alleles associated with the wide spread. For analyzing differences in gene expression between bacterial strains, the proteomic approach is a powerful tool (4, 26). Thus, the comparative proteomic analysis of *B. pertussis* strains (type A and type B) was thought to be worth trying, and an attempt is now under way.

In conclusion, in the Japanese *B. pertussis* strains, the antigenic divergence between recently circulating strains and the vaccine strain has been observed since the mid-1990s, although reported pertussis-like and pertussis cases have decreased in number. In addition, the strains showed a correlation between the PFGE profile and the combination of *ptxS1/prn* alleles. Our findings strongly suggested that the antigenic divergence had no influence on the efficacy of pertussis vaccination in Japan. However, the reason for the appearance of the type B strain harboring nonvaccine *ptxS1A/prn2* has remained unclear. Continuous surveillance and further analyses are needed to determine the virulence of the type B strain.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are grateful to the following for providing clinical isolates of B. pertussis: T. Fukui (Byotai-Seiri Laboratory, Tokyo, Japan), T. Hongou (Kurashiki Central Hospital, Okayama, Japan), M. Honma (Tokyo Metropolitan Kiyose Children's Hospital, Tokyo, Japan), T. Kato (St. Marianna University, Kanagawa, Japan), H. Kawai (Sano Kousei General Hospital, Tochigi, Japan), Y. Kouri (Chiba City Hospital, Chiba, Japan), K. Matsuda (Muroran City General Hospital, Hokkaido, Japan), T. Nakamura (Kansai Medical University, Osaka, Japan), M. Ohtsuka (Kotobiken Medical Laboratories Inc., Ibaraki, Japan), K. Okada (Kawasaki Municipal Hospital, Kanagawa, Japan), S. Saito (Akita Prefectural Institute of Public Health, Akita, Japan), K. Sugama (Fukushima Prefectural Institute of Public Health, Fukushima, Japan), S. Takahashi (Sapporo City General Hospital, Hokkaido, Japan), M. Yagoshi (Nihon University Itabashi Hospital, Tokyo, Japan), H. Yajima (BML, Inc., Tokyo, Japan), K. Yamanaka (Otemae Hospital, Osaka, Japan), and A. Yamauchi (Mie Prefectural Institute of Public Health and Environmental Science, Mie, Japan). We are also grateful to M. Kimura (Infectious Disease Surveillance Center of the National Institute of Infectious Diseases) and M. Fukui (Tokyo Metropolitan University) for their valuable comments and suggestions.

This work was supported by grants (H14-Shinkou-17 and H15-Shinkou-24) from the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare of Japan.

REFERENCES

- Andrews, R., A. Herceg, and C. Roberts. 1997. Pertussis notifications in Australia, 1991 to 1997. Commun. Dis. Intell. 21:145–148.
- Boursaux-Eude, C., S. Thiberge, G. Carletti, and N. Guiso. 1999. Intranasal
 murine model of *Bordetella pertussis* infection. II. Sequence variation and
 protection induced by a tricomponent acellular vaccine. Vaccine 17:2651

 2660.
- Cassiday, P., G. Sanden, K. Heuvelman, F. Mooi, K. M. Bisgard, and T. Popovic. 2000. Polymorphism in *Bordetella pertussis* pertactin and pertussis toxin virulence factors in the United States, 1935–1999. J. Infect. Dis. 182: 1402–1408.
- Cordwell, S. J., M. R. Larsen, R. T. Cole, and B. J. Walsh. 2002. Comparative proteomics of *Staphylococcus aureus* and the response of methicillin-resistant and methicillin-sensitive strains to Triton X-100. Microbiology 148:2765– 2781
- de Melker, H. E., J. F. Schellekens, S. E. Neppelenbroek, F. R. Mooi, H. C. Rümke, and M. A. Conyn-van Spaendonck. 2000. Reemergence of pertussis in the highly vaccinated population of The Netherlands: observations on surveillance data. Emerg. Infect. Dis. 6:348-357.
- Fry, N. K., S. Neal, T. G. Harrison, E. Miller, R. Matthews, and R. C. George. 2001. Genotypic variation in the *Bordetella pertussis* virulence factors pertactin and pertussis toxin in historical and recent clinical isolates in the United Kingdom. Infect. Immun. 69:5520-5528.
- Guiso, N., C. Boursaux-Eude, C. Weber, S. Z. Hausman, H. Sato, M. Iwaki, K. Kamachi, T. Konda, and D. L. Burns. 2001. Analysis of Bordetella pertussis isolates collected in Japan before and after introduction of acellular pertussis vaccine. Vaccine 19:3248-3252.

- Güris, D., P. M. Strebel, B. Bardenheier, M. Brennan, R. Tachdjian, E. Finch, M. Wharton, and J. R. Livengood. 1999. Changing epidemiology of pertussis in the United States: increasing reported incidence among adolescents and adults, 1990–1996. Clin. Infect. Dis. 28:1230–1237.
- Gzyl, A., E. Augustynowicz, I. van Loo, and J. Slusarczyk. 2002. Temporal nucleotide changes in pertactin and pertussis toxin genes in *Bordetella per*tussis strains isolated from clinical cases in Poland. Vaccine 20:299–303.
- Hardwick, T. H., P. Cassiday, R. S. Weyant, K. M. Bisgard, and N. Sanden. 2002. Changes in predominance and diversity of genomic subtypes of *Bordetella pertussis* isolated in the United States, 1935 to 1999. Emerg. Infect. Dis. 8:44-49.
- Hausman, S. Z., and D. L. Burns. 2000. Use of pertussis toxin encoded by ptx genes from Bordetella bronchiseptica to model the effects of antigenic drift of pertussis toxin on antibody neutralization. Infect. Immun. 68:3763–3767.
- He, Q., J. Mäkinen, G. Berbers, F. R. Mooi, M. K. Viljanen, H. Arvilommi, and J. Mertsola. 2003. *Bordetella pertussis* protein pertactin induces typespecific antibodies: one possible explanation for the emergence of antigenic variants? J. Infect. Dis. 187:1200–1205.
- Hewlett, E. L., K. T. Sauer, G. A. Myers, J. L. Cowell, and R. L. Guerrant. 1983. Induction of a novel morphological response in Chinese hamster ovary cells by pertussis toxin. Infect. Immun. 40:1198–1203.
- Houard, S., C. Hackel, A. Herzog, and A. Bollen. 1989. Specific identification of *Bordetella pertussis* by the polymerase chain reaction. Res. Microbiol. 140:477-487.
- King, A. J., G. Berbers, H. F. L. M. van Oirschot, P. Hoogerhout, K. Knipping, and F. R. Mooi. 2001. Role of the polymorphic region 1 of the Bordetella pertussis protein pertactin in immunity. Microbiology 147:2885-2805
- Kourova, N., V. Caro, C. Weber, S. Thinberge, R. Chuprinina, G. Tseneva, and N. Guiso. 2003. Comparison of the Bordetella pertussis and Bordetella parapertussis isolates circulating in Saint Petersburg between 1998 and 2000 with Russian vaccine strains. J. Clin. Microbiol. 41:3706-3711.
- Liu, D.-F., E. Phillips, T. M. Wizemann, M. M. Siegel, K. Tabei, J. L. Cowell, and E. Tuomanen. 1997. Characterisation of a recombinant fragment that contains a carbohydrate recognition domain of the filamentous hemagglutinin. Infect. Immun. 65:3465-3468.
- Mooi, F. R., H. Hallander, C. H. Wirsing von König, B. Hoet, and N. Guiso. 2000. Epidemiological typing of *Bordetella pertussis* isolates: recommendations for a standard methodology. Eur. Clin. Infect. Dis. J. 13:174–181.
- Mooi, F. R., Q. He, H. van Oirschot, and J. Mertsola. 1999. Variation in the Bordetella pertussis virulence factors pertussis toxin and pertactin in vaccine strains and clinical isolates in Finland. Infect. Immun. 67:3133-3134.
- Mooi, F. R., H. van Oirschot, K. Heuvelman, H. G. J. van der Heide, W. Gaastra, and R. J. L. Willems. 1998. Polymorphism in the Bordetella pertussis virulence factors P. 69/pertactin and pertussis toxin in The Netherlands: temporal trends and evidence for vaccine-driven evolution. Infect. Immun. 66:670-675.
- National Institute of Infectious Diseases. 1997. Pertussis, Japan, 1982–1996. Infect. Agents Surveill. Rep. 18:101–102.
- Peppler, M. S., S. Kuny, A. Nevesinjac, C. Rogers, Y. R. de Moissac, K. Knowles, M. Lorange, G. De Serres, and J. Tabort. 2003. Strain variation among *Bordetella pertussis* isolates from Québec and Alberta Provinces of Canada from 1985 to 1994. J. Clin. Microbiol. 41:3344–3347.
- Robinson, A., L. I. Irons, and L. A. Ashworth. 1985. Pertussis vaccine: present status and future prospects. Vaccine 3:11-22.
- Sato, Y., M. Kimura, and H. Fukumi. 1984. Development of a pertussis component vaccine in Japan. Lancet i:122-126.
 Sekura, R. D., F. Fish, C. R. Manclark, B. Meade, and Y. Zhang. 1983.
- Sekura, R. D., F. Fish, C. R. Manclark, B. Meade, and Y. Zhang. 1983. Pertussis toxin: affinity purification of a new ADP-ribosyltransferase. J. Biol. Chem. 258:14647–14651.
- Tan, Y. P., Q. Lin, X. H. Wang, S. Joshi, C. L. Hew, and K. Y. Leung. 2002. Comparative proteomic analysis of extracellular proteins of *Edwardsiella tarda*. Infect. Immun. 70:6475-6480.
- van Buynder, P. G., D. Owen, J. E. Vurdien, N. J. Andrews, R. C. Matthews, and E. Miller. 1999. *Bordetella pertussis* surveillance in England and Wales: 1995–7. Epidemiol. Infect. 123:403–411.
- van Loo, I. H. M., K. J. Heuvelman, A. J. King, and F. R. Mooi. 2002. Multilocus sequence typing of *Bordetella pertussis* based on surface protein genes. J. Clin. Microbiol. 40:1994–2001.
- van Loo, I. H. M., and F. R. Mooi. 2002. Changes in the Dutch Bordetella pertussis population in the first 20 years after the introduction of whole-cell vaccines. Microbiology 148:2011–2018.
- van Loo, I. H. M., G. J. van der Heide, N. J. D. Nagelkerke, J. Verhoef, and F. R. Mooi. 1999. Temporal trends in the population structure of *Bordetella* pertussis during 1949–1996 in a highly vaccinated population. J. Infect. Dis. 179:915–923.
- 31. Weber, C., C. Boursaux-Eude, G. Coralie, V. Caro, and N. Guiso. 2001. Polymorphism of *Bordetella pertussis* isolates circulating for the last 10 years in France, where a single effective whole-cell vaccine has been used for more than 30 years. J. Clin. Microbiol. 39:4396–4403.

Two Distinct Patterns of Pleural Effusions Caused by *Mycoplasma* pneumoniae Infection

To the Editors:

We read with great interest the article by Wang et al. The authors reported 5 pediatric patients with radiographically diagnosed necrotizing pneumonitis with pleural effusion caused by Mycoplasma pneumoniae, 2 of whom had persistent radiographic abnormalities lasting for more than several months. Complete resolution of chest roentgenograms was observed in the other 3 cases. Their presentation of the cases and its diagnostic implication were clinically valuable, but they did not mention the possible pathogenic mechanism of the disease. We suppose that the radiographic features that the authors presented for the cases with persistent abnormalities strongly suggest an organizing pneumonia with massive recruitment of neutrophils in histology.

