

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

# Journal of Medical Mycology



journal homepage: www.elsevier.com

## General review

## Trends in the Prevalence of Amphotericin B-Resistance (AmBR) among Clinical Isolates of *Aspergillus* Species



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## A R T I C L E I N F O

Article History: Received 16 February 2022 Revised 11 July 2022 Accepted 12 July 2022 Available online 14 July 2022

*Keywords:* Amphotericin B Aspergillus species

Aspergillosis Amphotericin B resistance

## ABSTRACT

The challenges of the invasive infections caused by the resistant *Aspergillus* species include the limited access to antifungals for treatment and high mortality. This study aimed to provide a global perspective of the prevalence of amphotericin B resistance (AmBR), geographic distribution, and the trend of AmBR from 2010 to 2020. To analyze the prevalence of in vitro AmBR in clinical *Aspergillus* species, we reviewed the literature and identified a total of 72 articles. AmBR was observed in 1128 out of 3061 *Aspergillus terreus* (36.8%), 538 out of 3663 *Aspergillus flavus* (14.9%), 141 out of 2691 *Aspergillus niger* (5.2%), and 353 out of 17,494 *Aspergillus fumigatus* isolates (2.01%). An increasing trend in AmB-resistant isolates of *A. fumigatus* and a decreasing trend in AmB-resistant *A. terreus* and *A. flavus* isolates were observed between 2016 and 2020. AmB-resistant *A. terreus* and *A. flavus* isolates. However, common AmB-resistant *Aspergillus* species reported by European and American studies were *A. terreus* and *A. flavus* isolates, accounting for 40.4% and 20.9%, respectively. The prevalence of AmB-resistant *A. niger* in Asian isolates was higher than in American and European. We found a low prevalence of A. *terreus* in AmB-resistant *A. niger* in Asian isolates was higher than in American and European (40.1%). Future studies should focus on analyzing the trend of AmBR on a regional basis and using the same methodologies.

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#### 1. Introduction

Aspergillus species is one of the most common airborne saprobic fungi which is widely distributed in environments and colonizes various ecological niches [1]. It tolerates multiple physical conditions, persists in hospital settings, and causes a wide range of infections from superficial to potentially life-threatening systemic infections in patients with underlying severe conditions [2–4]. Invasive aspergillosis is often associated with compromised host defenses, such as neutropenia, allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation, and solid organ transplantation [4]. Over the last decades, azole compounds have been the first line of therapy to prevent Aspergillus

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https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mycmed.2022.101310

infections. Therapeutic options are dramatically limited due to the continued emergence and ongoing spread of azole-resistant isolates, but this has not been found in the majority of regions. As a result, resistant *Aspergillus* infections indicate prolonged antifungal therapy, higher healthcare, therapeutic failures, and high morbidity and mortality [5, 6]. In the United States, the high rate of invasive aspergillosis resulted in an increase in the duration of hospitalization from 32.1 to 45.7 per 1 million persons between 2000 and 2013 (Annual percent change (APC)= ++3.0; *P*<0.001) [7]. Given the severity of invasive aspergillosis and the recent reports of emerging azole resistance in *Aspergillus* species, alternative antifungal prevention and treatment strategies should be prioritized. Amphotericin B (AmB) has become the drug of choice in the era of azole resistance [8] and can be the gold standard in this context due to demonstrating a broad range of activity against yeasts and filamentous fungi in the treatment of

