

Citation: López-Aladid R, Guiu A, Mosquera MM, López-Medrano F, Cofán F, Linares L, et al. (2019) Improvement in detecting cytomegalovirus drug resistance mutations in solid organ transplant recipients with suspected resistance using next generation sequencing. PLoS ONE 14(7): e0219701. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal. pone.0219701

Editor: Stanislaw Stepkowski, University of Toledo, UNITED STATES

Received: February 20, 2019

Accepted: May 7, 2019

Published: July 18, 2019

Copyright: © 2019 López-Aladid et al. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Data Availability Statement: All relevant data are within the manuscript and its Supporting Information files.

Funding: M.A.M. was supported in part by: Agency for Health Technology Assessment and Research Supported by Ministerio de Economía y Competitividad, Instituto de Salud Carlos III (PS12/ 02131 and PI17/02150); Agència de Gestió d'Ajuts Universitaris I de Recerca, Generalitat de RESEARCH ARTICLE

Improvement in detecting cytomegalovirus drug resistance mutations in solid organ transplant recipients with suspected resistance using next generation sequencing

Rubén López-Aladid^{1®}, Alba Guiu^{1®}, Maria Mar Mosquera¹, Francisco López-Medrano², Frederic Cofán³, Laura Linares⁴, Julián Torre-Cisneros⁵, Elisa Vidal⁵, Asunción Moreno⁴, Jose María Aguado², Elisa Cordero⁶, Cecilia Martin-Gandul⁶, Jordi Carratalá⁷, Nuria Sabé⁷, Jordi Niubó⁸, Carlos Cervera[®]⁹, Alicia Capón¹, Anna Cervilla¹, Marta Santos[®]¹, Marta Bodro⁴, Patricia Muñoz¹⁰, Maria Carmen Fariñas¹¹, Andrés Antón¹², Maitane Aranzamendi¹³, Miguel Montejo¹⁴, Pilar Pérez-Romero¹⁵, Oscar Len¹⁶, Maria Ángeles Marcos[®]¹*

1 Department of Clinical Microbiology, Hospital Clinic, Universidad de Barcelona, Institute for Global Health, (ISGlobal), Barcelona, Spain, 2 Unit of Infectious Diseases, Instituto de Investigación Hospital 12 Octubre (i + 12) University Hospital 12 de Octubre, Universidad Complutense, Madrid, Spain, 3 Department of Nephrology and Renal Transplant, Hospital Clinic, Universidad de Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain, 4 Department of Infectious Diseases, Hospital Clinic, Institut d'Investigacions Biomediques August Pi I Sunyer (IDIBAPS), Universidad de Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain, 5 Clinical Unit of Infectious Diseases, Hospital Universitario Reina Sofia-IMIBIC-UCO, Córdoba, Spain, 6 Department of Infectious Diseases, Instituto de Biomedicina de Sevilla (IBIS), University Hospital Virgen del Rocío, Sevilla, Spain, 7 Department of Infectious Diseases, Bellvitge University Hospital, IDIBELL, Barcelona, Spain, 8 Department of Clinical Microbiology, Bellvitge University Hospital, IDIBELL, Barcelona, Spain, 9 Department of Medicine, Division of Infectious Diseases, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada, 10 Department of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases, Hospital General Universitario Gregorio Marañón, Instituto de Investigación Sanitario Gregorio Marañón, Madrid, Spain, 11 Unit of Infectious Diseases, University Hospital Margués de Valdecilla, Universidad de Cantabria, Santander, Spain, 12 Microbiology Service, Hospital Vall d'Hebron, Barcelona, Spain, 13 Microbiology Service, Hospital Universitario de Cruces, Bilbao, Spain, 14 Department of Infectious Diseases, Hospital Universitario de Cruces, Bilbao, Spain, 15 National Center for Microbiology, Instituto de Salud Carlos III, Majadahonda, Madrid, Spain, 16 Department of Infectious Diseases, Hospital Universitari Vall d'Hebrón, Uniiversidad Autónoma de Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain

These authors contributed equally to this work.
* mmarcos@clinic.ub.es

Abstract

Objetives

The aim of this study was to identify CMV drug resistance mutations (DRM) in solid organ transplant (SOT) recipients with suspected resistance comparing next-generation sequencing (NGS) with Sanger sequencing and assessing risk factors and the clinical impact of resistance.

Methods

Using Sanger sequencing as the reference method, we prospectively assessed the ability of NGS to detect CMV DRM in the *UL97* and *UL54* genes in a nationwide observational study from September 2013 to August 2016.

Catalunya, 2017 SGR 794; and Fundació Marató TV3 project code 201824.

Competing interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

Results

Among 44 patients recruited, 14 DRM were detected by Sanger in 12 patients (27%) and 20 DRM were detected by NGS, in 16 (36%). NGS confirmed all the DRM detected by Sanger. The additional six mutations detected by NGS were present in <20% of the sequenced population, being located in the UL97 gene and conferring high-level resistance to ganciclovir. The presence of DRM by NGS was associated with lung transplantation (p = 0.050), the administration of prophylaxis (p = 0.039), a higher mean time between transplantation and suspicion of resistance (p = 0.038) and longer antiviral treatment duration before suspicion (p = 0.024). However, the latter was the only factor independently associated with the presence of DRM by NGS in the multivariate analysis (OR 2.24, 95% CI 1.03 to 4.87).

Conclusions

NGS showed a higher yield than Sanger sequencing for detecting CMV resistance mutations in SOT recipients. The presence of DRM detected by NGS was independently associated with longer antiviral treatment.

Introduction

Cytomegalovirus (CMV) infection is one of the most common complications in solid organ transplant (SOT) patients. Currently, prophylaxis and preemptive treatments have decreased the incidence of disease and death by CMV. However, mutations associated with resistance to antivirals have become an important problem with a high associated morbidity and mortality [1, 2].

