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- 1 High prevalence of Pneumocystis jirovecii dihydropteroate synthase gene
- mutations in patients with first episode of Pneumocystis pneumonia in Santiago, 2
- Chile, and their clinical response to trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole therapy. 3
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- Carolina A Ponce<sup>a</sup>, Magali Chabé<sup>b</sup>, Claudio George<sup>a</sup>, Alejandra Cárdenas<sup>a</sup>, Luisa 5
- Duran<sup>a</sup>, Julia Guerrero<sup>a</sup>, Rebeca Bustamante<sup>a</sup>, Olga Matos<sup>c</sup>, Laurence Huang<sup>d</sup>, Robert 6
- F Miller<sup>e</sup> and Sergio L Vargas<sup>a</sup># 7
- Programa de Microbiología y Micología, Instituto de Ciencias Biomédicas, Facultad de 8
- Medicina, Universidad de Chile, Santiago, Chile<sup>a</sup>; Center for Infection and Immunity of 9
- Lille, Institut Pasteur de Lille, INSERM U1019, CNRS UMR 8204, University Lille Nord 10
- de France, Lille Cedex, France<sup>b</sup>; Unidade de Parasitología Médica, Grupo de 11
- Protozoários Oportunistas/VIH e Outros Protozoarios, Global Health and Tropical 12
- Medicine, Instituto de Higiene e Medicina Tropical, Universidade NOVA de Lisboa, 13
- 14 Lisboa, Portugal<sup>c</sup>; Division of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine, and HIV, Infectious
- Diseases, and Global Medicine Division, Department of Medicine, San Francisco 15
- General Hospital, University of California, San Francisco, California, USAd; Research 16
- Department of Infection and Population Health, Institute of Epidemiology and 17
- Healthcare, University College London, London, UKe 18
- 19
- Running title: P. jirovecii DHPS mutations on prior absence of sulfas 20
- 21
- #Address correspondence to Sergio L Vargas, svargas@med.uchile.cl 22
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## **ABSTRACT**

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Mutations in the Dihydropteroate synthase (DHPS) gene of Pneumocystis jirovecii associate with failure of sulfa prophylaxis. They can develop by selection in patients receiving sulfa drugs, or be acquired via person-to-person transmission. DHPS mutations raise concern about decreasing efficacy of sulfa drugs, the main available therapeutic tool for *Pneumocystis* pneumonia (PCP). The prevalence of *Pneumocystis* DHPS mutations was examined in Pneumocystis isolates from 56 sulfa-prophylaxisnaive adults with first-episode of PCP from 2002-2010 in Santiago, Chile. Their clinical history was reviewed to analyze the effect of these mutations on response to trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole (TMP-SMZ) therapy and outcome. Mutant genotypes occurred in 22(48%) of 46 HIV-infected, and in 5(50%) of 10 HIV-uninfected patients. Compared to patients with wild type genotype, those with mutant genotypes were more likely to experience sulfa treatment-limiting adverse reactions, and, to have a twicelonger duration of mechanical ventilation if mechanically ventilated. Specific genotypes did not associate with death, which occurred in none of the HIV-infected, and in 50% of non-HIV-infected patients. Chile has a high prevalence of DHPS mutations presumably acquired through inter-human transmission because patients were not on sulfa prophylaxis. Results contrast with the low prevalence observed in other Latin American countries with similar usage of sulfa drugs suggesting additional sources of resistant genotypes may be possible. The twice-longer duration of mechanical ventilation in patients with mutant DHPS genotypes may suggest decreased efficacy of TMP-SMZ and warrant collaborative studies to recognize the relevance of DHPS mutations, and further research to increase therapeutic options for PCP.

