Fig. (1). Structures of substrate and product of erythromycin A, oleandomycin, tylosin, spiramycin I, and leucomycin A₃.

pathway to OL. The culture supernatant of *S. antibioticus* contained another enzyme activity capable of reactivating the glycosylated OL and regenerating the biological activity with the release of a glucose molecule. These two enzyme activities could be an integral part of the OL biosynthetic pathway. OL binds first to the enzyme, followed by UDP-glucose. The ternary complex is thus formed prior to transfer of glucose. UDP is released, followed by the glycosylated

 $R_2 = -\ddot{P}(OH)_2$

OL, and this is the final intracellular product (Fig. 4). The OleB transporter would be responsible for transmembrane secretion [25-28] of this inactive molecule, which would then be extracellularly reactivated by the product of the *oleR* gene. Sequencing analysis of a 5.2-kb region from the OL gene cluster located between the OL polyketide synthesis gene and sugar biosynthetic gene in S. antibioticus revealed the presence of three open reading frames (designated *olel*,

Fig. (2). Structures of erythromycin A (R =H) and 2'-(O-[\beta-D-glucopyranosyl] erythromycin A (R= glucose).

oleN2 and oleR) [29]. The oleI gene product resembles other glycosyl-transferases involved in macrolide inactivation, including the oleD gene product, a previously described glycosyltransferase from Streptococcus antibioticus. The oleN2 gene product showed similarity with various aminotransferases involved in the biosynthesis of 6-deoxyhexose, and the oleR gene product was similar to glucosidases of several origins. The sugar moieties are transferred to a different aglycon by glycosyltransferases such as OleI [30]. The sugar donor was UDP-α-glucose, though the glycosylated product showed a β-glycoside linkage. The changes in the sugar composition of these molecules may influence the important biological actions of glucosylated OL on ribosomes [29].

Another glycosyltransferase, specific for macrolide monosaccharide, generates a disaccharide linked to the aglycon [31]. Avermectin and ivermectin, a family of oleandrose-containing disaccharide derivatives of 16-membered macrolides produced by *Streptomyces avermitilis*, are glycosylated at C-4" and C-4' by both growing and resting cells of *Saccharopolyspora erythraea* (Fig. 5). The specificity of the *S. erythraea* enzyme of the glycosyl donor is different from that of the *S. lividans* enzyme. Glycosylated products were formed *in vitro* with UDP-glucose, UDP-galactose, UDP-mannose, and UDP-glucouronic acid, but not with UDP-xylose, UDP-N-acetylglucosamine, UDP-N-acetylgalactosamine, or UDP-galactouronic acid. Only the product with UDP-glucose was formed in sufficient quantity

to permit its identification. The enzyme in *Streptomyces lividans* utilized only UDP-glucose and UDP-galactose (Table 3). The *S. lividans* glycosyltransferase, which confers resistance, was induced by substrate macrolides and not by non-substrate macrolides, though that of *S. erythraea* appeared to be constitutive.

$$\begin{array}{c|c} H_3C & O \\ H_3C & OH \\ H_3C & OH \\ \end{array}$$

Fig. (3). Chemical structure of oleandomycin. The arrow indicates the hydroxyl group considered to be a potential site for glycosylation.

Streptomyces ambofaciens produces spiramycin, a 16membered macrolide, and has the gimA gene (conferring resistance to spiramycin) downstream of the srmA gene, which encodes an rRNA monomethylase [32]. The gimA gene product shows a high degree of similarity to the mgt gene product in S. lividans. In a cloning experiment using a susceptible host mutant of S. lividans lacking macrolideinactivating glycosyltransferase activity, the cloned gimA gene was expressed in the presence of UDP-glucose. That is, cell extracts from mutated S. lividans could inactivate various macrolides by glycosylation. Spiramycin was not inactivated, but forocidine, a spiramycin precursor, was modified. In S. ambofaciens, gimA could confer a low level of resistance to some macrolides even under conditions where spiramycin was produced. The putative GTG start codon of the gimA gene overlapped with the srmA stop codon (GTGA). The ORF of the gimA gene consisted of 1254 bp and encoded a 45-kDa protein. The deduced protein showed high homology with the deduced proteins derived from mgt of S. lividans (82%) [12] and oleD of S. antibioticus (72%) [24]. Table 4 shows the degree of identity of the DNA and amino acid sequences for four

Table 2. MIC Values of Erythromycin A (EM-A) and 2'-(O-[B-D-glucopyranosyl])EM- A for Staphylococcus and Streptococcus Strains [21].

Organism	MIC (μg/ml)			
	EM-A	2'-(O-[ß-D-glucopyranosyl]EM-A		
Staphylococcus aureus 9218 and 9271	0.5	>32		
Streptococcus faecalis 9217	2	>32		
Streptococcus pneumoniae 41	0.06	32		
Streptococcus pyogenes 152	0.03	16		
Streptococcus vendargensis 5315	50	1000		

Fig. (4). Strategy for self-protection by oleandomycin producers. Intracellular glucosylation of oleandomycin to an inactive precursor is catalyzed by OleI, then the precursor is pumped out by OleB, and reactivated extracellularly by the glycosidase OleR [28, 29].

glycosyltransferase genes, mgt, olel, oleD, and gimA, from different Streptomyces spp. In Streptomyces ambofaciens, gimA was found just downstream of srmA, which encodes an rRNA methyltransferase that confers macrolide resistance by target modification [32]. As shown in Fig. (6), the glycosyltransferase genes gimA and mgt are linked with methyltransferase genes, srmA in S. ambofaciens and lrm in S. lividans. For S. antibioticus, no methyltransferase gene was found upstream of oleD or olel. This is in agreement with the observation that ribosomes from S. antibioticus are sensitive to OL, even during macrolide production [33]. Upstream of oleD are two ORFs, ORF1 and ORF2, which have high degrees of similarity to those of upstream of srmA. Thus, some deletion or insertion events may have occurred at the corresponding loci in S. ambofaciens or in S.

antibioticus. The region located upstream of *lrm* in S. lividans is completely different from those in the other two strains. This observation suggests that glycosyltransferases like that in S. vendargensis are widespread among Streptomyces spp [13].

The alignment of the deduced amino acid sequences of three macrolide glycosyltransferases, Mgt from S. lividans [12], GimA from S. ambofaciens [32] and OleD from S. antibioticus [24], is shown in Fig. (7). These proteins contain well-conserved amino acid sequences. Analysis of the amino acid sequences of several glycosyltransferases involved in the biosynthesis of polyketides also showed very well conserved regions, including one of two histidine residues [30]. The conserved histidine seems to play an important role in the catalytic activity of the enzyme and in substrate binding

Fig. (5). Glycosylations of evermectin disaccharide and monosaccharide by *Saccharopolyspora*. X, CH₂-CH₂ in invermectin derivatives and CH=CH in avermectin derivatives.

or transition site stabilization in some oligosaccharidedependent glycosyltransferases.

Table 3. Glycosyl Donors for Glycosyltransferases of Streptomyces spp [31].

Glycosyltransferase of			
Streptomyces lividans	Streptomyces erythraea		
UDP-glucose	UDP-glucose		
UDP-galactose	UDP-galactose		
	UDP-mannose		
	UDP-glucouronic acid		

1-3. Deacylation

Deacylation of 16-membered macrolide antibiotics was reported by Nakahama et al. [16, 18]. Maridomycin, as well as spiramycin, was deacylated by esterase from Bacillus

megaterium, Streptomyces pristinaespiralis and Streptomyces olivaceus. Figure (8) shows the deacylation of maridomycin III (MDM III), 9-propionylmaridomycin III (PMDM III) and

Table 4. Homology (%) of DNA and Amino Acid Sequences of Glycosyltransferases from *Streptomyces* spp.

