

1 **Title** Sequencing drug-resistant cytomegalovirus in paediatric patients: towards
2 personalised medicine

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8 **Keywords**

- 9 1. Herpesviruses
- 10 2. Antivirals
- 11 3. Evolution
- 12 4. Immune deficiency
- 13 5. Immune suppression
- 14 6. TORCH infection
- 15 7. Next-generation sequencing

16 **Summary** (117 words)

17 Cytomegalovirus is an ubiquitous herpesvirus that causes silent-to-mild infections in
18 healthy individuals, and potentially fatal infections in the immunocompromised,
19 especially paediatric patients. CMV reactivation during periods of intense immune
20 suppression is associated with significant economic costs and poor patient outcomes.
21 With a limited range of drugs licensed to treat CMV reactivation, managing antiviral
22 resistance is vital. In research settings, high-throughput sequencing is superseding
23 PCR-based monitoring of resistance mutations, revealing a more complicated – and
24 more informative – picture of emerging mutation profiles in clinical samples. In the next
25 decade, it is foreseeable that CMV whole genome sequencing for management of
26 antiviral drug resistance will become as important for personalised patient care as
27 qPCR monitoring of virus loads is today.

28 **Main text** (1459/1500 words)

29 Cytomegalovirus (CMV) is a common human pathogen causing life-long infection. In
30 immunocompetent individuals, this double stranded betaherpesvirus causes a silent or
31 mild primary infection, occasionally causing an infectious mononucleosis-like illness. In
32 individuals with iatrogenic, acquired or inborn immunodeficiency, CMV has the capacity
33 to cause a range of diseases. These include pneumonitis, colitis, CNS disease, and
34 ocular manifestations such as retinitis and uveitis; the more severe forms of CMV
35 disease can be fatal.

36 Paediatric patients may be at risk of severe CMV infections for a number of reasons.
37 There is data to suggest that while the paediatric CD8⁺ T cell response to primary CMV
38 infection is similar to that of adults [1], the CD4⁺ response is not as effective as the adult
39 response [2]. Primary CMV infections in infants leads to prolonged shedding of the virus
40 in urine and saliva which is not seen in adults [3], with the result that infants may
41 present a significant infection risk to their siblings and other children they interact with
42 closely, as well as CMV-negative adults.

43 There are four major categories of paediatric patient in whom serious CMV disease is
44 commonly reported. Congenital CMV infection occurs in ~0.5% of live births, with the
45 greatest risk found in mothers who are infected with CMV for the first time during
46 pregnancy. Children and adults with HIV are at significant risk of CMV disease due to
47 poor T cell control of this virus. Reduced T cell function contributes to the increased risk
48 of CMV disease in organ transplant recipients, as intense immune suppression is
49 required to prevent graft rejection. Finally, inborn errors of immunity and conditions
50 leading to poor thymus development also put children at risk of serious CMV infections
51 and disease. CMV is therefore a significant pathogen in many areas of paediatric
52 medicine.

53 The burden of drug resistance in cytomegalovirus disease

54 There are five drugs available for treatment of CMV (ganciclovir, cidofovir, foscarnet,
55 maribavir and letermovir), and a number of other drugs used off-label to treat CMV
56 disease, such as leflunomide and artesunate. These drugs may be given

57 prophylactically to prevent CMV reactivation, or pre-emptively to treat emerging CMV
58 disease, but either approach requires weeks to months of antiviral therapy. These drugs
59 have significant side-effect profiles of their own, creating a risk that antiviral treatment
60 may need to be reduced or stopped. Some CMV antivirals poorly penetrate certain
61 tissue compartments. Both factors increase the likelihood of paediatric patients being
62 exposed to sub-therapeutic drug doses, a risk factor for emergence of antiviral
63 resistance.

64 The economic burden of CMV reactivation in the setting of paediatric transplantation,
65 especially haemopoetic stem cell transplant (HSCT), has been calculated as up to
66 £22,500 (~\$34,000) per patient, as well as CMV disease increasing the risk of graft
67 rejection in solid organ transplant recipients [4, 5]. A recent study found that pre-emptive
68 antiviral treatment led to 14.5% of CMV-positive haplo-HSCT recipients developing
69 antiviral resistance mutations [5]. Ensuring timely and effective delivery of antivirals and
70 preventing resistance is also important for long-term patient outcomes in congenitally
71 infected neonates. Antiviral therapy can reduce or prevent many of the long-term
72 sequelae of congenital CMV infection, including sensorineural hearing loss [6]. Given
73 the small pool of antiviral options currently available to clinicians, there are compelling
74 clinical and financial reasons to better manage CMV drug resistance.

75 Monitoring CMV drug resistance

76 Unlike many pathogenic bacteria, it is time consuming and expensive to culture CMV
77 and test its drug-resistance phenotype by plaque assay. Fortunately, there is a growing
78 catalogue of known drug resistance mutations [7, 8] in the genes targeted by
79 ganciclovir, foscarnet and cidofovir: UL54 and UL97.