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Country	Year	N	Prevalence % (95% CI)	% Weigh
ndia	2010	43	· 0.37 (0.23, 0.	53)0.48
Japan	2010	12	0.00 (0.00, 0.	26)0.60
ndia	2010	43	0.37 (0.23, 0.	53)0.48
Portugal	2010	159 +	0.00 (0.00, 0.	02)3.10
enmark	2011	108	0.03 (0.01, 0.	08)2.41
apan	2011	10	0.01 (0.00, 0.	2110 47
ISA	2011	22		1511 30
reece	2011	42 -	. 0.10 (0.03.0.	23)0.93
ustria	2011	717 +	0.00 (0.00, 0.	01)3.19
Spain/ UK	2011	3988 +	0.00 (0.00, 0.	01)3.20
taly	2012	32	- 0.00 (0.00, 0.	11)1.85
ndia	2012	12	0.00 (0.00, 0.	28)0.60
ingland	2013	40		09)2.17
Sosin	2013	182	0.00 (0.00, 0.	0412.88
apan	2014	171	0.00 0.00 0	0213.12
letherlands	2014	952 +	0.00 (0.00, 0,	0013.20
unisia	2014	2 +	0.00 (0.00, 0.	84)0.07
ISA	2015	7 +	0.00 (0.00, 0.	41)0.28
South korea	2015	57	• 0.12 (0.05, 0.	24)1.02
apan	2015	92 +	0.00 (0.00, 0.	04)2.93
Roland	2010	142	0.00 (0.00, 0.	210 29
Brazil	2017	45		0812 32
JSA	2017	391 +	0.00 (0.00, 0.	0113.19
JSA	2017	1637 +	0.01 (0.01, 0.	02)3.17
JK	2017	2501 +	0.00 (0.00, 0.	00)3.20
Corea	2017	2 1	+ 1.00 (0.16, 1.	00)0.07
JSA	2017	1637	0.05 (0.04, 0.	06)3.11
Nustria	2018	339	0.00 (0.00, 0.	1714 89
Portugal	2018	197	0.10 (0.05, 0.	0712 72
Razil	2018	169		35)1.46
ortugal	2018	197 +	0.03 (0.01, 0.	06 2.78
aiwan	2018	54 +	0.00 (0.00, 0.	07)2.52
ndia	2018	32 +	- 0.03 (0.00, 0.	16)1.23
pain	2018	269	0.03 (0.01, 0.	05)2.88
in anada	2018	1409	0.00 (0.00, 0.	0013.20
roentine	2019	142	0.04 (0.01 0	0812.48
ISA	2019	182 +	0.00 (0.00 0	0213.13
outure	2019	12 +	0.00 (0.00, 0,	26)0.60
Spain	2019	158	• 0.12 (0.07, 0.	18)1.87
apan	2019	53 +	0.00 (0.00, 0.	07)2.50
audi Arabia	32019	11	• 0.09 (0.00, 0.	41)0.28
Jerimark	2019	102	0.00 (0.00, 0.	0212 12
Corea	2020	84	0.04/0.01 0	1012 08
Overall(I-sou	ared=	2.9%.p=0.0001	0.05 (0.04 0	061100 00
			( (	

Fig. 1. Forest plot of the proportion of AmB resistant Aspergillus fumigatus.

severe fungal infections [9]. However, treatment of invasive aspergillosis with AmB is associated with a mortality rate as high as 65–71% [6, 10, 11]. Recently, an increase was reported in the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) value of AmB against Aspergillus species [12–15]. This led to the appearance of fully resistant isolates against AmB and azoles. Although AmBR has remained extremely rare and is less common than azole resistance in the Aspergillus species, many reports have described resistance to AmB among the isolates of A. terreus, A. flavus, A. lentulus, and A. ustus [13, 16–20]. As determined by in vitro susceptibility tests, resistance is often an independent factor for therapeutic failure in infected patients treated with antifungal agents [13, 21]. There is a lack of data or information regarding the relationship between the MIC values of AmB and clinical outcomes. Different rates of AmBR have been observed in various studies [22–25]. Although the exact prevalence of AmB-resistant Aspergillus species have not been determined to date, this rate was estimated to be 10.8% among 280 patients in nine hospitals in Spain [24]. Heo et al. reported a high rate (26.5%) of resistance to AmB in a study conducted on 136 clinical Aspergillus isolates from Korea [25]. The elevated AmB MICs among clinical Aspergillus isolates in different studies [12–15, 25] can be the reason for concern. However, despite

the importance of the issue, there is a lack of review studies on the prevalence of AmBR in clinical *Aspergillus* species. Therefore, the present study was designed to systematically evaluate the shift in AmB MICs to offer a global picture of AmBR in clinical *Aspergillus* isolates within ten years (2010–2020).