#### INTRODUCTION

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Pneumonia by the non-culturable opportunistic fungus Pneumocystis jirovecii (PCP), is a major cause of morbidity and mortality among human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)infected, and other immunosuppressed patients (1). Pneumocystis, as other fundi, is unable to scavenge folic acid from the host and needs this gene for synthesis of folate. Prophylaxis and treatment of this infection relies mostly on the use of the trimethoprim sulfamethoxazole (TMP-SMZ) combination to inhibit folate synthesis. TMP-SMZ is widely available and has effectively reduced the incidence of PCP. Sulfa drug usage however, has been associated with mutations in the active site of the dihydropteroate synthase (DHPS) enzyme in the fas gene of P. jirovecii which also codes for dihydroneopterin aldolase and hydroxymethildihydropterin pyrophosphokinase. The other enzyme involved folic acid synthesis is dihydrofolate reductase (DHFR), which is coded in a separate gene. The trimethoprim component of TMP-SMZ selectively inhibits the DHFR enzyme activity, and the sulfamethoxazole component the activity of DHPS in Pneumocystis and organisms such as Plasmodium falciparum and Streptococcus pneumoniae, where DHPS and DHFR mutations have been documented as the mechanism by which sulfa resistance occurs(2-3). Furthermore, most studies have shown an association between chronic use of sulfa drugs administered as prophylaxis and presence of DHPS mutations, suggesting drug selection pressure as the mechanism by which an increase in DHPS mutants in P. jirovecii occur(4-6). It is not clear whether short term courses of sulfa drug in outpatient settings are sufficient for selection pressure of DHPS mutants in P. jirovecii. Environments like hospitals or outpatient clinics are likely more relevant for selection of mutant Pneumocystis as

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patients on chronic sulfa drug use may accumulate mutant genotypes and be a reservoir for transmission of resistant P. jirovecii strains. This is supported by the high prevalence of P. jirovecii DHPS mutants in patients with chronic bronchitis that had not received TMP-SMZ in the previous six months, and by the high transmissibility of Pneumocystis (7-8). Germane to this work, mutations in the DHPS gene associate with decreased sulfa drug efficacy in-vitro and with failure of anti-Pneumocystis prophylaxis(9-10). Thus, detection of DHPS mutations in P. jirovecii infers that sulfa resistance might be developing and therefore affecting the efficacy of the first-line agent used for prophylaxis and treatment of PCP. The significance of DHPS mutations in clinical response and outcome of PCP treated with sulfa drugs is still controversial and data on correlation between DHPS mutations and mortality from PCP is scarce and retrospective studies are conflicting (11-13). It can be hypothesized however, that the speed of response to sulfa treatment might be compromised in patients infected by DHPS mutant isolates, delaying clearance of Pneumocystis and affecting interim outcomes of therapy as for example, the time connected to mechanical ventilation, oxygen requirements, or others. DHPS mutant genotypes are selected by sulfa drug selection pressure and have been used as a marker to infer inter-human transmission of mutant Pneumocystis genotypes from sulfa-treated patients to individuals non-treated with sulfonamides(14-16). Their prevalence varies depending on geographical location, suggesting different patterns in the use of sulfa drugs. Recognition of the incidence of DHPS mutations in a particular

region and whether mutations affect the response to anti-P. jirovecii therapy and

- prophylaxis is therefore warranted. There is a need of more studies to characterize PCP 93
- 94 including the incidence of DHPS mutations of P. jirovecii in Chile (17-19).
- In the present study we sought to report the incidence of DHPS mutations among adult 95
- patients without history of prior use of anti-P. jirovecii prophylaxis, and presenting with a 96
- first episode PCP in Santiago, Chile, describing their clinical presentation, response to 97
- 98 therapy, and outcome.

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### PATIENTS AND METHODS

Ethics review: The Ethics Committee for Studies in Humans of the University of Chile School of Medicine approved the study under protocol number 00267. Clinical data was reported coded to the investigators and analyzed unlinked to the identity of the subjects. Informed consent for analyses of *Pneumocystis* isolates was not required. Patients: Respiratory specimens from adult patients presenting to two hospital clinics in Santiago, Chile between January 2002 and January 2010 who had not received TMP-SMZ or dapsone (a sulfone) as anti-Pneumocystis prophylaxis and who had first episode PCP were studied. Their clinical data was collected by means of retrospective hospital chart review, including patient demographics, past medical history, underlying cause of immunodeficiency (HIV infection, or other cause), receipt of anti-Pneumocystis prophylaxis with any agent, other drug treatments, clinical presentation, results of laboratory tests, and imaging (chest radiography, and computed tomography), clinical course (including admission to the intensive care unit [ICU] and need for mechanical ventilation), receipt of adjunctive corticosteroids, response to anti-Pneumocystis treatment, presence of co-pathogens, and outcome were recorded. Death attributable to PCP was defined as death caused by progressive respiratory failure. Sample specimens: Fresh frozen respiratory specimens were sent to the University of Chile School of Medicine for diagnosis of PCP. They were processed at arrival, and extracted DNA was kept at -20°C until DHPS genotype analyses. All analyses were performed "blind" to patients' clinical details.

