Respiratory Viral Infections in Transplant Recipients

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- Common community-acquired respiratory viruses (CARVs) can cause severe and potentially fatal ARF in immunocompromised patients.
- CARVs include influenza virus, parainfluenza virus (PIV), respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), rhinovirus/enterovirus, and human metapneumovirus (hMPV)

 Community-acquired respiratory viruses such as influenza, respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), parainfluenza, adenovirus, rhinovirus, endemic coronaviruses, SARS-CoV-2, and human metapneumovirus are particularly challenging due to frequent exposures both pre- and post-transplant, as well as the potential for nosocomial transmission

Table 3 Community-acquired respiratory virus (CARV)

Туре	Family	Genus	Virus
RNA viruses	Orthomyxoviridae	Influenza A	All Influenza A subtypes
		Influenza B	Influenza B
	Paramyxoviridae	Rubulavirus	Human parainfluenza virus type 2 (PIV-2) Human parainfluenza virus type 4a (PIV-4a) Human parainfluenza virus type 4b (PIV-4b)
		Respirovirus	Human parainfluenza virus type 1 (PIV-1) Human parainfluenza virus type 3 (PIV-3)
	Pneumoviridae	Metapneumovirus	Human metapneumovirus (hMPV)
		Orthopneumovirus	Human orthopneumovirus/Respiratory syncytial virus A (RSV-A) Human orthopneumovirus/Respiratory syncytial virus B (RSV-B)
	Coronaviridae	Betacoronavirus	Middle East respiratory syndrome-related coronavirus (MERS-CoV) Severe acute respiratory syndrome-related coronavirus (SARS-CoV) Human coronavirus NL63 Human coronavirus 229E Human coronavirus HKU1 Human coronavirus OC43
	Picornaviridae	Enterovirus	Enterovirus A-L Rhinovirus A, B, C

#Nomenclature according to the 2018 International Committee on Taxonomy of Viruses statement

 Respiratory viral infections (RVIs) are among the leading causes of morbidity and mortality in pediatric hematopoietic stem cell transplant (HCT) and solid organ transplant (SOT) recipients and have been associated with chronic graft dysfunction and graft failure in SOT recipients, particularly in **lung transplant** recipients

 Early detection of RVIs in transplant recipients may reduce antibiotic exposure, prompt timely initiation of antiviral therapies, and allow for appropriate infection control measures to mitigate nosocomial transmission. Specific RVIs are clinically indistinguishable from one another, and transplant recipients often have atypical presentations due to lifelong immunosuppression

 Rates of hospitalization are also higher among transplant recipients, with data suggesting that **14.5%** of **SOT** recipients had at least one RVI that required hospitalization within 12 months of transplant, while only 4% of otherwise healthy experienced hospitalization as a result of respiratory viral infection

 Influenza is caused by influenza A and B viruses and characterized by annual seasonal epidemics and sporadic pandemic outbreaks. The WHO has estimated that annual influenza outbreaks affect 48.8 million people, of whom 22.7 million see a healthcare provider and nearly a million are admitted to hospital. Among critically ill patients with influenza, **12.5%** are immunocompromised, and their mortality is 2.5 times as high as in nonimmunocompromised patients.

 Among patients admitted for influenza, 10% are immunocompromised . RSV infections are typically seasonal and pose similar serious risks to immunocompromised patients as does the influenza virus. RSV infection has been found in **up to 12%** of patients undergoing HCT, of whom one-third progressed to lower respiratory tract infection, which was fatal in about 30% of cases

- PIV causes respiratory diseases similar to those seen with RSV. RSV and PIV were found in 11% and 2.5% of nasopharyngeal swabs from critically ill hematology patients, respectively . In a prospective study of HSCT recipients, PIV-3 accounted for 71% of viral respiratory infections .
- The virus is often acquired in the community and brought into the transplant ward by staff, where it may mimic other opportunistic infections, thereby raising diagnostic challenges