## 2. Methods

This study reviews the existing published literature on in vitro susceptibility testing of AmB against clinical *Aspergillus* species isolates from 2010 to 2020. The studies to be included were retrieved from Medline database through PubMed, Embase through Scopus, ISI, Web of Science, Science Direct, and Google Scholar with the search terms "amphotericin B AND resistance", and "in vitro AND susceptibility AND testing" and, "azole AND resistant AND *Aspergillus* species" OR "azole AND resistance" OR "*Aspergillus* species OR *Aspergillus* flavus OR *Aspergillus* fumigatus OR *Aspergillus* niger". We also searched the reference lists of the retrieved articles, and the primary data extracted from each study were independently verified by two authors (AV and KA). The collected data

Country	Year	N	Prevalence % (95% CI)	% Weight
ndia	2010	64	0.38 (0.26, 0.50)	2.24
apan	2010	2	0.00 (0.00, 0.84)	0.51
Vetherlands/India	2010	178	0.02 (0.00, 0.05)	3.27
ndia	2010	64	0.38 (0.28, 0.50)	2.24
taly	2011	10	0.00 (0.00, 0.31)	1.90
ISA	2011	20	0.00 (0.00 0.17)	2 72
Netherlands/India	2011	208	0.52 (0.45, 0.59)	2.88
Greene	2011	23	0.22 (0.07 0.44)	1.63
Austria	2011	72	0.03 (0.00. 0.10)	3.11
Soain/ LIK	2011	793	0.00(0.00.0.01)	2 22
Spann OK	2012	27	0.00 (0.00, 0.01)	2 10
talice	2012	40	0.44 (0.29, 0.59)	1 90
tally	2012	25	0.12 (0.02 0.21)	2.02
Seale	2012	77	0.12 (0.03, 0.31)	2 22
apant	2013	-	0.45 (0.38, 0.01)	1 42
in and	2013	60	0.00 (0.00, 0.41)	2.00
Uwall	2013	52	0.11 (0.05, 0.19)	2.89
spain	2013	30	0.23 (0.10, 0.42)	1.82
unisia	2014	18	0.67 (0.41, 0.87)	1.26
USA	2015	6	0.00 (0.00, 0.48)	1.25
South korea	2015	24	0.63 (0.41, 0.81)	1.45
Turkey	2015	4	0.00 (0.00, 0.60)	0.86
JSA	2016	22	0.00 (0.00, 0.15)	2.80
ran	2016	171	● 0.05 (0.02, 0.09)	3.20
Turkey	2016	5	0.20 (0.01, 0.72)	0.67
Brazil	2017	60	0.00 (0.00, 0.06)	3.23
USA	2017	72	0.00 (0.00, 0.05)	3.26
JSA	2017	238	0.26 (0.21, 0.33)	3.01
JK	2017	372	· 0.14 (0.10, 0.18)	3.19
Corea	2017	2	0.00 (0.00, 0.84)	0.51
JSA	2017	238	0.00 (0.00, 0.02)	3.32
Austria	2018	121	0.00 (0.00, 0.03)	3.30
China	2018	101	0.39 (0.29, 0.49)	2.54
Portugal	2018	14	0.38 (0.13, 0.65)	1.08
Brazil	2018	30	0.73 (0.54, 0.88)	1.78
Portugal	2018	14	0.36 (0.13, 0.65)	1.08
aiwan	2018	23	0.22 (0.07, 0.44)	1.63
inain	2018	25	0.04 (0.00, 0.20)	2.51
Arcentina	2019	15	0.27 (0.08, 0.55)	1 20
ISA	2019	18	0.00.00.00.0	2.62
Autom	2019	23	0.04 (0.00, 0.22)	2 42
lanan	2019	17	0.00 (0.00, 0.22)	2.50
Saudi Arahia	2019	48	0.00 (0.01 0 17)	2 77
ran	2020	32	0.13 (0.04, 0.29)	2 20
ICA	2020	48	0.15 (0.04, 0.25)	2.47
Jan	2020	20	0.00 (0.00, 0.08)	3.17
nan Duorell (Leaurend	- 70.01	20 - 0.000		2.12
	- 10.37	b, p = 0.0000	0.19 (0.16, 0.22)	100.00

