

度で検出されており、小児期を通じて肺炎の病原微生物として重要な役割を果たしているものと考える。

各月群別の検出状況に関しても、インフルエンザ菌は各群の症例より検出されており、インフルエンザウイルス、パラインフルエンザウイルス、RSウイルスなどの呼吸器ウイルスのような検出率の季節変動は観察されなかった。

細菌性肺炎症例に関して、混合感染例を含めた場合、インフルエンザ菌および肺炎球菌による感染症例の平均年齢、経過中の最高白血球数・好中球数値、最高CRP値、発熱期間は類似していた。これは、細菌性肺炎を診療する際の、臨床現場における一般的な認識とも矛盾しないものと考える。一方、単独感染症例については、インフルエンザ菌感染症例の方が、肺炎球菌感染症例より、平均年齢、最高白血球数・好中球数値、CRP値がやや低い傾向にあったが、統計学的な有意差は得られなかった。さらに、単独感染症例についてのみ検討すると、インフルエンザ菌による症例は *M. pneumoniae* による症例に比べて、経過中の最高白血球数が有意に高値であった。これは、従来より細菌性肺炎と非定型肺炎との鑑別項目として指摘されている項目でもある。

今回検出されたインフルエンザ菌の中で、ABPC耐性は10%、中等度耐性は18%を占め、薬剤耐性状況は今回明らかとなった多種の呼吸器病原性微生物の混合感染とともに、臨床経過に

大きな影響を及ぼすものと推察される。今後とも、インフルエンザ菌の薬剤耐性状況ならびに呼吸器病原性微生物の中でのインフルエンザ菌の役割について、経時的に検討していく必要があるものと考える。

E. 結論

インフルエンザ菌は、小児肺炎の原因微生物として最も多く35.5%で検出されたが、他の微生物との混合感染例も多く、単独で原因微生物と判定されたものは、16例(10.3%)であった。単独感染症例についてのみ検討すると、インフルエンザ菌による症例は *M. pneumoniae* による症例に比べて、有意に年齢が低く、経過中の最高白血球数は有意に高値であった。

F. 健康危険情報

特記すべきことなし

G. 研究発表

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E. 知的財産権の出願・登録状況
(予定を含む)
なし

表 1. 喀痰より検出された呼吸器病原微生物

病原性微生物	検出数 (%)	単独感染数
細菌	76 (49.7)*	25*
<i>Haemophilus influenzae</i>	54 (35.3)	16
<i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i>	33 (21.6)	8
<i>Moraxella catarrhalis</i>	3 (2.0)	1
<i>Streptococcus pyogenes</i>	1 (0.7)	0
<i>Mycoplasma pneumoniae</i>	45 (29.4)	23
<i>Chlamydia pneumoniae</i>	17 (11.1)	2
ウイルス	36 (23.5)*	12*
Influenza virus A	6 (3.9)	4
Influenza virus B	0 (0)	0
Influenza virus C	1 (0.7)	0
Respiratory syncytial virus A	3 (2.0)	0
Respiratory syncytial virus B	3 (2.0)	0
Parainfluenza virus type 1	3 (2.0)	0
Parainfluenza virus type 2	0 (0)	0
Parainfluenza virus type 3	6 (3.9)	2
Parainfluenza virus type 4	2 (1.3)	0
Rhinovirus	12 (7.8)	1
Coronavirus	0 (0)	0
Adenovirus	21 (13.7)	5

*; 検出症例数を示す

表 2. 各年齢群別の微生物検出状況

	年齢				
	< 1	1-2	3-5	6-12	13 ≦
検体数	20	59	50	22	2
微生物					
<i>H. influenzae</i>	2 (10)	30 (51)	19 (38)	3 (14)	0 (0)
<i>S. pneumoniae</i>	4 (20)	16 (27)	12 (24)	1 (5)	0 (0)
<i>M. catarrhalis</i>	0 (0)	2 (3)	1 (2)	0 (0)	0 (0)
<i>M. pneumoniae</i>	3 (15)	9 (15)	16 (32)	17 (77)	0 (0)
<i>C. pneumoniae</i>	4 (20)	6 (10)	5 (10)	2 (9)	0 (0)
Influenza virus A	2 (10)	4 (7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
RS virus	1 (5)	3 (5)	2 (4)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Parainfluenza virus	2 (10)	2 (3)	3 (6)	4 (18)	0 (0)
Rhinovirus	1 (5)	9 (15)	1 (2)	1 (5)	0 (0)
Adenovirus	4 (20)	9 (15)	6 (12)	1 (5)	1 (50)

