatment solely based on diagnosis,
346 targeted treatment to maintain parasite population *in refugia*, pasture management and possibly use
347 of multiactive products.

348 **9. Recommendations**

349 Not all aspects related to the use of anthelmintics aimed to reduce the risk for resistance development
350 fall within the mandate of the CVMP/EWP. For some aspects, the professional expertise/competence of
351 other committees or institutions is needed to improve current understanding, monitoring, management
352 practices, and prudent use of anthelmintics in order to scale down intensive treatment practices which
353 are known to contribute to selection pressure, thus favouring emergence of anthelmintic resistance:

354 **CVMP recommendations**

- 355 • Treatment should be based on the confirmation of helminth infestation using appropriate
356 diagnostic measures *e.g.* Faecal egg counts.
- 357 • To improve pharmacovigilance reporting, veterinarians should be encouraged to identify and
358 report any lack of expected efficacy.
- 359 • To review the guideline on the summary of product characteristics for anthelmintics
360 (EMA/CVMP/EWP/170208/2005) and extend the scope to non-food species.
- 361 • To provide guidance for applicants on how to document the resistance to an anthelmintic
362 substance (published literature and / or field data addressing the concerned regions in Europe)
363 and on how to characterise and confirm a suspected resistance in a helminth strain (*e.g.*
364 addressing methods of detection, types of studies, number of strains to be considered).

365 **Responsibility of Member States**

- 366 • The proposal of mandatory prescription of anthelmintics in food producing animals is not within
367 the responsibility of the CVMP for nationally authorised products.
- 368 • Large package sizes may lead to unnecessary treatment. Package sizes could be assessed,
369 keeping in mind the indication and the possibility of unnecessary treatment.

370 **Research and education**

371 The following topics fall outside the mandate of the CVMP and national regulatory agencies. However,
372 they are of major importance for understanding and monitoring the development of anthelmintic
373 resistance.

- 374 • To continue research on resistance mechanisms. To develop suitable and practical tests for
375 detection of resistance in different parasite species. The threshold for determining resistance in
376 endoparasite species needs to be defined for each target animal species.
- 377 • To work on the validation of tests, *e.g.* by carrying out inter-laboratory ring tests.
- 378 • To recommend standardised FECRT and thresholds to facilitate better comparability of resistance
379 data collected in the field.
- 380 • To investigate resistance of helminths in companion animals.
- 381 • To survey routinely the occurrence of resistance throughout Europe.
- 382 • To continue research on management strategies that could reduce the need of anthelmintics.

- 383 • To continue research on biological alternatives that could reduce the need for anthelmintic
384 chemicals.
- 385 • To educate and enhance awareness amongst veterinarians and animal owners of the prevalence
386 and magnitude of anthelmintic resistance. To critically question current deworming practices and
387 husbandry procedures.
- 388 • To further explore through appropriate scientific evaluation the benefits and risks in relation to
389 resistance development associated with the use of multiactive anthelmintics.

390 10. Glossary

391 **Cross resistance:** defined as acquired resistance to an anthelmintic, not as a result of direct exposure
392 but by exposure to another anthelmintic (slightly amended definition from Merriam Webster
393 dictionary).

394 **Multiactive anthelmintic products:** products containing two or more substances with activity
395 against the same target helminths but with a different mode of action.

396 11. References

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