Combination of	Homology (%) of				
genes	DNA	Amino Acid			
mgt - gimA	86	82			
mgt - oleD	75	72			
mgt - olel	60	40			
gimA- oleD	75	72			
gimA- olel	62	. 41			
oleD- ole!	58	38			

Accession numbers of genes used for homology analysis were the same as in Table 1.

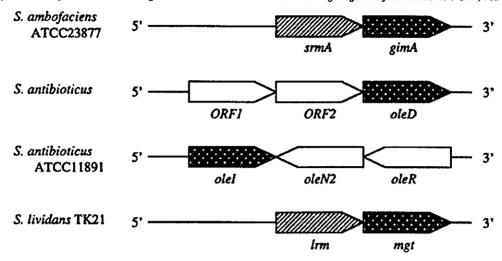


Fig. (6). Comparison of the genetic environments around macrolide resistance genes in various Streptomyces spp. gimA [32], oleD [24], oleI [29], and mgt [12] encode glycosyltransferase and srmA and lrm encode methyltransferase.

4"-depropionyl-9-propionylmaridomycin III (PMDM III-M) to 4"-depropionylmaridomycin III (MDM III-M) by an esterase of *Streptomyces* spp. In *B. megaterium*, MDM III and PMDM III are hydrolyzed to MDM III-M and PMDM III-M [16]. *S. olivaceus* also participates in the hydroxylation of maridomycin I (MDM I) to 3"'-hydroxylmaridomycin (HMDM I), as shown in Fig. (9) [17]. Josamycin (JM) was also hydroxylated to 3"'-hydroxyjosamycin (HJM) by the same strain, and hydroxylated derivatives of HMD I and HJM exhibited weaker antimicrobial activities [17].

2. Lincosamide Antibiotics

Inactivation studies on lincosamide antibiotics, including lincomycin and clindamycin, have been performed by Argoudelis et al. They examined the transformation of lincomycin to lincomycin sulfoxide and 1'-demethylthio-1-hydroxylincomycin by Streptomyces lincolnensis [34, 35] and the phosphorylation of lincomycin to lincomycin-3-phosphate by Streptomyces rochei [36] (Fig. 10). These compounds showed loss of the antimicrobial activity during fermentation or growth in a synthetic medium containing S. lincolnensis or S. rochei, indicating that several Streptomyces spp. possess an intrinsic ability to inactivate lincomycin.

Clindamycin is a clinically useful derivative of lincomycin. *Streptomyces coelicolor* completely inactivated clindamycin in less than 48 hr when the antibiotic was added to 24-hr cultures of the organism grown in a complex medium [37]. Clindamycin could be regenerated by treatment of the inactivated fermentation broth with either crude alkaline phosphatase or snake venom phosphodiesterase. This enzymatic behavior suggests that *S. coelicolor* converted clindamycin to compound(s) containing a phosphodiester bond(s). Argoudelis *et al.* have proposed that clindamycin is phosphorylated to clindamycin-3-phosphate [38] and ribonucleotidylated to clindamycin 3-ribonucleotide by *S. coelicolor* [37-39] (Fig. 11). Enzymic nucleotidylation of lincosamide antibiotics [40] required Mg²⁺ and nucleoside-5'-triphosphates when examined with crude enzyme

preparation from S. coelicolor in medium maintained at around pH 6.

3. Streptogramin Antibiotics

Streptogramin family antibiotics consist of two groups of components, type A and type B, exemplified by virginiamycin M and virginiamycin S, respectively [41] (Fig. 12). To date, very few investigations of inactivation in this family have been reported. Hou et al. obtained an antibiotic lactonase with a molecular weight of 35,000 from Actinoplanes missouriensis, and this enzyme hydrolyzed the lactone bond of dihydrostaphylomycin S (a type B streptogramin antibiotic) [42]. Mikamycin lactonase from Streptomyces mitakaensis, a producer of mikamycin A and B, was purified and characterized, and the structure of the reaction product. mikamycin-B acid, was identified [43, 44] (Fig. 13). This enzyme has a molecular weight of 29,000 and catalyzes the hydrolytic degradation of mikamycin B. The reason for the difference of molecular weight is of interest, since both enzymes appear to hydrolyze the lactone linkage of type B streptogramin acid.

The inactivation of streptogramins in Streptomyces spp. other than S. mitakaensis was examined by Fernando Fierro et al. [45]. Streptomyces diastaticus, Streptomyces loidensis, and Streptomyces olivaceus were quite sensitive to most of the macrolides and lincosamides examined, but resistant to both A (or M) and B (or S) streptogramin components. This phenotypical trait was also observed in inactivation assay using cell-free extracts of the producers and type A and B streptogramin antibiotics. Though the mechanism of this inactivation is not clear, it could be lactone hydrolysis, as mentioned above.

In contrast to the lactone ring hydrolysis by mikamycin B-lactonase, inactivation of virginiamycin M1 from Streptomyces virginiae involved reduction of the C-16 carbonyl group [41, 46] (Fig. 14).

Mgt	1 MKRKELHETSRLAYGRRWTTRPAHIAMFSIALHGHVNPSLEVIRELVARGHRVTYAIPRL	60
GimA	1 VRRGDLHETYRLDYAPHMHDPAHIAMFS-IAAHGHVNPSLEVIRELVARGHRVTYAIPPL	59
OleD	1VITQTTPAHIAMFSIAAHGHVNPSLEVIRELVARGHRVTYAIPPV	45
	** **************	
Mgt	61 LADKVAEAGAEPKLWNSTLPGPDADPEAWCSTLLDNVEPFLADAIQSLPQLAQAYEGDEP	120
GimA	60 FAEKVAETGAEPKLWNSTLPGPDADPDAWGTTPLDNVEPFLDDAIQALPQLIAAYEGDEP	119
OleD	46 FADKVAATGPRPVLYHSTLPGPDADPEAWGSTLLDNRRTFLNDAIQALPQLADAYADDIP	105
	* *** * * * * ******** *** * *** * *** *	
Mgt	121 DLVLHDIASYTARVLGRRWEVPVISLSPCMVAWEGYEQEVGEPMWEEPRKTERGQAYYAR	180
GimA	120 DLVLHDITSYPARVLAHRWGVPAVSLSPNLVAWEGYEEEVGRPTWEEPLKTERGRAYDAR	179
OleD	106 DLVLHDITSYPARVLARRWGVPAVSLSPNLVAWKGYEEEVAEPMWREPROTERGRAYYAR	165
Olen	100 DETERMINED ANY	105
Mgt	181 FHAWLEENGITDHPDPFIGRPDRSLVLIPKALQPHADRVDETTYTFVGACQGDRTAEGDW	240
GimA	180 FRGWLKENGITEDPDPFVGRPDRSLVLIPKALOPHADRVDEKTHTFVGACQCDRAAECDW	239
OleD	166 FEAWLKENGITEHPDTFASHPPRSLVLIPKALQPHADRVDEDVYTFVGACQGDRAFEGGW	225
	* ** **** ** * * *********** ******* ***	
Mgt	241 ARPEGAEKVVLVSLGSAFTKQPAFYRECVRAFGELPGWHTVLQVGRHVDPAELGDVPDNV	300
GimA	240 RRPECAEKVVLVSLGSSFTKRPAFYRACVEAFGALPGWHVVLQVGRHVDPAELGDVPENV	299
OleD	226 QRPAGAEKVVLVSLGSAFTKQPAFYRECVRAFGNLPGWHLVLQIGRKVTPAELGELPDNV	285
	** ********* *** *** *** *** *** *** *** ***	
Han	▼	000
Mgt	301 EVRTWYPQLAILQQADLFYTHAGAGGSQEGLATATPMIAVPQAADQFGNADMLQGLGVAR	360
GimA	300 EVRSWYPQLAILKQADLFVTHACAGGSQEGLATATPIVAVPQAVDQFGNADMLQGLGYGR	359
OleD	286 EVHDWVPQLAILRQADLFVTHACAGGSQEGLATATPMIAVPQAVDQFCNADMLQGLGVAR	345
Mgt	361 TLPTEEATAKALRTAALALVDDPEVAARLKEIOARMAQEAGTRGPADLIEAELAAARG	418
GimA	360 HLPTEEATAEALRAAGLALVEDPEVARRLKEIQAGMAREGGTRRAADLIEAELAAART	417
OleD	346 KLATEEATADLLRETALALVDDPEVARRLRRIQAEMAQEGGTRRAADLIEAELPARHERO	405
	* ***** ** **** **** ** ** ** ** * ** *	

Mgt	419	443
GimA	418	442
OleD	406 EPVGDRPNVGDRPAGVRSDRQRSAL	430

Fig. (7). Alignment of the deduced amino acid sequences of three macrolide glycosyltransferases, Mgt [12], GimA [32] and OleD [24]. The histidine residue shown by the arrow seems to play an important role in the catalytic activity of the enzyme and in substrate binding or transition site stabilization in some oligosaccharide-dependent glycosyltransferases.