Fig. 2. Forest plot of the proportion of AmB resistant Aspergillus flavus.

included authors' names, year of publication, country, type of study, setting, participants' demographic information, study population, underlying condition, *Aspergillus* species, AmB resistant *Aspergillus* species, antifungal susceptibility testing method, AmB MIC cut-off value, and the prevalence of AmBR. The extracted data were then analyzed using R software (version 3.4.1). To determine the method-ological quality of the included studies, the researchers used a 12-item tool adopted from STARD 2015 checklist (http://www.equator-network.org/reporting-guidelines/stard). The Chi-square test was utilized to evaluate the associations among nominal variables, and the p-value was estimated using the Monte Carlo method. Odds ratios (ORs) were also used to compare the differential prevalence of AmBR and determine the differences in causative agents of fungal infections. The significance of all ORs was calculated using a 95% Bayesian credible interval (CI) and Bayesian logistic regression.

#### 3. Results

## 3.1. Characteristics of the included studies

To analyze the prevalence of in vitro AmBR in clinical *Aspergillus* species, we reviewed the literature and identified 88 relevant articles, of which16 studies were excluded owing to the small sample size (including less than 10 *Aspergillus* species isolates). The remaining 72 studies were eligible for inclusion [12-15, 23-90]. In total, 10 (13.8%), 46 (63.8%), and 16 (22.2%) studies were of high, moderate,

and low quality, respectively. The studies were conducted between 2010 and July 2020 in 29 countries. The most represented countries included the United States (9 studies), Spain (8 studies), India (7 studies), Iran and South Korea (6 studies each). The retrospective cohort study was the most commonly used study design (79%) followed by prospective studies (21%). In total, 23 (31.9%), 28 (38.8%), and 21 (29.1%) studies evaluated the effect of antifungal susceptibility testing on infection, colonization, and both infection and colonization, respectively.

## 3.2. The pooled prevalence of AmBR among clinical Aspergillus isolates

Out of the total 26,909 *Aspergillus* isolates tested in these studies, *A. fumigatus* (n = 17,494; 65.0%), *A. flavus* (n = 3663; 13.6%), *A. terreus* (n = 3061; 11.3%), and *A. niger* (n = 2691; 10%) represented the main isolates. In most studies, the in vitro AmB susceptibility was evaluated by the antifungal broth microdilution method of the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) [n = 53; 73.6%], followed by the broth microdilution MIC determination method of the European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST) [n = 17; 23.6%], and E-test [n = 7; 9.7%]. In vitro antifungal susceptibility testing was also performed using the EUCAST in combination with CLSI (n = 3; 4.1%), CLSI in combination with E-test (n = 2; 2.7%), EUCAST in combination with E-test (one study each, 1.3%). Out of 72 studies, 55 (76.3%) articles used the MIC breakpoint of  $\geq 2 \mu g/mL$  to define AmBR against *A.* 

*fumigatus.* In addition, 18 (25%) and 1 (1.3%) studies used the MIC breakpoints of  $\geq 4 \ \mu g/mL$  and  $\geq 1 \ \mu g/mL$ , respectively, and the AmB MIC breakpoint was not determined for one study.