80 The primary approach to genetically confirming a clinical suspicion of antiviral
81 resistance has been to PCR amplify and Sanger sequence small regions of these
82 genes, which can be achieved directly from clinical samples. This method has
83 successfully identified hundreds of mutations which may convey resistance to one or
84 more drugs (and their prodrugs or oral derivatives). Traditional small sequencing of
85 these PCR products is relatively inexpensive, but cannot be easily scaled over the

86 growing number of genes, widely distributed over CMV's large (~230kb) genome, on
87 which new anti-CMV drugs act. It is also limited to detecting resistance mutations which
88 reach frequencies of greater than ~20%.

89 PCR amplification of CMV fragments has increasingly being combined with high-
90 throughput sequencing technologies. Amplicons are sequenced to high depth using a
91 variety of next-generation sequencing platforms. This approach detects resistance
92 mutations sooner, at lower frequencies, than Sanger sequencing of PCR products, with
93 studies reporting detection of resistance mutations at frequencies of 3% [9, 10].
94 Unfortunately, as with Sanger sequencing, this approach still relies on labour-intensive
95 PCR for the growing number of genes targeted by new antivirals and other therapies.

96 Novel approaches are being developed which can sequence whole CMV genomes, or
97 genes of interest, without the need for PCR or virus isolation and culture. Using
98 technology developed for human whole-exome capture and pull down, methods such as
99 SureSelect (Agilent) or SeqCap (Nimblegen) can be used to sequence virus genomes
100 to high depth directly from clinical samples. SureSelect uses custom baits to capture
101 CMV sequences and enrich them in the DNA that forms a sequencing library. This
102 approach has been very successful in sequencing relatively low virus load samples for
103 other herpesviruses [11, 12], and allows antiviral resistance mutations to be monitored
104 even as circulating CMV populations in blood, urine or CSF decline to low levels.

105 The future of CMV disease management

106 It is recognised that there is no unified strategy in place for monitoring the emergence of
107 CMV drug resistance in immunocompromised paediatric patients [13]. Clinical trials of
108 antiviral drugs are typically performed in adults rather than children. Choosing which
109 drugs to treat with, for what duration and dose, and managing clinically suspected drug
110 resistance is therefore even more challenging in paediatric patients than in adults [14].

111 Further studies are needed to establish at what frequency a resistance mutation must
112 be present to warrant clinical action. Published data suggests that resistance mutations
113 seen at high frequencies at the point of clinical diagnosis of resistance can be detected
114 weeks earlier by deep sequencing, at frequencies <10% [10]. Researchers and

115 clinicians need data on whether, in the presence of a low-frequency drug resistance
116 mutation, modifying an existing treatment schedule to increase the dosage or change
117 drug delivery method to achieve better tissue penetration is a viable treatment option.

118 Deep-sequencing studies of the evolution of antiviral resistance in CMV disease also
119 highlight the need for new drugs which target different parts of the CMV genome to
120 avoid the emergence of cross-resistant variants. Given the occurrence of single
121 nucleotide variants which convey resistance to more than one drug, multi-drug resistant
122 CMV is a known phenomenon [10]. At present, clinical sequencing may reveal that a
123 patient's circulating CMV strain or strains are already resistant to all available treatment
124 options. In the future, if drugs such as artesunate, leflunomide and letermovir are more
125 widely used [15], sequence data could inform a clinical decision to switch to drugs which
126 act on different CMV genes. By using these new drugs, clinicians may be able to avoid
127 the problem of pre-existing cross-resistance in previously treated patients, a significant
128 problem for drugs which target UL54 and UL97.

129 Adoptive immunotherapy is a further weapon in the CMV management arsenal, infusing
130 the host with CMV-specific cytotoxic T cells, and it may one day reduce reliance on
131 antivirals [16]. It is also likely to drive CMV evolution, selecting for CMV epitopes which
132 escape the infused T cells. These mutations will expand the number of genes which
133 need to be sequenced in order to manage CMV infection in immunocompromised
134 patients. It will rapidly become intractable to use PCR-based methods of CMV
135 sequencing, if this point has not already been reached. The future of CMV management
136 will require whole-genome sequencing and analysis of circulating CMV strains within
137 each patient. This will in turn create a need for automated, scalable solutions for
138 monitoring CMV genome variation, as the current bioinformatic burden of sequence
139 analysis is a limiting factor in reducing the turn-around times from sample to
140 personalised drug-resistance profile.

141 Future perspective

142 While the majority of immunocompromised paediatric patients with CMV infections are
143 successfully treated with standard approaches to CMV load monitoring (qPCR) and

144 prophylactic or preemptive antiviral treatment, clinicians cannot currently predict which
145 patients will fail first-line therapies due to pre-existing resistance mutations or progress
146 to multidrug-resistant CMV infections. Prospective and regular sequencing of CMV,
147 particularly in patients who have already been treated with drugs with anti-CMV activity,
148 is likely to become the new gold standard in virological monitoring within the near future.
149 To achieve this goal, existing sequencing and analysis methods must be made scalable
150 and automatable to reduce costs and turn-around times, and bring this technology into a
151 healthcare laboratory setting.

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154 **Abbreviations**

155 CNS Central nervous system

156 CMV Cytomegalovirus

157 CSF Cerebrospinal fluid

158 HCST Haemopoetic stem cell transplant

159 HIV Human immunodeficiency virus

160 PCR Polymerase chain reaction

161 qPCR Quantitative polymerase chain reaction

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