(Fig. (8). Contd....)

	R _i	R ₂
Maridomycin II (MDM III)	н	COCH ₂ CH ₃
4"-depropionylmaridomycin III (MDM III-M)	н	н
9-propionylmaridomycin [II (PMDM III)	COCH ₂ CH ₃	COCH ₂ CH ₃
4"-depropionyl-9-propionylmaridomycin III (PMDM III-M)	COCH ₂ CH ₃	н

[Deacetylation by Streptomyces pristinae spiralis IFO13074 (A) and Streptomyces olivace us 219 (B)]

Fig. (8). Deacylation of maridomycin III (MDM III), 9-propionylmaridomycin III (PMDM III) and 9-propionylmaridomycin III (PMDM IIII) by Streptomyces pristinaespiralis IFO13074 and Streptomyces olivaceus 219 [18].

Fig. (9). Hydroxylation of MDM I to HMDM I by Streptomyces olivaceus 219 [17].

(B) PATHOGENS

Bacterial inactivation of antibiotics affects only structurally related antibiotics, and is different in this respect from target modification, such as dimethylation of 23S rRNA (the target site of macrolide, lincosamide and streptogramin (MLS) antibiotics). Interestingly, enzymatic inactivation of macrolides appears to be unusual in clinical

isolates compared with resistance due to target site modification or efflux [47-52].

Hydrolysis by esterase [53-57] and phosphorylation [58, 59] by phosphotransferase were observed in Gram-negative bacteria such as *E. coli* originally, and in *Providencia stuartii* [56] in recent years. However, the G+C content suggests that the phosphotransferases from Gram-negative bacteria

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_{3} \\ \text{H}_{3}\text{CH}_{2}\text{C} \\ \text{CONH} - \text{CH} \\ \text{H}_{3}\text{CH}_{2}\text{C} \\ \text{OH} \\ \text{OH} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_{3} \\ \text{H}_{3}\text{CH}_{2}\text{C} \\ \text{CONH} - \text{CH} \\ \text{CONH} - \text{CH} \\ \text{H}_{3}\text{CH}_{2}\text{C} \\ \text{CONH} - \text{CH} \\ \text{CN} \\ \text{CONH} - \text{CH} \\ \text{CN} \\$$

Fig. (10). Structures of 1'-demethylated lincomycin [34], lincomycin sulfoxide [35], and 3-phosphorylated lincomycin [36].

originated from Gram-positive bacteria such as Staphylococcus aureus [60]. Resistance owing to inactivation can be divided into two classes, degradation and modification. The former mechanism includes the hydrolysis of the lactone ring in 14- and 16-membered macrolides and type B streptogramin, and the latter includes phosphorylation of 14- and 16-membered macrolides, nucleotidylation of lincosamides, and acetylation of type A streptogramin.

Fig. (11). Structures of clindamycin 3-phosphate and clindamycin 3-ribonucleotides [39].

This brief review outlines the biochemical mechanisms of resistance to MLS antibiotics due to inactivation in human clinical isolates (Table 5).

1. Macrolide Antibiotics

Bacterial inactivation of macrolides, including 14-, 15-, and 16-membered macrolides, can occur through hydrolysis by erythromycin esterase A [53-55], erythromycin esterase B [57, 61, 62], phosphotransferase A [58, 63, 64], phosphotransferase B [59, 65-72], and phosphotransferase C [60, 73, 74]. Exceptionally, *Nocardia* sp. possesses multiple mechanisms for inactivation of antibiotics, that is, phosphorylation, glycosylation, reduction, and deacylation [75, 76].

Virgini amycin S

Fig. (12). Structures of virginiamycin M_1 and virginiamycin S [41].

Fig. (13). Reaction of mikamycin B lactonase of Streptomyces mitakaensis [43].

1-1. Hydrolysis

Macrolide, lincosamide, and streptogramin (MLS) antibiotics are mainly effective against Gram-positive bacteria. On the other hand, erythromycin (EM) has been used to control the Gram-negative flora of the intestinal tract. Two genes have been identified as being associated with resistance to EM in E. coli. One is the ere(A) gene, encoding EM esterase A, generated from plasmid pIP1100 in E. coli BM2195. The other is the ere(B) gene, encoding EM

Virginiamycin M₁

Fig. (14). Structure of 16-dihydrovirginiamycin M₁ [46].

esterase B, generated from plasmid pIP1527 in E. coli BM2570. The nucleotide sequence of ere(A) on plasmid pI1100, a self-transferable plasmid, revealed that the gene consists of 1032 bp, corresponding to a product with a molecular weight of 37,765, and has a G+C content of 50.5%. Since the G+C content of Gram-positive bacteria is 32-36%, this gene should be indigenous to E. coli. E. coli BM2570 was isolated from a clinical specimen in France, like E. coli BM2195, and was resistant to high levels of EM (MIC >2000 µg/ml) through two different mechanisms. Plasmid pl1527, a 150-kb self-transferable plasmid, in E. coli BM2570 carried two genes, erxA and ereB. The erxA gene, which is closely related to the ermAM gene encoding the rRNA-methylating enzyme in Streptococci, and encodes a single polypeptide with a molecular weight of 27,000, confers high resistance to MLS antibiotics due to dimethylation of 23S rRNA. The ere(B) gene product, an

enzyme with a molecular weight of 51,000, inactivated EM and oleandomycin (OL) similarly to the enzyme encoded by ere(A) and had a G+C content of 35.9%. The low G+C content of ere(B) might be due to a specific codon usage in E. coli, suggesting an exogenous origin of ere(B). Inactivation products of EM generated by enzymic hydrolysis of the lactone ring due to both the ere(A) and ere(B) gene products are shown in Fig. (15). The two genes, erxA and ere(B), provide different resistance mechanisms to macrolide antibiotics, i.e., dimethylation of 23S rRNA and inactivation. These genes appear similar to srmA-gimA in Streptomyces ambofaciens [32], and lrm-mgt in Streptomyces lividans [12].

16-Di hydrovirginiamycin M₁

In recent years, the *ere*(A2) gene, a variant of *ereA* located in an integron cassette has been found in several bacteria [77-80]. Kim *et al.* [81] characterized EM esterase from *Pseudomonas* sp. and the gene encoding this enzyme

Table 5. Inactivation of MLS Antibiotics by Clinically Isolated Microorganisms.

