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Activity of echinocandins and triazoles against a contemporary (2012) worldwide collection of yeast and moulds collected from invasive infections



Mariana Castanheira, Shawn A. Messer, Ronald N. Jones, David J. Farrell, Michael A. Pfaller*

JMI Laboratories, 345 Beaver Kreek Center, Ste A, North Liberty, IA 52317, USA

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ABSTRACT

In this study, 1717 fungal clinical isolates causing invasive fungal infections were evaluated against nine antifungal agents using Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) reference broth microdilution methods. The isolates comprised 1487 Candida spp., 109 Aspergillus spp., 86 non-Candida yeasts (including 52 isolates of Cryptococcus neoformans) and 35 rare moulds obtained during 2012 from 72 hospitals worldwide. Echinocandin resistance among Candida spp. was low, and resistance rates to anidulafungin, caspofungin and micafungin varied from 0.0% to 2.8% among different species. Echinocandin-resistant Candida glabrata were shown to have fks mutations (fks2 HS1 F659Y, F659del, S663F and S663P), and fluconazole resistance was also observed in those strains. One Candida krusei and one Candida dubliniensis had L701M or S645P fks1 mutations, respectively. Candida tropicalis and C. glabrata had higher fluconazole resistance rates of 6.1% and 6.9%, respectively, compared with other Candida spp. Fluconazole-resistant C. tropicalis were collected in five countries (USA, China, Germany, Belgium and Thailand). Voriconazole was active against all Candida spp., inhibiting 91.2–99.7% of isolates using speciesspecific breakpoints. All agents except for the echinocandins and posaconazole were active against Cr. neoformans. Triazoles were active against other yeasts [MIC₉₀ (minimum inhibitory concentration encompassing 90% of isolates tested), 2 µg/mL]. The echinocandins and the mould-active triazoles were active against Aspergillus [MIC/MEC90 (minimum effective concentration encompassing 90% of isolates tested) range, $0.015-2 \mu g/mL$, but the activity of these agents was limited against uncommon mould species (MIC/MEC₉₀ range, $4 \mu g/mL$ to >16 $\mu g/mL$).

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1. Introduction

Invasive fungal infections (IFIs) constitute an ever-increasing cause of morbidity and mortality among immunocompromised individuals, those who have undergone intra-abdominal surgery, neonates and the elderly [1]. In a retrospective case–control study, Menzin et al. [2] used data from the 2004 Healthcare Cost and Utilization Project Nationwide Inpatient Sample to estimate the number, frequency, and excess costs and mortality of IFIs in the USA. The frequency of IFIs was estimated at 22 infections per 100 000 persons annually, representing 64 480 IFI cases per year and an excess mortality and length of stay in the hospital of 10% and

11 days, respectively. These IFIs accrued \$29281 more in medical costs per infection, contributing an estimated 735000 additional hospital days and \$1.89 billion in additional hospital costs. The most frequent infections were invasive candidiasis, other mycoses (e.g. pseudallescheriasis, fusariosis and other unspecified mycoses) and invasive aspergillosis. Notably, invasive candidiasis was associated with the highest attributable mortality (14%), excess length of stay (17.2 days) and excess costs (\$45616) among nine different types of IFI.

Concurrent with increasing numbers of IFI, surveillance programmes have become important in defining the species distribution and antifungal resistance profiles of the responsible pathogens [3–5] and thus are providing information necessary for appropriate empirical antifungal therapy [6]. Data from several sources show that mortality rates and resource utilisation significantly increase when therapy is delayed or inadequate (wrong dose, resistant isolate), further underscoring the importance of

^{*} Corresponding author. Tel.: +1 319 665 3370; fax: +1 319 665 3371.

E-mail addresses: michael-pfaller@uiowa.edu, michael-pfaller@jmilabs.com (M.A. Pfaller).