() は、各年齢群の中で各微生物が検出された割合 (%) を示す。

表 3. 各月群別の微生物検出状況

	月群			
	1～3 月	4～6 月	7～9 月	10～12 月
検体数	29	43	31	50
微生物				
<i>H. influenzae</i>	9 (31)	18 (42)	11 (35)	7 (14)
<i>S. pneumoniae</i>	4 (14)	9 (21)	5 (16)	9 (18)
<i>M. pneumoniae</i>	6 (21)	9 (21)	13 (42)	17 (34)
<i>C. pneumoniae</i>	1 (3)	5 (12)	0 (0)	3 (6)
Influenza virus A	4 (14)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (4)
RS virus	2 (7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (8)
Parainfluenza virus	0 (0)	6 (14)	4 (13)	1 (2)
Rhinovirus	2 (7)	5 (12)	2 (6)	3 (6)
Adenovirus	3 (10)	6 (14)	4 (13)	8 (16)

() は、各月群の中で各微生物が検出された割合 (%) を示す。

表 4. 各微生物による感染症例の平均年齢、入院症例の比率、経過中の最高白血球数・好中球数値、最高CRP値、有熱日数の比較 (混合感染症例を含む)

微生物 (日)	検出数	平均年齢 (Y)	入院症例の比率(%)	白血球数	好中球数	CRP (mg/dl)	発熱期間
<i>H. influenzae</i>	54	2.52	63	11,239	6,367	2.81	4.47
<i>S. pneumoniae</i>	33	2.23	55	13,144	7,196	2.36	4.26
<i>M. pneumoniae</i>	47	5.12	81	8,736	5,395	1.68	5.50
<i>C. pneumoniae</i>	17	2.33	71	12,421	6,294	2.08	4.19
Influenza virus A	6	1.18	57	11,181	5,776	2.67	5.00
RS virus	6	2.46	50	11,315	6,266	1.07	3.00
Parainfluenza virus	11	4.20	45	10,503	5,196	1.37	4.10
Rhinovirus	12	2.08	75	12,184	5,488	2.92	4.92
Adenovirus	21	2.81	57	13,743	7,949	2.27	3.85

表5. 各微生物による感染症例の平均年齢、経過中の最高白血球数・好中球数値、最高CRP値、有熱日数の比較（単独感染症例のみ）

微生物	検出数	平均年齢 (Y)	白血球数	好中球数	CRP (mg/dl)	発熱期間 (日)
<i>H. influenzae</i>	16	1.85 ^a	10,912 ^d	5,501	2.07	4.13
<i>S. pneumoniae</i>	8	3.75 ^b	13,507	8,261	3.88	3.63
<i>M. pneumoniae</i>	23	6.01 ^{a,c}	7,567 ^d	4,684	1.54	5.48
<i>C. pneumoniae</i>	2	0.38	18498	9,911	3.76	7.00
Influenza virus A	4	1.17 ^{b,c}	10,609	4,733	3.39	6.00
RS virus	0	—	—	—	—	—
Parainfluenza virus	2	3.50	11,124	6,295	2.84	6.00
Rhinovirus	1	8.00	12,100	1,0660	2.75	1.00
Adenovirus	5	3.40	16,729	9,869	7.40	4.20

—; 検体なし

a, b, c, d; p<0.05

Ⅲ. 研究成果の刊行に関する一覧表

書籍

著者氏名	論文タイトル名	書籍全体の編集者名	書籍名	出版社名	出版地	出版年	ページ
詳細は下記参照	詳細は下記参照	佐々木次雄	図説 呼吸器系細菌 感染症：疫学、 診断、治療	株)じほう	東京	2006年 5月	約300ページ

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付属資料

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小児呼吸器感染症治療ガイドライン

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病原体の入手方法

佐々木次雄(国立感染症研究所 細菌第二部)

雑誌

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	3) Clinical evaluation of macrolide-resistant <i>Mycoplasma pneumoniae</i> .	Agents Chemother			
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	2) Clinical evaluation of macrolide-resistant <i>Mycoplasma pneumoniae</i> .	Antimicrob Agents	50	709-712	2006
	3) Epidemiological studies on <i>Bartonella quintana</i> infections among homeless peoples in Tokyo, Japan.	Chemother Jpn. J. Infect. Dis.	59	31-35	2006
	4) Genetic and Phenotypic characterization of <i>Haemophilus influenzae</i> type b isolated from	Jpn. J. Infect. Dis.	59	(in press)	2006