MLS antibiotics /Resistance Profile/Organisms	Plasmid	Gene ¹	Gene ²	Size (bp)	Protein (size³)	GenBank	Antibiotics ⁴	Reference
Macrolide		· 		-				<u>. </u>
Hydrolysis								
E. coli BM2195 E. coli Pseudomonas sp. GD100 E. coli BM2570	pIP1100 pIP1527	ereA ereA2 ereA2 ereB	ere(A) ere(A2) ere(A2) ere(B)	1032bp 1257bp	Ere(A) (344aa) Ere(B) (419aa)	M11277 X03988	EM EM, OL	[53-55, 82] [77] [81] [57, 61, 82]
Phosphorylation					<u> </u>		*	
E. coli Tf481A		mphA	mph(A)	903bp	Mph(A) (301aa)	D16251	OL, EM, SPCM MDM, JM, LCM	[58, 63, 64]
E. coli 209K	pSK66	mphK	mph(A)	918bp	Mph(A) (306aa)	U36578	14-, 16- mac	[83]
E. coli BM2506		mphB	mph(B)	906bp	Mph(B) (202aa)	D85892	14-, 16- mac	[59, 65-72, 84]
S. aureus	pMS97	mphBM	mph(C)	897bp	MphBM (299aa)	AB013298	14-, 15-, 16-mac EM	[60, 73]
S. aureus 01A1032 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia D457	pSR1	mphBM mphBM	mph(C) mph(C)	897bp 897bp		AF167161 AJ251015		[74]

(Table 5. Contd....)

MLS antibiotics /Resistance Profile/Organisms	Plasmid	Gene ¹	Gene ²	Size (bp)	Protein (size ³)	GenBank	Antibiotics 5	Reference
Phosphorylation, Glycosylation, Re	duction, Deacy	lation						
Nocardia sp.							EM, RKM, MDM CHA, TL	[75, 76]
Lincosamide								
Nucleotidylation								•
S. haemolyticus BM4610	pIP855	linA	lnu(A)	483bp	LNT(3)(4) (161aa)	M14039	LCM LCM,	[85, 86, 88]
S. aureus BM4611		linA'	lnu(A)	483bp	LNT(3)(4) (161aa)	J03497	CLDM LCM,	[87, 88]
E. faecium HM1025		linB	lnu(B)	801bp	LinB (267aa)	AF110130	CLDM	[89]
Streptogramin								
Hydrolysis								
S. aureus STE			•			PH IA	PRI-1	[90]
S. aureus BM3041	pIP630	vgb	vgb(A)	897bp	Vgb(A) (298aa)	M20129	VIR-B	[91, 105]
S. cohnii BM1071	pIP1714	vgbB	vgb(B)	885bp	Vgb(B) (295aa)	AF015628	STG-B	[92]
Acetylation								
S. aureus 71 S. aureus STE					PAC (IIA)		VIR-M PRI II-A	[95] [96]
S. aureus	pI680	vai	vat(A)	657bp	VAT (219aa)	L07778	VER-A	[97]
S. aureus BM3385	pIP1633	vatB	vat(B)	636bp	VatB (212aa)	L38809	STG-A	[98]
S. cohnii BM10711	pIP1714	vatC	vat(C)	636bp	VatC (212aa)	AF015628	STG-A	[92]
E. faecium BM4145		satA	vat(D)	627bp	SatA (209aa)	L12033	STG-A	[99, 105]
E. faecium UW1965		satG	vat(E)	642bp	SatG (214aa)	AF139725	STG-A	[101, 102]
E. faecium		vat(E 1-8)5		642bp		AF139735	Q-D	[103]

The gene name is based on the original name.

was similar to the ere(A2) gene from Providencia stuartii plasmid PLQ1723 [80]. A comparison of EM esterase genes, including ere(A), ere (A2) and ere (B), is shown in Fig. (16) and Table 6. As expected, ere(A) and ere(A2) showed a high degree of identity in terms of both DNA and amino acid sequences, but ere(A) and ere(A2) showed relatively low similarity to ere(B). EM esterases include ere(A) and ere(B) appear to be disseminating independently among Escherichia sp. Staphylococcus sp. and Pseudomonas sp. although they are also found together [82].

1-2. Phosphorylation

Inactivation due to phosphorylation of macrolide, lincosamide, and streptogramin (MLS) antibiotics in clinical pathogens was first found by O'Hara et al. [63] in E. coli with high-level resistance to erythromycin (EM) (MIC

>3200 µg/ml), and was similar to the phosphorylation at the 2'-OH group of 14- and 16-membered macrolides in Streptomyces coelicolor [19, 20]. Two years later, a similar phosphotransferase gene was discovered in a Gram-positive bacterium, Staphylococcus aureus; it was located between two other genes conferring resistance to MLS antibiotics, i.e., msr(A), which is related to antibiotic efflux, and erm(Y), which is related to methylation of 23S rRNA [73].

To date, three phosphotransferase genes, mph(A), mph(B), and mph(C), have been reported. The mph(A) gene, encoding macrolide 2'-OH phosphotransferase I, was found in E. coli Tf481. It consists of 903 bp [58] and encodes the inducible enzyme MPH(2')I, which inactivates 14-membered macrolides in the presence of ATP and Mg²⁺ [63, 64] to 2'-OH phosphoryl macrolide antibiotics, as seen in Streptomyces coelicolor(Table 1). E. coli 209K harboring the plasmid pSK66 was isolated in Korea [83] and was highly

The gene name follows the nomenclature by Roberts M. C. et al. [48]
Number of amino acid (aa) is shown in parentheses.

⁵ See Table 1 for abbreviations other than SPCM, spectinomycin; MDM, midecamycin; CHA, charcomycin; STG, streptogramin, Q-D, quinupristin-dalfopristin; mac, macrolide

Fig. (15). Reaction catalyzed by erythromycin esterase A and B. Enzymatic hydrolysis of the lactone ring of erythromycin is followed by the formation of an hemiketal by internal condensation and dehydration. Compound 4 is the major end product of detoxification of erythromycin by resting cells at pH 7.0 [57].

resistant to EM (MIC >2000 µg/ml). The mph(K) gene on this plasmid is 918 bp long and encodes a protein of 306 amino acids; it is very similar to mph(A) (98% identity in DNA and 97% identity in amino acid sequence). The mph(B) gene, encoding macrolide 2'-phosphotransferase II (MPH (2')II; 302 amino acids) in *E. coli* BM2506, consists of 906 bp. This enzyme showed potent inactivating activity against 14- and 16-membered macrolides, different from MPH(2')I, which inactivated only 14-membered macrolides [59, 65]. The observation of low similarity between mph(A) and mph(B) (40% identity in DNA and 37% identity in amino acid sequence) seems to be related to the very different G+C contents of mph(A) (65.6%) and mph(B) (38.3%). This dissimilarity between the two genes is consistent with the fact that the mph(B) gene is only expressed in the Gram-

positive bacterium, S. aureus [67]. Much work has been done on the mph(B) gene [66, 68-72, 84]. The mph(C) (formerly mphBM) gene, encoding a phosphotransferase, was obtained from S. aureus [60] and subsequently from Stenotrophomonas maltophilia [74]. The mph(C) gene of S. aureus is located on plasmid pMS97 in the sequence 5'msr(A)-mph(C)-erm(Y)-3' and an ATG initiation codon is present 342 bp downstream of the msr(A) gene, encoding an ABC-family efflux transporter, while a TAG termination codon is present 414 bp upstream of the erm(Y) gene, the product of which dimethylates 23S rRNA [60, 73]. The mph(C) gene consists of 897 bp and encodes a deduced protein of 299 amino acids. Furthermore, DNA sequence analysis of mph(C) revealed a G+C content of 37.1%, and 62% identity with mph(B), despite the 45% identity with mph(A). Constructed plasmids pND502, pND5012, pND5013, and pND50A, including the mph(C) gene (Fig. 17), were introduced into the susceptible strain S. aureus RN4220, which was then assayed for the inactivation of EM measurement of the residual activity towards Micrococcus luteus ATCC9341. As shown in Fig. (18), S. aureus RN4220 (pND502) containing only the mph(C) gene formed an inhibition zone, although other constructs formed no inhibition zone, suggesting that the expression of mph(C) gene is required for the activation of msr(A) gene and/or its promoter. Inactivation activity of the mph(C) gene was compared with that of the ere(A) gene encoding EM-esterase by radioautography and bioautography using I^{14} C]EM and E. coli BM694/pAT63 harboring the ere(A) gene or S. aureus 8325(pMS97) harboring the mph(C) gene. Both strains exhibited complete resistance (Fig. 19). However, the radioautograms showed different peak patterns, indicating that the inactivation mechanism of the mph(C) gene product is different from that of the ere(A) gene product. The mph(C) genes from Stenotrophomonas maltophilia D457 [74] and from S. aureus harboring plasmid pSR1 showed high similarity to that of pMS97 (more than 98% identity in amino acids) (Fig. 20). The mph(C) gene of S. maltophilia D457 was located in a cluster of genes including mph(C) and cadmium efflux determinant (cadA), together with the gene cadC coding for its transcriptional regulator. Nucleotide sequences of plasmid pMS97 (accession number AB179623) resembled those of plasmid pl258, a typical plasmid conferring resistance to macrolides and B-lactam antibiotics (Fig. 21). Three plasmids, pl258 containing erm(B) (dimethylation of 23S rRNA), pEP2104 containing msr(A) (ABC efflux transporter), and pMS97 containing msr(A)mph(C)-erm(Y), had the same nucleotide sequences over 20 kb, except for a Sall-PstI fragment including genes conferring macrolide resistance. These observations suggest that genes such as msr(A), mph(C), and erm(Y) have disseminated among bacterial species by providing a growth advantage in the environment.

