

## Editorial

# Is an azole-resistant *Aspergillus* hotspot emerging in South-East Asia?

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Azole resistance in *Aspergillus* is much prevalent than it used to be and further emphasized by a paper in this issue from Vietnam (Duong *et al.*, n.d.). The implications for human health are potentially profound. *Aspergillus* is an airborne pathogen and allergen, with millions of people affected annually (Bongomin *et al.*, 2017). Aspergillosis is a spectrum of diseases caused by *Aspergillus* species, which include allergic, chronic or invasive disease (Kosmidis & Denning, 2015). The current gold standard, and only oral, treatments are azoles (itraconazole, voriconazole, posaconazole and isavuconazole). Untreated, the most severe forms of aspergillosis (invasive) have a mortality of >95% (Denning, 1996; Vandewoude *et al.*, 2004). Infection caused by azole-resistant *Aspergillus* leaves physicians with sub-optimal therapies, assuming resistance is detected rapidly allowing time to change therapy (Howard *et al.*, 2009; Verweij *et al.*, 2015; Meis *et al.*, 2016).

Itraconazole was the first clinically approved azole antifungal agent with activity against *Aspergillus* and licensed for use in 1991 (Schmitt *et al.*, 1992). The first azole-resistant isolates of *Aspergillus fumigatus* were originally cultured in 1997 and 1998 in California in patients with subacute invasive aspergillosis, previously untreated with antifungal agents (Denning *et al.*, 1997; Verweij *et al.*, 1998). The methodology for determining resistance was improved in the 1990's and validated methods introduced by European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST) and Clinical and

Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) (using these azole-resistant strains). A few itraconazole-resistant strains were described in the late 1990s and in 2002 multi-azole resistance was documented for the first time (Mosquera and Denning, 2002; Meneau and Sanglard, 2005). In 2003, a significant increase in resistance rates was observed in Manchester and in Nijmegen, and the first resistant strains were found in the environment (Bueid *et al.*, 2010; Buil *et al.*, 2019). These environmental strains were documented to have a different mode of resistance, the so-called TR<sub>34</sub>/L98H dual genetic alteration (Snelders *et al.*, 2008). The tandem repeat in the promoter of the azole target *cyp51a* increases copy number, as well as a point mutation changing the binding affinity of the azoles. Resistant strains from the environment are closely related to isolates from patients, likely reflecting environmental acquisition of resistance (Abdolrasouli *et al.*, 2015; Rhodes *et al.*, 2021). The potential for life-threatening infection was documented in resistant strains, heralding a major shift in thinking about the underlying reasons for development of resistance, mechanisms of resistance and routine susceptibility testing of *Aspergillus* spp. in clinical laboratories.

Several other mechanisms of resistance have been discovered, mostly related to target site mutations and/or upregulation (Diaz-Guerra *et al.*, 2003; Buied *et al.*, 2013; Gonzalez-Jimenez *et al.*, 2020; Macedo *et al.*, 2020). Other resistance mechanisms involve dysregulation via transcription factors or upregulation of efflux pumps (Slaven *et al.*, 2002; Fraczek *et al.*, 2013; Paul *et al.*, 2018; Furukawa *et al.*, 2020). With respect to environmental strains found to be resistant, all appear to have a combination of a tandem repeat upstream of the gene start codon leading to gene upregulation plus one or more 14 alpha demethylase (*cyp51a*) mutations. Over the last decade, resistance has been documented on every continent except Antarctica. While before 2000, the number of resistant isolates was close to zero, increased numbers of resistance are being reported. Prevalence data of azole resistance (~5%–10%) have been reported from several studies of *Aspergillus* from soil samples

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across Europe, Africa, South America and Asia (Fraaije *et al.*, 2020; Resendiz-Sharpe *et al.*, 2021; Yerbanga *et al.*, 2021). Azole resistance in the United States is becoming of great concern as over the last 20 years, azole usage in agriculture has increased fourfold (Wiederhold *et al.*, 2016; Toda *et al.*, 2021). Additionally, changes in climate may contribute to development of azole resistance and being exposed to *Aspergillus* (van Rhijn & Bromley, 2021).

In this issue of the journal, Tra-My Duong from the Oxford University Clinical Research Unit, Ho Chi Minh City document remarkably high rates of azole resistance in strains of *Aspergillus fumigatus* from South-East Vietnam (Duong *et al.*, n.d.). They cultured 62 strains from the Mekong delta and 92% of *A. fumigatus sensu stricto* were itraconazole resistant, compared to 32% in *A. fumigatus* species complex, excluding *sensu stricto*. Most strains were also resistant to posaconazole, voriconazole and/or isavuconazole and most (64%) had a combination of tandem repeat and target site mutations, as in other part of the world, although surprisingly, 32% did not manifest any target site mutations. While no azoles were detected in soil from urban areas, resistant *A. fumigatus* could be isolated, reflecting spread of azole-resistant spores via the air.

This remarkably high resistance rate in *A. fumigatus* is mirrored in China – 60% in strawberry fields in Nanjing and Hangzhou (Chen *et al.*, 2020) and 80% in greenhouses growing coriander, summer squash, peas, lettuce and fennel in Kunming (Zhou *et al.*, 2021). In *A. flavus* strains from the Mekong Delta in Vietnam, 85% were azole resistant and especially linked to aquaculture, an association not previously identified (Duong *et al.*, 2020). Prior to 2016 (in Zeijiang), only 3 of 76 (4.1%) were found to be resistant (Ren *et al.*, 2017). Antifungal susceptibility testing in *Aspergillus* is not routinely done in this part of the world, so there are few data on the frequency of resistance in clinical isolates. Between August 2012 and July 2015 in Nanjing, 4 of 126 (3.2%) *A. fumigatus* strains were azole resistant (Zhang *et al.*, 2017). But overall, the extent of the clinical problem with azole resistance is not clear. In several other countries, environmental strains with azole resistance are just as capable as causing allergic and invasive aspergillosis as susceptible strains, so there is no expectation of a ‘loss of fitness’ with resistant strains.

There is a much circumstantial evidence linking the agricultural use of several triazole fungicides (prochloraz, difenoconazole, propiconazole, hexaconazole and tebuconazole) with the emergence of azole resistance in *A. fumigatus*. In China, the increasing frequency of azole resistance was closely linked with increasing azole fungicide residues in soil (20% resistant isolates when more than 1000 ng/g fungicide was detected) (Cao

*et al.*, 2021). Azole fungicide pressure drives azole resistance in *A. fumigatus*. What is not clear is whether removal of that pressure reduces the azole-resistant population sufficiently to be effective. There is a major need to curtail as much as possible non-critical use of azole fungicides in agriculture to minimize azole resistance. This article emphasizes that the time to act is now.

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