In this context, we encountered similar pediatric cases of massive pleural effusion caused by M. pneumoniae infection with or without persistent radiographic abnormalities.² In the initial study including a total of 10 cases, 3 cases showed persistent radiographic abnormalities of fibrotic changes in the chest roentgenogram with the presence of M. pneumoniae genome detected by polymerase chain reaction in their pleural fluid samples. In the other 7 cases, radiographically abnormal findings were transient. In the subsequent report of 12 cases, we examined their pleural fluid samples for cytokines and found that interleukin (IL)-18 and IL-8 were significantly elevated in the pleural fluid samples obtained from the 4 patients with persistent radiographic abnormalities when compared with those without persistent abnormalities.3,4

On the basis of our findings, we strongly speculate that there are at least 2 distinct patterns of pleural effusions caused by *M. pneumoniae* infection: one type of effusion characterized by a tran-

sient chest disease, *M. pneumoniae* genome being undetectable, and with lower (but not normal) concentrations of IL-18 and IL-8 and the other type of effusion with a persistent chest disease, *M. pneumoniae* genome being detectable, and with significantly higher IL-18 and IL-8.

It is well-known that mycoplasmal cell membranes can elicit varieties of cvtokine responses (for review, see Yang et al⁵), and some kinds of cytokines must play a significant role in producing the radiographic appearance of M. pneumoniae pneumonia not only for children but also for adults. 6,7 M. pneumoniae can induce IL-18 production through the activation of macrophages, and IL-8 production can be induced either indirectly through the function of IL-18 or directly through the function of Toll-like receptors which M. pneumoniae can also activate. In any case, it is reasonable to assume that IL-8 plays a pivotal role in constructing "necrotizing pneumonitis" or organizing pneumonia.

M. pneumoniae pneumonia is usually a benign, self-limited disease. Clinical samples which can be obtained from patients therefore are limited for use in clinical research. If one pays, in addition to routine laboratory testings, more attention to using newer analytical methodologies in analyzing pleural fluid samples obtained from patients with M. pneumoniae pneumonia, more information must be obtained for further understanding of the pathogenesis of M. pneumoniae infection.

Mitsuo Narita, MD

Department of Pediatrics Sapporo Tetsudo (JR) Hospital Sapporo, Japan

Hiroshi Tanaka, MD

Third Department of Internal Medicine Sapporo Medical University School of Medicine Sapporo, Japan

REFERENCES

1. Wang RS, Wang SY, Hsieh KS, et al. Necrotizing pneumonitis caused by Myco-

- plasma pneumoniae in pediatric patients: report of five cases and review of literature. Pediatr Infect Dis J. 2004;23:564–567.
- Narita M, Matsuzono Y, Itakura O, Yamada S, Togashi T. Analysis of mycoplasmal pleural effusion by the polymerase chain reaction. *Arch Dis Child*. 1998;78:67-69.
- Narita M, Tanaka H, Abe S, Yamada S, Kubota M, Togashi T. Close association between pulmonary disease manifestation in *Mycoplasma* pneumoniae infection and enhanced local production of interleukin-18 in the lung, independent of γ interferon. Clin Diagn Lab Immunol. 2000;7:909-914.
- Narita M, Tanaka H, Yamada S, Abe S, Ariga T, Sakiyama Y. Significant role of interleukin-8 in pathogenesis of pulmonary disease due to Mycoplasma pneumoniae infection. Clin Diagn Lab Immunol. 2001;8:1028-1030.
- Yang J, Hooper WC, Phillips DJ, Talkington DF. Cytokines in Mycoplasma pneumoniae infections. Cytokines Growth Factors Rev. 2004; 15:157-168.
- Tanaka H, Koba H, Honma S, et al. Relationship between radiological pattern and cell-mediated immune response in *Mycoplasma* pneumoniae pneumonia. Eur Respir J. 1996;9: 669-672.
- Tanaka H, Narita M, Teramoto S, et al. Role of interleukin-18 and T-helper type 1 cytokines in the development of *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* pneumonia in adults. *Chest*. 2002;121:1493– 1497

Reply:

The author proposed an interesting hypothesis about the pathophysiology of pleural effusion caused by Mycoplasma pneumoniae. It is biologically plausible that the author proposed that the presence of M. pneumoniae genome might elicit stronger immunologic reaction which subsequently leads to persistent lung damage. Yet the timing of sampling might bear some relevance to whether one could detect the genome in the pleural fluid. Before one can make a statement like this, a well-designed prospective study looking into the relationship of the presence of the genome versus the immunologic reaction and outcome is mandatory.

I do agree with the author that probably there are 2 types of pleural effusion associated with *M. pneumoniae* infection. On the basis of my clinical experience, I would advocate for more clinical and immunologic study in this area.

Christine C. Chiou, MD

Veterans General Hospital Koahsiung, Taiwan

1069

The Pediatric Infectious Disease Journal • Volume 23, Number 11, November 2004

Characterization and Molecular Analysis of Macrolide-Resistant Mycoplasma pneumoniae Clinical Isolates Obtained in Japan

Mayumi Matsuoka, ¹ Mitsuo Narita, ² Norio Okazaki, ³ Hitomi Ohya, ³ Tsutomu Yamazaki, ⁴ Kazunobu Ouchi, ⁵ Isao Suzuki, ⁶ Tomoaki Andoh, ⁶ Tsuyoshi Kenri, ¹ Yuko Sasaki, ¹ Atsuko Horino, ¹ Miharu Shintani, ¹ Yoshichika Arakawa, ¹ and Tsuguo Sasaki ^{1*}

Department of Bacterial Pathogenesis and Infection Control, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Tokyo,
Sapporo Tetsudo Hospital, Hokkaido, Kanagawa Prefectural Institute of Public Health and Department
of Pediatrics, Chigasaki Municipal Hospital, Kanagawa, Department of Infection Control,
Saitama Medical School, Saitama, and Department of Pediatrics II,
Kawasaki Medical School, Okayama, Japan

Received 28 April 2004/Returned for modification 11 July 2004/Accepted 1 August 2004

In recent years, *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* strains that are clinically resistant to macrolide antibiotics have occasionally been encountered in Japan. Of 76 strains of *M. pneumoniae* isolated in three different areas in Japan during 2000 to 2003, 13 strains were erythromycin (ERY) resistant. Of these 13 strains, 12 were highly ERY resistant (MIC, ≥256 µg/ml) and 1 was weakly resistant (MIC, 8 µg/ml). Nucleotide sequencing of domains II and V of 23S rRNA and ribosomal proteins L4 and L22, which are associated with ERY resistance, showed that 10 strains had an A-to-G transition at position 2063 (corresponding to 2058 in *Escherichia coli* numbering), 1 strain showed A-to-C transversion at position 2063, 1 strain showed an A-to-G transition at position 2064, and the weakly ERY-resistant strain showed C-to-G transversion at position 2617 (corresponding to 2611 in *E. coli* numbering) of domain V. Domain II and ribosomal proteins L4 and L22 were not involved in the ERY resistance of these clinical *M. pneumoniae* strains. In addition, by using our established restriction fragment length polymorphism technique to detect point mutations of PCR products for domain V of the 23S rRNA gene of *M. pneumoniae*, we found that 23 (24%) of 94 PCR-positive oral samples taken from children with respiratory infections showed A2063G mutation. These results suggest that ERY-resistant *M. pneumoniae* infection is not unusual in Japan.

Mycoplasma pneumoniae is a pathogen causing human respiratory infections such as atypical pneumonia, mainly in children and younger adults. In the chemotherapy of M. pneumoniae infection in children, erythromycin (ERY) and clarithromycin (CLR) among 14-membered macrolides and the 15-membered macrolide azithromycin (AZM) are usually considered the first-choice agents in Japan. Although there was no report on the isolation of ERY-resistant M. pneumoniae before 2000 in Japan, we found that ca. 20% of M. pneumoniae strains isolated from patients from 2000 to 2003 were ERY resistant. These results are consistent with pediatricians' impression that antibiotics such as ERY, CLR, and clindamycin (CLI) are not effective for some patients with M. pneumoniae infection.

It is well known that the macrolide-lincosamide-streptogramin B (MLS) antibiotics inhibit protein synthesis by binding to domain II and/or domain V of 23S rRNA (3, 26). Lucier et al. (10) and Okazaki et al. (17) found that an A-to-G transition or A-to-C transversion at position 2063 (corresponding to 2058 in *Escherichia coli* numbering) or 2064 of the 23S rRNA gene resulted in high resistance to macrolide antibiotics. No point mutation was found in domain II of 23S rRNA of the ERY-resistant *M. pneumoniae* strains used in the present study.

We report here the prevalence of macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae* infection in Japan. By using 13 ERY-resistant *M. pneumoniae* strains, we investigated the mechanisms

of resistance to MLS antibiotics. Furthermore, we established restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) techniques to detect point mutations in domain V of 23S rRNA of M. pneumoniae by using throat swabs or sputum samples.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Mycoplasmas. Three types of M. pneumoniae strains were used in the present study, i.e., ERY-resistant strains isolated from children infected with M. pneumoniae in Japan from 2000 to 2003, ERY-resistant strains induced with ERY in vitro, and three reference strains: M129, Mac, and FH. The ERY-resistant clinical isolates are listed in Table 1, with details regarding patient age, year of isolation, symptoms, and the administration of antibiotics. Most of the isolates

TABLE 1. Macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae* strains isolated from patients, along with patient information

0		Patient	Antimicrobial ag	gent(s) ^a
Strain no.	Age (yr)	Symptoms and/ or disease	First choice/effect	Second choice/ effect
350	9	Pneumonia	CLI/-	CLR/+
374	3	Pneumonia	Unknown	Unknown
375	4.5	Pneumonia	Unknown	Unknown
376	12	Pneumonia	CLR/-	AZM/+
377	7	Fever and cough	AZM/+	
378	2	Fever and cough	Cefditoren pivoxil/-	AZM/+
379	9	Pneumonia	CLR/	AZM/-
380	11	Pneumonia	CLR/-	Minocycline/+
381	11	Pneumonia	AZM/+	·
382	7	Pneumonia	RKM/-	AZM/-
383	5	Bronchitis	Cefaclor/-	ERY/+
384	7	Pneumonia	Cefdinir, Fosfomycin/-	ERY/+
385	NI ^b	Pneumonia, pleurisy	CLR/+	

 $[^]a$ –, No effect from antimicrobial agent; +, improvement of symptoms. b NI, no information.

^{*} Corresponding author. Mailing address: Department of Bacterial Pathogenesis and Infection Control, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, 4-7-1 Gakuen, Musashimurayama-shi, Tokyo 208-0011, Japan. Phone: (81) 425610771. Fax: (81) 425653315. E-mail: sasaki@nih.go.jp.