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	2) マクロライド耐性マイコプラズマ感染症に関する研究.	Jpn. J. Antibiotics	58	A133-137	2005
	3) 小児期マイコプラズマ感染症診断におけるマイコプラズマ特異的 IgG, IgA, IgM 抗体検出 enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay キットの有用性に関する検討.	感染症学雑誌	79	457-463	2005
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	5) 「せき」のある子供の急性感染症.	日本医事新報	4255		2005
	6) 気道系, 呼吸器系のマイコプラズマの現況	感染と抗菌薬 クリニカ	8 32	386-392 333-338	2005 2005
	7) 重症マイコプラズマ肺炎	Antimicrob	50	709-712	2006
	8) Clinical evaluation of macrolide-resistant <i>Mycoplasma pneumoniae</i>	Agents Chemother		医学書 163	2006
	9) マイコプラズマ感染症	今日の治療指針 2006年版		院	
山崎 勉	1) In vitro activity of β -lactams, macrolides, telithromycin, and fluoroquinolones against clinical isolates of <i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i> : correlation between drug resistance and genetic characteristics.	J. Infect. Chemother.	11	262-264	2005
	2) Epidemiology of community-acquired	Pediatrics	2006/3/2	517	2006

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3)	Clinical evaluation of macrolide-resistant <i>Mycoplasma pneumoniae</i>	Antimicrob Agents	50	709-712	2006
4)	Genetic and Phenotypic characterization of <i>Haemophilus influenzae</i> type b isolated from children with meningitis and their family members in Vietnam.	Chemother Jpn. J. Infect. Dis.	59	(in press)	2006

IV. 研究成果の刊行物・別冊

Involvement of P1 Adhesin in Gliding Motility of *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* as Revealed by the Inhibitory Effects of Antibody under Optimized Gliding Conditions

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To examine the participation of P1 adhesin in gliding of *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*, we examined the effects of an anti-P1 monoclonal antibody on individual gliding mycoplasmas. The antibody reduced the gliding speed and removed the gliding cells from the glass over time in a concentration-dependent manner but had only a slight effect on nongliding cells, suggesting that the conformational changes of P1 adhesin and its displacement are involved in the gliding mechanism.

Mycoplasma gliding. Mycoplasmas are parasitic, occasionally pathogenic, small-genome bacteria lacking a peptidoglycan layer (20). Several mycoplasma species, including *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*, *M. genitalium*, *M. pulmonis*, *M. gallisepticum*, and *M. mobile*, have distinct cell polarity and exhibit gliding motility in the direction of the tapered end (2, 10, 13). The mechanisms underlying gliding motility are intrinsically different from those of other motility systems and are not well understood (8, 12–15, 26).

***M. pneumoniae* and P1 adhesin.** *M. pneumoniae*, a human pathogen, forms a membrane protrusion, an attachment organelle, at a cell pole (11, 13). The cell surface of the attachment organelle exhibits clustering of a 170-kDa transmembrane protein, P1 adhesin, which is responsible for binding to animal cells and glass surfaces (4, 6, 19, 24). It shares structural similarities with the adhesion proteins of other mycoplasma species, such as MgPa of *M. genitalium* (7) and GapA of *M. gallisepticum* (5), but not with Gli349 of *M. mobile*, the fastest species (26). It is known that an antibody raised against P1 can block the binding of *M. pneumoniae* to animal cells and glass (4, 6, 19, 24), but the effects on glass binding or gliding have not been observed for individual cells (4, 6). Here we analyzed the effects of such an antibody on individual cells under conditions optimized for gliding.

Optimizing conditions for gliding. In previous work, we found that a greater proportion of *M. pneumoniae* cells glided at higher speeds in a phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) solution containing serum than in the growth medium (9). Accordingly, in the present study we examined the effects of medium on gliding. *M. pneumoniae* M129 cells grown in Aluotto medium (1, 17) were suspended in fresh medium, dispersed as previously described (21, 22), put on a clean coverslip, and incu-