 The hMPV is closely related to RSV and often causes severe infections requiring mechanical ventilation in patients who are elderly and/or have comorbidities. Rhinoviruses/ enteroviruses are Picornaviridae that circulate throughout the year and are increasingly recognized as a cause of lower respiratory tract infection in immunocompromised patients. In critically ill hematology patients, rhinoviruses/enteroviruses were the most prevalent viruses detected at ICU admission (56%)

- Risk factors for viral pneumonia overlap those for bacterial pneumonia, and coinfection is common in patients with severe pneumonia.
- Steroid therapy, hematological malignancies, lymphopenia, older age, and HSCT are strongly associated with viral infections. There is a seasonal distribution with peaks in the winter and spring

 The symptoms and imaging study findings are not specific for viral infections, and overlap occurs with the changes seen in bacterial infections, although a diffuse airspace pattern is more common in bacterial pneumonia. The main findings are the tree-in-bud and groundglass patterns.





- CARVs can be identified by cultures, serology, or rapid diagnostic tests based on enzyme immunoassay (EIA), immunofluorescence, or PCR.
- **PCR** is now the reference standard diagnostic test .
- The IDSA recommends that all immunocompromised patients presenting with acute onset of respiratory symptoms be tested for influenza

- In patients receiving mechanical ventilation, endotracheal aspirates or BAL fluid should be collected, even when influenza tests on upper respiratory tract specimens are negative.
- In a study of pulmonology ward patients that used BAL as the reference standard, nasopharyngeal PCR testing had positive and negative predictive values of 88% and 89%, respectively.

- Uncertainty still surrounds the type of sample most appropriate for detecting each type of virus (nasal/ throat swab, BAL, mini-BAL, cytopathology, or even lung biopsy when performed).
- An important consideration when choosing the sampling technique is the clinical condition of the patient.

- When a virus is identified in the respiratory tract, differentiating colonization from infection may be challenging. However, presence of the influenza virus usually indicates infection.
- In RSV infection, blood testing may be helpful, as RSV-RNA was detected in plasma samples of one-third of HSCT patients with pulmonary RSV infection and was associated with a poor outcome

 Both WHO and CDC recommend **oseltamivir** as the first-line agent for influenza. Systemic steroids should not **be used** unless strongly indicated for another condition . In patients with severe illness, prolonged treatment may be in order, although the optimal duration is uncertain. Testing for antiviral resistance at this stage should be considered, as immunocompromised patients are at higher risk of developing resistance and prolonged viral shedding

 RSV treatment with intravenous immunoglobulins and ribavirin has been suggested, but there is no published evidence that this treatment can benefit to the patient. In recent epidemiologic studies, the prevalence of CARV in critically ill hematological patients was similar to that in the general population with CAP; however, the presence of CARV doubled the mortality rate. Allogeneic HSCT recipients are at particularly high risk of death from CARV infection.

• In immunocompromised patients, the viruses most commonly responsible for systemic viral infections are **DNA viruses**. The herpes viruses responsible for pneumonia include herpes simplex viruses 1 and 2 (HSV-1, HSV-2), varicella-zoster virus (VZV), and cytomegalovirus (CMV). Herpes viruses are known to establish lifelong infections and can often reactivate during episodes of immunosuppression

Virus type	Source	Extra-respiratory manifestations	Diagnosis
HSV (HSV-1, HSV-2)	Donor transmission to transplant recipient Reactivation in T-cell defects	Skin and genital eruption Encephalitis, esophagitis, Keratitis	PCR (blood, BAL, tissue) Tissue culture Serology Histopathology
VZV	Donor transmission to transplant recipient Reactivation in T-cell defects	Varicella, herpes zoster Encephalitis, cerebellitis, hepatitis, myelitis Herpes zoster ophthalmicus	PCR Direct fluorescent antibody testing Viral culture Histopathology
CMV	Donor transmission to transplant recipient Reactivation in T-cell defects	Esophagitis, gastritis, colitis Retinitis, encephalitis, myelitis, polyradicu- lopathy Neutropenia	PCR (blood, BAL) Histopathology Serology
Adenovirus	Reactivation	Hemorrhagic cystitis, nephritis Colitis, hepatitis, encephalitis	Viral culture (nasal, blood, urine, CSF, tissues) EIA, Immunofluorescence, PCR, serology Histopathology