TABLE 2. Primers used for PCR amplification and sequencing of domains II and V of 23S rRNA and ribosomal proteins of L4 and L22 in M. pneumoniae

PCR and primer designation	Sequence (5' to 3')	Position ^a	Amplicon size (bp)
Domain II of 23S rRNA MN23SDIIF MN23SDIIR	AGTACCGTGAGGGAAAGGTG TCCCAAGCGTTACTCATGCC	491–510 1287–1306	816
Domain V of 23S rRNA MN23SDVF MN23SDVR	GCAGTGAAGAACGAGGGG GTCCTCGCTTCGGTCCTCTCG	1758–1775 2664–2684	927
Ribosomal protein L4 MNL4F MNL4R	AAAAGCAGCACCAGTTGTAG GGTTAGAACTGGTTTTAGCA	1231–1250 1933–1952	722
Ribosomal protein L22 MNL22F MNL22R	GTACATAACGGCAAGACCTT GCAAGCCGTTGGAGTTTACT	3640–3659 4247–4266	627
Nested PCR for 23S rRNA of 2063, 2064 region MN23SF1937 MN23SR2128	ACTATAACGGTCCTAAGGTA ACCTATTCTCTACATGATAA	1918–1937 2108–2177	210
Nested PCR for 23S rRNA of 2617 region MN23SF2577 MN23SR2664	TACGTGAGTTGGGTTCAAA GTCCTCGCTTCGGTCCTCTCG	2577–2595 2664–2684	108

^a The positions of domain II and V of 23S rRNA are based on accession no. X68422 of the *M. pneumoniae* gene, and those of ribosomal proteins L4 and L22 are based on accession no. AE000061 of the *M. pneumoniae* M129 section 19 of 63 of the complete genome.

were obtained during the patient's first visit to the hospital, except in a few cases in which the isolates were obtained within a week after an initial treatment failure. Modified Hayflick medium (6) were used for the isolation of M. pneumoniae from patients. The broth medium was composed of 7.5 parts PPLO broth (Difco), 1.5 parts heat-inactivated horse serum, and 1 part aqueous extract (25%) of baker's yeast, penicillin G (1,000 U/ml), thallium acetate (0.025%), glucose (0.5%), and phenol red (0.002%). The composition of agar medium was the same as that of the broth medium except that glucose and phenol red were omitted and 1.2% agar was added. A throat swab was immersed several times in 0.5 ml of PPLO broth; then, 0.2 ml of the suspension was transferred to the diphasic (agar/broth) medium, and 0.1 ml of the suspension was transferred onto the agar medium. The agar medium was incubated under 5% CO2 in air with moisture, and the diphasic medium was incubated aerobically at 37°C for 5 to 14 days. When a color change was observed in the diphasic medium, 0.1 ml of the broth was subcultured onto the agar medium. When typical colonies were observed on the agar medium, a single colony was inoculated into the broth medium. After cloning of the colonies, M. pneumoniae was identified serologically or by using PCR.

MIC determination. MICs of MLS antibiotics were determined by a broth microdilution method based on the method of the National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards. Serial twofold dilutions of MLS antibiotics prepared in PPLO broth containing 10⁴ to 10⁵ CFU/ml of *M. pneumoniae* were put in 96-well microplates (17). The microplates were sealed with adhesive sheets and incubated at 37°C. The MIC was determined as the lowest concentration of antimicrobial agent at which the color of the control medium was changed. A number of antibiotics were tested. ERY, oleandomycin (OL), josamycin (JM), spiramycin (SPM), midekamycin (MDM), leucomycin (LM), and lincomycin (LCM) were purchased from Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Ltd., Japan; roxithromycin (RXM) and quinupristin-dalfopristin were provided by Aventic (RKM) was provided by Asahi Kasei Co. Japan; CLI was provided by Upjohn Co. (Japan); and AZM was provided by Pfizer Japan, Inc.

PCR amplification and sequencing of domains II and V of the 23S rRNA gene and L4 and L22 ribosomal protein genes. The ERY-resistant M. pneumoniae strains were screened on the basis of MIC of ERY. A 0.5-ml aliquot of growth culture of M. pneumoniae was centrifuged at $17,500 \times g$ for 20 min at 4°C. After

TABLE 3. MICs of MLS antibiotics for M. pneumoniae isolated from patients and reference strains

Strain	23S rRNA						MIC (ug/ml)						
no.	mutation"	ERY	OL	RXM	CLR	AZM	JM	MDM	LM	RKM	SPM	LCM	CLI	Q-D ^b
350	A2063G	>256	>256	>256	256	32	8	16	4	0.5	8	>256	>256	1
374	A2063G	>256	>256	>256	>256	64	8	16	4	0.5	16	>256	256	0.5
375	A2063G	>256	>256	>256	>256	32	16	16	8	0.5	16	>256	256	0.5
376	A2063C	>256	>256	>256	>256	16	64	64	64	4	256	64	32	1
377	C2617G	8	64	8	1	0.031	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.0625	1	16	2	0.25
378	A2063G	>256	>256	>256	>256	64	8	16	4	0.5	16	256	256	_
379	A2063G	>256	>256	>256	>256	64	8	16	4	0.5	16	256	256	0.5
380	A2063G	>256	>256	>256	>256	64	8	16	8	0.5	16	256		
381	A2063G	>256	>256	>256	>256	64	8	16	8	0.5	16	256	256	
382	A2063G	>256	>256	>256	>256	64	8	16	8	0.5	16	256	256	1
383	A2064G	256	>256	128	32	16	256	>256	>256	32	>256	64	32	0.25
384	A2063G	>256	>256	>256	>256	64	8	16	8	0.5	16	>256	256	1
385	A2063G	>256	>256	>256	>256	64	16	16	16	1	16	>256	256	1
FH		0.0625	0.25	0.0625	0.0156	0.00098	0.0156	0.25	0.0625	0.0625	0.25	16	4	0.0625
M129		0.0156	0.125	0.0156	0.0156	0.00195	0.125	0.0625	0.0625	0.0625	0.125	8	4	0.25
Mac		0.0156	0.25	0.0156	0.0156	0.00098	0.0625	0.0625	0.0625	0.0625	0.0625	4	4	0.25

[&]quot; According to M. pneumoniae numbering.

TABLE 4. Nucleotide substitution by point mutation of genes of ribosomal protein and 23S rRNA for macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae* strains and *M. pneumoniae* FH and Mac compared to *M. pneumoniae* M129^a

		Substitution(s) in ribosomal protein						Mutation in 23S rRNA		
Strain no.	Positio	Position of L4		Position of L22			Mutation in 235 fRNA		Type of P1 gene	
2	162	430	62	279	341	508	Domain II	Domain V		
M129	С	A	С	Т	С	T	_	_	I	
350	C→A	A→G	_	T→C	-	T→C	_	A2063G	II	
374	_	_	_	-	-	$T \rightarrow C$		A2063G	I	
375		~	_	-		T→C	-	A2063G	I	
376	C→A	A→G	_	$T \rightarrow C$	_	$T \rightarrow C$	_	A2063C	II	
377	C→A	A→G	-	T→C	_	$T \rightarrow C$	_	C2617G	II	
378	C→A	A→G		$T \rightarrow C$	_	$T \rightarrow C$	_	A2063G	II	
379	C→A	A→G	_	$T \rightarrow C$	_	$T \rightarrow C$	_	A2063G	II	
380	-	-	_	_		$T \rightarrow C$	_	A2063G	I	
381	_	-	_	_	_	$T \rightarrow C$	-	A2063G	I	
382	_	-		- .	_	$T \rightarrow C$	_	A2063G	I	
383		_	-	_	_	$T \rightarrow C$	_	A2064G	I	
384	_	_	_	_	_	$T \rightarrow C$	_	A2063G	I	
385	_	_	_	_	_	T→C	-	A2063G	I	
1020-EMR3		_	_	_	_	T→C	_	C2617G	I	
1020	_	_	_	_	_	$T \rightarrow C$	_	A2064G	I	
1253	_	_	C→A		$C \rightarrow T$	T→C	_	A2064G	I	
1552	_		_	-	_	T→C	_	A2064C/C2617A	I	
1653	_	_	_	_	_	T→C	_	A2064G	I	
FH	C→A	A→G	_	$T \rightarrow C$	_	T→C	_	-	II	
Mac	C→A	A→G	-	T→C		$T \rightarrow C$	· _	_	II	

^a -, No mutation compared to the sequence of M. pneumoniae M129.

removal of the supernatant, the sediment was suspended in 20 µl of TE (10 mM Tris-HCl, 1 mM EDTA [pH 8.0]) buffer containing 1.0% (vol/vol) Triton X-100 and boiled for 5 min. Specific primers were designed for the detection of the point mutations of domain II of 23S rRNA and of L4 (rplD) and L22 (rplV) ribosomal proteins (Table 2). Primers for domain V of 23S rRNA were as reported by Lucier et al. (10). To identify the mutation in domain II containing nucleotide A752 interacting with the macrolide 3-cladinose moiety, 23SDIIF-23SDIIR primer pairs were used. For domain V (peptidyltransferase region),

MH23SDVF-MH23SDVR primer pairs were used. Amplification of ribosomal protein L4 and L22 fragments was performed with the MNL4F-MNL4R and MNL22F-MNL22R primer pairs, respectively. The composition of the PCR mixture was as follows: 2 μ l of template, 30 pmol of forward and reverse primers, and 25 μ l of premix Taq (TaKaRa Ex Taq Version; Takara Bio, Inc.) and water in a final reaction volume of 50 μ l. PCR conditions were 2 min at 94°C first, followed by 45 s at 94°C for denaturation, 1 min at 55°C for annealing, and 80 s at 72°C for elongation for 30 cycles, and followed finally by 5 min at 72°C. The

M129	2051	GCAACGGGACGG <u>AA</u> AGACCCC		GTTGGTC <u>C</u> CTATCTATTGTGC	2630
350				·	
374		G			
375		G			
376		C			
377				G	
378		G			
379		G			
380			*** *** ***		
381		G			
382		G			
383					
384					
385					
1020-EMR3				G	
1020					
1253					
1552		C		AA	
1653					
FH			*** ***		
Mac					

FIG. 1. Multiple alignment of 23S rRNA gene of ERY-resistant *M. pneumoniae* strains and *M. pneumoniae* M129, FH, and Mac. Partial sequences of the peptidyltransferase (domain V) from positions 2051 to 2081 and 2601 to 2630 are presented. The nucleotides are numbered on the basis of *M. pneumoniae*. The nucleotide sequence of *M. pneumoniae* M129 was according to GenBank accession no. X68422. Identical nucleotides are indicated by dashes. The positions of 2063, 2064, and 2617 are underlined.

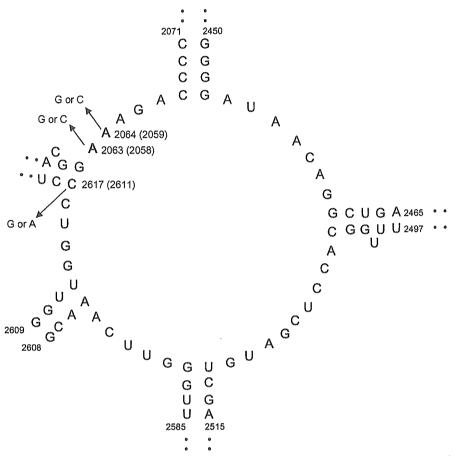


FIG. 2. Secondary structure of the peptidyltransferase loop in domain V of M. pneumoniae 23S rRNA. Positions of the newly found mutations (A2063C and C2617G), as well as previously reported in vitro mutations (A2063G, A2064G, and A2064C), in clinical isolates are indicated by using the numbering for M. pneumoniae 23S rRNA (accession no. X68422). The numbers in parentheses indicate E. coli numbering.

products were purified with a MiniElute PCR purification kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), labeled with a BigDye Terminator V3.1 cycle sequencing kit (Applied Biosystems), and applied to an ABI Prism 3100 genetic analyzer (Applied Biosystems) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The primers used for sequencing were the same as those used for PCR (Table 2). DNA sequences of PCR products were compared to the sequence of *M. pneumoniae* M129 (accession no. X68422) by using BLAST (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/).

RFLP analysis of point mutation in domain V of 23S rRNA. To detect the point mutations A2063G, A2063C, A2064G, and A2617G in domain V of 23S rRNA, BbsI, BceAI, BsaI, and BsmFI (New England BioLabs) were used. Second PCR products from domain V for tested M. pneumoniae strains were used for digestion with the four restriction enzymes. After the first PCR product (927 bp) was obtained with the MH23SDVF-MH23SDVR primer pair, a second PCR product (210 bp) was obtained with the MN23SF1937-MN23SR2128 primer pair to detect the point mutation at 2063 or 2064 in domain V of 23S rRNA. For the detection of point mutation at 2617 in domain V, the primer set of MN23SF2577 and MN23SF2664 was used, and a 108-bp PCR product was obtained. A portion of the second PCR product was digested with BbsI (5 U for 1 μ l of PCR product) for the A2063G mutation, BceAI (1 U for 1 µl of PCR product) was used for the A2063C mutation, BsaI (10 U for 1 µI of PCR product) was used for the A2064G mutation, and BsmFI (2 U for 1 µl of PCR product) was used for the C2617G mutation. Digested products were electrophoresed on a 10 to 15% gradient polyacrylamide gel (Nikkyo Technos Co., Ltd.) or on a 4% Nusieve 3:1 agarose gel (BioWhittaker Molecular Applications, Rockland, Maine).