The range of MLS antibiotics inactivated by the mph(C)-encoded phosphotransferase was compared with that inactivated by ere(A)-encoded EM esterase (Table 7). Both inactivated all 14-membered macrolides other than telithromycin, which is one of the new ketolide antibiotics. The activity of this ketolide was lost upon phosphorylation, but not upon esterase cleavage of the macrolactone ring (Fig. 22). Inactivation activity of azithromycin mediated by

	•		WEIGHT WITH SUSEN
Ere(A)	1		- 1
Ere(A2)	1	MTWRTTRTLLQPQKLEFNEFEILNPVVEGARIVGIGEGAHFVAEFSLARASLIRYFVER	
Ere(A)	2	-MRL-VWKCGAIQASRLSEWLNSTAGAHELERFSDTLTFSVYGSVLIWLKSYLRESGRK	L 58
Ere(A2)		DFNAIGLECGAIQASRLSEWLNSTAGAHELERFSDTLTFSSYGSVLIWVKSYLRESGRK	
Ere(A)	59	QLVGIALPNTLNPRDDLAQLAEIIQLIDHLMKPHVDMLTHLLASIDGQSAVISSAKWGEI	L 118
Ere(A2)	121	QLVGIDLPNTLNPRDDLAQLAEIIQVIDHLMKPHVDALTQLLTSIDCQSAVISSAKWGE	
Ere(A)		ETARQEKAISGVTRLKLRLASLAPVLKKHVNSDLFRKASDRIESIEYTLETLRIMKTFF	
Ere(A2)	181	ETAQQEKAISGVTRLKLRLASLAPVLKNHVNSDFFRKASDRIESIEYTLETLRVMKAFFI	240
Ere(A)	179	GTSLEGDTSVRDSYMAGVVDGNVRANPDVKIILLAHNNHLQKTPVSFSGELTAVPMCQHI	L 23 8
Ere(A2)	241	CTSLEGDTSVRDSYMAGVVDGMVRANPDVRIILLAHNNHLQKTPVSFSGELTAVPMCQHI	L 300
Ere(A)		AERVNYRAIAFTHLGPTVPEMHFPSPKSPLGFSVVTTPADAIREDSMEQYVIDACGTI	
Ere(A2)	301	AEREEGDYRAIAFTHLGLTVPEMHFPSPDSPLGFSVVTTPADAIREDSVEQYVIDACGKI	E 360 ▶
Ere(A)		NSCLTLTDAPMEAKRHRSQSASVETKLSEAFDAIVCVTSAGKDSLVAL	344
Ere(A2)	361	DSCLTLTDDPHEAKRNRSQSASVETNLSEAFDAIVCVPSAGKDSLVAL	408

Fig. (16). Comparison of the deduced amino acid sequences of erythromycin esterase Ere(A) from E. coli (accession number M11277) and Ere(A2) from Providensia stuartii (accession number AF099140). Identical residues are indicated by asterisks.

mph(C) was lower that by ere(A), and 16-membered macrolide was more strongly inactivated by mph(C) than by ere(A).

Table 6. Homology (%) of DNA and Amino Acid Sequences for Erythromycin Esterase.

Combination of genes	Homology (%) of		
	DNA	Amino Acid	
ere(A) - ere(A2)	80	78	
ere(A2) - ere(B)	49	26	
ere(A) - ere(B)	47	24	

Accession numbers of genes used for homology analysis were the same as in Table 5.

2. Lincosamide Antibiotics

Phosphorylation and nucleotidylation of the hydroxyl group at position 3 of lincosamide have been observed in several species of *Streptomyces* [19, 39]. Among clinical isolates, *Staphylococcus aureus* BM4611 and *Staphylococcus haemolyticus* BM4610 were highly resistant to lincomycin (MIC 64 µg/ml), but susceptible to clindamycin (MIC 0.12

μg/ml). Lincosamide O-nucleotidyltransferases coded by two closely related genes, linA (lincosamide inactivation nucleotidylation) from S. haemolyticus and linA' from S. aureus, provide resistance to lincosamide [85-88] by inactivation to afford lincomycin 3-(5'-adenylate) and clindamycin 4-(5'-adenylate) (Fig. 23). Both linA and linA' encode 3-lincomycin, 4-clindamycin O-nucleotidyltransferase, and the two 161-amino acids isozymes differ by only 14 amino acids (Fig. 24) [88]. A nucleotidyl donor and Mg2 as a cofactor are required for inactivation of lincomycin, as in the case of Streptomyces coelicolor [37-40]. Recently, a new resistance gene, linB, was identified in Enterococcus faecium 1025 [89]. This gene encodes a lincosamide nucleotidyltransferase (267 amino acids) that catalyzes 3-(5'adenylation) of lincomycin and clindamycin, different from linA and linA' that catalyze 4-(5'-adenylation) of clindamycin (Fig. 25). Comparison of nucleotide sequences and deduced amino acid sequences revealed no significant homology with linA and linA' (Table 8).

3. Streptogramin Antibiotics

3-1. Hydrolysis

Plasmid-mediated pristinamycin IA (PH IA, belonging to the streptogramin type B category) resistance involving

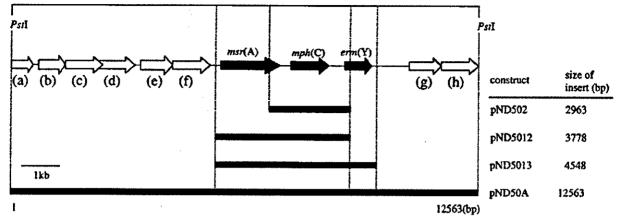


Fig. (17). Schematic representation of constructs containing fragments of genes coding for resistance to macrolides. The constructs pND502, pND5012, pND5013 and pND50A contain mph(C), msr(A)-mph(C), msr(A)-mph(C)-erm(Y), and msr(A)-mph(C)-erm(Y) including the extra region, respectively. The amino acid sequence deduced from the DNA sequence of fragment A (12563 bp) gives eight putative proteins ((a) to (h)) in addition to three macrolide resitance gene products. The constructed fragment is shown by black bars. Arrows show orientation of cloning (5' to 3') and approximate size of the genes of the constructs. Black arrows show the macrolide resistance genes: msr(A), mph(C), and erm(Y). ORFs of (a), (b), (c), (d), (e), (f), (g), and (h) were homologious with reblication-associated protein of Staphylococcus aureus plasmid p19789 with 100%, two-component response regulator of Clostridium acetoutylicum with 55%, ABC-type multidrug transport system of Clostridium acetobutylicum with 46%, transmembrane protein of Clostridium acetobutylicum with 30%, sensory transduction histidine kinase of Clostridium acetobutylicum with 36%, hypothetical protein of Enterococcus faecium with 61%, transcriptional regulator, AcrR family, of Clostridium acetobutylicum with 42%, and ABC transporter ATP-binding protein of Oceanobacillus iheyensis with 77% homology, respectively [73].

