

The total numbers of cells and macrophages in BAL fluid were significantly decreased, and the numbers of lymphocytes and eosinophils were significantly greater, after DEP exposure in *Nrf2*^{-/-} mice than in *Nrf2*^{+/+} mice. It is interesting that the changes in these differential cell counts in C57BL/6 *Nrf2*^{-/-} mice 8 weeks after DEP exposure were similar to those previously reported in C57BL/6 wild-type mice 6 months after DEP exposure [14]. IL-12 influences the cytokine profile after T-cell activation [30]. Eosinophil recruitment into inflammatory sites is a complex process regulated by a number of cytokines including IL-13 [31]. Our findings suggest that IL-13 may be involved in eosinophil recruitment into the airways of *Nrf2*^{-/-} mice after DEP exposure, possibly indicating the presence of novel lymphocyte-directed chemokines [32,33]. We found that the level of TARC, but not that of eotaxin or RANTES, was significantly increased. Dias-Sanchez et al. have suggested that the effects of DEP on cytokine/chemokine expression are not global or non-specific [34]. Among these CC chemokines, TARC was the first one shown to selectively chemoattract T lymphocytes [32]. TARC was subsequently identified by induction of T-cell chemotaxis, especially in Th2-type CD4⁺ T lymphocytes [33]. TARC is a pivotal chemokine for the development of Th2-dominated experimental asthma with eosinophilia and AHR [35]. Our present results indicate that TARC is also an important chemokine in the development of Th2-dominated oxidative stress-induced airway inflammation after DEP exposure.

Although it is reported that the effects of DEP-induced oxidative stress initiate and exacerbate airway allergic responses through enhanced IgE production [36,37], in the low-dose DEP exposure systems, no remarkable changes in IgE were evident in serum of *Nrf2*^{-/-} mice after DEP exposure.

In response to DEP exposure in the present study, there was increased induction of antioxidant enzyme mRNA in the lungs of *Nrf2*^{-/-} mice. γ -GCLm and GCLc are involved in glutathione (GSH) synthesis. GSH is the major intracellular thiol antioxidant that acts directly as a ROS scavenger. The GSH redox system plays a critical role in determining intracellular redox balance and antioxidant function [38]. GSR uses quinine oxidoreductase 1 (NADPH) for regeneration of reduced glutathione. G6PD, the enzyme involved in NADPH regeneration, was also considerably induced in *Nrf2*^{-/-} mice in response to DEP. Our data clearly show that *Nrf2* regulates several antioxidant enzyme genes that block oxidative stress and inflammation induced by DEP. The mRNA expression of other *Nrf2*-regulated antioxidant enzymes including GST- α 3, GST-p2, GST-M1, SOD2 and HO-1 also increased in the *Nrf2*^{-/-} mice. Our data indicate that *Nrf2* deficiency results in reduced gene expression of antioxidant enzymes that block oxidative injury, leading to enhancement of inflammatory cell activity and AHR.

It has been reported that the pathogenesis of allergic asthma is related to oxidative stress [16]. In conjunction with allergens, DEP act as an adjuvant to enhance allergic responses such as expression of cytokines/chemokines and increased AHR [12,39]. It is conceivable that DEP exaggerate allergic asthmatic responses, and that the responses result from oxidative stress induced by DEP exposure.

In this study we showed for the first time that disruption of the *Nrf2* gene facilitated susceptibility to airway inflammatory responses induced by inhalation of low-dose DEP in mice. These results strongly suggest that DEP-induced

oxidative stress and host antioxidant responses play a key role in the development of DEP-induced airway inflammation, and may contribute to exaggeration of lung diseases related to oxidative stress such as allergic asthma.

Acknowledgment

This study was supported in part by the Pollution-Related Health Damage Compensation and Prevention Association of Japan.

References

- [1] D.W. Dockery, C.A. Pope, X. Xu, J.D. Spengler, J.H. Ware, M.E. Fay, B.G. Ferris, F.E. Speizer, An association between air pollution and mortality in six U.S. cities, *N. Engl. J. Med.* 329 (1993) 1753–1759.
- [2] J.M. Samet, F. Dominici, F.C. Currier, I. Coursac, S.L. Zeger, Fine particulate air pollution and mortality in 20 U.S. cities, 1987–1994, *N. Engl. J. Med.* 343 (2000) 1742–1749.
- [3] G. Hoek, B. Brunekreef, S. Goldbohm, P. Fischer, P.A. van den Brandt, Association between mortality and indicators of traffic-related air pollution in the Netherlands: a cohort study, *Lancet* 360 (2002) 1203–1209.
- [4] A. Saxon, D. Diaz-Sanchez, Air pollution and allergy: you are what you breathe, *Nat. Immunol.* 6 (2005) 223–226.
- [5] D. Diaz-Sanchez, L. Proietti, R. Polosa, Diesel fumes and the rising prevalence of atopy: an urban legend? *Curr. Allergy Asthma Rep.* 3 (2003) 146–152.
- [6] H. Takizawa, T. Ohtoshi, S. Kawasaki, T. Kohyama, M. Desaki, T. Kasama, K. Kobayashi, K. Nakahara, K. Yamamoto, K. Matsushima, S. Kudoh, Diesel exhaust particles induce NF- κ B activation in human bronchial epithelial cells in vitro: Importance in cytokine transcription, *J. Immunol.* 162 (1999) 4705–4711.
- [7] H. Takizawa, S. Abe, H. Okazaki, T. Kohyama, I. Sugawara, Y. Saito, T. Ohtoshi, S. Kawasaki, M. Desaki, K. Nakahara, K. Yamamoto, K. Matsushima, M. Tanaka, M. Sagai, S. Kudoh, Diesel exhaust particles upregulate eotaxin gene expression in human bronchial epithelial cells via nuclear factor- κ B-dependent pathway, *Am. J. Physiol. Lung. Cell Mol. Physiol.* 284 (2003) L1055–1062.
- [8] S. Hashimoto, Y. Gon, I. Takeshita, K. Matsumoto, I. Jibiki, H. Takizawa, S. Kudoh, T. Horie, Diesel exhaust particles activate p38 MAP kinase to produce interleukin 8 and RANTES by human bronchial epithelial cells and N-acetylcysteine attenuates p38 MAP kinase activation, *Am. J. Respir. Crit. Care Med.* 161 (2000) 280–285.
- [9] G.G. Xiao, M. Wang, N. Li, J.A. Loo, A.E. Nel, Use of proteomics to demonstrate a hierarchical oxidative stress response to diesel exhaust particle chemicals in a macrophage cell line, *J. Biol. Chem.* 278 (2003) 50781–50790.
- [10] N. Li, M.I. Venkatesan, A. Miguel, R. Kaplan, C. Gujuluva, J. Alam, A. Nel, Induction of heme oxygenase-1 expression in macrophages by diesel exhaust particle chemicals and quinones via the antioxidant-responsive element, *J. Immunol.* 165 (2000) 3393–3401.
- [11] N. Li, J. Alam, M.I. Venkatesan, A. Eiguren-Fernandez, D. Schmitz, E. Di Stefano, N. Slaughter, E. Killeen, X. Wang, A. Huang, M. Wang, A.H. Miguel, A. Cho, C. Sioutas, A.E. Nel, *Nrf2* is a key transcription factor that regulates antioxidant defense in macrophages and epithelial cells: protecting against the proinflammatory and oxidizing effects of diesel exhaust chemicals, *J. Immunol.* 173 (2004) 3467–3481.
- [12] A. Matsumoto, K. Hiramatsu, Y.J. Li, A. Azuma, S. Kudoh, H. Takizawa, I. Sugawara, Repeated exposure to low-dose diesel