RESULTS

Antimicrobial susceptibility. In all, 13 (17%) of the 76 clinical isolates obtained in Japan during the period from 2000 to

2003 showed various degrees of elevation of MICs against macrolides, including the ERY MIC. The in vitro activities of the MLS antibiotics against ERY-resistant clinical isolates and reference strains of M. pneumoniae are summarized in Table 3. M. pneumoniae reference strains, including M129, showed low ERY, OL, RXM, CLR, AZM, JM, MDM, LM, RKM, and SPM (0.0156 to 0.25 µg/ml) MICs. Of the ERY-resistant strains, strain 377 (C2617G) showed low resistance to macrolide antibiotics except for OL. The 15-membered macrolide AZM and most of the 16-membered macrolides were more effective than the 14-membered macrolides for strain 377. Although ERY-resistant clinical strains, except for strain 377, tended to show resistance to all of the macrolides, some of them showed different responses to RKM. That is, for strains with an A-to-G mutation at position 2063 the RKM MICs were not so high ($<1 \mu g/ml$). LCM and CLI, lincosamide antibiotics, and streptogramin antibiotics showed no marked activity toward the reference strains or some of the clinical isolates.

Sequencing analysis of ribosomal protein and 23S rRNA genes. PCR amplification and sequence analysis of ribosomal proteins and 23S rRNA were performed for all *M. pneumoniae* strains used in the present study. The results are summarized in Table 4. In domain II of the 23S rRNA containing position 752, there was no difference in sequence from that of *M*.



FIG. 3. Nucleotide sequence of the 927-bp amplicon from positions 1758 to 2684 of the 23S rRNA gene from *M. pneumoniae* M129. A long arrow indicates a primer sequence with direction. A short arrow indicates a site of mutation with a substituted base, i.e., A2063G, A2063C, A2064G, or C2617A. A newly constructed restriction site and the responsible base change with underline is shown in parentheses with the corresponding restriction enzyme.

pneumoniae M129. Figure 1 shows the results of the nucleotide sequence analysis of domain V, called the peptidyltransferase region, in the 23S rRNA of the M. pneumoniae strains. Five ERY-resistant strains (1020-EMR3, 1020, 1253, 1552, and 1653) were induced with ERY in vitro, as previously reported (17). Figure 2 shows the position of a point mutation on the peptidyltransferase loop in domain V of M. pneumoniae 23S rRNA. Of 13 ERY-resistant clinical isolates, 10 (77%) showed A2063G transition, and the remaining 3 showed one A2064G transition, one A2063C transversion, and one A2617G transversion. Of the ERY-resistant strains obtained in vitro, strain 1020-EMR3 had C2617G and strain 1552 had two point mutations: A2064C and C2617A. Compared to the sequence of the M129 strain, different nucleotides were found in some strains (350, 376, 377, 378, 379, FH, and Mac) at positions 162 and 430 of L4 and 279 of L22 ribosomal protein genes. These differences are related to two different types of M. pneumoniae strains (19). Mutation T508C of the L22 ribosomal protein gene was observed in all strains used in the present study except for M129. Thus, these nucleotide differences are not involved in the ERY resistance of M. pneumoniae. Although C62A and C341T mutations were found in strain 1253, it is uncertain whether these mutations are involved in ERY resistance because of the A2064G mutation, which imparts high ERY resistance.

RFLP analysis of ERY-resistant M. pneumoniae strains. To detect a point mutation at position 2063 or 2064 of the 23S rRNA gene, a second PCR product (210 bp) was digested from the first PCR product (927 bp) with suitable restriction enzymes. Digestion with BsaI generated two fragments of 124 and 86 bp for ERY-susceptible strain M129, whereas three fragments of 124, 57, and 29 bp were obtained in the case of the A2063G mutation (lanes 2 and 3 in Fig. 4A). Two fragments of 158 and 52 bp were generated with BceAI in the case of the A2063G mutation (lane 5 in Fig. 4A), and two fragments were generated with BsaI in the case of the A2064G mutation (lane 7 in Fig. 4A). Strain M129 has no cut site for the second PCR product with BceAI and BsaI (lanes 4 and 6 in Fig. 4A). To detect a point mutation at position 2617, the PCR primer pair MN23SF2577 and MN23SDVR was used, generating a 108-bp product (Fig. 3). Although there was no restriction enzyme to digest C2617A or C2617G mutation, the M129 strain had a restriction site with BsmFI and generated two fragments of 81 and 27 bp (Fig. 4B).

DISCUSSION

In general, macrolides such as ERY, CLR, and AZM are used as the first-choice therapeutic agent for treating *M. pneumoniae* infections in children, as well as in adults. We isolated

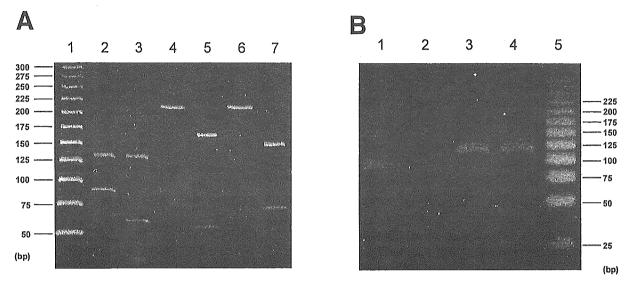


FIG. 4. Restriction analysis of 210-bp (A) and 108-bp (B) amplicons from the peptidyltransferase region (domain V) in 23S rRNA of *M. pneumoniae*. (A) Restriction profile for detection of the A2063G, A2063C, and A2064G mutations. Lanes: 1, DNA size marker (25-bp DNA step ladder; Promega); 2, 4, and 6, *M. pneumoniae* M129 (susceptible strain) treated with BbsI (lane 2, 124-, and 86-bp products) and BceAI and BsaI (lanes 4 and 6, respectively; uncut 210-bp product); 3, strain 375 (A2063G) treated with BbsI (124-, 57-, and 52-bp products); 5, strain 376 (A2063C) treated with BceAI (158- and 52-bp products); 7, strain 1020 (A2064G) treated with BsaI (141- and 69-bp products). (B) Restriction profile for detection of C2617 mutation with BsmFI digestion. Although *M. pneumoniae* M129 and strain 375 (A2063G) produced two fragments of 81 and 27 bp (lanes 1 and 2), the 108-bp fragment remained uncut in strains 377 and 1020-EMR3 (C2617G) as a result of loss of the restriction site for BsmF1 (lanes 3 and 4). Lane 5, DNA size marker (25-bp DNA step ladder; Promega).

76 M. pneumoniae strains from three geographically distant regions in Japan (Hokkaido in the northern island, Kanagawa in the central region, and Kochi in south) and found that 13 strains (17%) were ERY resistant. Although resistance to ERY was observed many years ago in a few M. pneumoniae strains (16, 20), when we investigated the ERY MICs for 296 M. pneumoniae strains isolated in Japan from 1983 to 1998, no ERY-resistant strain was found among them (data not shown). Thus, we concluded that ERY-resistant M. pneumoniae had appeared in 2000 and spread rapidly in Japan. We applied our established RFLP analysis to ca. 1,000 sputum samples taken from patients with respiratory infections from 2000 to 2002 and found that 23 (24%) of 94 PCR-positive samples for M. pneumoniae DNA had the ERY resistance-inducing point mutation A2063G (unpublished data). Whether or not the prevalence of ERY-resistant M. pneumoniae and the predominance of A2063G among the isolates are peculiar to Japan needs to be clarified by future studies outside Japan.

The mechanisms of resistance to MLS antibiotics in various microorganisms have been reviewed and include modification of the target site, active efflux, or inactivation (13, 24–26). The MLS antibiotics inhibit protein synthesis by binding to domains II and V of 23S rRNA (3, 26). In particular, it has been clearly shown that ribosomal mutations in domains II and V of 23S rRNA and mutations in ribosomal protein L4 (rplD) and L22 (rplV) are related to resistance to MLS antibiotics (2, 4). In L4 and L22 ribosomal proteins, no mutation that clearly contributed to resistance to macrolide antibiotics was found, although one strain (strain 1253) exhibited mutations of the L22 protein, such as C62A and C341T, in vitro. We found several point mutations in domain V of 23S rRNA in ERY-resistant M. pneumoniae but none in domain II of 23S rRNA. Among them, the point mutations at position 2063 or 2064 in domain V have

been reported in several pathogens such as E. coli, H. pylori, Mycobacterium spp., and S. pneumoniae (24) and generated strong resistance to macrolide antibiotics. Transversions of C to G and C to A at position 2617 of domain V were observed in a clinical isolate (strain 377) and ERY-induced strains (1020-EMR3 and 1552), respectively. On the other hand, it has been reported that C-to-U transition at position 2611 (corresponding to 2617 in M. pneumoniae numbering) in clinical pathogens such as Neisseria gonorrhoeae (15), Streptococcus pyogenes (11), Mycoplasma hominis (18), Chlamydia trachomatis (12), and E. coli (23) was associated with macrolide resistance. M. pneumoniae strain 1552, derived by incubation with ERY in vitro, showed A2064C transversion and C2617A transversion. The mutation at position 2617 produced less resistance to macrolide antibiotics than did the mutation at position 2063 or 2064 of domain V. Based on our results, it is considered that transition is the predominant type of mutation in M. pneumoniae. This may be due to the structural difference between purine and pyrimidine. These results support the observation in E. coli that the apparent dissociation constant (K_d) for ERY of C2611U (corresponding to 2617 in M. pneumoniae) $[K_d = (4.4 \pm 0.9) \times 10^{-7}]$ is ca. 480 times higher than that of the A2058G (2063 in M. pneumoniae) E. coli strain $[K_d = (1.9 \pm 0.3) \times 10^{-4}]$ (3). As mentioned above, macrolide resistance of M. pneumoniae has been explained thus far in terms of mutation of 23S rRNA. However, M. hominis was associated with an absence of intracellular accumulation and ribosomal binding of macrolide antibiotics (18). These results suggest that several different mechanisms of macrolide resistance exist in Mycoplasma species.

Table 1 summarizes information about the patients from whom ERY-resistant *M. pneumoniae* strains were isolated. Although these patients were actually infected with ERY-resis-

4630

tant M. pneumoniae, macrolides were apparently effective after their first administration in six (ERY in cases 383 and 384, CLR in case 350, and AZM in cases 377, 378, and 381) of the ten patients for whom the clinical course was known. One possible explanation may be the anti-inflammatory effects of macrolides, which inhibit the production of cytokines such as proinflammatory tumor necrosis factor alpha, interleukin-1B (IL-1β), IL-6, IL-8, and so on rather than the antimicrobial effect (1, 7, 8, 21). Much more information is available about the immunopathological mechanisms of M. pneumoniae pneumonia, particularly with regard to a wide variety of cytokines. Among them, Th1-type cytokines (22) and IL-8 (14) might play significant roles in the pathomechanism. In this context, recent investigations have revealed that macrolides modulate the actions of these cytokines (5, 9). It is therefore a reasonable proposition that macrolides, particularly 14- and 15-membered macrolides, exert their clinical efficacy in the treatment of M. pneumoniae pneumonia through immunomodulation. Our results obtained for patients with ERY-resistant M. pneumoniae infection strongly suggest that the beneficial effects of macrolides in the treatment of M. pneumoniae pneumonia are not solely due to direct antimicrobial activity and support the idea that immunomodulatory effects of macrolides play an important role in recovery from the illness.