Diagnosis of PCP: P. jirovecii organisms were identified using either Grocott Gomori

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Pneumocystis, Meridian, Biosciences). In addition to staining, polymerase chain reaction (PCR) with standard primers pAZ102-E and pAZ102-H (20) designed to amplify the gene encoding the mitochondrial large subunit rRNA of Pneumocystis, and which amplifies all Pneumocystis species, was performed on all specimens prior to genotyping. Processing of specimens: Samples were processed inside a biosafety cabinet using sterile precautions to avoid contamination at all times. They were homogenized with a sterile pipette and a 200 µL aliquot was used for DNA extraction. DNA was extracted using the QIAamp DNA Mini kit (Qiagen, Valencia, California) as described (21), and Platinum® Pfx DNA polymerase (Invitrogen) was used for DNA amplification. Negative controls were included to monitor for cross-contamination during DNA extraction and purification steps. An internal control using the human β-globin gene was used in each sample to detect inhibition of the PCR reaction, i.e., false negative results. Each sample was run undiluted and as a 1/5 dilution to assess for substrate inhibition. Amplification products were visualized by ethidium bromide, in 2% agarose gels. Detection of mutations in the DHPS gene: The DHPS gene binding site was amplified using Touch-down **PCR** primers DHPS-3: 5' single using 3' GCGCCTACACATATTATGGCCATTTTAAATC and DHPS-4: 5'GGAACTTTCAACTTGGCAACCAC3' yielding an amplification product of 370 base pairs as previously described (11, 16, 22). Point mutations in positions 165 (G for T) and 171 (T for C) of the DHPS gene were detected using Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism analysis using restriction enzymes Accl (500U 10U/µL, Promega) and

HaelII (2500U, 10U/ul, Promega). Four DHPS allelic patterns were identified: wild-type

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(genotype 1) and single mutant genotype 2 (point mutation at position 165), single mutant genotype 3 (point mutation at position 171), and double mutant genotype 4 (point mutations at both position 165 and 171), as previously described (23-24). Mutations were classified according to the pattern of band polymorphisms visualized on the 2% agarose gels stained with ethidium bromide. Statistical analysis: GraphPad Prism 5 software (San Diego, California) was used for all statistical comparisons. Patient characteristics and clinical outcome were compared between mutant and wild type groups in HIV-positive patients. Statistical comparisons were not done in HIV-negative patients because they were too few. Qualitative characteristics were described using absolute frequency, and percentages and intergroup comparisons among mutant and wild type groups were performed using Fisher's exact test. Non-normally distributed quantitative variables were described using medians and interquartile ranges (IQR) and comparisons were made using Mann Whitney Test. Normally distributed quatitative data were described using means and standard deviations (SD), and comparisons were made using the unpaired t-test. A p value of <0.05 was considered significant. Proportions of DHPS mutants overtime were compared using  $\chi^2.\ \mbox{All}$  comparisons were two-tailed and confidence level was set at

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# **RESULTS**

# Patients and sample characteristics

A total of 56 respiratory specimens corresponding to 56 adult patients with available
medical history and who had not received TMP-SMZ or dapsone as Pneumocystis
prophylaxis and presented with a first episode of PCP were found in our respiratory
specimens collection. All were immunosuppressed: 46(82%) were HIV-infected, and
10(18%) had other causes of immunosuppression: HTLV-1 associated T-cell lymphoma
(n=1), meningioma (n=1), rheumatoid arthritis (n=1), dermatomyositis (n=1), psoriatic
arthritis (n=1), systemic lupus erythematosus (n=1), Churg-Strauss syndrome (n=1),
myasthenia gravis (n=1), chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (n=1), and chronic
renal failure (n=1). The median age for HIV-infected patients was 38.5 years (range 22 -
71), and for non-HIV infected was 56.5 years (range 18 - 82). Forty five (98%) of the 46
HIV-infected patients and four (40%) of the 10 non-HIV infected patients were male.
PCP was the AIDS-defining condition in 36 (78%) of the HIV-infected patients. Only one
of the eight patients with HIV infection diagnosed prior to their PCP episode was
receiving antiretroviral therapy. Median CD4+ T-cell count among HIV infected patients
was <40 cells/μl (Table 1).
Five specimens were obtained during the period 2002 - 2004, 16 during 2005 - 2007;
and 35 in 2008 - 2010. They consisted of bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) fluid (n=26),
tracheal aspirate (n=16), spontaneously expectorated sputum (n=13), and
nasopharyngeal aspirate (n=1).
Parameters to characterize the degree of severity of PCP were not standardized, and
individual patients' receipt of supplemental oxygen, and their arterial oxygen tension or