- exhaust after allergen challenge exaggerates asthmatic responses in mice, *Clin. Immunol.* 121 (2006) 227–235.
- [13] Y.J. Li, T. Kawada, A. Matsumoto, A. Azuma, S. Kudoh, H. Takizawa, I. Sugawara, Airway inflammatory responses to oxidative stress induced by low-dose diesel exhaust particle exposure differ between mouse strains, *Exp. Lung Res.* 33 (2007) 227–244.
- [14] Y.J. Li, T. Kawada, H. Takizawa, A. Azuma, S. Kudoh, I. Sugawara, Y. Yamauchi, T. Kohyama, Airway inflammatory responses to oxidative stress induced by prolonged low-dose diesel exhaust particle exposure from birth differ between mouse BALB/c and C57BL/6 strains, *Exp. Lung Res.* 34 (2008) 125–139.
- [15] T. Nguyen, P.J. Sherratt, C.B. Pickett, Regulatory mechanisms controlling gene expression mediated by the antioxidant response element, *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.* 43 (2003) 233–260.
- [16] T. Rangasamy, J. Guo, W.A. Mitzner, J. Roman, A. Singh, A.D. Fryer, M. Yamamoto, T.W. Kensler, R.M. Tuder, S.N. Georas, S. Biswal, Disruption of Nrf2 enhances susceptibility to severe airway inflammation and asthma in mice, *J. Exp. Med.* 202 (2005) 47–59.
- [17] H.Y. Cho, S.P. Reddy, M. Yamamoto, S.R. Kleeberger, The transcription factor NRF2 protects against pulmonary fibrosis, *FASEB J.* 18 (2004) 1258–1260.
- [18] T. Iizuka, Y. Ishii, K. Itoh, T. Kiwamoto, T. Kimura, Y. Matsuno, Y. Morishima, A.E. Hegab, S. Homma, A. Nomura, T. Sakamoto, M. Shimura, A. Yoshida, M. Yamamoto, K. Sekizawa, Nrf2-deficient mice are highly susceptible to cigarette smoke-induced emphysema, *Genes Cells* 10 (2005) 1113–1125.
- [19] Y. Aoki, H. Sato, N. Nishimura, S. Takahashi, K. Itoh, M. Yamamoto, Accelerated DNA adduct formation in the lung of the Nrf2 knockout mouse exposed to diesel exhaust, *Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol.* 173 (2001) 154–160.
- [20] K. Itoh, T. Chiba, S. Takahashi, T. Ishii, K. Igarashi, Y. Katoh, T. Oyake, N. Hayashi, K. Satoh, I. Hatayama, M. Yamamoto, Y. Nabeshima, An Nrf2/small Maf heterodimer mediates the induction of phase II detoxifying enzyme genes through antioxidant response elements, *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 236 (1997) 313–322.
- [21] M. Ramos-Gomez, M.K. Kwak, P.M. Dolan, K. Itoh, M. Yamamoto, P. Talalay, T.W. Kensler, Sensitivity to carcinogenesis is increased and chemoprotective efficacy of enzyme inducers is lost in nrf2 transcription factor-deficient mice, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 98 (2001) 2941–2943.
- [22] Y. Saito, A. Azuma, S. Kudoh, H. Takizawa, I. Sugawara, Long-term inhalation of diesel exhaust affects cytokine expression in murine lung tissues: comparison between low- and high-dose diesel exhaust exposure, *Exp. Lung Res.* 28 (2002) 493–506.
- [23] K. Hiramatsu, A. Azuma, S. Kudoh, M. Desaki, H. Takizawa, I. Sugawara, Inhalation of diesel exhaust for three months affects major cytokine expression and induces bronchus-associated lymphoid tissue formation in murine lungs, *Exp. Lung Res.* 29 (2003) 607–622.
- [24] E. Hamelmann, J. Schwarze, K. Takeda, A. Oshiba, G.L. Larsen, C.G. Irvin, E.W. Gelfand, Noninvasive measurement of airway responsiveness in allergic mice using barometric plethysmography, *Am. J. Respir. Crit. Care Med.* 156 (1997) 766–775.
- [25] S. Abe, H. Takizawa, I. Sugawara, S. Kudoh, Diesel exhaust (DE)-induced cytokine expression in human bronchial epithelial cells: a study with a new cell exposure system to freshly generated DE in vitro, *Am. J. Respir. Cell Mol. Biol.* 22 (2000) 296–303.
- [26] S.A. Shore, I.N. Schwartzman, B. Le Blanc, G.G. Murthy, C.M. Doerschuk, Tumor necrosis factor receptor 2 contributes to ozone-induced airway hyperresponsiveness in mice, *Am. J. Respir. Crit. Care Med.* 164 (2001) 602–607.
- [27] S. Finotto, G.T. De Sanctis, H.A. Lehr, U. Herz, M. Buerke, M. Schipp, B. Bartsch, R. Atreya, E. Schmitt, P.R. Galle, H. Renz, M.F. Neurath, Treatment of allergic airway inflammation and hyperresponsiveness by antisense-induced local blockade of GATA-3 expression, *J. Exp. Med.* 193 (2001) 1247–1260.
- [28] A.S. Leme, C. Hubeau, Y. Xiang, A. Goldman, K. Hamada, Y. Suzuki, L. Kobzik, Role of breast milk in a mouse model of maternal transmission of asthma susceptibility, *J. Immunol.* 165 (2006) 762–769.
- [29] P. Depuydt, G.F. Joos, R.A. Pauwels, Ambient ozone concentrations induce airway hyperresponsiveness in some rat strains, *Eur. Respir. J.* 38 (1999) 14125–14131.
- [30] S.L. Prescott, A. Taylor, B. King, J. Dunstan, J.W. Upham, C.A. Thornton, P.G. Holt, Neonatal interleukin-12 capacity is associated with variations in allergen-specific immune responses in the neonatal and postnatal periods, *Clin. Exp. Allergy* 33 (2003) 566–572.
- [31] M.E. Rothenberg, Eosinophilia, *N. Engl. J. Med.* 338 (1998) 1592–1600.
- [32] T. Imai, M. Baba, M. Nishimura, M. Kakizaki, S. Takagi, O. Yoshie, The T cell-directed CC chemokine TARC is a highly specific biological ligand for CC chemokine receptor 4, *J. Biol. Chem.* 272 (1997) 15036–15042.
- [33] T. Imai, D. Chantry, C.J. Raport, C.L. Wood, M. Nishimura, R. Godiska, O. Yoshie, P.W. Gray, Macrophage-derived chemokine is a functional ligand for the CC chemokine receptor 4, *J. Biol. Chem.* 273 (1997) 1764–1768.
- [34] D. Diaz-Sanchez, M. Jyrala, D. Ng, A. Nel, A. Saxon, In vivo nasal challenge with diesel exhaust particles enhances expression of the CC chemokines rantes, MIP-1 α , and MCP-3 in humans, *Clin. Immunol.* 97 (2000) 140–145.
- [35] S. Kawasaki, H. Takizawa, H. Yoneyama, T. Nakayama, R. Fujisawa, M. Izumizaki, T. Imai, O. Yoshie, I. Homma, K. Yamamoto, K. Matsushima, Intervention of thymus and activation-regulated chemokine attenuates the development of allergic airway inflammation and hyperresponsiveness in mice, *J. Immunol.* 166 (2001) 2055–2062.
- [36] M.J. Whitekus, N. Li, M. Zhang, M. Wang, M.A. Horwitz, S.K. Nelson, L.D. Horwitz, N. Brechun, D. Diaz-Sanchez, A.E. Nel, Thiol antioxidants inhibit the adjuvant effects of aerosolized diesel exhaust particles in a murine model for ovalbumin sensitization, *J. Immunol.* 168 (2002) 2560–2567.
- [37] J. Wan, D. Diaz-Sanchez, Phase II enzymes induction blocks the enhanced IgE production in B cells by diesel exhaust particles, *J. Immunol.* 177 (2006) 3477–3483.
- [38] A. Meister, Glutathione deficiency produced by inhibition of its synthesis, and its reversal; applications in research and therapy, *Pharmacol. Ther.* 51 (1991) 155–194.
- [39] Y. Miyabara, H. Takano, T. Ichinose, H.B. Lim, M. Sagai, Diesel exhaust enhances allergic airway inflammation and hyperresponsiveness in mice, *Am. J. Respir. Crit. Care Med.* 157 (1998) 1138–1144.