In conclusion, we found 13 strains of macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae* among 76 clinical isolates obtained during the period from 2000 to 2003, despite the fact that no resistant strain was found among 296 isolates from 1983 to 1998. The predominant mutation was A2063G in domain V of 23S rRNA (10 of 13 resistant strains), and mutations involving either A2063 or A2064 resulted in high MICs to macrolide antibiotics. On the other hand, mutations involving C2617 in domain V of 23S rRNA generated less resistance to ERY than mutations involving A2063 or A2064. Our results indicate that macrolideresistant *M. pneumoniae* is spreading in Japan, and it will be necessary to reconsider the effectiveness of macrolides in the treatment of patients with *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Satoshi Yamada of Tonden Children's Clinic, Sapporo, Japan, and Shohei Harada of Ikeda Municipal Hospital for isolating the *M. pneumoniae* clinical strains.

This study was partly supported by a Grant for Studies on Emergency and Re-emergency Infectious Diseases (H15-Shinko-24) from the MHLW.

REFERENCES

- Abe, S., H. Nakamura, S. Inoue, H. Takeda, H. Saito, S. Kato, N. Mukaida, K. Matsushima, and H. Tomoike. 2000. Interleukin-8 gene repression by clarithromycin is mediated by the activator protein-1 binding site in human bronchial epithelial cells. Am. J. Respir. Cell Mol. Biol. 22:51-60.
- Canu, A., B. Malbruny, M. Coquemont, T. A. Davies, P. C. Appelbaum, and R. Leclercq. 2002. Diversity of ribosomal mutations conferring resistance to macrolides, clindamycin, streptogramin, and telithromycin in *Streptococcus* pneumoniae. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 46:125-131.
- Douthwaite, S., L. H. Hansen, and P. Mauvais. 2000. Macrolide-ketolide inhibition of MLS-resistant ribosomes is improved by alternative drug interaction with domain II of 23S rRNA. Mol. Microbiol. 36:183–193.

- Gregory, S. T., and A. E. Dahlberg. 1999. Erythromycin resistance mutations in ribosomal proteins L22 and L4 perturb the higher order structure of 23 S rRNA. J. Mol. Biol. 289:827–834.
- Hardy, R. D., A. M. Rios, S. Chavez-Bueno, H. S. Jafri, J. Hatfield, B. B. Rogers, G. H. McCracken, and O. Ramilo. 2003. Antimicrobial and immunologic activities of clarithromycin in a murine model of *M. pneumoniae*-induced pneumonia. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 47:1614–1620.
- Hayflick, L. 1965. Tissue cultures and mycoplasmas. Tex. Rep. Biol. Med. 23(Suppl. 1):285–303.
- Ichiyama, T., M. Nishikawa, T. Yoshitomi, S. Hasegawa, T. Matsubara, T. Hayashi, and S. Furukawa. 2001. Clarithromycin inhibits NF-κB activation in human peripheral blood mononuclear cells and pulmonary epithelial cells. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 45:44–47.
- Kohyama, T., H. Takizawa, S. Kawasaki, N. Akiyama, M. Sato, and K. Ito. 1999. Fourteen-member macrolides inhibit interleukin-8 release by human eosinophils from atopic donors. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 43:907– 911.
- Labro MT. 1998. Anti-inflammatory activity of macrolides: a new therapeutic potential? J. Antimicrob. Chemother. 41(Suppl. B):37–46.
- Lucier, T. S., K. Heitzman, S.-K. Liu, and P.-C. Hu. 1995. Transition mutations in the 23S rRNA of erythromycin-resistant isolates of *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 39:2770-2773.
- Malbruny, B., K. Nagai, M. Coquemont, B. Bozdogan, A. T. Andrasevic, H. Hupkova, R. Leclercq, and P. C. Appelbaum. 2002. Resistance to macrolides in clinical isolates of *Streptococcus pyogenes* due to ribosomal mutations. J. Antimicrob. Chem. 49:935–939.
- Misyurina, O. Y., E. V. Chipitsyna, Y. P. Finashutina, V. N. Lazarev, T. A. Akopian, A. M. Savicheva, and V. M. Govorun. 2004. Mutations in a 23S rRNA gene of *Chlamydia trachomatis* associated with resistance to macrolides. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 48:1347-1349.
- Nakajima, Y. 1999. Mechanisms of bacterial resistance to macrolide antibiotics. J. Infect. Chemother. 5:61-74.
- Narita, M., H. Tanak, S. Yamada, S. Abe, T. Ariga, and Y. Sakiyama. 2001.
 Significant role of interleukin-8 in pathogenesis of pulmonary disease due to M. pneumoniae infection. Clin. Diagn. Lab. Immunol. 8:1028–1030.
- Ng, L.-K., I. Martin, G. Liu, and L. Bryden. 2002. Mutation in 23S rRNA associated with macrolide resistance in *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 46:3020-3025.
- Niitu, Y., S. Hasegawa, T. Suetake, H. Kubota, S. Komatsu, and M. Horikawa. 1970. Resistance of Mycoplasma pneumoniae to erythromycin and other antibiotics. J. Pediatr. 76:438-443.
- Okazaki, N., M. Narita, S. Yamada, K. Izumikawa, M. Umetsu, K. Kenri, Y. Sasaki, Y. Arakawa, and T. Sasaki. 2001. Characteristics of macrolide-resistant Mycoplasma pneumoniae strains isolated from patients and induced with erythromycin in vitro. Microbiol. Immunol. 45:617–620.
- 18. Pereyre, S., P. Gonzalez, B. de Barbeyrac, A. Darnige, H. Renaudin, A. Charron, S. Raherison, C. Bébéar, and C. M. Bébéar. 2002. Mutations in 23S rRNA account for intrinsic resistance to macrolides in Mycoplasma hominis and Mycoplasma fermentans and for acquired resistance to macrolides in M. hominis. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 46:3142–3150.
- Sasaki T, T. Kenri, N. Okazaki, M. Iseki, R. Yamashita, M. Shintani, T. Sasaki, and M. Yayoshi. 1996. Epidemiological study of Mycoplasma pneumoniae infections in Japan based on PCR-restriction fragment length polymorphism of the P1 cytadhesin gene. J. Clin. Microbiol. 34:447–449.
- Stopler, T., and D. Branski. 1986. Resistance of Mycoplasma pneumoniae to macrolides, lincomycin, and streptogramin B. J. Antimicrob. Chemother. 18:359–364
- Takizawa, H., M. Desaki, T. Ohitoshi, T. Kikutani, H. Okazaki, M. Sato, N. Akiyama, S. Shoji, K. Hiramatsu, and K. Ito. 1995. Erythromycin suppresses interleukin 6 expression by human bronchial epithelial cells: a potential mechanism of its anti-inflammatory action. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 210:781-786.
- Tanaka, H., M. Narita, S. Teramoto, T. Saikai, K. Osahi, T. Igarashi, and S. Abe. 2002. Role of interleukin-18 and T-helper type 1 cytokines in the development of M. pneumoniae pneumonia in adults. Chest 121:1493–1497.
- Vannuffel, P., M. Di Giambattista, E. A. Morgan, and C. Cocito. 1992. Identification of a single base change in rRNA leading to erythromycin resistance. J. Biol. Chem. 267:8377-8382.
- Vester, B., and S. Douthwaite. 2001. Macrolide resistance conferred by base substitutions in 23S rRNA. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 45:1–12.
- 25. Weisblum, B. 1998. Macrolide resistance. Drug Resist. Updates 1:29-41.
- Weisblum, B. 1995. Erythromycin resistance by ribosome modification. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 39:577–585.

Current status of macrolide-resistant Mycoplasma pneumoniae in Japan.

NARITA Mitsuo.

Department of Pediatrics, Sapporo Tetsudo Hospital. N 3 E 1 Chuo-ku, Sapporo 060-0033, Japan. <naritamy@d5.dion.ne.jp>

Key words: 23S ribosomal RNA, immunomodulatory action, anti-inflammatory effects

Abstract.

Four cases with *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* pneumonia were presented from which macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae* strains were isolated. Three kinds of a point mutation were identified in 23S rRNA of the isolates. Despite of having those mutations in their isolates, the patients were successfully treated by a macrolide therapy. As many as 17% of circulating strains of *M. pneumoniae* are macrolide-resistant currently in Japan. Nevertheless, apparently no serious problems have been reported to date that can be ascribed to those resistant strains. The efficacy of macrolides in improving the clinical picture of *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia, specifically concerning their immunomodulatory action with anti-inflammatory effects, is discussed.

Introduction.

Only a few studies on macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae* have been reported to date, and the clinical manifestations of infection with resistant strains of *M. pneumoniae* have not been sufficiently described. In this point, the author obtained a macrolide-resistant strain of *M. pneumoniae* for the first time in 2000 in Sapporo, subsequently in Ikeda in 2002, and noted that the clinical course of the patients did not necessarily indicate macrolide-resistance.

Case reports.

Case I was a 9-year-old girl having pneumonia in the left middle lung field diagnosed by her primary physician. Despite 7 days of treatment with intravenous clindamycin, the symptoms of fever and coughing continued and she developed right upper lobe pneumonia as well. The treatment was changed to an oral clarithromycin therapy and her sustained fever regressed sharply within 2 days and the abnormalities in chest radiograph improved in a week. Case 2 was a 12-year-old girl who was diagnosed as having left upper lobe pneumonia at the Ikeda Municipal Hospital. Her initial treatment with clarithromycin which had not been effective was replaced by azithromycin on the 3rd day of illness, and her fever subsided gradually taking over 3 days during the azithromycin treatment. Case 3 was a 2year-old girl who developed fever and coughing and was initially treated by cefditoren-pivoxil, an oral cephem, for 4 days without improvement. The treatment was changed to azithromycin therapy on the 5th day of illness when pneumonia was found in the left middle lung field. Her fever regressed next day. Case 4 was a 7-year-old girl who developed fever and coughing and came to the Ikeda Municipal Hospital. Her fever regressed within 2 days following the commencement of azithromycin therapy.

Methods.

For isolation of *M. pneumoniae*, throat swab samples were obtained at the first visit to hospitals and inoculated into PPLO liquid medium. Minimal inhibitory concentrations (MICs) were determined at the Kanagawa Prefectural Public Health Laboratories by a micro dilution method based on NCCLS. An MIC was recorded as the lowest concentration of antibiotic that suppressed the growth of *M. pneumoniae* when the color of the growth control medium changed. 23S rRNA gene sequences were determined at the National Institute of Infectious Diseases in Musashi-murayama by direct sequencing of PCR products.

Results.

Results of susceptibility testing for the isolates obtained from the 4 patients (designated as isolates 1-4) along with other susceptible isolates are shown in Table 1.

Unexpectedly in case 1, the isolate was resistant to clarithromycin which was clinically effective, and similarly in cases 2 and 3, the isolates were resistant to azithromycin *in vitro*. Isolate 4 showed various degrees of increases in MICs for macrolides. Direct sequencing of the domain V of 23S rRNA gene detected a point mutation of A2063G transition for isolates

Table 1. MICs of macrolides and other antibiotics for M. pneumoniae clinical isolates.