Table 4 Systemic viruses responsible for pneumonia in immunocompromised patients

HSV herpes simplex virus, VZV varicella-zoster virus, CMV cytomegalovirus, PCR polymerase chain reaction, BAL bronchoalveolar lavage, CSF cerebrospinal fluid, EIA

 Adenoviridae include human adenoviruses (HAdV) A to G, each of which produces a different clinical pattern. In immunocompromised patients, HAdV can cause life-threatening multiorgan damage. Risk factors change over time with the changes in immunosuppression Viral infections are most common in patients with T-cell deficiencies and are of particular concern in those taking highdose steroids (≥20 mg/day for≥4 weeks) or having received T-celldepleted allogeneic HSCT or treatment with alemtuzumab or fludarabine.

- When the lungs are involved, the respiratory symptoms are nonspecific (tachypnea and/or dyspnea, hypoxia). The lung infiltrates typically appear as a crazypaving pattern, ground-glass opacities, micronodules, and/or consolidations.
- A definite diagnosis of CMV pneumonia requires clinical symptoms of pneumonia and identification of CMV in lung tissue by virus isolation, rapid culture, histopathology, immunohistochemistry or DNA hybridization techniques

 Probable CMV pneumonia is defined as clinical symptoms and/or signs of pneumonia combined with CMV detection by viral isolation, rapid BAL fluid culture, or CMV DNA quantitation in BAL fluid. No reliable cut-off for the CMV DNA load has been established, however. Furthermore, CMV shedding may occur in the lower respiratory tract, and the CMV DNA load may, therefore, be low in patients with asymptomatic infection.

 A cut-off <u>CMV DNA level >500 IU/ml</u> was proposed to serve that purpose, this displaying a <u>positive predictive value of</u> <u>roughly 50%</u> for probable CMV pneumonia using current prevalence rates

 Higher CMV DNA loads in BAL fluid specimens was observed in episodes in which CMV DNAemia was detected concurrently





Review

Quantitative PCR for the Diagnosis of HCMV Pneumonia in HSCT Recipients and Other Immunocompromised Hosts

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Abstract: Pneumonia is among the most serious manifestations of HCMV infection, with high morbidity and mortality. Probable pneumonia is defined as the detection of HCMV in bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) by viral isolation or DNA quantification (qPCR) combined with symptoms and/or signs of respiratory infection. However, currently, there is no reproducible and well-defined viral load (VL) from BAL that can reliably differentiate patients with pneumonia from the much more common detection of viral DNA in seropositive patients without true HCMV pneumonia. Several studies have been published with the aim of establishing an optimal VL for differentiating pneumonia from viral lung shedding. The aim of this review is to collect and analyze the methodology and the conclusions obtained in studies whose objectives included the correlation between HCMV VL in BAL and/or the plasma and the occurrence of HCMV pneumonia. For this purpose, a total of 14 articles have been included. There are some conclusions on which they all agree. PCR techniques were more sensitive and had a higher NPV than culture techniques but were less specific and had a low PPV. The mean HCMV loads in both BAL and the plasma ware significantly higher in patients.