16S rRNA 遺伝子および ITS-1 領域をターゲットとした Invader 法による 23 菌種の抗酸菌の同定

—臨床分離株を用いた DDH 法との比較検討—

¹長野 誠 ²市村 禎宏 ¹伊藤 伸子 ²富井 貴之
³鹿住 祐子 ²武井 勝明 ^{4,5}阿部千代治 ³菅原 勇

16S rRNA 遺伝子および ITS-1 領域をターゲットとした Invader 法による 23 菌種の抗酸菌の同定

—臨床分離株を用いた DDH 法との比較検討—

¹長野 誠 ²市村 禎宏 ¹伊藤 伸子 ²富井 貴之
³鹿住 祐子 ²武井 勝明 ^{4,5}阿部千代治 ³菅原 勇

要旨:〔目的〕われわれは、16S rRNA 遺伝子あるいは 16S-23S rRNA 遺伝子 internal transcribed spacer (ITS-1) 領域の菌種特異的塩基配列にプローブを設定することにより 23 菌種の抗酸菌を同定できる Invader 法を開発した。今回、多数の臨床分離株を用い Invader 法と DNA-DNA hybridization (DDH) 法の同定結果を比較検討した。〔方法〕2005 年 11 月～12 月の間に DDH 法による菌種同定を受託した小川培地培養菌 636 株を評価に用いた。Invader 法では 13 種類のプローブセットを用い、高温蛍光マイクロプレートリーダーで蛍光を計測することにより菌種を同定した。DDH 法、アンプリコア PCR 法、アキュプローブ法による測定はキットの添付文書に従った。同定不一致株については 16S rRNA 遺伝子の塩基配列を解析し菌種を決定した。〔結果〕今回調べた 636 株中 615 株 (96.7%) は Invader 法で同定可能であった。DDH 法で同定対象になっていない *M. lentiflavum* が 14 株、*M. parascrofulaceum* が 3 株、*M. intermedium* が 1 株 Invader 法で同定された。一方、DDH 法では、1 回目の測定で 636 株中 511 株 (80.3%)、2 回測定を繰り返すことにより 580 株 (91.2%) の同定が可能であった。Invader 法で複数菌種陽性となった 8 株を除いた 628 株のうち 551 株 (87.7%) の結果は Invader 法と DDH 法で一致した。両法の結果の不一致例は、主に *M. gordonae*, *M. avium*, *M. lentiflavum* あるいは *M. intracellulare* で認められた。同定不一致株について、16S rRNA 遺伝子のシーケンス解析などにより Invader 法の結果が正しいことを確認した。〔結語〕臨床重要な 23 菌種の抗酸菌の同定を目的とした Invader 法により、DDH 法に比べてより正確に抗酸菌種を分類および同定できることがわかった。また、臨床分離株のおよそ 97% がこの方法で同定可能であった。

キーワード: 抗酸菌の同定, Invader 法, 16S rRNA 遺伝子, ITS-1 領域, DDH 法

はじめに

非結核性抗酸菌による感染症は年々増加傾向にある¹⁾²⁾。現在、約 110 種類以上の抗酸菌菌種が知られており、それらは環境に広く分布している。その多くはヒトに対する病原性をもたないが、3 分の 1 程度の菌種はヒトに対して病原性がある。*M. avium* と *M. intracellulare* はヒトの日和見感染症の起原菌であり、わが国では非結核性抗酸菌の 70% を占める。また、*M. kansasii* も非結核性抗酸菌の起原菌であり全体の約 20% である。非結