Antibiotics	Isolate 1 (A2063G)	Isolate 2 (A2063C)	Isolate 3 (A2063G)	Isolate 4 (C2617G)	Others (n=9)
Erythromycin	>12.5	>12.5	>12.5	3.125	0.006-0.012
Clarithromycin	>12.5	>12.5	>12.5	0.78	0.00048-0.003
Oleandomycin	>12.5	>12.5	>12.5	>12.5	0.049-0.195
Roxithromycin	>12.5	>12.5	>12.5	12.5	0.00152-0.003
Azithromycin	>12.5	>12.5	>12.5	0.012	0.000012
Josamycin	12.5	>12.5	12.5	0.049	0.006-0.049
Spiramycin	12.5	>12.5	12.5	0.78	0.012-0.195
Midecamycin	>12.5	>12.5	12.5	0.195	0.012-0.049
Kitasamycin	4	>12.5	4	0.195	0.006-0.012
Clindamycin	>12.5	>12.5	>12.5	2	3.125->12.5
Tetracycline .	0.39	0.39	0.39	0.78	0.195-0.78
Minocycline	Not tested	0.098	0.098	0.39	0.098-0.39

1 and 3, A2063C transversion for isolate 2, and C2617G transversion for isolate 4. A2063 is corresponding to A2058 in *Escherichia coli*, and C2617 corresponding to C2611.

Including the 4 strains presented above, a total of 13 strains of macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae* have been obtained (Table 2). A strain with A2064G transition was recently found. As many as 17% of circulating strains of *M. pneumoniae* were macrolide-resistant. Places of isolation are geographically distant from each other, therefore, this number of occurrence must represent the ubiquitous status in Japan. From the clinical point of view, not a single doctor who saw the patients in unrelated hospitals felt that macrolides were effective in 8 out of the 11 cases with resistant strain infection for which clinical records were available.

Discussion.Two points must be emphasized from this study. Firstly, the

frequency of resistant strains may actually have been increasing in recent years, because, among 296 isolates obtained in Japan during 1983-98, we could not find any resistant strain. Secondly, our routine drug susceptibility testing for *M. pneumoniae* clinical isolates might contribute to detect indwelling mutants such as isolates 3 and 4, for which, the clinical course did not show any drug resistance. This may have a significant implication as regards to the pathomechanism of *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia.

In this context, a concept of immunopathogenesis of M. pneumoniae pneumonia must be important. A glycolipid membrane of M. pneumoniae is a potent inducer of cytokines and much information available immunopathological mechanisms of M. pneumoniae pneumonia, particularly as regards to a wide variety of cytokines. Among them, the author and coworker, TANAKA Hiroshi of the third Department of Internal Medicine, Sapporo Medical University, have presented the data that IL-18 and IL-8 must play significant roles in the immunopathological mechanism. For this point, recent investigations have revealed that 14-and 15-memberedring macrolides can modulate the actions of these cytokines. It is, therefore, a reasonable assumption that macrolides exert their therapeutic effects on the treatment of M. pneumoniae pneumonia not only by their anti-microbial activity but also through their immunomodulatory action with anti-inflammatory effects.

Following the infection, *M. pneumoniae* slowly increases in number, taking 2 or 3 weeks of incubation. When the amount of bacteria reaches a certain level, a host recognizes the infection and elicits immune responses, initially by cytokines which may be evoked within hours, and later by specific antibody production which may take place within days. With the initiation

Table 2. Macrolide resistant *M. pneumoniae* isolated from patients and their information.

Mutation		Patient	Antimic	robial agents	Hospital/
	Age	Symptoms/Disease	1 st choice/Effect	2 nd choice/Effect	Institute
A2063G	9	Pneumonia	Clindamycin/-	Clarithromycin/+	Sapporo
	3	Pneumonia	Unknown		Kochi
	4	Pneumonia	Unknown		Kochi
	2	Pneumonia	Cefditoren Pivoxil/	Azithromycin/+	Sapporo
	9	Pneumonia	Clarithromycin/-	Azithromycin/-	Chigasaki
	11	Pneumonia	Clarithromycin/-	Minocycline/+	Chigasaki
	11	Pneumonia	Azithromycin/+		Chigasaki
	7	Pneumonia	Rokitamycin/-	Azithromycin/-	Chigasaki
	7	Pneumonia	Cefdinir, Fosmicin/-	Erythromycin/+	Chigasaki
	?	Pneumonia, Pleuritis	Clarithromycin/+		Kanagawa
A2063C	12	Pneumonia	Clarithromycin/-	Azithromycin/+	Ikeda
A2064G	5	Bronchitis	Cefactor/—	Erythromycin/+	Chigasaki
C2617G	7	Fever and Cough	Azithromycin/+		Ikeda

Effect; +; Clinically improved, -; Clinically no effect

Clinical efficacy of macrolides;

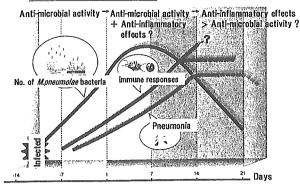


Figure. Hypothetical presentation of clinical efficacy of macrolides in the treatment of *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia.

of these host immune responses, propagation of M. pneumoniae becomes to be suppressed and at the same time, on the other hand, the pathological feature of pneumonia appears. Later in the course, the host immune responses achieve a plateau, pneumonia begins to resolve, and it disappears usually with a 2 or 3 weeks of self-limited natural course. Our results strongly suggest that the beneficial effects of macrolides for the treatment of M. pneumoniae pneumonia are not solely dependent on their direct antimicrobial activity, and the author believes that the immunomodulatory action must play an important role. That is, in the early phase of infection, certainly, the anti-microbial activity is critical to suppress the propagation of M. pneumoniae. In the middle phase of infection, the immunomodulatory action becomes to be necessary. In the later phase of infection, the antiinflammatory effects, even more than the anti-microbial activity, may become important for the clinical efficacy of macrolides in terms of improving the clinical picture of pneumonia. The efficacy of macrolides unexpectedly observed in the course of macrolide-resistant M. pneumoniae pneumonia can be explained by this scenario.

Coworkers.

I thank the following persons very much for their collaborations and kind help: SASAKI Tsuguo, MATSUOKA Mayumi, KENRI Tsuyoshi and SUZUKI Satowa of National Institute of Infectious Diseases, OKAZAKI Norio and OHYA Hitomi of Kanagawa Prefectural Public Health Laboratories, YAMADA Satoshi of Tonden Children's Clinic (Sapporo), HARADA Shohei of Ikeda Municipal Hospital, TANAKA Hiroshi of Sapporo Medical University School of Medicine, YAMAZAKI Tsutomu of Saitama Medical University.

References.

Narita M, Tanaka H, Abe S, et al.. Close association between pulmonary disease manifestation in *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* infection and enhanced local production of interleukin-18 in the lung, independent of gamma interferon. Clin Diagn Lab Immunol 7; 909-14, 2000.

Narita M, Tanaka H, Yamada S, et al. Significant role of interleukin-8 in pathogenesis of pulmonary disease due to *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* infection. Clin Diagn Lab Immunol 8; 1028-30, 2001.

Okazaki N, Narita M, Yamada S, et al. Characteristics of macrolide-resistant *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* strains isolated from patients and induced with erythromycin in vitro. Microbiol Immunol 45; 617-20, 2001.

Tanaka H, Narita M, Teramoto S, et al. Role of interleukin-18 and T helper type I cytokines in the development of Mycoplasma pneumoniae pneumonia in adults. Chest 121; 1493-7, 2002.

Matsuoka M, Narita M, Okazaki N, et al. Characterization and molecular analysis of macrolide-resistant *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* clinical isolates obtained in Japan. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 48; 4624-30, 2004.

Infectious Agents Surveillance Report (IASR) http://idsc.nih.go.ip/iasr/index-j.html

検疫所のデング熱診断体制 3,成田空港検疫所で診断されたデング熱症例 4,輸入デング熱患者:東京都 5,フィリピン団体旅行で感染した3症例6,デング熱罹患後のADEM症例7,世界のデング熱・デング 出血熱8,デング熱媒介蚊の生態9,国内でのデング熱媒介蚊ヒトスジシマカの分布域拡大10,AH1型イ ンフルエンザウイルス分離:長野県11,ノロウイルス施設内集発:宮崎県12,鳥インフルエンザ通知13, クルーズ船関連レジオネラ症: 大阪15, 東京15, 愛知16, S. pyogenes 集団感染事例17, M. pneumoniae 増加の兆し18, 23価肺炎球菌ワクチンの感染防止効果19, デング熱: 豪州19, 世界のインフルエンザ20, インフルエンザ関連死亡: 米国20, 輸血関連 vCJD 可能性例: 英国21, ロタウイルスサー ベイランス: 豪州21, ワクチン安全性に関する国際委員会21, 日本の AIDS 患者・HIV 感染者の状況22

Vol.25 No.2 (No.288) 2004年 2 月発行

国立感染症研究所 厚 生 労 働 省 健 康 局 感 染 症

事務局 感染研感染症情報センタ 〒162-8640 新宿区戸山1-23-1 Tel 03 (5285) 1111 Fax 03 (5285) 1177 E-mail iasr-c@nih.go.ip

本誌に掲載された統計資料は、1)「感染症の予防及び感染症の患者に対する医療に関する法律」に基づく感染症発生動向調査によって報 告された,患者発生および病原体検出に関するデータ,2)感染症に関する前記以外のデータに由来する。データは次の諸機関の協力によ り提供された:保健所、地方衛生研究所、厚生労働省食品安全部、検疫所、感染性腸炎研究会。

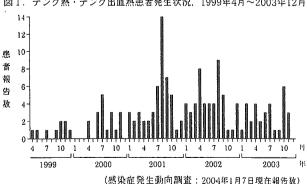
<特集> デング熱・デング出血熱輸入症例 1999.4~2003.12

デングウイルスはネッタイシマカやヒトスジシマカ の刺咬によりヒトに感染する (本号9ページ参照)。 デングウイルス感染により、デング熱とデング出血熱 /ショック症候群という2つの異なる病態を示す。デ ング熱は、発熱・発疹・痛み(関節痛)が3主徴であ るが致死率は低い。これに対して、1953年にフィリピ ンで初めて確認されたデング出血熱は、発熱・出血傾 向・循環障害を示し、適切な治療を行わないとショッ ク死する危険性が高い。わが国ではデング熱は1942 ~1945年にかけて西日本(長崎,佐世保,広島,呉,神 戸,大阪)の諸都市で流行したことが報告されている。 ウイルスは東南アジアから軍用船で帰国したデング熱 患者によって国内に持ち込まれ, 国内に生息するヒト スジシマカにより流行が引き起こされたと考えられて いる。現在、日本国内にはデングウイルスは常在せず、 国内での感染はない。しかし, デングウイルスが常在 する熱帯・亜熱帯地域の渡航先でデングウイルスに感 染し、帰国後発症する輸入例が毎年相当数存在する (本月報 Vol. 21, No. 6参照)。また,流行地域からの入 国者がわが国で発症する例もみられる。

	/グ熱患者報	告数, 1999~	-2003年
診断年	男性:	女性	습計
1999	7	2(1)	9(1)
2000	11	7	18
2001	31 (2)	19	50 (2)
2002	32 (2)	19 (1)	51 (3)
2003	20 (2)	11	31 (2)
計	101 (6)	58 (2)	159 (8)
1999年は	(~12月 ()	内はデング出	血奶例数耳提

(感染症発生動向調查: 2004年1月7日現在報告数)

図1. デング熱・デング出血熱患者発生状況, 1999年4月~2003年12月



感染症発生動向調査:1999年4月に施行された感染 症法では、デング熱は全数把握の4類感染症に指定さ れ,2003年11月の法改正後には同じく全数把握の新4 類に分類されている。感染症法施行後に届けられたデ ング熱患者は159例で、全例輸入例であった。1999年 (4~12月) 9例, 2000年18例と少なかったが, 2001年 は50例、2002年は51例と増加した。2003年は31例であっ た (表 1)。2001~2002年に増加したのは、世界的な流 行を反映していると思われるが、全数届け出疾患となっ たデング熱に対する医師の認識が向上し, デング熱と 診断される症例が増加したことも影響していると考え られる。

月別患者発生状況は、渡航先の流行時期および日本 からの海外旅行者数の変動、の二つの要因の影響を受 けると考えられる。患者が増加した2001~2002年は、 夏季または春季に多い傾向が認められたが、2003年は 重症急性呼吸器症候群 (SARS) 発生地域への渡航制 限が海外旅行全体に影響を及ぼしたためか、そのよう