Examples of trials

 Optimal cut-off HCMV VL in BAL for diagnosing HMCV pneumonia is 4545
IU/mL ,91% sensitivity and 77% specificity. (Lodding et al., 2017)

 Cut-off value of 28,774 copies/mL (16,729IU/ml) HCMV in BAL was correlated with HCMV pneumonia.(Young Lee et al., 2017) On the other hand, a negative CMV DNA test in BAL fluid has nearly 100% negative predictive value and, therefore, excludes CMV pneumonia, assuming satisfactory sampling. VZV pneumonia is usually readily diagnosed based on the typical skin rash, although it may fail to develop in patients with severe immunosuppression.
Replicating VZV is almost always found in BAL fluid HSV pneumonia is more challenging to diagnose, as reactivation in blood, saliva, or the throat is frequent in critically ill patients . Thus, HSV detection in the lower airways may merely indicate airway contamination without parenchymal involvement. The diagnosis rests on HSV detection in BAL fluid and on the demonstration of specific nuclear inclusions in BAL cells. Macroscopic bronchial lesions may be seen during fiberoptic bronchoscopy, albeit only rarely

Nucleic acid amplification assays are the preferred diagnostic test for immunocompromised patients due to their high sensitivity, specificity, and rapidity of results. Multiplex polymerase chain reaction (PCR) assays are commercially available and allow simultaneous detection of a variety of recognized viral respiratory pathogens, although specific assays differ in sensitivity and specificity

 Timing of sample collection is crucial as poorly collected specimens can yield false negative results . Likewise, anterior nasal swab testing may be negative in patients with lower respiratory tract infections Guidelines suggest that patients suspected to have a RVI should have a nasal swab sent for testing. If there is clinical concern for lower respiratory tract infection, including with other non-RVI pathogens, bronchoalveolar lavage can be considered after weighing risks and benefits in a given patient.

 Viral shedding can be prolonged in immunocompromised patients despite use of appropriate antivirals, but the clinical and epidemiologic importance of prolonged excretion of virus is unclear. PCR testing does not distinguish between viable and nonviable virus, which can lead to challenges in interpreting a positive result. Monitoring of viral replication by PCR should generally not be used to guide duration of antiviral therapy.

 continuation of antiviral therapy depends on clinical symptoms . Recent data indicate that PCR cycle threshold values correlate with infectivity for SARS-CoV-2, however, data are limited regarding the clinical correlation for SARS-CoV-2 cycle threshold in immunocompromised hosts. Further investigation is needed to determine whether cycle threshold data can help inform strategies for prevention and treatment of RVIs in transplant recipients, especially in the context of prolonged viral shedding. Rapid antigen detection directly identifies proteins produced by viruses in respiratory secretions. This method is available for influenza, RSV, and SARS-CoV-2. Rapid antigen detection offers a number of advantages over molecular assays, as it is relatively **inexpensive**, easy to perform, and allows for rapid results within minutes

- Rapid antigen detection tests have suboptimal sensitivity, with reports varying between 50 and 60% for RSV and influenza. The sensitivity of an antigen test for SARS-CoV-2 is 30-40% lower when compared with PCR.
- Despite the lower sensitivity, rapid antigen detection can be helpful in guiding patient management decisions as well as largescale public health interventions.

- Serology is no longer used for diagnosis as it is slower and less specific than rapid antigen testing and molecular assays. Serological testing for RVI in transplant patients is rarely used and is especially unreliable in the setting of poor antibody response to infection.
- Viral culture is rarely used in clinical practice as secondary to low sensitivity for some viruses, inability to test for multiple viruses at one time, need for technical expertise, and prolonged time to diagnosis compared to rapid diagnostic techniques

RVI in HSCT

 HSCT recipients are at increased risk for morbidity and mortality from RVIs due to the extent and duration of their immunosuppression. Small, single-center cohorts have reported incidence rates of RVIs in this population between 5.1 and 21%. • A large, multicenter retrospective study followed a cohort of **1560 HCT recipients** reported an incidence rate of inpatient symptomatic RVI as high as 16.6% within 1 year post-transplant, with no significant differences reported between allogeneic and autologous **HSCT** recipients (17.4 vs 14.2%, respectively)

 Human rhinovirus was the most commonly detected pathogen, followed by parainfluenza virus and RSV. Seasonality of RVIs in pediatric HCT recipients is similar to that observed in the general pediatric population, with most RVIs occurring between October and March