核性抗酸菌は、臨床症状や病理組織学的所見だけでは結核との鑑別が困難な場合があり、また菌種により薬剤感受性が異なることから、適切な診断や治療のためには迅速な菌種の同定が要求される^{3)~5)}。

近年、遺伝子解析に基づいた様々な抗酸菌同定法が開発されている⁶⁾⁷⁾。16S rRNA 遺伝子⁸⁾⁹⁾、16S-23S rRNA 遺伝子 internal transcribed spacer (ITS-1) 領域¹⁰⁾、*hsp65* (65 kDa heat shock protein) 遺伝子¹¹⁾あるいは *rpoB* (DNA 依存性 RNA ポリメラーゼ β サブユニット) 遺伝子¹²⁾の塩基配列を解析し、相同性を調べる方法などが報告されて

¹株式会社ビー・エム・エル臨床ゲノム部、²同安全性試験部、³結核予防会結核研究所抗酸菌レファレンスセンター、⁴株式会社ビー・エム・エル、⁵日本ベクトン・ディッキンソン株式会社

連絡先: 長野 誠, 株式会社ビー・エム・エル臨床ゲノム部, 〒350-1101 埼玉県川越市市場 1361-1 (E-mail: nagano-m@bml.co.jp) (Received 9 Jan. 2008 / Accepted 17 Mar. 2008)

いる。日本では、主に以下の2種類のキットが広く使用されている。アキュプローブ法は16S rRNA の可変領域をターゲットとし、菌種特異的なDNAプローブを用いて、RNA-DNAのハイブリダイゼーション法により同定を行う方法である^{13)~15)}。同定可能菌種は、結核菌群 (*M. tuberculosis* complex), *M. avium* complex (MAC), *M. kansasii*, *M. gordonae*である。全染色体DNAをターゲットとしたDNA-DNAハイブリダイゼーション法のDDHマイコバクテリア「極東」(以下DDH法とする)は、マイクロプレートに固定した基準株DNAと被検菌DNAの全塩基配列の類似度を測定することにより菌種を同定する方法である^{16) 17)}。同定可能菌種は、結核菌群, *M. avium*, *M. intracellulare*, *M. kansasii*, *M. gordonae*, *M. chelonae*, *M. abscessus*, *M. fortuitum*, *M. scrofulaceum*, *M. marinum*, *M. simiae*, *M. szulgai*, *M. gastri*, *M. xenopi*, *M. nonchromogenicum*, *M. terrae*, *M. triviale*, *M. peregrinum*の計18菌種である。

われわれは、核酸を増幅することなく一塩基配列の違いを特異的に検出できるInvader法^{18) 19)}を抗酸菌同定に応用し、16S rRNA遺伝子とITS-1領域の菌種特異的配列を検出するInvader法による抗酸菌17菌種同定法を開発した²⁰⁾。今回、検出プローブを追加し、同定可能菌種数を23菌種としたInvader法の特徴をより詳細に検討するために、DDH法との結果を比較検討した。

材料と方法

(1) 使用菌株

2005年11月から12月までに株式会社ビー・エム・エル総合研究所にDDH法による同定依頼のあった、2%小川培地(極東製薬工業)に発育した臨床分離636株を対象とした。また、American Type Culture Collection

(ATCC)の18菌種19株と、Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen GmbH (DSMZ)の1菌種1株も2%小川培地に発育させた後、検討に使用した。

(2) Invader法

Invader法に用いたDNAは、DDH法でフェノール抽出後の水層残渣200 μ lからMagneSil(プロメガ)を使用して調製した。Invader法は以下の要領で行った。抽出したDNAを、384-wellプレートの所定のウェルに3 μ lずつ、1検体当たり26ウェル(13種 \times 二重測定)に分注した後、ミネラルオイル(シグマ)を6 μ l重層した。95 $^{\circ}$ Cで10分間処理しDNAを熱変性させた後、13種類のプローブ溶液それぞれ3 μ l (Signal probe/Invader oligonucleotide/FRET probe溶液2.6 μ lとCleavase酵素0.4 μ lの混合溶液)を所定のウェルに分注した(Table 1)。高温蛍光マイクロプレートリーダー(FluoDia T70, 大塚電子)にセット、64 $^{\circ}$ Cに保温し15分間隔で4時間蛍光を計測した。蛍光強度は、蛍光色素FAMは486 nm/530 nm(励起波長/蛍光波長)で、また蛍光色素Redmond REDは560 nm/620 nmで測定した。各検体につき、Broad-range bacteriaプローブの反応がプラトーに達した時間におけるGenus *Mycobacterium*あるいは菌種特異的プローブの蛍光強度からfold-over-zero (FOZ)¹⁹⁾の値を算出し、FOZ値が2以上の場合を陽性とした。なお、Broad-range bacteriaとGenus *Mycobacterium*のプローブのみ陽性であった場合を抗酸菌属細菌と、またBroad-range bacteriaプローブのみ陽性であった場合を抗酸菌属以外の細菌と判定した。

(3) DDH法

DDHマイコバクテリア「極東」(極東製薬工業)による菌種の同定はキットの添付書類に従い行った。1回目の測定で判定基準を満たさなかった被検菌株について

Table 1 Probe sets used for the Invader assay

Set no.	FAM dye	Redmond RED dye
1	<i>M. tuberculosis</i> complex	None
2	<i>M. avium</i>	<i>M. kansasii</i> / <i>M. gastri</i>
3	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	<i>M. chelonae</i> (ITS-1)
4	<i>M. abscessus</i> / <i>M. chelonae</i>	Genus <i>Mycobacterium</i>
5	<i>M. scrofulaceum</i>	<i>M. gordonae</i>
6	<i>M. fortuitum</i>	<i>M. farcinogenes</i> complex ^a
7	<i>M. peregrinum</i> / <i>M. septicum</i>	<i>M. porcinum</i> complex ^b
8	<i>M. terrae</i>	<i>M. nonchromogenicum</i> group ^c
9	<i>M. xenopi</i>	<i>M. intermedium</i>
10	<i>M. simiae</i> (ITS-1)	<i>M. lentiflavum</i>
11	<i>M. triviale</i>	<i>M. szulgai</i>
12	<i>M. gastri</i> (ITS-1)	<i>M. marinum</i> / <i>M. ulcerance</i>
13	Broad-range bacteria	<i>M. scrofulaceum</i> / <i>M. parascrofulaceum</i> (ITS-1)