In the transplant setting, the incidence of drug resistance mutations (DRM) is 5-12% depending on the group of patients studied but may be higher than 20% in patients with suspected DRM [3, 4].

Diagnostic laboratory testing should be performed whenever there is a criterion of suspicion of resistance since suboptimal response to treatment may have other causes, and inadequate empiric changes in therapy may have adverse effects [5, 6]. Genotypic testing by Sanger sequencing of the protein kinase gene (*UL97*) and DNA polymerase gene (*UL54*) is the usual method for detecting drug resistance and is the basis of the selection of alternative therapy [7]. However, Sanger DNA sequencing is unable to detect and quantify subpopulations of viral mutants of less than 20–30%, which may be crucial for selecting the most adequate therapy [8].

In the last years next generation sequencing (NGS) technologies have provided better understanding of the complexity of variant populations, increasing the detection of subpopulations of minority variants which have a prevalence of 1-3%. Nevertheless, to date, only a few studies have evaluated CMV DRM using NGS and most of these studies were carried out in a reduced number of patients [9–12].

The present study was conducted within the context of the Group for the Study of Infection in Transplantation (GESITRA), constituting one of its major lines of clinical research. The nationwide network of Spanish hospitals participating in GESITRA has allowed the inclusion of a wide variety of SOT recipients.

The aim of this study was to identify CMV drug resistance mutations in solid organ transplant recipients with suspected resistance comparing NGS with Sanger sequencing and to assessing risk factors and the clinical impact of resistance detected by NGS.

Materials and methods

Settings and study population

We conducted a prospective observational study in nine hospitals included in the Spanish Network for Research in Infectious Diseases (REIPI). Adult SOT patients with suspected DRM were included in the study from September 2013 to August 2016. Resistance was suspected when there was persistent or increasing CMV viral load despite ≥ 2 weeks of appropriate antiviral treatment, or failure to have a significant improvement in clinical symptoms despite 2 weeks of full-dose antiviral therapy.[2,5,6]

The coordinating centre was the Hospital Clinic of Barcelona (Spain), which performed the genotypic resistance testing as well as the data analysis. Patient treatment and follow-up were conducted as per the protocol of each centre. All patients were initially treated with standard-dose ganciclovir/valganciclovir (GCV/VGCV) (adjusted to renal function).

Monitoring of CMV viral load was based on local quantitative PCR-based assays. On the suspicion of resistance, plasma samples were collected and frozen at -80°C in the respective hospital and sent in batches to the Microbiology Laboratory of the Hospital Clinic every 4 months. Thus, genotypic testing was not carried out in real time and all patients received empiric treatment on the presence of suspected drug resistance.

Data at patient inclusion and during follow-up were registered in a clinical database at each participating hospital. We reviewed medical histories in terms of viral response, rejection and mortality at 3 months after suspicion of resistance.

The DRM detected by Sanger sequencing and NGS were also included in the database.

CMV infection and disease and acute cellular rejection were defined as described previously [5, 6].

The study was endorsed by Group for the study of Infection in Transplantation (GESITRA) and approved by the Ethical Committee of Hospital Clínic (Comité Ético de Investigación del Hospital Clínic de Barcelona, CEIC), approval number HCB/2012/7598) as the reference committee for the all participating centres according to legal regulations in Spain.

Microbiological studies

In the coordinating laboratory, all samples were kept at -80°C until processing. DNA extraction was performed in 500 μ L of each plasma sample using the QIAsymphony system (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). CMV viral load was confirmed by CMV Real Time PCR (Nanogen Advanced Diagnostics, Italy) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Subsequently, all samples were analysed by Sanger sequencing based on PCR amplification of the CMV *UL97* protein kinase gene (codons 400–670) in a single fragment and the *UL54* DNA polymerase gene (codons 300–1000) in four fragments [3].

Afterwards, antiviral resistance NGS, using Ion Torrent PGM (Ion Personal Genome Machine, Ion Torrent Life Technologies, South San Francisco, CA) was performed by flanking both the *UL97* and *UL54* gene.

Primer and library design for NGS

To create DNA library, *UL97* and *UL54* primers and PCR conditions previously validated and described by Sahoo MK et al were used [10].

After establishing the whole technique, pilot tests were performed in Ion Torrent PGM in order to adjust the reproducibility of the technique. The test of reproducibility was carried out in a total of 6 control samples which included: 2 samples without suspicion of resistance, 2 samples from QCMD with known DRMs, and 2 clinical samples with known DRMs tested by

Sanger. The results were the same in two sequencing experiments. Each run had a pool of the 6 samples in 3 different libraries with the same DNA extract. [13]

The limit of detection to avoid false positive results was defined as 5% according to Sahoo et al [10]

Sequencing and bioinformatic analyses

Forty-eight samples were sequenced in the Ion PGMTM 35 System for NGS. Quality assessment of the FASTQ files was performed using FastQC-version 0.11.3 [14]. The resulting reads were aligned to the human herpesvirus 5 strain Merlin reference genome (GenBank: AY446894.2) using the BWA-MEM algorithm from BWA version 0.7.12 with default parameters [15]. Alignments were sorted and indexed using Sambamba version 0.5.1 [16]. Duplicate reads in sorted BAM files were identified and removed using Picard tools [17]. GATK base quality score recalibration, insertion and delection (INDEL) realignment, and duplicate removal were applied [18]. The discovery of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP) and INDEL and genotyping were simultaneously performed across 12 samples to optimise this method using standard filtering and variant quality score recalibration according to the GATK Best Practices recommendations [19]. Genetic variant annotation and prediction of the effects of variants on genes (such as amino acid changes) were done using snpEff [20]. To do this a snpEff database was created using the information of the reference genome provided by Gen-Bank. The resulting variant call format (VCF) files were post-processed with in-house R [21] scripts using Bioconductor packages [22] to identify mutations by gene (i.e. UL54 and UL97) in order to find the relative position of each mutation to the first position of the corresponding gene and to filter mutations by missing calls by depth at a sample level (DP = 5), by allele depth (AD> = 5), and by poor quality calls (in which the percentile of minimum quality accepted was 5%).