表2. デング熱患者の	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	計
アジア						
タイ	2	3	23	18	6	52
インドネシア	1	3	10	13	7	34
フィリピン	1	3	8	5	1	18
インド	3	5	-		5	13
カンボジア	-	-	4	2	-	6
ミャンマー		-	1	3	2	6
マレーシア	-	1	1	2	1	5
バングラデシュ	2	1	-	1	-	4
ラオス	-	1	2	-	-	3
スリランカ	-	-	1	1	1	3
ベトナム	-	-	1	1	-	2
東チモール	-	-	-	1	-	1
ネパール	1	-	-	-	-	1
オセアニア・南太平洋	••••••				• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
ニューカレドニア	-	-	-	_	3	3
クック諸島	-	-	-	2	-	2
フィジー	-	-	-	-	2	2
仏領ポリネシア	-	-	2	-	-	2
パプアニューギニア	-	-	_	-	1	1
ミクロネシア	-	-	1	-	-	1
中南米						
- プラジル	-	-	1	2	1	4
コスタリカ	-	-	1	-	-	1
ボリビア	_	_	_	-	1	1
ドミニカ共和国	_	1	-	-	-	1
エクアドル	-	_	-	-	1	1
パラグアイ	1	-	_	-	_	1
例数	9	18	50	51	31	159

(2ページにつづく)

していたため,感染症および食中毒の両面から調査が 進められた。なお,他の宿泊グループのなかには発症 者はいなかった。

検査材料・方法:入院患者の咽頭ぬぐい液 12 検体,宿泊施設の調理従事者の咽頭ぬぐい液 4 検体,保存検食 7 検体,調理場のふきとり 10 検体について,血液寒天培地を用いて,直接および SEB 培地(ニッスイ)による選択増菌した後,塗抹し37 $^{\circ}$ $^{\circ}$

結果: 当センターにおける検査で、患者の咽頭ぬぐい 液12検体中10検体から Streptococcus pyogenes T28型(発熱性毒素 B+C産生)が検出された。宿泊施設の調理従事者 4 名の咽頭ぬぐい液,保存検食 7 検体,調理場のふきとり10検体から S. pyogenes は検出されなかった。

当該宿泊施設の調理従事者の咽頭および保存検食から菌は検出されず、他の宿泊グループからも発症報告はなかったことから、宿泊施設での食中毒は否定されたが、発症者数が各組ほぼ同程度であったこと、9~10日に集中した一峰性の患者発生パターンであったことから、本事例は単一曝露による集団感染の可能性が高いと考えられた。

東京都健康安全研究センター 遠藤美代子 奥野ルミ 畠山 薫 向川 純 柳川義勢 諸角 聖 東京都墨田区保健所・生活衛生課 笹井 勉

<国内情報>

マクロライド耐性 Mycoplasma pneumoniae 増加 の兆し

マイコプラズマは自己増殖可能な最小の微生物で生物学的には細菌に分類されるが、他の細菌と異なり細胞壁を欠くため多形態性を示し、ペニシリン、セフェム等の細胞壁合成阻害剤には感受性を示さない。マイ

コプラズマ肺炎は臨床的にクラミジア肺炎と類似しているため、治療においては両者に有効なテトラサイクリン系やマクロライド系の抗菌薬が一般に使用されているが、小児、特に新生児や乳児に対しては、下痢、大泉門の膨隆、骨の発育障害、黄歯などの副作用の観点からテトラサイクリン系薬剤より、エリスロマイシン、クラリスロマイシン、などのマクロライド系薬剤やクリンダマイシン(リンコマイシン系薬剤)を投与するのが一般的とされている。

これまで国内で分離された Mycoplasma pneumoniae に関するマクロライド薬剤に対する感受性成績が日本マイコプラズマ学会や日本感染症学会に報告されてきたが、少なくとも 5 年前まではマクロライド耐性 M. pneumoniae の報告はなかった。しかし、この $3\sim4$ 年前よりマクロライド耐性 M. pneumoniae の分離が目立つようになってきた。

表1は北海道,高知県、神奈川県で分離されたマクロライド耐性 M. pneumoniae の比率と耐性獲得に関与する 23S rRNA 遺伝子の変異パターンを示す。これらのマクロライド耐性 M. pneumoniae は、14員環(エリスロマイシン、オレアンドマイシン、ロキシスロマイシン、クラリスロマイシン)、15員環(アジスロマイシン)、16員環(キタサマイシン、ジョサマイシン、ミデカマイシン)マクロライドのいずれにも耐性を示すので、治療においては注意を要する。

現在のところ、マクロライド耐性 M. pneumoniae 感染症がとりわけ重症化しやすいという傾向は必ずしも認められておらず、通常の感受性菌による感染と臨床的に鑑別することは極めて難しい。したがってその治療はどうしても主治医の判断による経験的な治療にならざるを得ない。小児においては、14員環または15員環マクロライド剤の使用が主流である。ただ、マクロライド剤性 M. pneumoniae 感染患者においてもクラリスロマイシンあるいはアジスロマイシンを投与することによって症状が回復したケースはあった。一方、成人においては基本的には投薬のしばりが無いので、ミノサイクリン、シプロフロキサシン、ガチフロキサシン、スパルフロキサシン、レボフロキサシンなどのち状況に応じて適切な薬剤を選択すればよいと考えら

表 1. 患者	4分離マク	ロライ	ド耐性 <i>M</i>	. <i>pneumoniae</i> 株の特徴	ţ
---------	-------	-----	--------------	--------------------------	---

22 1 1	CH /J ME C / C /	T I IIII I IV. PITE CITION	MAC AND THE IN	
分離	分離年月	耐性株/分離株	耐性菌分離比	23S rRNA 遺伝子変
			率	異パターン*
			(%)	
北海道	2000/10~	4/26	15.4	A2063G, A2063G,
	2002/11			C2617G, A2063C
高知県	2001/9~10	2/6	33.3	A2063G, A2063G
神奈川県	2003/8~11	7/41	17.1	A2063G, A2063G
				A2063G, A2063G
				A2063G, A2063G
				A2064G

^{*.} *M. pneumoniae* 23S rRNA 遺伝予番号を示し、A2063G は 2063 番目の A が G に変異を起こしていることを示す。

れる。

In vitro 試験で確かめた結果, 23S rRNA 遺伝子の2063または2064番目のA(アデニン)が G(グアニン)または C(シトシン)に変るとマクロライド系に高い薬剤耐性を示す。また, 2617の C が G に置換した株も1株分離されたが, in vitro 試験においても本置換は低~中程度の耐性獲得に関与していることが明らかになった。

国立感染症研究所·細菌第二部 佐々木次雄 荒川宜親 札幌鉄道病院小児科 成田光生 神奈川県衛生研究所 岡崎則男 高知県衛生研究所 安岡富久

<国内情報>

23価肺炎球菌ワクチンの感染防止効果および医療 経済効果について

肺炎球菌は呼吸器感染症の主要な起炎菌であり、肺 炎症例の約30%は、この菌によって引き起こされると 考えられている1)。肺炎球菌感染症に対するワクチン としては、この菌が持つ莢膜を利用した23価多糖体ワ クチンおよび, 7価コンジュゲートワクチンがあるが, わが国で接種可能なワクチンは前者のみである。23価 肺炎球菌ワクチン接種により, 多糖体に対する抗体価 の上昇は見られるが2), 実際に感染防止効果があるか どうかという点に関しては、長い間、結論が得られて いなかった。このワクチンの添付文書の効能・効果欄 には、「肺炎球菌による感染症の予防」と記されている。 Jackson らは, 47,365人の65歳以上の高齢者に対して. 3年にわたる後ろ向きコホート研究を行い,2003年に その結果を公表した3)。その結論は、23価肺炎球菌ワ クチンは, 肺炎球菌による菌血症 (菌が血液から分離 される状態) がおこる割合を1,000人・年あたり, 0.68 (ワクチンを接種しなかった場合) から0.38 (ワクチン を接種した場合)に44%減少させることができるが, 肺炎に対する防止効果は見られないというものであっ た。1998年には、23価肺炎球菌ワクチンには肺炎防止 効果が見られないという二重盲研試験の結果も発表さ れている4)。

また、医療経済効果に関する検討では、米国において、23価肺炎球菌ワクチンの接種料金 \$ 12という前提で、1 接種あたり、\$ 6.68から \$ 10.91の経済効果があるとされている⁵⁾。 なお、日本における23価肺炎球菌ワクチンの薬価は¥5,053となっているので、米国と同様に論じることはできない。

文 献

- 1) Ruiz-Gonzalez, A et al., Am. J. Med. 106:385-390, 1999
- 2) 福見ら、感染症学雑誌 58: 495-511, 1984

- 3) Jackson, LA et al., NEJM 348: 1747-1755, 2003
- 4) Örtqvist, Å et al., Lancet 351: 399-403, 1998
- 5) Sisk, JE et al., JAMA 278: 1333-1339, 1997 国立感染症研究所·細菌第一部 和田昭仁 倉 文明 前川純子 池辺忠義 常 彬 渡辺治雄

<外国情報>

クイーンズランド州北部でのデング熱,2002年 —— オーストラリア

クイーンズランド州の北部では、国内感染によるデング熱患者発生の頻度が顕著に増加している。本報告では、2002年のこの地域におけるデング熱の発生状況について記載した。

Kuranda におけるデングウイルス 2 型患者の発生: 2002年 3 月上旬, Kuranda 在住の成人男性が, また中旬には同在住の成人女性が, いずれも EIA によりデング陽性との届け出があった。両者とも Kuranda から外部への旅行歴はなかったが, 女性患者はデング熱様症状を有しており, 彼女が働いている地元のホテルには同様の症状を有している従業員が他にも数人いた。調査の結果, 合計で21例がデング熱と確定し, そのうちの3例からデングウイルス2型が同定された。21例中18例はホテルの従業員または宿泊客(8例), ホテル付近に勤務または在住(10例)のいずれかであった。デングウイルスE遺伝子の分子生物学的解析では, タイから輸入されたデングウイルス2型に類似していた。

Townsville におけるデングウイルス 1 型患者の発生: 2002年 4 月中旬, Townsville から約40km 南に在住する成人男性が EIA によりデング陽性との届け出があった。患者には最近の海外または Kuranda への旅行歴はなかったが, ウイルスへの推定曝露期間中に,単独で Townsville の Railway Estate を日帰りで訪れていた。 1 週間後, HI テストによりデング熱と確定し, デングウイルス 1 型によるものと判明した。調査により, Railway Estate に住む成人女性が 4 月上旬に発疹を伴なう軽度の熱性疾患を有していたことが明らかとなり, 後に彼女はデング熱と確定された。