^a*M. farcinogenes*, *M. senegalense* and *M. houstonense*

^b*M. porcinum*, *M. boenickei* and *M. neworleansense*

^c*M. nonchromogenicum*, *M. terrae*, *M. hiberniae* and *M. arupense*

は、再度測定を行い、2回目の測定においても判定基準を満たさなかったものを「同定不能」とした。

(4) アンプリコア™マイコバクテリウム アビウム、イントラセルラーおよびアキュブローブ マイコバクテリウム アビウム コンプレックス

アンプリコア PCR法は、Invader法で使用したDNAを用いて、アンプリコア™マイコバクテリウム アビウムおよびイントラセルラー (ロシュ・ダイアグノスティックス) の添付書類に従って測定した。また、アキュブローブ法は、小川培地菌株を用いて、アキュブローブ マイコバクテリウム アビウム コンプレックスキットおよびゴールドネ (ジェンブローブ) の添付書類に従って測定した。

(5) 16S rRNA 遺伝子 Top500 シークエンス解析

Invader法とDDH法で結果が一致しなかった株のうち、アンプリコアPCR法あるいはアキュブローブ法で確認できない菌種について、16S rRNA 遺伝子約1,500塩基のうちの5'側およそ500塩基 (Top500) の配列を解析した。Invader法で使用したDNA溶液1.0 μ lを用いて以下の条件でPCR反応を行った。PCR反応には、10 \times Buffer 5 μ l, 8mM dNTP 1 μ l, プライマー 2 μ l, 滅菌蒸留水40.5 μ l, AmpliTaq Gold (アプライドバイオシステムズ) 0.5 μ lを混和し反応溶液とした。プライマーは、Forward: 5'-TGGAGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG-3' と Reverse: 5'-TACCGCGCTGCTGGCAC-3'をそれぞれ0.4 nmol使用した。反応は、GeneAmp PCR System 9700 サーマルサイクラー (アプライドバイオシステムズ) を用い、95 $^{\circ}$ C 8分間の後、94 $^{\circ}$ C 30秒、60 $^{\circ}$ C 30秒、72 $^{\circ}$ C 45秒を35サイクル行うことによって、16S rRNA 遺伝子の5'側のおよそ500塩基を増幅した。PCR産物を3%アガロース電気泳動で確認した後、AMPure Kit (アジェンコート) を用いてDNAの精製を行った。サイクルシーケンスは、Big Dye terminator v1.1 cycle sequencing kit (アプライドバイオシステムズ) を用いて行った。CleanSEQ Kit (アジェンコート) を用いて精製した後、3130 ジェネティックアナライザー (アプライドバイオシステムズ) より得られた塩基配列データをRibosomal Differentiation of Microorganisms²¹⁾ (RIDOM; <http://www.ridom-rdna.de/>) にて相同性を調べ、基準株と98.5%以上一致した菌種で相同性最上位をその菌種として同定した²²⁾。なお、RIDOMデータベースで検索した結果、基準株と98.5%以上一致する菌種が存在しなかった株、あるいはRIDOMデータベースに登録されていない菌種が疑われた株については、Genbank (BLAST; <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/>) を用いて検索し、基準株と98.5%以上一致した菌種で相同性最上位をその菌種として同定した。

(6) *M. gordonae* の *rpoB* 遺伝子の PCR 制限酵素解析

Invader法で *M. gordonae* と同定された菌株について、伊藤らの方法²³⁾ に準じて *rpoB* の遺伝子型を決定した。PCR増幅産物を制限酵素 *Hae* III で消化した後、3%アガロース電気泳動のフラグメントパターンにより A・B・C・Dあるいはその他のクラスターに分類した。

結 果

(1) Invader法とDDH法の結果の比較

DDH法では、1回目の測定で636株中511株 (80.3%) の同定が、また、2回目の測定を実施することにより580株 (91.2%) まで同定が可能であった。しかしながら、同定菌種と培地上の集落の性状あるいは着色が一致しない株も存在した。一方、Invader法では636株中615株 (96.7%) が同定可能であった。Invader法で複数菌種陽性となった8株を除いた628株において、両同定法の結果の一致率は87.7% (551/628) であった (Table 2)。

(2) Invader法とDDH法の同定結果の乖離について

Invader法で *M. avium* あるいは *M. intracellulare* と同定された400株のうち、DDH法で結果が一致したものが15株存在した (Table 2)。これらの株のアンプリコアPCR法およびアキュブローブ法の結果は、Invader法の結果とすべて一致した (Table 3)。

Invader法で *M. gordonae* と同定された68株のうち、DDH法で *M. gordonae* と同定されたのは34株 (50.0%) のみであり、29株は同定不能、5株は *M. gordonae* 以外の菌種に同定された (Table 2)。これら68株の *rpoB* 遺伝子についてRFLP解析を行ったところ、クラスターAが9株、クラスターBが12株、クラスターCが16株、クラスターDが26株認められ、その他のパターンを示したものが5株 (パターンE 4株、パターンF 1株) 確認された (Table 4)。クラスターAの9株はすべてDDH法で *M. gordonae* と同定されたが、他のクラスターあるいは他のパターンに分類された株の同定には共通性が認められなかった。一方、*M. gordonae* の標準菌株である ATCC14470^T と ATCC35756 はともにDDH法で *M. gordonae* と同定され、*rpoB* の遺伝子型はクラスターAであった。

M. lentiflavum は、636株中14株 (2.2%) に検出された (Table 2)。この14株のうち7株は、DDH法で *M. simiae*, *M. intracellulare* あるいは *M. fortuitum* に同定された。なお、この7株はすべて、16S rRNA 遺伝子のシーケンス解析で *M. lentiflavum* と同定された (Table 3)。

DDH法で *M. scrofulaceum* と同定された5株のうち3株は、Invader法で *M. parascrofulaceum* と同定され、16S rRNA 遺伝子 Top500 の配列は、BLAST検索により *M. parascrofulaceum* の標準菌株 ATCCBAA-614^T の配列 (Accession No. AY337273) と完全に一致した (Table 3)。

Table 2 Comparison of the identification results obtained by Invader assay and DDH method