The highest resistance rate was reported in a study conducted in India (n = 128; 92%) [26], followed by a study in France (n = 37; 84%) [13], and a prospective international *A. terreus* survey performed by Risslegger et al. (n = 370; 52.4%) [41]. In 19 (26.3%) studies, all isolates were fully susceptible to AmB. AmBR was observed in 1128 out of 3061 *A. terreus* (36.8%), 538 of 3663 *A. flavus* (14.9%), 141 out of 2691 *A. niger* (5.2%), and 353 out of 17,494 *A. fumigatus* isolates (2.0%). Overall, the pooled mean prevalence of AmBR was 0.17% (95% CI: 0.18%–0.19%) for 26,909 *Aspergillus* isolates. Pooled mean AmBR were 0.05% (95% CI: 0.04%–0.06%; Fig. 1) for *A. flavus* isolates (n = 17,494), 0.19% (95% CI: 0.20%–0.53%; Fig. 3) for *A. terreus* (n = 3061), and 0.04% (95% CI: 0.02%–0.06%; Fig. 4) for *A. niger* isolates (n = 2691).

#### 3.3. Trends in the prevalence of AmBR among Aspergillus isolates

To analyze the trends of changes in the prevalence of AmBR in recent years in different continents, we performed a subgroup analysis of the prevalence of AmBR based on the study year. Analysis of AmBR in a 5-year interval between 2010 and 2015 revealed the highest AmBR of 41.9% (519 of 1237) for *A. terreus* isolates, followed by *A. flavus* (16.9%), *A. niger* (7.3%), and *A. fumigatus* (0.93%). Moreover, it decreased from 41.9% of 1237 *A. terreus* isolates in 2010 –2015 to 33.4% of 1824 *A. terreus* isolates in 2016–2020. The prevalence of AmBR was 12.5% for *A. flavus* isolates (n = 1861), 3.7% for *A. niger* isolates (n = 1521), and 2.7% for *A. fumigatus* isolates (n = 10,626) between 2015 and 2020. The prevalence of AmB-resistant *A. fumigatus* isolates increased gradually from 0.93% of 6868 *A. fumigatus* isolates in 2010–2015 to 2.7% of 10,626 *Aspergillus* isolates in 2015–2020. Table 1 presents the pooled prevalence of AmB-resistant *Aspergillus* species based on the study year.

#### 3.4. Prevalence of AmBR in different geographic regions

The prevalence of AmB-resistant *Aspergillus* isolates differed in geographic regions in this subgroup analysis. The pattern of AmB-resistant *Aspergillus* species isolates in Asian studies was different from those in European and American studies; AmB-resistant *A. terreus* and *A. niger* isolates accounting for 40.4% and 20.9%, respectively, were the common AmB-resistant *Aspergillus* species in Asia. Common AmB-resistant *Aspergillus* species reported European and American studies were *A. terreus* and *A. flavus* isolates, accounting for 40.1% and 14.3% in 31 studies from Europe and 25.1% and 11.7% in 14 studies from America, respectively. This finding is essential as it indicates a



Fig. 3. Forest plot of the proportion of AmB resistant Aspergillus terreus.