bated at 37°C for 60 min to let the cells bind to the glass. The coverslip with mycoplasma cells was then assembled into a tunnel slide, as previously described (12, 26). After incubation of the cells on a microscope stage chamber at 37°C for 10 min, the growth medium was replaced by PBS containing 10% horse serum or by a fresh medium. The microscopic images were recorded and analyzed (15–17, 26). Since all cells are not always gliding (9), we examined both the proportion of gliding cells in relation to the total cells and the gliding speeds to evaluate the effects of the various conditions. The gliding activity presented by the two parameters did not change when the medium was replaced by fresh medium, but it increased in response to the replacement with PBS containing 10% serum. The proportion of gliding cells was 0 out of 406 cells at time zero but increased with time and reached 0.37 at 60 min, when the growth medium was replaced by PBS containing 10% serum. This proportion stayed at 0, however, when the growth medium was replaced with fresh medium. The gliding speed in PBS containing 10% serum also increased with time and plateaued at 0.93 $\mu\text{m/s}$ at 15 min, although it did not change in the fresh medium. The average gliding speed of *M. pneumoniae* was originally reported to be as fast as 0.4 $\mu\text{m/s}$ in a medium, comparable to the speed observed here in the PBS containing serum (3, 18). The content of the Aluotto medium used here was slightly different from that of the Hayflick medium used in the previous studies. We did try the Hayflick medium, but no difference in the gliding results was observed. These observations may suggest that the active gliding of *M. pneumoniae* is induced by starvation, which was unexpectedly achieved in the previous studies (3, 18).

We next examined the effects of serum concentrations, temperature, and gelatin. Once cells were bound to glass with 10% horse serum, gliding continued even in its absence but was better in concentrations ranging from 5 to 20%. The number of cells that glided was approximately the same over a temperature range of 27 to 42.5°C, but their speed increased linearly with temperature over this range from approximately 0.5 to 0.8 $\mu\text{m/s}$, as previously observed in the gliding of the fastest mycoplasma species, *M. mobile* (15). The addition of 1 to 5%

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gelatin did not prevent cells from leaving the glass during gliding (9, 18). Therefore, the effects of antibody were examined in PBS plus 10% horse serum without gelatin at 37°C.

Inhibition of gliding by anti-P1 adhesin antibody. We made a monoclonal antibody by immunizing mice with a recombinant protein comprising 1,160 to 1,518 amino acids of a whole P1 molecule of 1,627 amino acids, which is known to have a site responsible for cell and glass binding (19). The specificity of antibody was confirmed by immunoblotting, immunofluorescence microscopy of fixed cells with and without permeabilization, and immunofluorescence microscopy of living cells (12, 22, 23, 26).

The effects of the antibody on gliding of individual cells were examined (Fig. 1 and 2). Cultured mycoplasma cells were re-suspended in PBS containing 10% serum and bound to a clean coverslip at 37°C for 70 min. Then, PBS containing 10% serum was replaced by PBS containing 10% serum and various concentrations of the antibody, ranging from 0 to 300 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ at time zero, and cells bound to glass with and without gliding motility were counted separately, as presented in Fig. 1A and B, respectively. The addition of antibody removed the gliding cells from the glass over time in a concentration-dependent manner (Fig. 1A). However, the antibody affected the glass binding of nongliding cells only slightly (Fig. 1B). These observations indicate that the displacement of a cell along a glass surface during gliding is essential to cell removal by the antibody. The effects of antibody on the gliding speed were examined (Fig. 2). The average speed of gliding cells was found to be reduced by the addition of antibody in a concentration-dependent manner, an effect similar to that for the inhibition of glass binding, indicating that the binding of antibody reduces the gliding speed.

Involvement of P1 adhesin in gliding. The dependence of the antibody's ability to inhibit glass binding during gliding on its concentration indicates that P1 is responsible not only for static binding but also for that during gliding (Fig. 1A).

The obvious difference in resistance to the antibody between gliding cells (Fig. 1A) and nongliding cells (Fig. 1B) suggests that P1 induces conformational changes in gliding. In other words, the P1 molecules should be in a state where the accessibility of the antibody is significantly reduced when the cell is not gliding on glass, compared to the states occurring in gliding. This observation can be explained by an assumption that the P1 molecule itself is involved in a "power stroke" that propels a cell like a leg.