Mycobacteria identified by Invader assay	Testing by DDH method		
	No. of strains with agreed results	No. of strains with discrepant results	
<i>M. avium</i>	266	13	<i>M. intracellulare</i> (4), <i>M. terrae</i> (1), Unidentified (8)
<i>M. intracellulare</i>	119	2	
<i>M. gordonae</i>	34	34	<i>M. gastri</i> (3), <i>M. szulgai</i> (1), <i>M. xenopi</i> (1), Unidentified (29)
<i>M. kansasii</i>	51	0	
<i>M. fortuitum</i>	19	0	
<i>M. lentiflavum</i>	7 ^a	7	<i>M. simiae</i> (3), <i>M. intracellulare</i> (3), <i>M. fortuitum</i> (1)
<i>M. abscessus</i>	11	0	
<i>M. tuberculosis</i> complex	9	0	
<i>M. chelonae</i>	8	0	
<i>M. nonchromogenicum</i> group	3 ^b	5	<i>M. terrae</i> (1), Unidentified (4)
<i>M. peregrinum</i> / <i>M. septicum</i>	3 ^c	1	<i>M. gordonae</i> (1)
<i>M. szulgai</i>	3	0	
<i>M. terrae</i>	3	0	
<i>M. parascrofulaceum</i>	0	3	<i>M. scrofulaceum</i> (3)
<i>M. scrofulaceum</i>	2	0	
<i>M. porcinum</i> complex	0	2	<i>M. fortuitum</i> (2)
<i>M. xenopi</i>	1	0	
<i>M. intermedium</i>	1 ^a	0	
<i>M. simiae</i>	0	0	
<i>M. marinum</i> / <i>M. ulcerance</i>	0	0	
<i>M. gastri</i>	0	0	
<i>M. triviale</i>	0	0	
<i>M. avium</i> and <i>M. intracellulare</i>	0	5	<i>M. avium</i> (2), <i>M. intracellulare</i> (2), <i>M. abscessus</i> (1)
<i>M. avium</i> and <i>M. gordonae</i>	0	2	<i>M. avium</i> (2)
<i>M. avium</i> and <i>M. chelonae</i>	0	1	<i>M. chelonae</i> (1)
<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp.	7 ^a	8	<i>M. intracellulare</i> (2), <i>M. gordonae</i> (1), <i>M. szulgai</i> (1), <i>M. terrae</i> (1), <i>M. scrofulaceum</i> (1), <i>M. gastri</i> (1), <i>M. triviale</i> (1)
Other bacteria	4 ^a	2	<i>M. intracellulare</i> (1), <i>M. xenopi</i> (1)

^aThe result obtained by DDH method was unidentified.

^bThe result obtained by DDH method was *M. nonchromogenicum*.

^cThe result obtained by DDH method was *M. peregrinum*.

なお、RIDOMで検索した場合は、16S rRNA 遺伝子の超可変 B 領域を含まずに解析するため、*M. simiae* (ATCC 15080 株と 100%、ATCC14470^T 株と 99.3% 一致) と同定された。

M. nonchromogenicum group は、636 株中 8 株 (1.3%) に検出された (Table 2)。DDH 法で同定不能と判定された 4 株の 16S rRNA 遺伝子 Top500 の配列を調べた結果、No.187 株は BLAST 検索により *M. arupense* の基準株 AR30097^T の配列 (Accession No. DQ157760) と完全に一致し、No.626 株は 1 塩基の違いであった (Table 3)。一方、No.619 と No.625 菌株はともに RIDOM では *M. terrae* の S281 株 (sqvIII) と完全に一致し、BLAST 検索では *M. arupense* の基準株と 4 塩基異なるのが相同性上位であった。DDH 法で、*M. terrae* と同定された菌株 (No.318) も No.619 および No.625 菌株と同じ配列を有していた。

Invader 法で *M. porcinum* complex と同定された 2 株 (No.511 と No.518) は、ともに DDH 法で *M. fortuitum* と同定された (Table 2)。No.518 株の 16S rRNA 遺伝子

Top500 の配列は、*M. porcinum* の基準菌株 ATCC39693^T あるいは *M. neworleansense* の基準菌株 ATCC49404^T の配列と 100% 一致しており、一方、No.511 株は 99.8% の一致であった (Table 3)。なお、No.511 株は RIDOM では、*M. fortuitum* の S358 株 (sqvIV) と 100% 一致していた。また、Invader 法で *M. peregrinum*/*M. septicum*、DDH 法で *M. gordonae* と同定された No.543 株の 16S rRNA 遺伝子の配列は、*M. peregrinum* 基準菌株 ATCC700731^T あるいは *M. septicum* 基準菌株 ATCC14467^T の配列と 100% 一致していた。

Invader 法では、636 株中 8 株 (1.3%) で複数菌種陽性となった (Table 2)。No.75 の株を除き、DDH 法では、Invader 法で同定された 2 菌種のうちのいずれかの菌種で同定された。*M. avium* と *M. intracellulare* の両方が陽性となった 5 株はすべてアンプリコア PCR 法で *M. avium* と *M. intracellulare* の両者が陽性であった (Table 3)。

(3) Invader 法で抗酸菌属細菌あるいは抗酸菌属以外の細菌と分別された菌株

Table 3 Discrepant results in identification of *Mycobacterium* species except *M. goodnae* between Invader assay and DDH method