Country	Year	N	Prevalence % (95% CI)	% Weigh
India	2010	53	0.68 (0.54, 0.80)	1.35
Japan	2010	1	0.00 (0.00, 0.98)	0.13
India	2010	53	0.68 (0.54, 0.80)	1.35
Denmark	2011	2	0.00 (0.00, 0.84)	0.17
England	2011	24	0.00 (0.00, 0.14)	2.98
Belgium	2011	39	0.13 (0.04, 0.27)	1.64
Italy	2011	10	0.00 (0.00, 0.31)	1.05
USÁ	2011	13	- 0.00 (0.00, 0.25)	1.49
Greece	2011	e 1 –	0.50 (0.12, 0.88)	0.20
Austria	2011	53	0.00 (0.00, 0.07)	4.84
Spain/ UK	2011	673 •	0.00 (0.00, 0.01)	5.89
Italy	2012	8	0.00 (0.00, 0.37)	0.78
India	2013	2	0.00 (0.00, 0.84)	0.17
Spain	2013	43	0.00 (0.00, 0.08)	4.44
Tunisia	2014	27	0.00 (0.00, 0.13)	3.30
Iran	2015	124 🖝	0.04 (0.01, 0.09)	4.54
USA	2015	1	0.00 (0.00, 0.98)	0.13
South korea	2015	32	0.00 (0.00, 0.11)	3.75
Turkey	2015	e	0.00 (0.00, 0.46)	0.53
USA	2016	23	0.00 (0.00, 0.15)	2.86
Turkey	2016	7	0.00 (0.00, 0.41)	0.65
South Korea	2017	56	0.00 (0.00, 0.06)	4.93
USA	2017	15	0.00 (0.00, 0.22)	1.79
USA	2017	321 •	0.01 (0.00, 0.02)	5.76
UK	2017	301	0.00 (0.00, 0.01)	5.85
Korea	2017	56	0.00 (0.00, 0.06)	4.93
USA	2017	321 ] .	0.05 (0.03, 0.08)	5.21
Japan	2017	80 -	0.03 (0.00, 0.09)	4.39
Austria	2018	75 -	0.00 (0.00, 0.05)	5.30
China	2018	2	0.00 (0.00, 0.84)	0.17
Portugal	2018	8 6	0.00 (0.00, 0.37)	0.78
Brazil	2018	10	0.20 (0.03, 0.56)	0.40
Portugal	2018	8	0.00 (0.00, 0.37)	0.78
Taiwan	2018	10	- 0.00 (0.00, 0.31)	1.05
Spain	2018	26	0.00 (0.00, 0.13)	3.19
Argentina	2019	23	0.04 (0.00, 0.22)	1.78
USA	2019	23	0.00 (0.00, 0.15)	2.86
Quture	2019	10	0.00 (0.00, 0.31)	1.05
Iran	2019	37		1.54
Japan	2019	20	0.00 (0.00, 0.17)	2.49
Saudi Arabia	2019	3	0.00 (0.00, 0.71)	0.23
Denmark	2019	26	0.00 (0.00, 0.13)	3.19
Iran	2020	1 +	0.00 (0.00, 0.98)	0.13
Overall (Leave	ared =	43.0% p=0.00010	0.04 (0.02.0.08)	100.0

Fig. 4. Forest plot of the proportion of AmB resistant Aspergillus niger.

#### Table 1

The pooled prevalence of AmB-resistant Aspergillus isolates determined by in vitro susceptibility testing methods over time.

Year	<i>Aspergillus flavus</i> N of Studies Pooled Prevalence		Aspergillus fumigatus N of Studies Pooled Prevalence		Aspergillus niger N of Studies Pooled Prevalence		Aspergillus terreus N of Studies Pooled Prevalence	
2010	4	0.039(0.017-0.061)	А	0.004(0.007-0.016)	3	0.655 (0.564-0.747)	1*	0(0-0354)
2010	6	0.003(0.017-0.001) 0.007(0.002-0.012)	7	0.004(0.007-0.010) 0.003(0.001-0.005)	8	0(0-0.003)	7	0(0-0.354) 0 454 (0 441-0 467)
2012	3	0.493 (0.412–0.573)	2*	0(0-0)	1*	0(0-0.185)	1*	0.385 (0.112-0.657)
2013	4	0.197 (0.143-0.251)	3	0.01 (0.009-0.029)	2*	0(0-0.041)	2*	0.269 (0.105-0.433)
2014	1*	0.667 (0.438-0.895)	3	0(0-0)	1*	0(0-0.064)	0*	-
2015	3	0.279 (0.144-0.415)	3	0.005 (0.014-0.024)	4	0.026 (0-0.057)	6	0.915 (0.898-0.931)
2016	3	0.04 (0.009-0.072)	2*	0(0-0)	2*	0(0-0.07)	0*	-
2017	6	0.009 (0.002-0.016)	6	0.002 (0.001-0.003)	7	0.004 (0-0.009)	7	0.02 (0.013-0.027)
2018	7	0.018 (0.004-0.033)	10	0.003 (0.001-0.004)	7	0.001 (0-0.023)	8	0.439 (0.399-0.478)
2019	5	0.038 (0.008-0.084)	6	0.002 (0-0.007)	7	0.083 (0.047-0.119)	5	0.015 (0-0.079)
2020	3	0.175 (0.141-0.21)	2*	0.002 (0-0.11)	1*	0(0-0.488)	1*	0(0-0.421)