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saturation measurements (obtained while breathing room air) were not recorded systematically. However, all patients were admitted to the hospital, and the majority 54(96%) required supplemental oxygen. No significant differences were detected in clinical parameters at admission (fever, cough, dyspnea, chest radiography, computed tomography, platelet count, serum albumin, lactate dehydrogenase and C-reactive protein levels) among HIV-infected and non-infected patients.

# Previous use of trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole

Hospital medical records were reviewed for use of TMP-SMZ. This sulfa-drug combination is available in the Chilean therapeutic armamentarium, and occasionally prescribed for respiratory and urologic conditions. Except for two patients with asthma whose P. jirovecii isolates were DHPS genotype 1 (wild-type), only one other patient had chronic lung disease. None of the patients had urologic conditions referred in the medical history at hospital admission. No use of TMP-SMZ as inpatients was documented. Outpatient and primary care medical records were not accessible.

## Prevalence of DHPS mutations

Mutations in the DHPS gene were identified in 27 (48%) of 56 patients regardless of their underlying diagnosis (Table 2). Mutations occurred in one (20%) of the five isolates collected between 2002 - 2004, five (31%) of the 16 isolates collected between 2005-2007, and 21 (60%) of the 35 isolates collected between 2008-2010 (p = 0.06). Polymorphisms consisting of DHPS genotypes 2, 3, or 4 were present in 22 (48%) of the 46 HIV-infected and in five (50%) of the 10 non-HIV infected patients with PCP. Coinfections with wild type genotype were more frequent in the HIV-infected group, and were absent in non-HIV infected patients with PCP (Table 2). No predominant pattern of

mutation polymorphism was detected. We analyzed co-infections by grouping coinfections during 2002 - 2008, the first 6 years (n =13), and those during the last 3 years 2009 - 2012 (n = 9) of the study. Eight (61%) of 13 co-infections during the first time period compare to seven (77%) of nine co-infections in the second period (p = 0.42).

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## Clinical parameters and outcome

Anti-PCP treatment was initiated with TMP-SMZ in 53 (95%) of the 56 patients. TMP-SMZ combined with caspofungin or dapsone was used in two patients, and pyrimethamine-sulphadoxine in one patient. Among HIV-infected discontinuation of TMP-SMZ, related to sulfa-related adverse events and not to treatment failure, was needed in four (18%) of 22 patients with mutant genotypes and in none of 24 with wild type isolates (p =0.045). Among HIV-infected patients requiring mechanical ventilation, the duration of mechanical ventilation among those harboring DHPS mutations was significantly longer, 11 days (IQR 8-56), than in those with wild type isolates, 6 days (IQR 2-8); p =0.017. There was a trend towards longer hospitalization in HIV-infected patients with mutations, 20 days (IQR 10-42), compared with 11 days (IQR 6 - 19) in those HIV-infected patients with wild type DHPS isolates; p =0.073, (Table 3). All 46 (100%) HIV infected patients survived whereas only five (50%) of the ten non-HIV infected patients survived. Death was directly attributable to PCP in three of them.