- Significant mortality due to acquisition of a RVI in the first year following transplant has been documented, with RVI-attributable mortality rates between
 0.6 and 10%.
- Risk factors for poor outcomes include allogeneic transplant, graft versus host disease (GVHD), use of immunosuppressive agents, and steroid exposure

RVI in Renal Transplantation

• RVIs have been reported to occur at a rate of 5.5% in the first year after transplant. Unlike other pediatric solid organ transplant recipients, symptomatic RSV infection is not commonly diagnosed in pediatric renal transplant patients. Furthermore, the course of RSV infection did not differ from that reported in otherwise healthy children, with no increased mortality observed in renal transplant recipients

- One retrospective study examining the incidence and outcome of RSV in 173 pediatric renal transplant recipients noted that of the 5 patients (3%) with RSV, 3 developed biopsy-proven acute rejection during or immediately following RSV diagnosis.
- Allograft dysfunction and acute rejection have also been described after severe cases of influenza in adult renal transplant recipients.

RVI in Liver Transplantation

 A large multicenter consortium of 448 pediatric liver transplant recipients described a RVI rate of 15.6% within the first year after transplant. No deaths were attributable to RVI in isolated liver transplant recipients, and only one recipient developed a respiratory complication (pulmonary hemorrhage) within three months of RVI onset

 Contrarily, RSV infection in particular has been associated with significant **morbidity** in liver transplant recipients and is associated with an increased rate of hospitalization compared to the general population, with a death rate of 4.5%. Factors associated with a more severe RSV course included preexisting lung disease and RSV diagnosis within 20 days of transplant.

 RSV infection in liver transplant recipients occurs during peak epidemic months, with nosocomial transmission accounting for a significant proportion of cases. Studies have not reported severe SARS-CoV-2 disease in pediatric liver transplant recipients. In a multicenter observation registry including 180 pediatric liver transplant recipients with confirmed SARS-CoV-2 infection, no recipient required mechanical ventilation Disseminated adenovirus infection has been documented to occur in 3.5-38% of pediatric liver transplant recipients, with clinical manifestations ranging from asymptomatic to fulminant disease [32]. In liver transplant recipients, adenovirus can affect the respiratory tract as well as the gastrointestinal and urinary tracts. However, hepatitis is the most common manifestation in this population.

RVI in Lung Transplantation

 Infection accounts for nearly 40% of post-transplant mortality in lung transplant recipients, with RVIs reported in 1.4-66% of recipients. RVIs occur frequently in the early post-transplant period, with reported rates up to 13.8% within the first year after transplant. Lung transplant recipients are particularly prone to complications related to RVIs. Studies in adult lung transplant recipients have linked **RVIs to bronchiolitis** obliterans syndrome, but the relationship between graft dysfunction and RVIs in the pediatric population remains less clear

 adenovirus respiratory infection was associated with graft failure and death in a separate cohort. Similarly, a large retrospective analysis of RVIs in a cohort of nearly 600 pediatric lung transplant recipients reported that development of a **RVI** within the first year of transplant was a predictor of death or retransplantation due to graft failure

 In comparison to adult lung transplant recipients, pediatric lung transplant recipients seem less likely to develop severe disease secondary to SARS-CoV-2

RVI in Heart Transplantation

- RVIs occur frequently after pediatric heart transplantation and are associated with significant rates of hospitalization and high health care costs.
- A retrospective study of 251 pediatric heart transplant recipients documented a RVI rate of 18.3% within the first year after transplant

 A study using the Pediatric Health Information System (PHIS) database found similar rates of infection in 3815 pediatric heart transplant recipients, with **RSV** and influenza being the most commonly identified infections in the post-transplant period. Patients who were received an induction regimen containing 2 immunosuppressive agents had an increased incidence of RVI in the first year after transplant. D

 infection with respiratory viruses has not been significantly associated with graft rejection . As seen with pediatric lung transplant recipients, heart transplant recipients who contract SARS-CoV-2 infection tend to have quick resolution of their illness and with no reported long-term sequelae