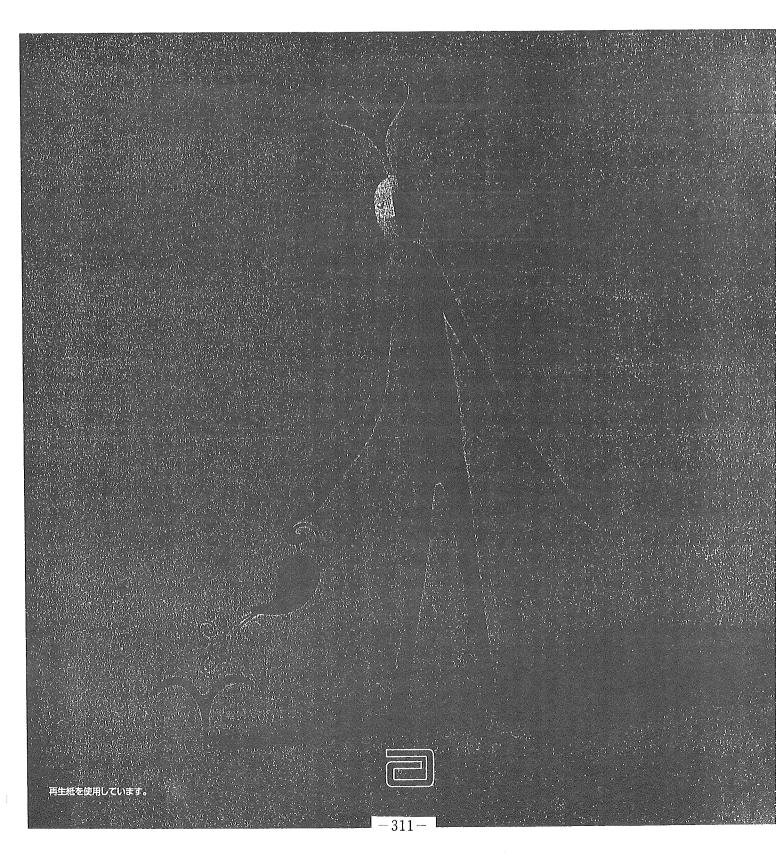
その後デング熱患者の発生はなく、デング1型患者の発生源は不明のままとなった。PCR 産物やデングウイルスは得られなかったため、分子生物学的解析は行えなかった。

Cairns におけるデングウイルス 4 型患者の発生: 2002年 5 月中旬, Cairns の北部郊外にある Smithfield に住む成人女性の血清から, PCR とウイルス分離の両方によりデングウイルス 4 型が同定されたとの届け出があった。患者はデング様症状を有しており, 最近のCairns から外部への旅行歴はなかった。しかし, 彼女の発症以前に,彼女のパートナーの男性がインドネシ

ラジオたんぱ・アボット感染症アワー・放送内容集 2003.9.5 ~ 2003.1 1:28

感染症と 化学療法

vol.7 **2**



マクロライド耐性肺炎マイコプラズマ感染症



札幌鉄道病院小児科 成田 光生 先生

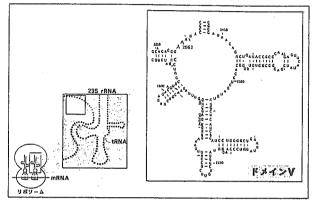
はじめに

マイコプラズマ肺炎の治療には一般的にマクロライド剤が第1選択として使用され、その他、テトラサイクリン系、リンコサミド系、さらに最近ではキノロン系の合成抗菌剤などが使用されていることは周知のとおりである。これはマイコプラズマは他の一般細菌とは異なり細菌壁をもたないため細胞壁合成阻害剤は機能せず、蛋白合成阻害作用をもつ薬剤が必要となるためである。この点について本稿の話題であるマクロライド耐性マイコプラズマを理解するために蛋白合成機構そのものを理解する必要があり、簡単に述べる。

マイコプラズマのマクロライド 耐性獲得機序

蛋白は細胞内のリボソームで合成される. リボソームはリボソームRNAと20種類以上の蛋白質から構成されている. このうちマクロライド剤が作用するのは23SリボソームRNAのドメインVと呼ばれる部分であり(図1), マクロライド剤はここに結合することにより, その機能を阻害し,蛋白合成を抑制する. したがって,ドメインV遺伝子に変異が生じてマクロライド剤が結合できなくなると蛋白合成を阻害できず, 抗生剤として機能しなくなる.

図 1 マクロライド系薬剤の作用部位



当科で経験したマクロライド耐性株 によるマイコプラズマ肺炎症例

我々は平成12年秋,札幌市において臨床的にクリンダマイシン耐性のマイコプラズマ肺炎症例の咽頭からマイコプラズマを分離し性状解析を行った¹⁾. その結果,その分離株は先述した薬剤耐性となる遺伝子変異を有する野生株であることが判明した。その後も日本各地から臨床的な印象から薬剤耐性とされたマイコプラズマ肺炎の症例が報告されている。本稿においては、まず札幌における最初のマクロライド耐性株による肺炎症例を紹介し、その後、マクロライド耐性マイコプラズマ肺炎について述べる。

●患者背景・初発症状・診断

症例は9歳,女児で,平成12年11月25日から39℃台の発熱が出現し,28日,近医の内科を受診し胸部写真にて左中肺野の肺炎と診断された。

❷近医での治療経過・検査所見

外来にて7日間連日クリンダマイシンの点滴

静注を受けたが改善せず、12月5日には右上葉にも無気肺像が出現、入院となった。白血球数 $5900/\text{mm}^3$,CRP 2.12mg/dLと炎症反応は軽度であった。

❸当科における治療経過・検査所見

当初からクリンダマイシン耐性マイコプラズマ肺炎と考え、クラリスロマイシン単剤にて治療を開始、2日間で解熱し、両肺野の陰影も速やかに改善した、マイコプラズマ抗体価は320~10.240倍に上昇した.

@薬剤感受性試験

1) 方法

本患者の咽頭から自家製のPPLO培地を用いマイコプラズマの分離を行い、神奈川県衛生研究所に分解株を送付し薬剤感受性試験を施行した。マイコプラズマは増殖速度が極めて遅いため、最初に分離株を純培養に近い状態で得るまで約4週間を要し、さらに薬剤感受性試験そのものに約2週間を要するため、結果が出るまでには少なくとも6週間程度は必要である。したがって、この感受性試験は今後のための研究的あるいは疫学的な点で非常に重要な意味をもつが、通常の細菌検査とは異なり、残念ながら、その株が分離された患者自身の治療には間に合わないのである。

2) 結果

検査の結果、本株はクリンダマイシンと同属のリンコマイシンのみならず、臨床的には著効を示したクラリスロマイシン、エリスロマイシンを含む14員環マクロライドに対しても高度の耐性を示した。また、ジョサマイシン、スピラマイシンなどの16員環マクロライドに対しても一定レベルの耐性を示したが、テトラサイクリンには感受性であった。

本例は筆者自身が治療した例であり,「クラリスロマイシンに変更後の急速な改善は単なる自然経過による治癒ということだけでは説明できない」という強い印象があったため,クラリスロマイシンにも耐性であったというのは意外な結果であった。実際に株が採取され,その性質が解析されていなければ,臨床的にはクリンダマイシンには耐性であっても,間違いなくク

ラリスロマイシンには感受性のマイコプラズマ と判断されていたであろう.

6 遺伝子解析

1) 方法

さらに、この株をいったん菌体を純培養にて 増やした後、PCR法にてさらに必要領域を増幅 し遺伝子解析を施行した

2) 結果

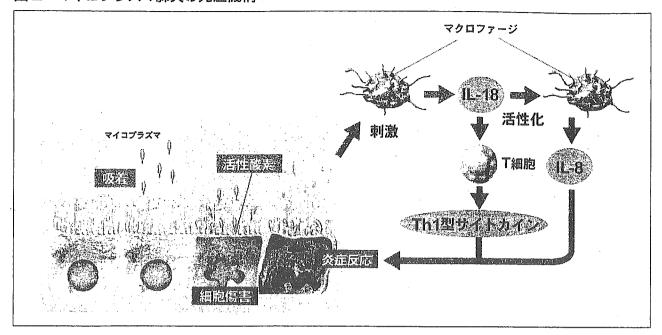
その結果、先述した23SリボソームRNAド メイン V の 2063 番目の塩基にあたるアデニン がグアニンに置換しているという遺伝子変異が 認められた、これにより23SリボソームRNA の立体構造に微妙な変化が生じ、マクロライド 系薬剤はその作用点を失うため、マクロライド のなかでもとりわけ14員環および15員環に対 して強い耐性が出現するのである. この2063 番目のアデニンは、たとえば大腸菌では2058 番目になるなど、厳密な数字は細菌の種類によ り異なるが、ここに相当する遺伝子変異により 大腸菌、ブドウ球菌、肺炎球菌、Helicobacter など他の一般細菌においてもマクロライド系お よびリンコサミド系の薬剤に耐性となることが よく知られているいわゆるホットスポットなの である2).

゚マクロライド耐性マイコプラズマ肺炎が 、マクロライド剤投与により臨床的に改善した理由

本例を含めた4株のマクロライド耐性マイコプラズマを分離したが、興味深いことに、4例すべてがマクロライド剤投与により臨床的には改善したのである。その理由について述べる。

現在までの研究ではマイコプラズマ自体には活性酸素を産生して呼吸器粘膜を障害する程度の能力しかなく、マイコプラズマ感染症における肺炎の病像は宿主の免疫応答により形成されているということは一般に認められている。この点に関し、マイコプラズマ肺炎の病変形成においてはマクロファージが起点となり、一方でTh1型サイトカイン産生の亢進により炎症が惹起される。もう一方ではIL-18を介したIL-8産生が重要な役割を演じている可能性がある(図2)。

図2 マイコプラズマ肺炎の発症機構



そこで注目されるのがマクロライドの新作用である. 14 員環及び15 員環マクロライドには気管支上皮細胞からのこれらのサイトカイン産生を抑制する作用があることが報告されている.

以上のようなことから、いまだ仮説の段階で はあるが、マイコプラズマ肺炎に対する14員 環及び15員環マクロライドの治療効果には抗 菌作用と免疫修飾作用の二面性があるのではな いかと考えられるのである. すなわち、病初期 の感染成立から増殖過程では当然ながら抗生剤 としての抗菌作用が主体であり、ここでは薬剤 感受性が重要な問題となる、この段階で、もし 感染した株がマクロライド耐性の場合には、抗 生剤としての臨床効果は発揮されないと考えら れる、その後、宿主の免疫機構が立ち上がって くると、その免疫機能によりマイコプラズマ自 体の排除が開始されるものの、その一方で肺炎 の病像が形成されてくる. この段階では抗菌作 用よりも免疫修飾作用が治療効果としての主体 となっているとすれば、マクロライド耐性マイ コプラズマ肺炎において分離株がin vitroでマ クロライド耐性であったにもかかわらず臨床的 に治療効果が認められた現象の説明が可能であ ると考える.

マクロライド耐性株によるマイコプラズマ肺炎の問題点

筆者の得た実際の evidence をもとにマクロライド耐性株によるマイコプラズマ肺炎の問題点をまとめる.

- 1) マクロライド耐性マイコプラズマは確かに 野生に存在するが、耐性株は決して感染力 も強いというわけではなく、たまたま1例、 そのような症例が出たとしても、それがそ のまま耐性株主体の流行となる傾向は現在 のところ認められていない
- 2) マクロライド耐性のメカニズムに関しては、マイコプラズマで実際に証明されたのはドメインVの点変異のみで、メチル化遺伝子や薬剤排出ポンプの存在は確認されていない.
- 3) 抗生剤に対する反応に基づく臨床的印象と 実際の分離株における耐性の有無は必ずし も一致しない.マイコプラズマ肺炎に対す るマクロライド剤の臨床効果が抗生剤とし ての作用のみではない可能性が示唆され, 今後の検討課題であると考えられる.

おわりに

マクロライド耐性マイコプラズマの研究は神 奈川県衛生研究所の岡崎則男先生および国立感 染症研究所の佐々木次雄先生を中心とする研究 室の方々との共同研究であり,謝意を表したい.

[参考文献]

- 1) 成田光生,中山雅之,山田論,岡崎則男,佐々木次雄 肺炎マイコプラズマ感染症における臨床的クリンダマイシン耐性について. 臨床小児医学 48;123-127,2000.
- 2) Norio Okazaki, Mitsuo Narita, Satoshi Yamada, Kin-ichi Izumikawa, Masao Umetsu, Tsuyoshi Kenri, Yuko Sasaki, Yoshichika Arakawa, Tsuguo Sasaki, Characteristics of macrolide-resistant strains isolated from patients and induced with erythromycin in vitro. Microbiol Immunol 45; 617-620, 2001.