PH1A hydrolase was first reported in Staphylococcus aureus [90]. Thereafter, two genes encoding hydrolases of streptogramin type B antibiotics, vgb(A) (formerly vgb) from S. aureus BM3041 [91] and vgb(B) (formerly vgbB) from plasmid pl1714 in Staphylococcus cohnii subsp. cohnii strain were reported [92]. The vgb(A) gene consists of 894 bp with a G+C content of 37.5%, and the enzyme (33 kDa) encoded by this gene is similar in molecular weight to an enzyme from Actinoplanes missouriensis (35 kDa) inactivating the B component of virginiamycin antibiotics by cleavage of the lactone ring [42]. The vgb(B) is linked with vat(C), encoding

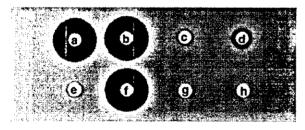


Fig. (18). Inactivation assay of erythromycin (EM) with several Staphylococcus aureus strains. EM activity after 24 h incubation with S. aureus in the presence of the drug was assayed by the disk plate method using Micrococcus luteus ATCC9341 as an indicator microorganism. The residual EM activity was determined in the supernatant (80 µl) of the mixtures incubated with the following bacteria. The supernatants applied to the paper disks were follows: a, 800 ng of EM as a blank; b, S. aureus RN4220; c. E. coli BM694(pAT63) encoding ere(A) gene; d, S. aureus 4220(pMS97); e, S. aureus 4220(pND50A); f, S. aureus 4220(pND502); g, S aureus 4220(pND5012); h, S. aureus 4220(pND5013).

an acetyltransferase that inactivates streptogramin B on plasmid pIP1714 from S. cohnii, and consists of 855 nucleotides encoding a 295-amino acid lactonase. These enzymes, Vgb(A) and Vgv(B), exhibits 67% amino acid identity as shown in Fig. (26). A recent study showed that vgb from S. aureus inactivated streptogramin B antibiotics by elimination, not by hydrolysis of the ester bond [93, 94]. Because the streptogramin B of hexadepsipeptide is linearized through an elimination reaction across the ester bond with generation of an N-terminal dehydrobutyrine group (Fig. 27), it was suggested that vgb is not a hydrolase, but a lyase.

3-2. Acetylation

Acetylation of streptogramin antibiotics is a specific reaction for type A component, whereas hydrolysis reaction is specific for type B Staphylococcus aureus, isolated in the virginiamycin production plant from a workman in continuous contact with this antibiotic, inactivated virginiamycin M to the O-acetyl derivative [95]. Other strains of S. aureus isolated from skin burns inactivated pristinamycin IIA to the O-acetylate, as shown in Fig. (28) [96].

To date, five different vat genes encoding acetyltransferase and eight variations of vat(E) from Enterococcus faecium have been reported (Table 5). The genes vat(A) [97], vat(B) [98], and vat(C) [92] (formerly vat, vatB, and vatC, respectively) were isolated from pI680 and pIPI633 on S. aureus and from pIP1714 on Staphylococcus cohnii. The vat(A) gene on plasmid p1680 is linked with vgb(A) immediately upstream and with vga(A) (formerly vga; an ABC-transporter gene) more distantly downstream, while the vat(C) gene on plasmid pIP1714 is linked closely downstream of vgb(B). The vat(D) [99, 100] and vat(E)

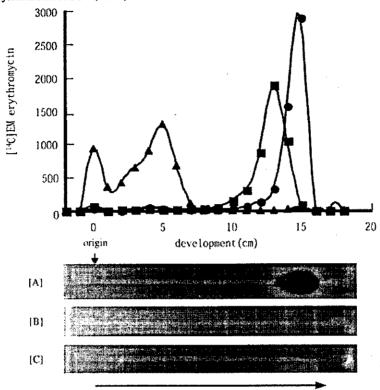


Fig. (19). Radioautogram and bioautogram of [\(^{14}\text{C}\)] erythromycin (EM). [\(^{14}\text{C}\)] EM was incubated for 63 h at 37°C with *E. coli* BM694(pAT63) (closed square and [B]) or *Staphylococcus aureus* 8325(pMS97) (closed triangle and [C]). The arrow indicates the direction of development with a solvent system of chloroform-methyanol-34.2% aqueous ammonia (9:1:0.1) [73].

pMS97	1	MTRHNEIIKCAEKYQLHIQPQTISLNESCLDFQVAFGXDKHGVEWVLRLPRRPDVYKRTK	60	
pSRI	1	MTRHNEI IKCAEKYQLHIQPQTISLNESCLDFQVAFGKDKHGVEWVLRLPRRPDVYKRTK	60	
D457	1	MTRHNEIIKCAEKYQLHIQPQTISLNESGLDFQVAFGKDKHGVEWVLRLPRRPDVYKRTK	60	

pMS97	61	PEKQTVDFLQKNVSFEVPKWKVHERDLIAYPKLTGKPAATIDPEIQNYVWEIEHKPLPEN	120	
pSR1	61	PEKQTVDFLQKNVSFEIPKWKVHAKDLIAYPKLTGKPAATIDPEIQNYVWEIEHKPLPEN	120	
D457	61	PEKQTVDFLQKNVSFEIPKWKVHAKDLIAYPKLTGKPAATIDPEIQNYVWEIEHKPLPEN	120	

pMS97	121	FINTLAETLYDLHNIPEENINVQHINIKTIQEIKNDFQRRMNKVKETYGVSDELWNRWKQ	180	
pSRI	121	FINTLAETLVDLHNIPEENINVQHINIKTIQEIKNDFQRRWNKVKETYGVSDELWNRWKQ	180	
D457	121	FINTLAETLVDLHNIPEENINVQHINIKTIQEIKNDFQRRMNKVKETYGVSDELWNRWKQ	180	

pMS97	181	WLENDELWPRHATMIHGDLHPGHINVDNQANVTGLIDWTEATHSDPSMDFMGHHRVFDDE	240	
pSR1	181	WLENDELWPRHATMIHGDLHPGHIMVDNQANVTGLIDWTEATHSDPSMDFIGHHRVFDDE	240	
D457	181	WLENDELWPRHATMIHGDLHPGHIMVDNQANVTGLIDWTEATHSEPSMDFIGHHRVFDDE	240	

pMS97	241	GLEQLITAYGKAGGEIWPRMKEHIIELNAVFPMFIAEFAMESGESAYETMALKELGMKE	299	
pSR1	241		299	
D457	241		299	
		***********	_,	

Fig. (20). Comparision of the deduced amino acid sequences of Mph(C) conferring erythromycin resistance by plasmid pMS97 (accession number AB013298) and pSR1 (accession number AF167161) from *Staphylococcus aureus* and by *Stenotrophomonas maltophillia* D457 (accession number AJ251015).

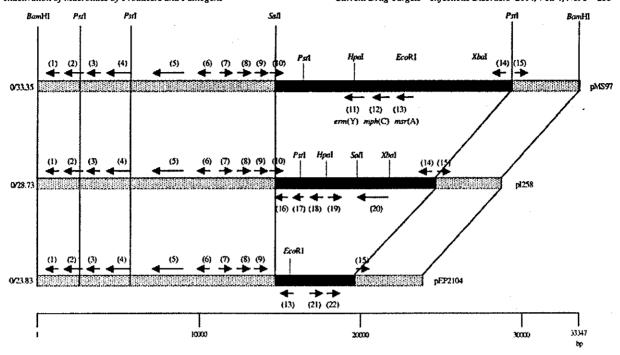


Fig. (21). Genetic maps of macrolide resistance plasmids, pMS97 (accession number AB179623), p1258 [112] and pEP2104 (accession numberAB016613) from Staphylococcus aureus. Genes are indicated by the following numbers: (1), merB; (2), merA; (3), merT; (4), merR; (5), cadA; (6), blaZ; (7) blaRI; (8), blaI; (9), binR; (10), bin3, (11), erm(Y); (12), mph(C); (13), msr(A), replication associated protein; (15), replication initiation protein; (16), arsC; (17), arsB: (18), arsR; (19), erm(B); (0), transposase; (21), stp(A); (22) smp(A).