An average 247382 raw sequences per sample were obtained in the samples sequenced in this study. After pipeline passing quality filters 142.078 reads were obtained per sample. The mean coverage among the different amplicons was up to 2000X

Statistical analysis

A database was developed for the registry of the patients enrolled in Open Clinica 3.1 [GNU-Lesser General Public License (GNU LGPL)].

Categorical variables are expressed as number and percentage of patients, and the median (interquartile range [IQR]) is used for continuous variables with a non-normal distribution and the mean (standard deviation [SD]) for those with a normal distribution. Categorical variables were compared using the X^2 test or the Fisher exact test. Continuous variables were compared using the *t* test or the non-parametric Mann-Whitney test. Logistic regression analyses were performed to identify variables associated with the presence of mutations. Variables showing a significant result in the univariate analyses (p<0.05) were included in the multivariate model (forward stepwise procedure). The Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test was performed to assess the overall fit of the models [23]. The area under the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve of the multivariate model to predict the presence of mutations was calculated. Internal validation of the prediction model was conducted using ordinary nonparametric bootstrapping with 1,000 bootstrap samples and bias-corrected, accelerated 95% CIs [24] (S1 Text; S1 Table). The level of significance was set at 0.05 (2-tailed). All analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 22.0 (Armonk, New York, USA).

Variables	Overall	Without Mutations	With Mutations	P value	
	(n = 44)	(n = 28)	(n = 16)		
Age, mean (SD), years	52.5 (12.3)	54.1 (11.8)	49.8 (12.9)	0.26	
Male sex, n (%)	32 (72.7)	22 (78.6)	10 (62.5)	0.30	
Type of transplant, n (%)				0.24	
Kidney	19 (43.2)	13 (46.4)	6 (37.5)	0.57	
Liver	9 (20.5)	6 (21.4)	3 (18.8)	>0.99	
Heart	8 (18.2)	5 (17.9)	3 (18.8)	>0.99	
Lung	5 (11.4)	1 (3.6)	4 (25.0)	0.050	
Kidney-pancreas	3 (6.8)	3 (10.7)	0 (0)	0.29	
CMV serostatus, n (%) ^a				0.21	
D+/R-	26 (61.9)	14 (53.8)	12 (75.0)	0.17	
D+/R+	13 (31.0)	10 (38.5)	3 (18.8)	0.30	
D-/R+	2 (4.8)	2 (7.7)	0 (0)	0.52	
D-/R-	1 (2.4)	0 (0)	1 (6.3)	0.38	
Induction therapy, n (%)					
Basiliximab	21 (47.7)	16 (57.1)	5 (31.3)	0.098	
Antithymocyte globulin	10 (22.7)	7 (25.0)	3 (18.8)	0.72	
Initial maintenance therapy, n (%) ^b					
Mycophenolate mofetil	36 (81.8)	23 (82.1)	13 (81.3)	>0.99	
Tacrolimus	35 (79.5)	24 (85.7)	11 (68.8)	0.25	
Steroids	34 (77.3)	21 (75.0)	13 (81.3)	0.72	
Cyclosporine	6 (13.6)	2 (7.1)	4 (25.0)	0.17	
mTOR inhibitors	5 (11.4)	2 (7.1)	3 (18.8)	0.34	
CMV prophylaxis, n (%)	24 (54.5)	12 (42.9)	12 (75.0)	0.039	
≤3 months ^c	18 (75.0)	10 (83.3)	8 (66.7)	0.64	
$\geq 6 \text{ months}^{c}$	6 (25.0)	2 (16.7)	4 (33.3)		

Table 1. Comparison of the clinical characteristics of the study population at baseline.

Abbreviations: D-, negative donor; D+, positive donor; R-, negative recipient; R+, positive recipient; mTOR, mammalian target of rapamycin; n, number of cases; SD, standard deviation

^a CMV serostatus not specified in 2 patients

^b May have had more than 1 initial maintenance

^c Percentages calculated for patients with CMV prophylaxis

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0219701.t001

Results

During the study period, 48 adults who had undergone SOT and in whom CMV antiviral resistance was suspected were included in the study. Four samples with a low CMV viral load (< 1.000 copies/ml) were excluded from the analysis because neither Sanger sequencing nor NGS could be carried out. Therefore, 44 patients were finally included. The baseline characteristics of the study population are shown in Table 1.

Based on sequence analysis, 12 out of 44 (27%) patients showed CMV DRM by Sanger sequencing, while 16 patients (36%) showed mutations by NGS (Table 2). All the 16 patients had mutations in the UL97 gene and in addition, two patients had one mutation each in the UL54 gene (D413N and P522A). The NGS identified six low abundance resistance mutations that had not been reported by Sanger sequencing, since they were presented in <20% of the viral population. Patients 8 and 16 showed two mutations in UL97 (C592G + M460V and L595W + A594V respectively); in both cases. In these two patients, M460V and A594V,

PATIENT	SANGER UL97	NGS (Coverage %) UL97	GCV ^a RATIO	SANGER UL54	NGS Coverage % UL54	GCV/FOS/CDV ^a RATIO
1		L595S (15%)	9.2			
2		M460V (19%)	8.3			
3	A594V	A594V (20%)	8.3			
4	M460V	M460V (29%)	8.3			
5		M460V (19%)	8.3			
6		L595S (14%)	9.2			
7	L595S	L595S (20%)	9.2			
8	C592G	C592G+M460V (26%/14%)	2.9/8.3			
9	H520Q	H520Q (30%)	10			
10	M460V	M460V (31%)	8.3	P522A	P522A (22%)	3/1/4.1
11	L595S	L595S (20%)	9.2			
12	M460V	M460V (26%)	8.3			
13	M460I	M460I (31%)	5	D413A	D413A (24%)	6.5/0.8/11
14	A594P	A594P (31%)	3			
15	L595S	L595S (23%)	9.2			
16	L595W	L595W+A594V (21%/7%)	5.1/8.3			

Table 2. Detection of cytomegalovirus drug resistance mutations in the UL97 and UL54 genes by Sanger and next-generation sequencing.