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detailed epidemiological data [7,8]. Whereas fluconazole remains an important agent for the treatment of *Candida* and other yeasts, the introduction of yeast- and mould-active agents of the triazole (posaconazole and voriconazole) and echinocandin (anidulafungin, caspofungin and micafungin) classes has dramatically increased the options for prophylaxis and empirical and directed therapy of IFIs [9,10]. Although resistance to these agents among clinical isolates of opportunistic fungi is generally considered uncommon [3,5], both increased resistance and breakthrough infections have been reported among patients with long-term exposure to even the newest of antifungal agents [3,4,11,12]. These observations have prompted a call for enhanced surveillance efforts and an expanded role for antifungal susceptibility testing of *Candida* and *Aspergillus* spp. as well as of other opportunistic yeasts and moulds [11,13–16].

In the present study, Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) broth microdilution (BMD) methods [17,18] and newly developed clinical breakpoints (CBPs) and epidemiological cut-off values (ECVs) were used to examine the rates of resistance and non-susceptibility among anidulafungin, fluconazole, voriconazole and comparator agents tested against 1717 clinical isolates of Candida (1487 isolates; 20 species), non-Candida yeasts (86 isolates; 11 species), Aspergillus spp. (109 isolates, 10 species) and non-Aspergillus moulds (35 isolates; 24 species). These isolates were collected from patients with IFI during 2012 from 72 medical centres in a global antifungal surveillance programme. Isolates of the less common species of Candida, the non-Candida yeasts and all filamentous fungi were identified using molecular methods, and isolates of Candida spp. showing resistance to one or more echinocandins were examined for mutations in hotspot (HS) regions of fks1 and fks2.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Organisms

A total of 1717 clinical isolates from patients with IFI were collected during 2012 from 72 laboratories located in North America (445 isolates; 12 sites), Europe (706 isolates; 30 sites), Latin America (217 isolates; 10 sites) and the Asia-Pacific Region (349 isolates; 20 sites) as part of a global surveillance programme. In each case, collection was approved by the appropriate institutional review board. Each participating centre recovered consecutive unique isolates from patients with bloodstream infections (1066 isolates), from normally sterile body fluids, tissues and abscesses (95 isolates), respiratory tract specimens (228 isolates) and other/unknown sites (328 isolates).

Isolates were identified at participating institutions using methods routinely employed at the submitting laboratory, including VITEK, MicroScan, API and AuxaColor supplemented by classical methods for yeast and mould identification [19,20]. Isolates were submitted to JMI Laboratories (North Liberty, IA), where the identity was confirmed by morphological, biochemical and molecular methods as previously described [14,21].

Among the 1487 isolates of *Candida*, there were 711 *Candida* albicans, 274 *Candida glabrata*, 245 *Candida parapsilosis*, 131 *Candida tropicalis*, 36 *Candida krusei* and 90 miscellaneous *Candida* spp. (25 *Candida lusitaniae*, 14 *Candida dubliniensis*, 13 *Candida* guilliermondii, 12 *Candida kefyr*, 2 *Candida fermentati*, 2 *Candida lipolytica*, 3 *Candida orthopsilosis*, 1 *Candida catenulata*, 1 *Candida haemulonii*, 1 *Candida inconspicua*, 2 *Candida fabianii*, 1 *Candida bracarensis*, 1 *Candida thasaenensis*, 1 *Candida fluviatilis*, 8 *Candida pelliculosa* and 2 unspeciated *Candida*). The collection also included *Cryptococcus neoformans* (52 isolates), *Cryptococcus gattii* (2 isolates), *Cryptococcus laurentii* (1 isolate), *Trichosporon asahii* (13 isolates), *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (6 isolates), *Rhodotorula mucilaginosa* (4 isolates), *Dipodascus capitatus* (3 isolates) and 1 isolate each of Trichosporon mycotoxinivorans, Lodderomyces elongisporus, Geotrichum clavatum, Malassezia pachydermatis and unspeciated yeast. Moulds included 68 Aspergillus fumigatus sensu stricto, 41 miscellaneous Aspergillus spp. [13 Aspergillus flavus species complex (SC), 10 Aspergillus niger SC, 7 Aspergillus terreus SC, 2 Aspergillus alabamensis, 3 Aspergillus nidulans, 3 Aspergillus sydowii and 1 each of Aspergillus clavatus, Aspergillus tubingensis and Aspergillus nomius] and 35 other moulds (6 Fusarium spp., 1 Epicoccum nigrans, 1 Scedosporium apiospermum, 1 Penicillium subgenus Aspergilloides, 2 Penicillium subgenus Terverticillata, 3 Alternaria spp., 1 Purpureocillium (Paecilomyces) lilacinum, 1 Sarocladium [Acremonium] kiliense, 1 Lichtheimia ramosa, 1 Scedosporium aurantiacum, 1 Scedosporium prolificans, 1 Scopulariopsis brevicaulis, 1 Trichoderma longibrachiatum, 2 Rhizopus microsporus group, 2 Curvularia spp., 1 Hamigera sp., 1 Microascus sp., 1 Penicillium sp., 3 Cochliobolus spp., 1 Coprinellus sp., 2 Cunninghamella spp. and 1 Phoma sp.).