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**DISCUSSION** 

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Nearly half of the patients in this study, regardless of their HIV-status, had Pneumocystis DHPS mutant genotypes despite no prior receipt of sulfa drugs (sulfamethoxazole or dapsone) as prophylaxis of PCP, therefore suggesting that human-to human transmission was the most likely source of acquisition of mutant isolates. Our results also, showed that mechanically ventilated patients harboring Pneumocystis DHPS mutant genotypes had a twice-longer duration of mechanical ventilation suggesting that these mutations might have impacted the response to anti-Pneumocystis treatment with sulfamethoxazole-containing sulfa combinations. In addition, adverse drug reactions to sulfa treatment of PCP, necessitating treatment change, were observed more frequently among those with mutant DHPS genotypes. A high prevalence of DHPS mutations has also been reported in studies from other countries. For example, a recent study of AIDS related PCP in Kampala, Uganda documented that all 13 isolates of P. jirovecii harbored either single or double mutant DHPS genotypes, despite only two persons were receiving TMP-SMZ for PCP prophylaxis (25). This finding was ascribed to population-level selection pressure due to sulfa drug use for treatment of malaria caused by Plasmodium falciparum among the general population. Pneumocystis is not zoonotic, therefore the absence of sulfa prophylaxis for PCP in our patients suggests that they likely acquired DHPS mutations through inter-human transmission (14, 16). The mechanism and role for selection pressure at a population level is, however, not clear because sulfa drugs are the third or fourth choice of antibiotic for treatment of respiratory and urinary tract infections, in both primary and secondary care settings in Chile. They account for approximately 5% of

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antibiotic prescriptions after synthetic penicillins, macrolides, cephalosporins, and quinolones (26). Furthermore, the use of the TMP-SMZ combination has decreased since 2000 from approximately 7% to 2% of total antibiotic consumption in Chile(26). This consumption is similar to that reported in other Latin American countries (27) where low usage of sulfa drugs parallels a low prevalence of DHPS mutations. Of note, an earlier UK study showed a 36% frequency of DHPS mutations in isolates of P. jirovecii in London, when there was population-level "selection pressure" from widespread use of sulfa drugs both as prophylaxis against PCP, and among the general population for treatment of respiratory and urinary tract infections (28). Contemporaneously, a low prevalence (7.7%) of DHPS mutants were identified in Zimbabwe, where sulfa drugs were rarely used. When in UK selection pressure was removed a predominance (80%) of wild type genotypes was observed (28). Restriction measures for use of antibiotics have been in place in Chile since 1998, however, there is no indication that the frequency of detection of DHPS mutants has decreased. By contrast, the possible increase in proportion of DHPS mutations overtime suggested in this study becomes paradoxical when the parallel decrease in use of sulfa drugs by national policies is considered. Therefore, the high frequency described in this study seems too high to be explained solely by sulfa selection pressure within human population. Restriction of antibiotics in humans in Chile has not been accompanied by similar policies in veterinary settings, and currently there is a far greater use of antibiotics including sulfa drugs in the setting of pig, poultry, and fish farming than in humans in Chile (29). Veterinary use of sulfa drugs may select DHPS mutants on a much larger

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scale than in human use, and acquisition of bacterial genes generally responsible for metabolic or virulence traits via horizontal gene transfer (HGT) has been documented in fungal species(30-31). However, this type of acquisition of resistance has never been described in Pneumocystis. Mutations in the DHPS gene of P. jirovecii have been shown to arise independently among multiple *Pneumocystis* strains (32). Therefore, transmission of a single resistant clone of *P. jirovecii* appears to be very unlikely. The finding that adverse drug reactions to sulfa treatment were more frequent among patients with mutant DHPS genotypes, whom in turn required more frequent changes in anti-PCP treatment, does not have an immediately apparent explanation. Short courses of sulfa drugs, for example as treatment for bronchitis or sinusitis could not be identified from hospital records, and therefore, the possibility of prior exposure in a primary care setting resulting in sensitization cannot be excluded. However, the two patients with asthma, and one additional patient with chronic obstructive lung disease, in whom the possibility of them having received undocumented sulfa-containing antibiotics in a primary care was more likely, had wild type DHPS genotype 1. No difference in the proportion of patients with wild type and mutant genotypes requiring mechanical ventilation was detected in the present study. This observation contrasts with a study by Crothers et al, where 14.3% of patients with PCP and mutant P. jirovecii genotypes required mechanical ventilation, compared with 2.5% of those with wild type P. jirovecii genotypes (p = 0.056) (33). However, mutant DHPS genotypes were associated with a longer duration of mechanical ventilation in the present series and this data suggests further research is needed (by way of a multi-center prospective study),

as data from the present study infer a reduced ability of sulfa-based regimens to clear