 $^{a}IC_{50}$ of mutant /IC₅₀ of wild type. If IC₅₀ >5 the resistance was considered of high grade while an IC₅₀ <3 was considered as low-grade resistance. GCV: ganciclovir, FOS: foscarnet, CDV:cidofovir

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0219701.t002

respectively, were only detected by NGS. These six mutations were reproducibly detected at similar levels in two independent sequencing experiments. All the DRM identified by Sanger were also identified by NGS. The lowest depth coverage obtained related to a resistance mutation was 7% of the viral subpopulations.

The detection of mutations by NGS allowed the differentiation and comparison of the patients with and without mutations (Tables 1 and 3). The presence of mutations was more frequent in lung transplant recipients (p = 0.050) and in patients receiving prophylaxis (42.9% *vs.* 75%, p = 0.039), regardless of its duration. The median time between transplantation and suspicion of resistance was significantly longer in the group with DRM (211.5 days [87.5; 285.0] vs 108.5 days [43.5; 201.5] p = 0.038) as was the median treatment duration before suspicion of resistance (41.5 days [18.0; 75.5] vs 16.0 days [14.5; 22.5] (p = 0.024). At the time of suspicion of resistance, 75% of patients without mutations were receiving therapy for asymptomatic CMV replication and 50% of patients with DRM were receiving treatment for CMV disease. CMV disease was diagnosed in 54.5% of patients. However, biopsy confirmation was achieved in only 3 patients. All the patients were receiving standard GCV/VGCV doses at the time of suspicion of resistance and in the absence of DRM study results the treatment was empirically modified accordingly. In patients with a DRM, mTORi was added or changed empirically (50%, p = 0.009). No statistically significant differences were observed between the patients with and without mutations in relation to outcome at 3 months (Table 3).

Table 4 shows the clinical and virological data of the SOT recipients with known CMV DRM. Of the variables associated with the presence of resistance mutations in the univariate logistic regression analyses (S2 Text. S2 Table), treatment duration before suspicion of resistance was the only factor independently associated with the presence of mutations in the multivariate analysis (log-transformed scale, OR 2.24, 95% CI 1.03 to 4.87). The area under the ROC curve was 0.71 (95% CI 0.53 to 0.88) for the final model of mutations (S1 Fig).

Table 3. Data at the onset and beyond the suspicion of resistance.

Variables	Overall	Without Mutations	With Mutations	P value
	(n = 44)	(n = 28)	(n = 16)	
Time interval between transplantation and suspicion, median (IQR), days	116.5 (60.0; 232.5)	108.5 (43.5; 201.5)	211.5 (87.5; 285.0)	0.038
Days of therapy before suspicion, median (IQR)	20.0 (15.0; 48.0)	16.0 (14.5; 22.5)	41.5 (18.0;75.5)	0.024
Treatment at the time of suspicion, n (%)				
Preemptive treatment	28 (63.5)	21 (75.0)	7 (43.8)	0.038
Disease treatment	15 (34.1)	7 (25.0)	8 (50.0)	0.092
Prophylaxis	1 (2.3)	0 (0)	1 (6.3)	0.36
CMV viral load at the time of suspicion, median (IQR), copies/ml	11,304 (3,521; 64,105)	7,088 (2,415; 47,555)	36,236 (9,609; 65,247)	0.17
Symptoms at the time of suspicion, n (%) ^a	24 (54.5)	14 (50)	10 (62)	0.53
Viral syndrome ^b	13 (29.5)	10 (35.7)	3 (18.8)	0.31
Gastrointestinal disease ^c	8 (18.2)	3 (10.7)	5 (31.3)	0.12
Pneumonitis	4 (9.1)	2 (7.1)	2 (12.5)	0.61
Retinitis	2 (4.5)	2 (7.1)	0 (0)	0.53
Hepatitis	1 (2.3)	1 (3.6)	0 (0)	>0.99
Disseminated (>1 end organ)	1 (2.3)	0 (0)	1 (6.3)	0.36
Therapeutic strategy on suspicion, n (%) ^d				
Increase GCV/VGC dose	15 (34.1)	10 (35.7)	5 (31.3)	0.764
Continue with standard GCV/VGC ^e dose	18 (40.9)	13 (46.4)	5 (31.3)	0.325
Decreased immunosuppression	12 (27.3)	6 (21.4)	6 37.5)	0.303
Switch or add mTOR inhibitors	11 (25.0)	3 (10.7)	8 (50.0)	0.009
Switch or add foscanet	8 (18.2)	3 (10.7)	5 (31.3)	0.12
Outcome (at 3 months)				
Viral response				
Total suppression of CMV replication	25 (56.8)	18 (64.3)	7 (43.8)	0.186
Incomplete suppression	19 (43.2)	10 (35.7)	9 (56.3)	0.156
Final outcome ^f				
Graft rejection	5 (11.9)	3 (11.1)	2 (13.3)	>0.99
Death	5 (11.9)	3 (11.1)	2 (13.3)	>0.99