\*The number of included studies is less than the minimum expected for analysis.

relationship between AmB-resistant *Aspergillus* isolates and specific geographic occurrences of this resistance.

## 4. Discussion

The challenges of the invasive infections caused by the azoleresistant *Aspergillus* species include the limited access to antifungals for treatment and high mortality [91, 92]. This study is the first review to investigate the trends in the global prevalence of AmBR from 2010 to 2020. The major study finding was that *A. flavus* accounted for over 24.9% of the resistant *Aspergillus* isolates in the reviewed studies, while the majority of the AmB-resistant *Aspergillus* species were *A. terreus* (52.2%). The ongoing spread of antifungal resistance can threaten the successful treatment of invasive

aspergillosis. Although AmB has been generally used as an option for the chemotherapy of azole-resistant invasive Aspergillus infection, an increase was observed in the treatment failure rate for AmB [93–95]. Another concern that raises questions about currently employed treatments is the association between the large particle sizes of various AmB formulations and high nephrotoxicity [96–99]. Flörl, et al. showed that the mortality related to resistant *flavus* aspergillosis (AmB MIC>2  $\mu$ g/mL) was significantly higher, compared to that in patients infected with low ( $<2 \mu g/mL$ ) AmB MIC isolates [93]. In the same vein, Hadrich et al. investigated AmBR in A. flavus infection and defined to correlate the treatment failure with increased mortality [13]. However, Mosquera et al. found no correlation between in vitro AmB susceptibility and clinical outcome for A. fumigatus and A. flavus infections [100]. Although clinical *A. flavus* isolates with MIC $\geq 2 \mu g/$ mL can be an AmB-resistant isolate in vivo [20], the variation observed in breakpoints for AmB susceptibility testing should be considered a critical issue. Remarkably, different breakpoints cause various reports of AmB susceptibility profiles for Aspergillus isolates, leading to an unreliable comparison of resistance rates in surveillance studies in different countries [26, 45, 48]. However, these differences may be influenced by the antifungal susceptibility testing method (E-test or broth microdilution) [101–103]. Although broth microdilution remains the common method for measuring MIC, many laboratories utilize the E-test method as an alternative [104]. However, Barchiesi et al. suggest that the E-test may be the most appropriate method to measure MIC since its results have the best correlation the outcome [20]. In the evaluation of 26,909 Aspergillus isolates, AmBR was observed in 36.8% of A. terreus, 14.9% of A. flavus, 5.2% of A. niger, and 2.01% of A. fumigatus isolates. The study duration was divided into two periods 2010-2015 and 2016-2020 to analyze the trends in the prevalence of AmBR in recent years. A gradually increasing trend in AmB-resistant A. fumigatus isolates and a decreasing trend in AmBresistant A. terreus and A. flavus isolates were found in the studies published between 2016 and 2020. The trend of AmB-resistant A. fumigatus isolates has been increasing, which may be explained by the frequent use of AmB for A. fumigatus infections. The improper management of drug-resistant isolates can enhance the spread of resistance [105]. The changing epidemiology of Aspergillus infections in immunocompromised patients may increase the prevalence rate over time. This study also enabled the evaluation of the prevalence of AmB-resistant Aspergillus isolates by geographical region. In this review, the prevalence of AmB-resistant A. niger in Asian isolates (20.9%) was found to be higher than that in American (2.7%) and European (0.62%). This may be related to the existence of different species within the niger complex in Asia, America, and Europe. AmBresistant against A. terreus dominates, but the frequency varied based on the region. We found a low prevalence of AmB-resistant A. terreus in American isolates (25.1%) compared to Asian (40.4%) and European (40.1%). Although we cannot exclude other causative factors, our data support the notion that some differences in the prevalence of AmB resistance in specific geographic regions could contribute to ecological and environmental factors for AmBR development. To enable preventative measures, it is therefore critical to investigate under what conditions and to what extent environmental selection for the resistance occur. However, the prevalence of the AmB-resistant Aspergillus species showed variation in the studies conducted in different European countries, such as France (84%) [13], Spain (49.4%) [15], Italy (25.2%) [43], Greece (17.5%) [60], Belgium (12.8%) [40], Portugal (6.6%) [35], and Denmark (3.5%) [28]. Although the reasons for these gaps are still unknown, the possible causes include the difficulties in determining the accurate AmBR in clinical Aspergillus isolates given several external factors, such as the MIC testing method employed, discrepancies in definitions, changes in AmB susceptibility breakpoints, Aspergillus species isolated, and/or storage period of isolates. Variations in patient populations and drug usage patterns may also explain the differences in the prevalence of AmBR in these isolates.