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showed patients with mutant DHPS genotypes had a non-significant trend to longer overall hospital stay, but data on duration of mechanical ventilation is not provided (33). The inability to culture *Pneumocystis* in-vitro hinders antimicrobial sensitivity testing and makes proof of a mechanistic connection difficult. Moukhlis et. al. performed functional studies using a DHPS-deficient model of Sacharomyces cerevisiae experimentally complemented with Pneumocystis mutant and wild type DHPS, and documented a decreased susceptibility to sulfamethoxazole in those S. cerevisiae isolates that were complemented with double mutant genotypes(34). Their results, and related earlier work provide an in-vitro correlation with our findings(9-10, 34). In the present study, we observed no association between mutant DHPS-genotype and mortality. However this was an observational study and so was not powered to show differences. Of interest, a prospective single cohort study from San Francisco General Hospital consisting of 301 patients with laboratory-confirmed PCP, over a period of >10 years, demonstrated that although receipt of recent sulfa prophylaxis was associated with mutant genotypes of P. jirovecii, detection of mutant DHPS genotypes was not associated with mortality. This observation conflicts with findings from other authors (13, 35). The strengths of the present study are that it is the first from Chile to describe DHPS genotyping among P. jirovecii isolates from patients with PCP. Our results document a high frequency of DHPS mutants (48%) in anti-P. jirovecii sulfa-prophylaxis-naive patients with a first episode of PCP. This frequency is excessively high when compared

to the low prevalence of DHPS mutations in countries in the same continent, for

DHPS-mutant P. jirovecii from the lungs. Interestingly, the study by Crothers et al also

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example Brazil (0%) and Colombia (6.6%) that report similar patterns of sulfa-drug usage in humans(27, 36-37). Therefore, although our findings add further evidence to support the hypothesis of inter-human transmission as a mechanism of acquisition of mutant P. jirovecii types, additional mechanisms of acquisition may be possible. Significantly, our results also suggest that DHPS mutation can diminish the efficacy of sulfa-drug treatment of PCP by documenting a significantly longer duration of mechanical ventilation in patients harboring mutant DHPS genotypes, and highlight the need to increase the anti-Pneumocystis armamentarium. TMP-SMZ is the only anti-Pneumocystis drug available in most of the world. Weaknesses of the present study are the lack of prospective, systematic acquisition of clinical data, and the relatively small sample size. In conclusion, we describe a high frequency of DHPS mutations among adult patients with first-episode of PCP who had not received sulfa drugs as PCP prophylaxis in Santiago, Chile. The likely explanation being inter-human transmission and selection pressure from sulfa drugs prescribed for other conditions. Additionally, the potential role of veterinary use of sulfa drugs in selection of DHPS mutations for transmission to humans deserves further study. Patients with PCP and mutant DHPS genotypes were more likely to experience treatment-limiting adverse reactions to sulfa-drug treatment, and to require a longer duration of mechanical ventilation, thus inferring a decrease on treatment efficacy. The final treatment outcome was not affected, as patients harboring mutant DHPS genotypes were no more likely to die. The prevalence of DHPS mutations in clinical isolates of Pneumocystis should be monitored, and their significance in delaying response to therapy needs to be confirmed in larger collaborative studies.

- Conflict of interests: None to declare. 349
- Author contribution statements: SLV, CAP, RFM: were responsible for the hypothesis, 350
- literature search, and writing the manuscript; SLV, CAP, LH: Prepared the data 351
- collection forms. CG, AC, LD, JG: collected the data. CAP, RB, MCh: Analyzed the 352
- 353 specimens; SLV, CAP, RFM: Analyzed and interpreted the data; CAP, MCh, CG, AC,
- LD, JG, RB, LH, OM, RFM, SLV: Critically revised the paper. SLV is the guarantor of 354
- the study. 355

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Absence of dihydropteroate synthase mutations in Pneumocystis jirovecii from

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Table 1. Demographic and clinical characteristics of 56 patients with first episode of *Pneumocystis* pneumonia (PCP).