Abbreviations: IQR, interquartile range; mTOR, mammalian target of rapamycin; n, number of case

^a May have had more than 1 symptom at the time of suspicion

^b Viral syndrome: fever >38 °C(for at least 2 days in a 4 day period) associated with leucopenia, thrombocytopenia or increase in transaminases

^c Gastrointestinal disease include: colitis, gastritis

^d May have had more than 1 therapeutic strategy on suspicion

^e Continue with standard prophylactic or treatment dose of GCV/VGC

^fFinal outcome not specified in 2 patients

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0219701.t003

Discussion

Drug-resistant CMV infection is an important emerging problem in SOT recipients. However, it may be underdiagnosed since mutation analysis is not routinely performed and the current gold-standard Sanger sequencing method lacks sufficient sensitivity [1]. In the present study, a NGS was compared with Sanger sequencing to identify mutations associated with resistance in SOT patients with suspicion of resistance. Among the 44 patients recruited, 14 DRM were detected by Sanger in 12 patients (27%) and 20 DRM were detected with NGS in 16 patients (36%), respectively. NGS showed a higher sensitivity for the detection of mutations present in <20% of the population sequenced which were not found by Sanger sequencing. Univariate analysis of the clinical data revealed that the presence of DRM detected by NGS was associated

		0	0	1 1	1 0				
	Type of Transplant (CMV serostatus)	Induction therapy	Prophylaxis (months)	Treatment on suspicion of resistance ^a (Days)	Symptomatic on suspicion of resistance	UL97/UL54 DRM (Days post-TX)	CMV viral ^b (copies/ ml)	Therapeutic adaptation on suspicion of resistance	Virological and/ or clinical outcome ^c
1	Kidney D+/R-	ATG	3 M	Disease VGC 900mg/12h (16)	Suspected colitis L595S (91) 4.180 i		GCV/VGC increased mTORi	IS.	
2	Kidney D+/R+	Basiliximab	No	Preemptive treatment VGC 450mg/12h (15)	No	M460V (68)	55.253	GCV/VGC increased	CS.Total resolution
3	Liver D+/R-	No	No	Preemptive treatment VGC 450mg/12h(15)	No A594V 63) 9.300 GCV/VGC increased ISP decreased		GCV/VGC increased ISP decreased	IS. Cell-mediated rejection	
4	Liver D+/R-	No	3M	Disease VGC 450mg/12h(15)	Viral syndrome ^d , Suspected colitis	M460V (203)	3.849	ISP decreased Continue with GCV/VGCV	CS.Total resolution
5	Kidney D+/R+	Basiliximab	1M	Disease VGC 450mg/12h(84)	Suspected gastritis M460V (235) 11.234 ISP decreased O VGC increase mTORi		ISP decreased GCV/ VGC increased mTORi	CS. Total resolution	
6	Kidney D+/R+	ATG	No	Disease VGC 450mg/12h(67)	Viral syndrome ^d L595S (58) 114.167 GCV/VGC increased		GCV/VGC increased	CS.Total resolution	
7	Heart D+/R-	No	3M	Disease VGC 100mg/12h (20)	Viral syndrome ^d	L595S (350)	154.486	GCV/VGC increased	IS
8	Kidney D+/R-	ATG	3M	Disease VGC 450mg/12h(61)	Suspected colitis	C592G +M460V (102)	11.605	GCV/VGC increased. mTORi	IS
9	Lung D+/R-	No	12M	Prophylaxis VGC 900mg/24h(38)	Confirmed pneumonitis	H520Q (210)	33.772	ISP Decreased. FOS. mTORi	CS.Total resolution
10	Lung D+/R-	No	12M	Preemptive treatment VGC 900mg/12h(96)	No	M460V/ P522A (335)	68.494	ISP Decreased .FOS. mTORi	IS
11	Lung D+/R-	No	6M	Preemptive treatment VGC 900mg/12h(26)	No	L595S (210)	38.700	ISP Decreased .FOS. mTORi	CS.Total resolution
12	Liver D+/R-	No	No	Disease VGC 450mg/12h (45)	Confirmed pneumonitis and retinitis	M460V (340)	9.919	Continue with GCV/VGCV. mTORi	IS. Death
13	Lung D+/R-	Basiliximab	12M	Preemptive treatment VGC 450mg/12h(231)	No	M460I/ D413N (400)	62.000	GCV/VGC increased. Leflunomide	IS. Cell-mediated rejection
14	Heart D+/R-	Basiliximab	1M	Preemptive treatment VGC 450mg/12h(113)	Viral syndrome ^d	A594P (331)	59.879	Continue with GCV/VGCV. Maribavir	IS
15	Kidney D+/R-	No	1M	Disease VGC 450mg/12h(28)	Viral syndrome ^c Suspected colitis	L595S (112)	721.000	Switch to FOS	IS. Death
16	Heart D+/R-	Basiliximab	2M	Preemptive treatment VGC 900mg/12h(51)	Viral syndrome ^d	L595W +A594V (84)	4.120	GCV/VGC increased. FOS. mTORi	CS.Total resolution

Table 4. Clinical and virological data in solid organ transplant recipients with cytomegalovirus resistance mutations.

CMV, cytomegalovirus; D, donor; R, recipient; TX, transplantation; GCV, ganciclovir; VGC, valganciclovir; FOS, foscarnet, CDV, cidofovir; ATG, antithymocyte globulin; ISP, immunosuppression; IS, incomplete suppression; CS, total supression of CMV replication

^aDrug/doses

^bCMV viral load on suspicion of resistance

^cVirological and clinical outcomes at 3 months

^dPresence of fever >38°C (for at least 2 days in a 4 day period) associated with leucopenia, thrombocytopenia or an increase in transaminases

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0219701.t004

with lung transplantation (p = 0.050), prophylactic treatment (p = 0.039), a higher mean time between transplantation and suspicion of resistance (p = 0.038) and longer treatment duration with GCV or VGCV before suspicion (p = 0.024). However, the latter was the only factor independently associated with the presence of resistance mutations in the multivariate analysis.