Strain	Invader assay	DDH method	Amplicor or AccuProbe ^{a,b}	16S rRNA sequencing ^a (%)
48	<i>M. avium</i>	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	<i>M. avium</i>	NT
230	<i>M. avium</i>	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	<i>M. avium</i>	NT
171	<i>M. avium</i>	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	<i>M. avium</i>	NT
217	<i>M. avium</i>	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	<i>M. avium</i>	NT
551	<i>M. avium</i>	<i>M. terrae</i>	<i>M. avium</i>	NT
15	<i>M. avium</i>	Unidentified	MAC	NT
145	<i>M. avium</i>	Unidentified	MAC	NT
282	<i>M. avium</i>	Unidentified	MAC	NT
324	<i>M. avium</i>	Unidentified	MAC	NT
363	<i>M. avium</i>	Unidentified	MAC	NT
476	<i>M. avium</i>	Unidentified	MAC	NT
481	<i>M. avium</i>	Unidentified	MAC	NT
489	<i>M. avium</i>	Unidentified	MAC	NT
567	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	<i>M. avium</i>	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	NT
614	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	<i>M. avium</i>	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	NT
111	<i>M. lentiflavum</i>	<i>M. simiae</i>	NT	<i>M. lentiflavum</i> (100)
345	<i>M. lentiflavum</i>	<i>M. simiae</i>	NT	<i>M. lentiflavum</i> (100)
135	<i>M. lentiflavum</i>	<i>M. simiae</i>	NT	<i>M. lentiflavum</i> (99.8)
70	<i>M. lentiflavum</i>	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	Negative	<i>M. lentiflavum</i> (100)
396	<i>M. lentiflavum</i>	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	Negative	<i>M. lentiflavum</i> (99.8)
544	<i>M. lentiflavum</i>	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	Negative	<i>M. lentiflavum</i> (100)
39	<i>M. lentiflavum</i>	<i>M. fortuitum</i>	NT	<i>M. lentiflavum</i> (100)
318	<i>M. nonchromogenicum</i> group	<i>M. terrae</i>	NT	<i>M. arupense</i> (99.1)
187	<i>M. nonchromogenicum</i> group	Unidentified	NT	<i>M. arupense</i> (100)
626	<i>M. nonchromogenicum</i> group	Unidentified	NT	<i>M. arupense</i> (99.8)
619	<i>M. nonchromogenicum</i> group	Unidentified	NT	<i>M. arupense</i> (99.1)
625	<i>M. nonchromogenicum</i> group	Unidentified	NT	<i>M. arupense</i> (99.1)
543	<i>M. peregrinum</i> / <i>M. septicum</i>	<i>M. goodnae</i>	Negative	<i>M. peregrinum</i> (100), <i>M. septicum</i> (100)
265	<i>M. parascrofulaceum</i>	<i>M. scrofulaceum</i>	NT	<i>M. parascrofulaceum</i> (100)
580	<i>M. parascrofulaceum</i>	<i>M. scrofulaceum</i>	NT	<i>M. parascrofulaceum</i> (100)
33	<i>M. parascrofulaceum</i>	<i>M. scrofulaceum</i>	NT	<i>M. parascrofulaceum</i> (100)
511	<i>M. porcinum</i> complex	<i>M. fortuitum</i>	NT	<i>M. porcinum</i> (99.8), <i>M. neworleansense</i> (99.8)
518	<i>M. porcinum</i> complex	<i>M. fortuitum</i>	NT	<i>M. porcinum</i> (100), <i>M. neworleansense</i> (100)
183	<i>M. avium</i> and <i>M. intracellulare</i>	<i>M. avium</i>	<i>M. avium</i> and <i>M. intracellulare</i>	NT
369	<i>M. avium</i> and <i>M. intracellulare</i>	<i>M. avium</i>	<i>M. avium</i> and <i>M. intracellulare</i>	NT
127	<i>M. avium</i> and <i>M. intracellulare</i>	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	<i>M. avium</i> and <i>M. intracellulare</i>	NT
581	<i>M. avium</i> and <i>M. intracellulare</i>	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	<i>M. avium</i> and <i>M. intracellulare</i>	NT
75	<i>M. avium</i> and <i>M. intracellulare</i>	<i>M. abscessus</i>	<i>M. avium</i> and <i>M. intracellulare</i>	NT
3	<i>M. avium</i> and <i>M. goodnae</i>	<i>M. avium</i>	MAC and <i>M. goodnae</i>	NT
449	<i>M. avium</i> and <i>M. goodnae</i>	<i>M. avium</i>	MAC and <i>M. goodnae</i>	NT
541	<i>M. avium</i> and <i>M. chelonae</i>	<i>M. chelonae</i>	MAC	NT

^aNT: Not tested, ^bMAC: *Mycobacterium avium* complex

Invader法で抗酸菌属細菌あるいは抗酸菌属以外の細菌と分別された検体は、636株中21株(3.3%)であった(Table 5)。21株のうち4株は、菌種特異的のプロープあるいは Genus *Mycobacterium* プロープがハイブリダイズする塩基領域内に1塩基の置換を有していた。なお、

No.279株は、BLAST検索で *Mycobacterium* 属 IWGMT 90174株と100%一致したが、基準株との相同性が98.5%を超えるものはなく同定できなかった。一方、抗酸菌属以外の細菌と判定されたものが6株存在した。No. 559株は、DDH法で *M. intracellulare*, 16S rRNA 遺伝子

Table 4 The results in identification of *M. gordonae* between Invader assay and DDH method

Invader assay	DDH method	AccuProbe ^a	rpoB-RFLP	No. of strains
<i>M. gordonae</i>	<i>M. gordonae</i>	NT	A	9
<i>M. gordonae</i>	<i>M. gordonae</i>	NT	B	4
<i>M. gordonae</i>	<i>M. gordonae</i>	NT	C	7
<i>M. gordonae</i>	<i>M. gordonae</i>	NT	D	13
<i>M. gordonae</i>	<i>M. gordonae</i>	NT	Other (E)	1
<i>M. gordonae</i>	<i>M. xenopi</i>	<i>M. gordonae</i>	B	1
<i>M. gordonae</i>	Unidentified	<i>M. gordonae</i>	B	7
<i>M. gordonae</i>	<i>M. gastri</i>	<i>M. gordonae</i>	C	1
<i>M. gordonae</i>	Unidentified	<i>M. gordonae</i>	C	8
<i>M. gordonae</i>	<i>M. gastri</i>	<i>M. gordonae</i>	D	2
<i>M. gordonae</i>	Unidentified	<i>M. gordonae</i>	D	11
<i>M. gordonae</i>	Unidentified	<i>M. gordonae</i>	Other (E)	3
<i>M. gordonae</i>	<i>M. szulgai</i>	<i>M. gordonae</i>	Other (F)	1

^aNT: Not tested**Table 5** The strains which were not identified by Invader assay (%)