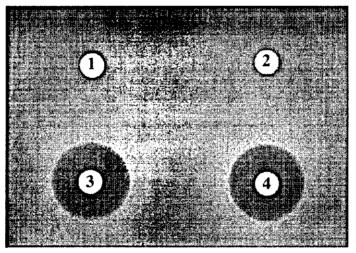


Fig. (22). Inactivation assay for telithromycin. Disks contained incubation supernatant of bacteria and telithromycin as follows: Staphylococcus aureus 8325(pMS97) encoding mph(C) (disk 1), S. aureus 8325(pMS97) induced by EM (disk 2), E. coli BM694/pAT63 encoding ere(A) (disk 3), and 800 ng of telithromycin as a blank (disk 4).

[101, 102] genes (former satA and satG, respectively) were isolated from E. faecium. The vat(D) is homologous with a family of chloramphenicol acetyltransferases present in Agrobacterium tumefaciens, E. coli, Pseudomonas aerginosa, and S. aureus. Another Enterococcal gene, vat(E) were isolated from quinupristin-dalfopristin-resistant E. faecium UW1965 at a sewage treatment plant in Germany [101]. The

DNA and amino acid sequences of five vat genes were compared (Table 9, Fig. 29), and the amino acid sequences of eight variants of the vat(E) gene product of E. faecium isolated from retail poultry samples [103, 104], vat(E-1) to vat(E-8), were also compared (Fig. 30). The prevalence of streptogramin resistance gene in Enterococci found in retail poultry [105] might be due to the use of virginiamycin in

Table 7. Comparison of the Inactivation Spectra of Macrolide, Lincosamide, and Streptogramin B Antibiotics for S. aureus 8325(pMS97) Containing mph(C) and E. coli BM694(pAT63) Containing ere (A) Gene [73].

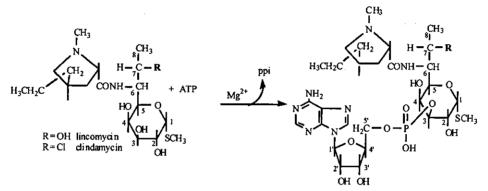
Antibiotics	Group	Inactiva	tion (%)*
		S. aureus 8325(pMS97)	E. coli BM694(pAT63
Erythromycin	14-membered	100	100
Oleandomycin	14-membered	100	100
Roxithromycin	14-membered	100	100
Clarithromycin	14-membered	100	100
Telithromycin	14-membered	100	4
Azithromycin	15-membered	54	100
Rokitamycin	16-membered	6	13
Mycinamicin	16-membered	53	6
Spiramycin	16-membered	8	17
Tylosin	16-membered	12	4
Rosamicin	16-membered	100	0
YM133	16-membered	63	8
Clindamycin	lincosamide	6	3
Lincomycin	líncosamide	5	4
Mikamycin-B	streptograminB	0	0

Extent of inactivation (%) is expressed as the ratio of decrease in amount of drug activity (i.e. difference between initial drug activity and residual drug activity after incubation) to the initial amount of drug before incubation with bacteria

Fig. (23). Adenylation of lincosamides by Staphylococcus haemolyticus BM4610 and Staphylococcus aureus BM4611. LNT (3)(4); 3-lincomycin, 4-clindamycin nucleotidyl transferase [88].

LNT(3)(4)/linA		MKNNNVTEKELFYILDLFEHMKVTYWLDGGWGVDVLTGKQQREHRDIDIDFDAQHTQKVI	60
LNT(3)(4)/linA'		MKIDNVTEKDLFYILDLFEKMEVTHWLDGGWGVDVLTGKQQREHRDIDIDFDAQHTQKVI	60
LNT(3)(4)/linA	61	QKLEDIGYKIEVHWMPSRMELKHEEYGYLDIHPINLNDDGSITQANPEGGNYVFQNDWFS	120
LNT(3)(4)/linA	61	KKLEDIGYKIEVDWMPSRMELKHKEYGYLDIHPINLNDDGSITQANPEGGNYIFQNEWFS	120
LNT(3)(4)/linA	121	ETNYKDRKIPCISKEAQLLFHSGYDLTETDHFDIKNLKSIT	161
LNT(3)(4)/linA	121	ETNYKGRKIPCISKEAQLLFHSGYBLTEKDHFDIKNLKSIT	161

Fig. (24). Comparision of amino acid sequences of LNT(3)(4), 3-lincomycin, 4-clindamycin O-nucleotidyl transferase encoded by *linA* (accession number M14039) or *linA* (accession number J03497).



Lincomycin (R=OH) or clindam ycin (R=Cl) 3-(5'-adenylate)

Fig. (25). Adenylation of lincomycin and clindamycin by linB gene product of Enterococcus faecium HM1025 [89].

Table 8. Homology (%) of DNA and Amino Acid Sequences for the Lincosamide Nucleotidyl Transferase.

Combination of genes	Homology (%) of	
	DNA	Amino Acid
linA - linA'	93	91
linA' - linB	43	19
linA - linB	42	17

Accession numbers of genes used for homology analysis were the same as in Table 5.

many countries for many years as a feed additive to enhance growth of food animals. Consequently, large numbers of virginiamycin-resistant *E. faecium* have been isolated from the feces of food animals, and these were also resistant to quinupristin-dalfopristin, indicating the presence of cross-resistance between virginiamycin and quinupristin-dalfopristin. Many instances of resistance to MLS antibiotics originating from animals have been reported, as shown in *Lactobacillus* [106-108], *Staphylococci* [109], and *Clostridium perfringens* [110].

As MLS antibiotics are widely used as human and veterinary medicines [111], human and veterinary bacteria may acquire resistance genes against MLS antibiotics. In

considering the resistance mechanisms of human pathogens, it is always important to ask "Where did the resistance gene come from?" Clinical isolates resistant to MLS antibiotics possess similar resistance mechanisms to those of antibiotic-producing bacteria, except for the hydrolytic inactivation of 14-, 15- and 16-membered macrolides and acetylation of streptogramin A. Resistance genes of antibiotic-producing bacteria might have been transferred into human bacteria through any of the pathways shown in Fig. (31). Pathway [I] shows resistance gene transfer to human bacteria mediated by soil bacteria, animal bacteria, and so on [106, 107, 109, 111]. Pathway [II] shows gene transfer involving human bacteria found in hospitals where antibiotics are used as chemotherapeutic agents [92]. Pathway [III] shows transfer

Vgb (A) Vgb (B)		50 50
Vgb(A)	61 CLTISSDGEVWFTENAANKIGRITKKGIIKEYTLPNPDSAPYGITEGPNGDIWFTEMNGN 12	
Vgb(B)	61 CLIVSSLGDIWFTENGANKIGKLSKKGGFTEYPLPQPDSGPYGITEGLNGDIWFTQLNGD 12	:0
Vgb(A)	121 RIGRITDDGKIREYELPNKGSYPSFITLGSDNALWFTENQNNAIGRITESGDITEFKIPT 18	10
Vgb(B)	121 RIGKLTADGTIYEYDLPNKGSYPAFITLGSDNALWFTENQNNSIGRITNTGKLEEYPLPT 18	(Q
Vgb (A)	181 PASGPVGITKGNDDALWFVEIIGNKIGRITPLGEITEFKIPTPNARPHAITAGAGIDLWF 24	10
Vgb (B)	181 NAAAPVGITSGNDGALWFVEIMGNKIGRITTTGEISEYDIPTPNARPHAITAGKNSEIWF 24 * **** *** ******** *** ************	10
Vgb(A)	241 TEWGANKIGRLTSNNIIEEYPIQIKSAEPHGICFDGETIWFA-MECDKIGKLT-LIKDNM 29	8
Vgb(B)	241 TEWGANQIGRITNDKTIQEYQLQTENAEPHGITFGKDGSVWFALKCKIG-KLNLNE 29	5
Vgb(A)	299 E	

Fig. (26). Comparision of amino acid sequences of Vgb(A) [91] and Vgb(B) [92], which hydrolyze mikamycin B antibiotics.