Several aspects differentiate the present stydy from other similar studies in the field reported to date, and these aspects can be summarized as follows:NGS was addressed to the *UL97* and *UL54* genes, a relatively high number of patients, undergoing different solid organ transplanted were studied, and associated risk factors were also evaluated.

The current gold standard for the genotypic detection of CMV drug resistance is Sanger sequencing of the UL97 and UL54 genes. However, this technique cannot detect viral variants that represent < 20% of the viral population [9, 10]. This lack of sensitivity can lead to continued administration of an antiviral to which resistance has developed and the subsequent expansion of initially minority populations of resistant variants leading to the development of treatment failure, increased morbidity and shortened graft survival. On the other hand, modifications in therapy following the identification of GCV resistance is associated with more rapid viral clearance, further emphasising the importance of timely detection of resistance [7, 11, 12]. Recent studies have shown that NGS methods can provide new insights into viral diversity and in the detection of low-abundance variants by the analysis of thousands of amplicons in a single experiment [10, 25]. However, so far, only a few studies have focused on CMV-resistant mutants. Most studies have included few patients and only some cover the UL97 gene [11, 12]. An exception to this is the study by Sahoo et al which evaluated DRM in both of the genes involved using NGS in a considerable number of specimens [10]. However, this study did not include an analysis of clinical factors. In our study, NGS identified six low abundance resistant mutations that had not been reported by Sanger sequencing, thus suggesting that NGS is more sensitive than Sanger since the use of high throughput sequencing allowed the detection of viral subpopulations with a prevalence of 7%. All six mutations were located in the UL97 gene and showed high-level resistance to GCV [26, 27]. In addition, two of these six DRM identified were present as mixed mutations in two patients which may have important implications in patient management. Therefore, studies with prospective monitoring of the abundance of such mutations over time and an assessment of their association with virologic failure are necessary. UL54 DNA polymerase mutations are typically selected after prolonged GCV exposure and were revealed in 2 lung transplant patients who had received a longer prophylaxis and preemptive treatment [28, 29]. However, compared to Sanger sequencing NGS did not improve the detection sensitivity of DRM in the UL54 gene in concordance with the results of Sahoo et al [10].

In the present study longer treatment duration with antivirals before suspicion of resistance was identified as a risk factor associated with DRM (p = 0.24)[1, 2], and is considered a major factor in the selection and emergence of resistance. Lung transplantation showed the highest incidence of DRM. It is important to note that 4 out of 5 lung transplant patients in our study presented DRM and all had received lengthy preemptive treatment and antiviral prophylaxis [29, 30]. Moreover, the presence of DRM was more frequent among transplant recipients who had received prophylaxis (p = 0.039). Nonetheless, other factors may have also contributed to this finding. The interdependence of host, virus and antiviral therapy is likely associated with the development of DRM [31]. In fact, all the patients included in this study had one or more known risk factors predisposing to DRM [1, 2]. Therefore, according to current consensus guidelines genotypic testing confirmation should be done irrespective of any exclusion criteria whenever antiviral resistance is suspected [5, 6], since resistance might otherwise be underestimated similar to what has been described in previous reports [32]. In the present study, DRM were found in unusual situations, such as during prophylaxis in one patient and in 3 patients with CMV D+/R+ serostatus.

Previous studies have reported antiviral resistance to be associated with increased attributable morbidity and mortality [2]. This was not found in the present study, likely because patients were only clinically followed during the first three months. Moreover, clinicians were unaware of the presence of DRM in real time, and therefore, treatment was empirically modified. Thus, we were unable to evaluate the outcome of the patients according to Sanger or NGS sequencing results. This should be addressed in future studies.

In our cohort, 64% of the patients suspected of having resistance to antivirals did not present DRM. Therefore, as suggested previously other factors might contribute to treatment failure [33]. Emphasis should be given to prioritizing the optimization of host factors rather than switching antiviral medications, thereby adjusting immunosuppressive therapy whenever possible. Additionally, blood GCV levels were not available and were not performed during the clinical care of the patients studied, and thus, sub-therapeutic GCV levels may be a possible cause of non-response to treatment in some patients. On the other hand, a recent study of serial specimens received for genotypic testing showed that the first specimen tested negative for DRM in more than half of the patients, although about two-thirds eventually became positive on repeated testing [4]. It could therefore be suggested that patients without DRM but with suspected criteria of resistance should be closely monitored and new samples should be studied for viral mutations.

Our study has limitations regarding the modest sample size and the lack of balance among groups although it does reflect real life in a nation-wide cohort study. Our results should be confirmed in larger and better balanced cohorts. Another limitation is that the analysis of GCV resistance of the mutations was performed only when there was suspicion; Nonetheless, these patients represented the group with the highest risk for antiviral resistant CMV.

In summary, the development of DRM may be a direct effect of a longer duration of antiviral treatment, and thus, the implementation of effective CMV prevention strategies that minimise drug exposure could lead to lower resistance rates. Although the clinical risk factors for drug resistance have been relatively well defined, genotypic testing should be performed in all patients with suspected criteria of resistance. Despite the lack of standardized protocols and the complexity of the bioinformatics analysis for the use of NGS in routine clinical practice, the results of this study suggests that NGS technology improves the genotypic diagnosis of DRM, fundamentally in low-abundance variants and mixed populations allowing early detection of the emergence of CMV-resistant strains and subsequent targeted adjustment of therapy.