2.2. Antifungal susceptibility testing

All yeast isolates were tested for in vitro susceptibility to the echinocandins (anidulafungin, caspofungin and micafungin) and triazoles (fluconazole, itraconazole, posaconazole and voriconazole) using the CLSI BMD method [17]. Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) results for all agents were read following 24 h of incubation when tested against *Candida* spp., whereas MIC endpoints for the triazoles were read after 48 h when tested against non-*Candida* yeasts. In all instances, MICs were determined visually as the lowest concentration of drug that caused significant diminution of growth levels [17,22].

In vitro susceptibility testing of *Aspergillus* spp. and other moulds against the echinocandins and triazoles (itraconazole, posaconazole and voriconazole) was performed using the CLSI BMD method [18]. Triazole MICs and echinocandin minimum effective concentrations (MECs) were determined as described in the CLSI reference method [18].

The recently revised CLSI CBPs were used to identify strains of the five most common species of *Candida* (*C. albicans*, *C. glabrata*, *C. parapsilosis*, *C. tropicalis* and *C. krusei*)[23]. The CLSI has not assigned CBPs for voriconazole and *C. glabrata* and recommends the ECV of 0.5μ g/mL to be used to differentiate wild-type (WT) from non-WT strains of this species [24].

CBPs have not been established for any antifungal agent and the less common species of Candida, non-Candida yeasts, Aspergillus spp. or the non-Aspergillus moulds; however, ECVs have been established for echinocandins and triazoles and six species of Candida that are encountered less frequently (C. lusitaniae, C. guilliermondii, C. dubliniensis, C. kefyr, C. orthopsilosis and C. pelliculosa) [24]. ECVs have been derived for *Cr. neoformans* and fluconazole $(8-16 \,\mu g/mL)$, itraconazole $(1 \,\mu g/mL)$, posaconazole $(0.5 \,\mu g/mL)$ and voriconazole $(0.25 \,\mu g/mL)$ [25]. ECVs have also been developed for A. fumigatus, A flavus, A. terreus and A. niger and itraconazole, posaconazole and voriconazole [26]: itraconazole and voriconazole MICs of >1 μg/mL were considered non-WT for A. fumigatus, A. flavus and A. terreus; itraconazole MICs of >1 µg/mL and voriconazole MICs of >2 μ g/mL were considered non-WT for A. nidulans, whereas itraconazole and voriconazole MICs of $>2 \mu g/mL$ were non-WT for A. niger. Posaconazole MICs of >0.5 µg/mL were considered non-WT for A. fumigatus, A. terreus and A. niger, and MICs of >0.25 µg/mL were non-WT for A. flavus; posaconazole MICs of >1 µg/mL were non-WT for A. nidulans. Isolates of these Aspergillus spp. for which triazole MIC results exceed the ECV are considered to be non-WT and may harbour acquired mutations in the *cyp51A* gene [27].

Quality control was performed as recommended by the CLSI [17,18] using *C. krusei* ATCC 6258 and *C. parapsilosis* ATCC 22019.

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