	HIV-infected n=46		Non-HIV-infected n=10 n/n total (%)			
	n/n total (%)					
	Wild-type DHPS genotypes 24/46 (52)	Mutant DHPS genotypes 22/46 (48)	p value	Wild-type DHPS genotypes 5/10 (50)	Mutant DHPS genotypes 5/10 (50)	p value
Mean age [years] (SD)	40 (12.2)	40.1 (9.3)	0.977	48.5 (24.7)	55.6 (23.3)	0.671
Male gender	24/24 (100)	21/22 (95)	0.468	2/5 (40)	2/5 (40)	1
New HIV diagnosis	20/24 (83)	18/22 (82)	0.699	NA	NA	
Receipt of PCP prophylaxis	0/24 (0)	0/22 (0)	1	0/5	0/5	NA
Not receiving antiretroviral Therapy	24/24 (100)	21/22 (96)	0.478	NA	NA	
Fever Mean temperature [°C] (SD)	15/24 (63) 38.1 (0.85)	12/22 (55) 38.2 (0.98)	0.765 0.786	3/5 (60)	2/3 (67)	1
Cough	18/24 (75)	19/22 (86)	0.464	3/5 (60)	3/4 (75)	1
Dyspnoea	21/24 (88)	19/21 (91)	1	4/5 (80)	3/4 (75)	1
Chest radiograph Abnormal Bilateral interstitial infiltrates Another pattern Not determined	22/24 21/22 (96) 18/22 (82) 3/22 (14) <sup>a</sup>	21/22 21/21 (100) 16/21 (76) 5/21 (24) <sup>b</sup>	1	5/5 5/5 (100) 1/5 (20) 2/5 (40) <sup>6</sup> 2/5 (40)	5/5 5/5 (100) 1/5 (20) 4/5 (80) <sup>d</sup>	NA
Thoracic CT scan Abnormal Ground glass infiltrates Another pattern	15/25 15/15 (100) 12/15 (80) 3/15 (20) <sup>6</sup>	15/22 15/15 (100) 14/15 (93) 1/15 (7) <sup>‡</sup>	1	3/5 3/3 (100) 1/3 (33) 2/3 (67) <sup>9</sup>	3/5 3/3 (100) 1/3 (33) 2/3 (67) <sup>h</sup>	NA
Median CD4 cell count [cell/μl] (IQR)	27 (11–57.5)	37 (18-64)	0.465	ND ND	ND ND	
n Median serum albumin [g/l] (IQR) n	(20/24) 2.95 (2.37-3.40) (18/24)	(19/22) 2.90 (2.40-3.30) (13/22)	0.794	3.15 (2.35-3.43) (4/5)	ND	
Median serum LDH [IU/I] (IQR)	854.5 (568.8-1290) (22/24)	863 (665-1089) n=19	0.927	875 (558,8-3210) (4/5)	1099 (840-1405) (5/5)	0.730
Mean haematocrit [%] (SD)]	39.9 (6.39) (23/24)	36.8 (4.72) (21/22)	0.076	30.1 (8.84) (5/5)	31.5 (9.54) (4/5)	0.782
Median C-reactive Protein [mg/l] (IQR)	19.6 (4.8-99.9) (18/24)	8.5 (1.1-86.2) (19/22)	0.475	73 (3.40-217.0) (5/5)	5,0 (1.90-50.25) (4/5)	0.191
Other lung pathology	2/24(8) <sup>i</sup>	1/22 (5) <sup>j</sup>	1	3/5(60) <sup>k</sup>	1/5 (20) <sup>l</sup>	0.524

Rey: DHPS = dyhydropteroate synthase; LDH = Lactate dehydrogenase. NA = not applicable; ND = not determined

Bilateral interstitial infiltrates plus bilateral lobar consolidation =1; bilateral interstitial infiltrates plus bilateral alveolar consolidation =1; diffuse alveolar interstitial infiltrates plus air bronchogram and consolidation =1; diffuse alveolar- interstitial pattern =2; diffuse alveolar- interstitial pattern with apical cavitation =1; right lobar

<sup>&</sup>quot;Bilateral interstitial infiltrates plus air bronchogram and consolidation =1; diffuse alveolar- interstitial pattern =2; diffuse alveolar- interstitial pattern with apical cavitation consolidation =1;

Alveolar haemorrhage =1; left pulmonary nodules =1

Bilateral peri-bronchovascular thickening =1; Right basal consolidation =1; bilateral alveolar consolidation plus air bronchogram =1; right middle lobe consolidation =1

Bilateral ground-glass infiltrates and four cavitation- suggestive nodules (1)

Bilateral ground-glass infiltrates and four cavitation- suggestive nodules (1)

Bilateral ground-glass infiltrates and four cavitation- suggestive nodules (1)

Bilateral ground glass pattern and unilateral consolidation (1); unilateral consolidation (1)

Bronchial asthma (2)

Mycobacterium tuberculosis

The Dermatomyositis (1); COPD plus Cystic fibrosis (1); Bronchial asthma (1)
Myasthenia gravis

 
 Table 2: Pneumocystis jirovecii Dihydropteroate Synthase genotypes in respiratory specimens from 56 adult patients with newly diagnosed
 490 491 Pneumocystis pneumonia.