Supporting information

S1 Text. Methods of statistical analysis. (DOC)

S2 Text. Results of statistical analysis. (DOC)

S3 Text. References of statistical analysis. (DOC)

S1 Table. Internal validation of prediction model for mutations using nonparametric bootstrap technique. (DOC)

S2 Table. Significant univariate and multivariable logistic regression analyses for mutations.

(DOC)

S1 Fig. Receiver operating characteristic curve analysis of significant variables derived from the logistic regression model for the ability to predict mutations. (DOC)

Acknowledgments

We would like to acknowledge GESITRA-SEIMC, Group for Study of Infection in Transplantation of the Spanish Society of Infectious Diseases and Clinical Microbiology and REIPI, the Spanish Network for Research in Infectious Diseases.

We thank Albert Gabarrus (Statistician in Applied Research in Respiratory Diseases, IDI-BAPS, UB, CIBERES) for their statistical analysis. Thanks to Institute for Research in Biomedicine of Barcelona, specially at Jose Luis Mosquera and Camille Stephan to contribute in bioinformatic analysis. We thank Donna Pringle, an English-Spanish translator/reviewer based in Barcelona (Spain) for revision of the manuscript.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization: Francisco López-Medrano, Frederic Cofán, Julián Torre-Cisneros, Asunción Moreno, Jose María Aguado, Carlos Cervera, Maria Ángeles Marcos.

Funding acquisition: Maria Angeles Marcos.

Investigation: Rubén López-Aladid, Alba Guiu, Maria Ángeles Marcos.

Methodology: Rubén López-Aladid, Alba Guiu, Maria Mar Mosquera, Elisa Cordero, Jordi Niubó, Anna Cervilla, Marta Santos, Andrés Antón, Maria Ángeles Marcos.

Project administration: Maria Ángeles Marcos.

- **Resources:** Francisco López-Medrano, Frederic Cofán, Laura Linares, Julián Torre-Cisneros, Elisa Vidal, Jose María Aguado, Elisa Cordero, Cecilia Martin-Gandul, Jordi Carratalá, Nuria Sabé, Jordi Niubó, Alicia Capón, Marta Bodro, Patricia Muñoz, Maria Carmen Fariñas, Maitane Aranzamendi, Miguel Montejo, Pilar Pérez-Romero, Oscar Len.
- Supervision: Maria Ángeles Marcos.

Validation: Maria Mar Mosquera.

- Writing original draft: Rubén López-Aladid, Maria Mar Mosquera, Francisco López-Medrano, Frederic Cofán, Julián Torre-Cisneros, Asunción Moreno, Jose María Aguado, Elisa Cordero, Jordi Carratalá, Marta Bodro, Andrés Antón, Miguel Montejo, Oscar Len, Maria Ángeles Marcos.
- Writing review & editing: Rubén López-Aladid, Francisco López-Medrano, Julián Torre-Cisneros, Jose María Aguado, Oscar Len, Maria Ángeles Marcos.

References

- Le Page AK, Jager MM, Iwasenko JM, Scott GM, Alain S, Rawlinson WD. Clinical aspects of cytomegalovirus antiviral resistance in solid organ transplant recipients. Clin Infect Dis. 2013; 56: 1018–1029. https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/cis1035 PMID: 23243176
- Fisher CE, Knudsen JL, Lease ED, Jerome KR, Rakita RM, Boeckh M et al. Risk Factors and Outcomes of Ganciclovir Resistant Cytomegalovirus Infection in Solid Organ Transplant Recipients. Clin Infect Dis, 2017; 65:57–63. https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/cix259 PMID: 28369203
- López-Aladid R, Guiu A, Sanclemente G, López-Medrano F, Cofán F, Mosquera MM et al. Detection of cytomegalovirus drug resistance mutations in solid organ transplant recipients with suspected resistance. JClin Virol. 2017; 90:57–63.