The binding of antibody to a cell was found to decrease the gliding speed (Fig. 2), consistent with the observation of *M. mobile* with anti-Gli349 antibody (26). The results of the present study can be explained by one of the following three hypotheses, based on the assumption of a power stroke of the P1 molecule. The first hypothesis is that the binding of antibody reduces the rate of release of P1 molecules from the glass, resulting in generation of a drag force, and also blocks rebinding after the release, as discussed for *M. mobile* (refer to Fig. 7 of reference 26). The second hypothesis is that only a fraction of P1 molecules are in the propelling cycle, while others are in a state of static binding, keeping the cells on the glass and also causing a drag force in normal gliding. In this case, the binding of antibody causes a decrease in the number of P1 molecules in the cycle, resulting in a shortage of propel-

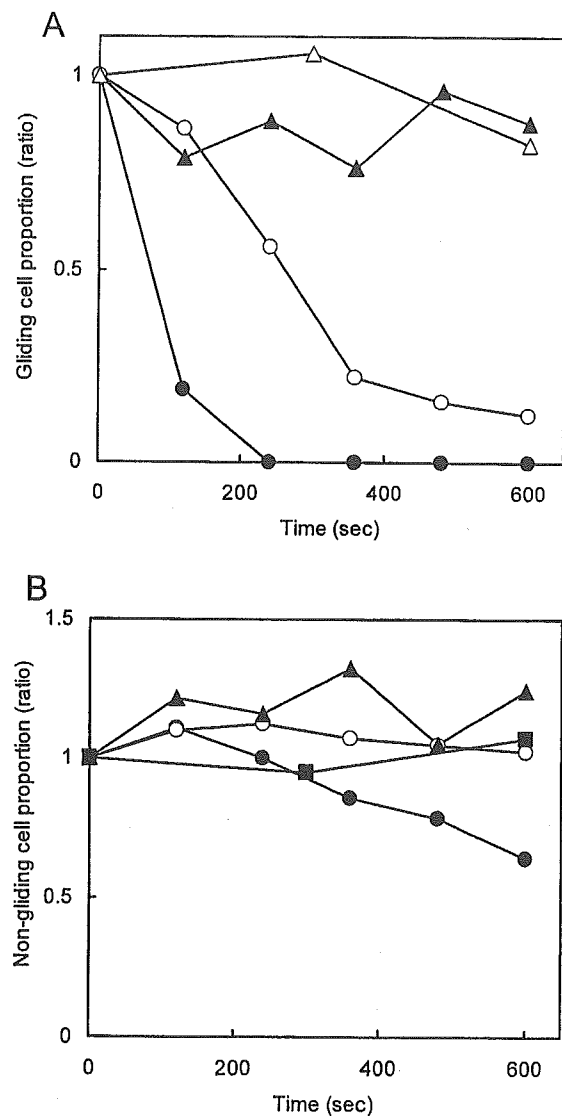


FIG. 1. Decrease in the number of bound cells after the addition of antibody. The number of bound cells relative to the initial number in a field of $9,600 \mu\text{m}^2$ is shown. (A) The ratio of gliding cells remaining on the glass is shown for each time point after the addition of antibody to 300 (closed circles), 30 (open circles), 3 (closed triangles), and 0 (open triangles) $\mu\text{g/ml}$ relative to the number of cells gliding at time zero. (B) The number of nongliding cells remaining on the glass is shown relative to the number of nongliding cells at time zero. The same symbols as those in panel (A) are used. More than 100 cells were analyzed to determine the total number of gliding and nongliding cells at the zero time point.

ling force for a cell with the normal speed. In the third hypothesis, a fraction of P1 molecules are in the propelling cycle, as proposed in the second hypothesis, but the drag force is not large enough to balance the propelling force exerted through a P1 molecule in the cycle. However, the duration of a stroke is short, and the speed of a cell depends on the sum of stroke durations. In this case, the decrease in the number of P1 molecules in the cycle directly reduces the cell's gliding speed.

Conclusions. We showed that P1 is involved in the gliding motility of *M. pneumoniae*. This finding may suggest that the

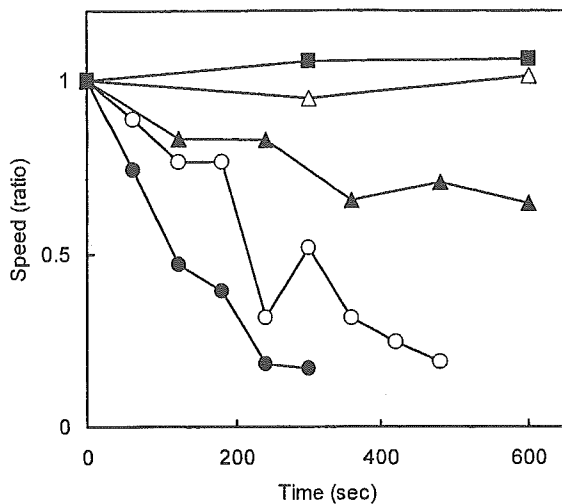


FIG. 2. Gliding speed after the addition of antibody. The gliding speeds normalized according to the initial speed are presented for each time point after the addition of antibody to 100 (closed circles), 30 (open circles), 10 (closed triangles), 3 (open triangles), and 0 (closed squares) $\mu\text{g/ml}$.

gliding of other mycoplasma species sharing an adhesion protein structure with P1 (5, 7, 25) also depends on their adhesion molecules.