DHPS genotype*	HIV-infected (n = 46) [n positive/n total (%)]	Non-HIV-infected (n = 10) [n positive/n total (%)]		
Wild-type				
G1	24/46 (52)	5/10 (50)		
Mutant	22/46 (48)	5/10 (50)		
Single mutant	2/22 (9)	2/5 (40)		
G2 (position 165)	1/22 (5)	2/5 (40)		
G3 (position 171)	1/22 (5)	0		
Double mutant				
G4 (position 165 + 171)	5/22 (23)	3/5 (60)		
Co-infection with wild-type	15/22 (68)	0		
G5 (1 + 2)	9/22 (41)	0		
G6 (1 + 3)	0	0		
G7 (1 + 4)	6/22 (27)	0		
Mixed single + double mutant				
G8 (2 + 4)	0	0		
*Ganatypes (G1 G9) as described in	n rof 34			

\*Genotypes (G1 - G8) as described in ref. 24.

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30 (14-40) 25 (8-37) 16/22 n with available data / n 19/24 5 5 (100) 5 (100) Required supplemental Oxygen 24 (100) 20 (91) 11.5 (6.7-19.5) 14.5 (7.0-20) 0.203 34 (14-40) 17 (10-24) ND Median (days [IQR]) n with available data / n 22/24 20/22 5 Need for early ICU admission 8 (36) 7 (35) 0.763 1 (20) 3/4 (75) ND n with available data / n 22/24 20/22 Mechanical ventilation 9 (38) 7 (32) 4 (80) 5(100) Median (days [IQR]) 6 (2.25-7.75) 0.017 25 (10-30) ND 11 (8-56) 14 (8-35) Pulmonary co-infection 7 (29) 5 (23) 3 (60) 2 (40) Bacterial 3 3<sup>n</sup> 20 4<sup>j</sup> 0 0 0 Viral 2<sup>k</sup> 2<sup>m</sup> Bacterial + Viral 0 0 Treatment outcome 24 (100) 22 (100) Survived 2 (40) 3 (60) 3 (60) 2 (40) 0 (0) 0 (0) Death due to PCP 0 (0) 0 (0) 2 (40) 1 (20) (ii) caspofungin + trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole (TMS) (1), dapsone +TMS (1) Cytomegalovirus (CMV) Acinetobacter baumannii + CMV =1, Enterobacter cloacae + CMV =1 (iv) rash (2), acute kidney injury (1), rash, interstitial nephritis, hepatitis (1) Streptococcus pneumoniae =1, Klebsiella pneumoniae =2, Stenotrophomonas maltophilia (v) change TMS to: dapsone (2), dapsone + clindamycin (1) (vi)treatment failure change to iv pentamidine <sup>m</sup>β-haemolytic Streptococcus + CMV =1, atypical Mycobacteria + CMV =1 <sup>n</sup>Pseudomonas aeruginosa =1, Klebsiella pneumoniae =1, Proteus mirallis =1 26 494

Table 3: Dihydropteroate Synthase genotypes and clinical outcomes among 56 patients with first episode of Pneumocystis pneumonia.

Mutant DHPS

genotypes

(n=22)

20 (91)ii

4 (18) iv

4 (18)v

4 (18)

15 (70)

20 (10-42)

p value

0.600

0.452

0.045

0.178

0.159

0.073

Non-HIV-infected

n=10

Mutant DHPS

genotypes

(n=5)

5 (100)

0 (0)

0 (0)

0 (0)

4 (80)

p value

ND

ND

ND

ND

ND

ND

Wild-type DHPS

genotypes

(n=5)

5 (100)

0 (0)

1 (17)*vi* 

0 (0)

4 (83)

**HIV-infected** 

n=46

Wild-type DHPS

genotypes

(n=24)

23 (96)i

2 (8)*iii* 

0 (0)

1 (4)

21 (84)

11 (6-19)

Treatment and outcome

Need for treatment change

Adjunctive corticosteroids

Duration of hospitalization, days

Median (IQR)

Initial treatment with trimethoprim-

[n (%)]

sulfamethoxazole Adverse effect

Sulfa allergies