- Kleiboeker S, Nutt J, Schindel B, Dannehl J, Hester J. Cytomegalovirus antiviral resistance: characterization of results from clinical specimens. Transpl Infect Dis. 2014; 16:561–567. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/</u> tid.12241 PMID: 24903568
- Kotton CN, Kumar D, Caliendo AM Huprikar S, Chou S, Danziger-Isakov L, et al. Updated International consensus guidelines on the management of cytomegalovirus in solid organ transplantation. Transplantation. 2018; 102 (6): 900–931. https://doi.org/10.1097/TP.00000000002191 PMID: 29596116
- Torre-Cisneros J, Aguado JM, Caston JJ, Almenar L, Alonso A, Cantisán S et al. Management of cytomegalovirus infection in solid organ transplant recipients: SET/GESITRA-SEIMC/REIPI recommendations. Transplant Rev; 2016; 30:119–143.
- Lurain NS, Chou S. Antiviral drug resistance of human cytomegalovirus. Clin Microbiol Rev 2010; 23: 689–712. https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.00009-10 PMID: 20930070
- Chou S. Approach to drug-resistant cytomegalovirus in transplant recipients. Curr Opin Infect Dis 2015; 28: 293–299. https://doi.org/10.1097/QCO.0000000000170 PMID: 26098499
- Houldcroft CJ, Bryant JM, Depledge DP, Margetts BK, Simmonds J, Nicolaou S et al. Detection of 286 low frequency multi-drug resistance and novel putative maribavir resistance in immunocompromised pediatric patients with cytomegalovirus. Front. Microbiol. 2016; 7: 1317 https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb. 2016.01317 PMID: 27667983
- Sahoo MK, Lefterova M, Yamamoto F, Waggoner JJ, Chou S, Holmes SP et al. Detection of Cytomegalovirus Drug Resistance Mutations by Next Generation Sequencing. J Clin Microbiol. 2013; 51: 3700– 3710. https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.01605-13 PMID: 23985916
- Schindele B, Apelt L, Hofmann J, Nitsche A, Michel D, Voigt S et al. Improved detection of mutated human cytomegalovirus UL97 by pyrosequencing. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 2010; 54: 5234– 5241. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00802-10 PMID: 20876379
- Garrigue I, Moulinas R, Recordon-Pinson P, Delacour ML, Essig M, Kaminski H et al. Contribution of next generation sequencing to early detection of cytomegalovirus UL97 emerging mutants and viral subpopulations analysis in kidney transplant recipients. J Clin Virol. 2016; 80: 74–81. https://doi.org/10. 1016/j.jcv.2016.04.017 PMID: 27214758
- Lopez Aladid R, Guiu A, Mosquera M, Capón A, Cervilla A, Marcos MA. Detección de mutaciones asociadas a resistencia en citomegalovirus en pacientes transplantados de órgano sólido mediante técnicas de 'Next Generation Sequencing'. Comparativa con Sanger. Enferm Infecc Microbiol Clin 2017; 35: 42
- 14. Andrews S. FastQC: a quality control tool for high throughput sequence data. Babraham Bioinformatics, 2010.
- Li Heng, Durbin R. Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows–Wheeler transform. Bioinformatics 2009; 25: 1754–1760. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btp324 PMID: 19451168
- Tarasov A, Vilella A.J, Cuppen E, Nijman IJ, Prins P: Sambamba: fast processing of NGS alignment formats. Bioinformatics 2015; 31: 2032–2034. <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btv098</u> PMID: 25697820
- 17. Picard: A set of command line tools (in Java) for manipulating high-throughput sequencing (HTS) data and formats such as SAM/BAM/CRAM and VCF. Available online at: https://broadinstitute.github.io/ picard/index.html
- McKenna A, Hanna M, Banks E, Sivachenko A, Cibulskis, Kernytsky A et al. The Genome Analysis Toolkit: A MapReduce framework for analyzing next-generation DNA sequencing data. Genome Res. 2010; 20: 1297–1303. https://doi.org/10.1101/gr.107524.110 PMID: 20644199
- Van der Auwera GA, Carneiro MO, Hartl C, Poplin R, Del Angel G, Levy-Moonshine A et al. From FastQ data to high confidence variant calls: the Genome Analysis Toolkit best practices pipeline. Curr Protoc Bioinformatics 2013; 11: 1–33
- Cingolani P, Platts A, Lily Wang L, Coon M, Nquyen T, Wang L et al. A program for annotating 112 and predicting the effects of single nucleotide polymorphisms, SnpEff: SNPs in the genome of Drosophila melanogaster strain w1118; iso-2; iso-3. Fly 2012; 6: 80–92. <u>https://doi.org/10.4161/fly.19695</u> PMID: 22728672
- 21. R Core Team. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. Foundation for Statistical Computing 2016. Available online at: https://www.R117 project.org.
- 22. Huber W, Carey V, Gentleman R, Anders S, Carlson M, Carvalho BS et al. Orchestrating high-throughput genomic analysis with Bioconductor. Nat Methods 2015; 12: 115–121 <u>https://doi.org/10.1038/ nmeth.3252 PMID: 25633503</u>
- 23. Hosmer D, Lemeshow S. Applied logistic regression. Wiley; 1989.
- Efron B, Tibshirani R. An introduction to the bootstrap (Monographs on statistics and applied probability). New York: Chapman and Hall; 1993.

- Hage E, Wilkie GS, Linnenweber-Held S, Dhingra A, Suárez NM, Schmidt JJ et al. Characterization of human cytomegalovirus genome diversity in immunocompromised hosts by whole-genome sequencing directly from clinical specimens. J Infect Dis. 2017; 215:1673–1683 https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/jix157 PMID: 28368496
- Smith IL, Cherrington JM, Jiles RE, Fuller MD, Freeman WR, Spector SA. High-level resistance of cytomegalovirus to ganciclovir is associated with alterations in both the UL97 and DNA polymerase genes. J Infect Dis. 1997; 176:69–77. https://doi.org/10.1086/514041 PMID: 9207351
- Chou S, Waldemer RH, Senters AE, Michels KS, Kemble GW, Miner RC et al. Cytomegalovirus UL97 phosphotransferase mutations that affect susceptibility to ganciclovir. J Infect Dis. 2002; 185: 162–169. https://doi.org/10.1086/338362 PMID: 11807689
- 28. Hakki M, Chou S. The biology of cytomegalovirus drug resistance. Infect Dis 2011; 24: 605-611.
- Bhorade S M, Lurain NS, Jordan A, Leischner J, Villanueva J, Durazo R et al. Emergence of ganciclovir-resistant cytomegalovirus in lung transplant recipients. J. Heart Lung Transplant. 2002; 21:1274– 1282. PMID: 12490272
- Ramanan P, Razonable RR. Cytomegalovirus Infections in Solid Organ Transplantation: A Review. Infect Chemother. 2013; 45: 260–271. https://doi.org/10.3947/ic.2013.45.3.260 PMID: 24396627
- Isada CM, Yen-Lieberman B, Lurain NS, Schilz R, Kohn D, Longworth DL et al. Clinical characteristics of 13 solid organ transplant recipients with ganciclovir-resistant cytomegalovirus infection. Transpl Infect Dis. 2002; 4: 189–194. PMID: 12535261
- Couzi L, Helou S, Bachelet T, Moreau K, Martin S, Morel D et al. High incidence of anticytomegalovirus drug resistance among D+R- kidney transplant recipients receiving pre-emptive therapy. Am J Transplant. 2012; 12: 202–209. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-6143.2011.03766.x PMID: 21967659
- Limaye AP. Ganciclovir-resistant cytomegalovirus in organ transplant recipients. Clin Infect Dis. 2002; 35: 866–872. https://doi.org/10.1086/342385 PMID: 12228824