Amphotericin B remains the gold standard for the treatment of azoleresistant invasive Aspergillus infections. However, renal toxicity of all AmB formulations and the emergence of isolates with reduced susceptibility to AmB [106], and the substitution of AmB with alternative agents in the treatment of high AmB MICs should lead to better patient outcomes. Isavuconazole, a new triazole agent approved by the United State Food and Drug Administration, has been developed recently to treat invasive aspergillosis [107]. However, this agent has not been yet evaluated to be used as a prophylaxis for the treatment of invasive aspergillosis in solid organ transplant recipients, patients in intensive care units, and high-risk patients without hematological malignancy [108]. Combination therapy can be regarded as another effective approach for treating patients with Aspergillus infection [109]. The present study had some limitations. There were significant heterogeneities among the studies which can be explained by the differences in variables, including the testing methodologies used, patient populations, and study duration. The results of different studies may have been affected by the application of the random-effects model (REM) to accommodate the existing heterogeneity and obtain a normal distribution [110]. However, the final results may have been affected by the heterogeneity of the sample.

## 5. Conclusion

The current study reviewed a total of 72 published studies in the literature, which provides more insight into the shift in AmBR in clinical *Aspergillus* isolates within 10 years. Amphotericin B resistance was found to be more prevalent in *A. terreus* and *A. flavus* isolates. However, some differences found in the prevalence of AmBR among *Aspergillus* species in various geographic regions highlighted the role of the environment as an essential component in this regard. In addition, the trend of AmB-resistance among *Aspergillus* species was different in the studies published within the two periods. We recommend that future studies should focus on analyzing the trend of AmBR resistance on a regional basis using the same methodologies.

## 6. Author contributions

AV and HF conceptualized the study, gathered resources, and wrote the manuscript. AV, HF, FJ, KA and NV curated the data. AV, HF, and MN performed the formal analysis of the study. AV contributed to funding acquisition, project administration, and data validation. HF and AV investigated the data. AV and MN provided the methodology for this study. HB and AV supervised the study. AV, HF, and HB wrote the original draft of the manuscript and ED reviewed the manuscript.

#### **Declaration of Competing Interest**

All authors report no potential conflicts of interest. The authors alone are responsible for the content and writing of the paper

## Funding

This study was supported by grants from Iran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran project (No. 1400–1–99–21049).

### **Ethics statement**

This study was approved by the Research and Ethics Committee (IR.IUMS.REC.1400.526) of Iran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran.

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