Vgb(B)

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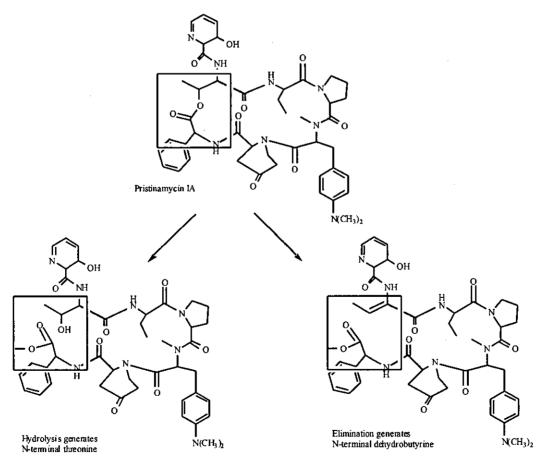


Fig. (27). Structures of possible products of lactone cleavage of pristinamycin IA [93].

Pristinamycin II A

Acetylpristinamycin IIA

Fig. (28). Acetylation of pristinamycin IIA [96].

•	, , ,	
Vat(A)	1 MNLHNDHGPDPENILPIKGNRNLQFIKPTITNENILVGEYSY-YDSKRGESFEDQVLY	57
Vat(B)	1MKYCPDPNSIYPHEEIKSVCFIKNTITNPNIIVGDYTYYSDVNGAEKFEEHVTH	54
Vat (C)	1 WKWQNQQGPNPEE1YP1EGNKHVQF1KPS1TKPN1LVGEYSY-YDSKDGESFESQVLY	57
Vat (D)	1 HGPNPWKWYP1EGHKSVQF1KP1LEKLENVEVGEYSYYDSKNGETFDKQ1LY	52
Vat (E)	1NTIP-DANAIYPNSAIKEVVFIKNVIKSPNIEIGDYTYYDDPVNPTDFEKHVTH	53
	* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	
Vat(A)	58 HYEVIGDKLIIGRFCSIGPGTTFIMNGANHRMDGSTYPF-HLFRNGWEKYNPSLKDLPLK	116
Vat(B)	55 HYEFRODKLVICKFCAIAECIEFI nnganhrun sittypfningnowekatpsledlpfk	114
Vat(C)	58 HYELIGDKLILCKFCSIGPGTTFINNGANHRNDGSTFPF-NLFGNGWEKHTPTLEDLPYK	116
Vat(D)	53 HYPILNDKLKIGKFCSIGPGVTIIMMGANHRMDGSTYPF-NLFGNGWEKHMPKLDQLPIK	111
Vat(E)	54 HYEFLGDKLIIGKFCSIASGIEFINNGANHVNKGISTYPFNILGGDWQQYTPELTDLPLK	113
	** ** * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	
31-4/13	117 GDIEIGNDVWIGRDVTINPGVKIGDGALIAAEAVVTKNVAPYSIVGCNPLKFIRKRFSDG	176
Vat(A)		174
Vat(B)	115 CDTVVGNDVWIGQNVTVMPGIQICDCAIVAANSVVTKDVPPYRIIGGNPSRIIKKRFEDE	
Vat (C)	117 CHTEIGNDYWIGRDYTIMPCYKICHCAIIAAKSYVTKHVDPYSVVGGNPSRLIKIRFSKE	176
Vat(D)	112 CDTIIGNDVWIGKDVVIMPCVKIGDGAIVAANSVVVKDIAPYMLAGGNPANEIKQRFDQD	171
Vat (E)	114 GDTVVGNDVWFGQNVTVLPGVKIGDGAIIGANSVVTKDVAPYTIVGGNPIQLIGPRFEPE	173
Vat (A)	177 VIEEWLALQWWNLDMKIINENLPFIINGDIEMLKRKR	213
Vat(B)	175 LIDYLLQIKWWDWSAQKIFSNLETLCSSDLEKIKSIRD	212
Vat(C)	177 KIAALLKYRWWDLEIETINENIDCILNGDIKKVKRS-	212
Vat (D)	172 TINOLLDIKWYNWPIDIINENIDKILDNSIIREVIWK	208
Vat (E)	174 VIQALENLAWWNKDIEWITANVPKLMQTTPTLELINSLMEK	214
	* **, . **	
11 (4)	OLA WILDOW	210
Vat (A)	214 KLLDDT	219
Vat (B)	213	218
Vat (C)	213	218
Vat (D)	209 K	214
Vat (E)	215	220

Fig. (29). Alignment of amino acid sequences of acetyltransferases Vat(A) [97], Vat(B) [98], Vat(C) [92], Vat(D) [99], and Vat(E) [101] from Staphylococci and Enterococci, conferring resistance to streptogramin A antibiotics. Identical residues are indicated by asterisks. Highly conserved regions are blodfaced.

Vat (E-1)	1 MTIPDANAIYPNSAIKEVVFIKNVIKSPNIEIGDYTYYDDPVNPTDFEKHVTHHYEFLGD	60
Vat (E-2)	1	60
Vat (E-3)	1	60
Vat (E-4)	1	60
Vat (E-5)	1L	60
Vat (E-6)	1L	60
Vat (E-7)	1	60
Vat (E-8)	1VLILI.LD	60

(Fig. (30), Contd)			
	Vat(E-1)	61 KLIIGKFCSIASGIEFIMNGANHVMKGISTYPFNILGGDWQQYTPELTDLPLKGDTVVGN	120
•	Vat (E-2)	61L	120
	Vat (E-3)	61	120
	Vat (E-4)	61	120
	Vat (E-5)	61	120
	Vat (E-6)	61	120
	Yat (E-7)	61	120
	Vat (E-8)	61	120
		******** ****************************	
	Yat (E-1) 1	21 DVWFGQNVTYLPGVKIGDGAIIGANSVVTKDVAPYTIVGGNPIQLIGPRFEPEVIQALEN	180
		21	180
	- ,,	21	180
	• ,	21	180
		21	180
		21	180
		21	180
	Vat (E-8) 1	21	180
		*******************	100
	Vat (E-i) 1	81 LAWWINDIEWITANYPKLMOTTPTLELINSLMEK	214
	• •	81	214
		81VV	214
		81	214
	• , -	81	214
	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	81	214
		81	214
			214
		81	214

Fig. (30). Amino acid sequences variations of Vat(E) alleles encoded by streptogramin A acetyltransferase gene found in Enterococcus faecium from retail samples of poultry. GenBank accession numbers of vat(E-1), vat (E-2), vat (E-3), vat(E-4), vat(E-5), vat(E-6), vat(E-7), and vat(E-8) are AF242872, AF153312, AY008284, AY043211, AY0430209, AY043210, AY043212, and AY043213, respectively.

Table 9. Homology (%) of DNA and Amino Acid Sequences for Virginiamycin Acetyltransferase.

Combination of genes	Homology (%) of	
	DNA	Amino Acid
vat(A) - vat(B)	63	52
vat(A) - vat(C)	70	69
vat(A) - vat(D)	64	59
vat(A) - vat(E)	59	49
vat(B) - vat(C)	63	57
vat(B) - vat(D)	63	51
vat(B) - vat(E)	62	61
vat(C) - vat(D)	64	64
vat(C) - vat(E)	60	50
vat(D) - vat(E)	59	49

Accession numbers of genes used for homology analysis were the same as in Table 5.