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NOTE

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In vitro activity of β -lactams, macrolides, telithromycin, and fluoroquinolones against clinical isolates of *Streptococcus pneumoniae*: correlation between drug resistance and genetic characteristics

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Abstract The in vitro activity of antimicrobial agents against *Streptococcus pneumoniae* was determined using 16 strains of penicillin-susceptible *S. pneumoniae* (PSSP) and 26 strains of penicillin intermediately resistant *S. pneumoniae* (PISP) + penicillin-resistant *S. pneumoniae* (PRSP) in Japan. The minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of potent antibiotics, including eight β -lactams (benzylpenicillin, ampicillin, cefotiam, cefepime, cefditoren, faropenem, panipenem, and biapenem), three macrolides (erythromycin, clarithromycin, and azithromycin), telithromycin, and three fluoroquinolones (ciprofloxacin, levofloxacin, and gatifloxacin), were determined. Twenty-three strains exhibited genetic variations at *pbp1a* + *pbp2x* + *pbp2b*, which are genetic-PRSP (g-PRSP). g-PISP strains accounted for 62.5% (10/16) of the PSSP strains. The existence of an abnormal *pbp* gene conferred not only penicillin resistance but resistance to cepheims; however, panipenem and biapenem had potent in vitro efficacy against alterations. Regarding the macrolide resistance mechanisms (*mefA* or *ermB*): 16 isolates had only *mefA*, 18 isolates had *ermB*, and 2 isolates had both *mefA* and *ermB*. There was no correlation between the existence of an abnormal *pbp* gene and the existence of the *mefA* gene or the *ermB* gene.

Key words PRSP · PBP · *mefA* · *ermB*

Streptococcus pneumoniae is an important pathogen in many cases of community-acquired pneumonia, acute otitis media, and purulent meningitis. In Japan, rates of penicil-

lin-resistant *S. pneumoniae* (PRSP) are reported to be 30% to 46%.¹ Currently, the antibiotic resistance patterns of *S. pneumoniae* isolates vary widely. Using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) methods, mechanisms of penicillin resistance and macrolide resistance can be obtained. Determination of the *pbp* genotype or the existence of the *mefA* gene or the *ermB* gene is useful in assessing β -lactams and macrolide resistance.²

In the present study, we examined the in vitro activity of β -lactams, macrolides, telithromycin, and fluoroquinolones against 16 strains of defined penicillin-susceptible *S. pneumoniae* (PSSP) and 26 strains of penicillin intermediately resistant *S. pneumoniae* (PISP) + PRSP. The study was conducted at Saitama Medical School Hospital, a 1483-bed hospital in Saitama, Japan. We used clinical pneumococcal strains isolated from patients with infectious diseases between April and September 2002. The minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of potent antibiotics against *S. pneumoniae*, including benzylpenicillin, ampicillin, cefditoren, and biapenem (Meiji Seik, Tokyo, Japan), cefotiam (Takeda Chemical Industries, Osaka, Japan), cefepime (Bristol Myers KK, Tokyo, Japan), faropenem (Yamanouchi Pharmaceutical, Tokyo, Japan), panipenem (Sankyo, Tokyo, Japan), erythromycin (Abbott Laboratories, Chicago, IL, USA), clarithromycin (Taisho Pharmaceutical, Tokyo, Japan), azithromycin (Pfizer Japan, Tokyo, Japan), telithromycin (Aventis Pharma, Tokyo, Japan), ciprofloxacin (Bayer Yakuhin, Osaka, Japan), levofloxacin (Daiichi Pharmaceutical, Tokyo, Japan), and gatifloxacin (Kyorin Pharmaceutical, Tokyo, Japan) were measured. The MICs were determined by the broth microdilution method described by the National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards (NCCLS).³ Microtiter plates containing 5.0×10^4 CFU/well were incubated with antibiotic at 35° for 18h, and the lowest concentration of drug that prevented visible growth was considered the MIC. The medium used was Mueller-Hinton broth (BBL Microbiology System, Cockeysville, MD, USA), supplemented with 5% lysed horse blood, according to the recommendations of the NCCLS. Daily quality control testing was conducted with *S. pneumoniae* ATCC 49619 (American Type Culture

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