Strain	Invader assay	DDH	AccuProbe ^{a,b}	16S rRNA sequencing ^c (%)
121	<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp. (Low signal for <i>M. gordonae</i>)	<i>M. gordonae</i>	<i>M. gordonae</i>	<i>M. gordonae</i> (99.3)
630	<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp. (Low signal for <i>M. gordonae</i>)	Unidentified	<i>M. gordonae</i>	<i>M. gordonae</i> (99.3)
279	<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp. (Low signal for <i>M. avium</i>)	<i>M. scrofulaceum</i>	MAC	Unidentified
451	<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp. (Only <i>M. terrae</i> probe)	Unidentified	NT	NT
402	<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp.	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	MAC	<i>M. intracellulare</i> (98.8)
72	<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp.	<i>M. gastri</i>	NT	<i>M. neoaurum</i> (100)
118	<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp.	<i>M. terrae</i>	NT	<i>M. neoaurum</i> (99.8)
640	<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp.	<i>M. szulgai</i>	NT	<i>M. neoaurum</i> (100)
32	<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp.	Unidentified	NT	<i>M. celatum</i> [ATCC51130] (99.8)
378	<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp.	Unidentified	NT	<i>M. celatum</i> [ATCC51130] (99.8)
335	<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp.	Unidentified	NT	<i>M. mucogenicum</i> (99.1)
514	<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp.	Unidentified	NT	<i>M. mageritense</i> (100)
9	<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp.	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	Negative	<i>M. chlorophenolicum</i> (99.8)
553	<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp.	<i>M. triviale</i>	NT	<i>M. fortuitum</i> complex ^c (99.3)
588	<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp.	Unidentified	NT	<i>M. asiaticum</i> (99.1)
559	Other bacteria (Low signal for Genus <i>Mycobacterium</i>)	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	MAC	<i>M. chimaera</i> (99.3)
246	Other bacteria	<i>M. xenopi</i>	NT	<i>M. heckeshornense</i> (100)
331	Other bacteria	Unidentified	NT	<i>Gordonia sputi</i> (100)
450	Other bacteria	Unidentified	NT	<i>Corynebacterium jeikeium</i> (99.8)
507	Other bacteria	Unidentified	NT	<i>Gordonia otitidis</i> (100)
573	Other bacteria	Unidentified	NT	<i>Tsukamulla tyrosinosolvans</i> (99.8)

^aNT: Not tested^bMAC: *Mycobacterium avium* complex^c*M. fortuitum* complex: *M. fortuitum*, *M. farcinogenes*, *M. senegalense*, *M. houstonense*, *M. porcinum*, *M. boenickei*, *M. neworleansense* and *M. mucogenicum*

Top500の配列はBLAST検索で*M. chimaera*の基準菌株ATCC44623⁷の配列と99.3%一致し、RIDOMでは、*M. intracellulare*のATCC35770株(sqvIII)と99.8%一致していた。

(4) DDH法による基準菌株の同定

臨床分離株を用いた検討から、DDH法で誤同定する可能性の考えられる菌種について、その基準菌株を用い

てDDH法を実施した結果をTable 6に示した。

考 察

今回、われわれの開発した16S rRNA遺伝子あるいはITS-1の菌種特異的塩基配列の検出により同定を行うInvader法と、全染色体DNAの相対類似度に基づき同定を行うDDH法との結果を比較検討した。その結果は、

Table 6 Testing of the type strains by DDH method

Species	Strain	Invader assay	DDH method
<i>M. tuberculosis</i> H37Rv	ATCC27294	<i>M. tuberculosis</i> complex	<i>M. tuberculosis</i> complex
<i>M. avium</i> subsp. <i>avium</i>	ATCC25291	<i>M. avium</i>	<i>M. avium</i>
<i>M. intracellulare</i>	ATCC13950	<i>M. intracellulare</i>	<i>M. intracellulare</i>
<i>M. fortuitum</i>	ATCC6841	<i>M. fortuitum</i>	<i>M. fortuitum</i>
<i>M. scrofulaceum</i>	ATCC19981	<i>M. scrofulaceum</i>	<i>M. scrofulaceum</i>
<i>M. szulgai</i>	ATCC35799	<i>M. szulgai</i>	<i>M. szulgai</i>
<i>M. xenopi</i>	ATCC19250	<i>M. xenopi</i>	<i>M. xenopi</i>
<i>M. simiae</i>	ATCC25275	<i>M. simiae</i>	<i>M. simiae</i>
<i>M. lentiflavum</i>	ATCC51985	<i>M. lentiflavum</i>	Unidentified
<i>M. parascrofulaceum</i>	ATCCBAA-644	<i>M. parascrofulaceum</i>	<i>M. scrofulaceum</i>
<i>M. neoaurum</i>	ATCC25795	<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp.	<i>M. scrofulaceum</i>
<i>M. heckeshornense</i>	DSM44428	Other bacteria	<i>M. xenopi</i>
<i>M. chlorophenolicum</i>	ATCC49826	<i>Mycobacterium</i> sp.	Unidentified
<i>M. farcinogenes</i>	ATCC35753	<i>M. farcinogenes</i> complex	Unidentified
<i>M. senegalense</i>	ATCC35796	<i>M. farcinogenes</i> complex	<i>M. fortuitum</i>
<i>M. houstonense</i>	ATCC49403	<i>M. farcinogenes</i> complex	<i>M. fortuitum</i>
<i>M. porcinum</i>	ATCC33776	<i>M. porcinum</i> complex	<i>M. fortuitum</i>
<i>M. neworleansense</i>	ATCC49404	<i>M. porcinum</i> complex	Unidentified

両測定法の原理が強く反映されたものであった。

Invader法は、プローブを設定した菌種特異的塩基配列に依存した反応であり、特にシグナルプローブが100%マッチした菌株DNAのみを検出するため、抗酸菌菌種同定において非常に高い特異性を有した方法であることが再確認された。DDH法で同定可能な18菌種および臨床分離株から比較的高頻度に分離される菌種の検出プローブを組み合わせ設定することにより、臨床分離株の約97%を同定することが可能であった。

DDH法では、同定対象になっていないが臨床検体から比較的高頻度に分離される *M. lentiflavum*, *M. parascrofulaceum*, *M. neoaurum* などの菌種や、'*M. gordonae*-like'²¹⁾を他の菌種に同定してしまうケースが確認された。また、DDH法では、*M. marinum*と遺伝学的に近縁な *M. ulcerans*と *M. shinshuense*を *M. marinum*と判定してしまう報告²⁴⁾や *M. heckeshornense*を *M. xenopi*と判定してしまう報告がある。さらに、*M. scrofulaceum*, *M. nonchromogenicum*あるいは *M. fortuitum*などの菌種では生化学性状による同定法との相関が悪いことが知られている^{25)~27)}。DDH法は、「基準株に対して染色体DNAの定量的DNA/DNAハイブリダイゼーション試験で70%以上の類似度があり、ハイブリッドの安定度 (ΔT_m) が5度以内に収まる菌株の集団を同一種とする定義²⁸⁾」に準拠した方法である。しかし、被検菌株が固相された菌種以外であってもこの判定基準を満たしてしまう例が散見されている。すなわち、DDH法の判定基準は相対類似度に基づいて18菌種を識別する基準となっているが、近年非結核性抗酸菌の新菌種の提案は急増しており、判定基準設定時に含まれなかった類縁菌種を同定する場合には特に注意

が必要である。

われわれの開発した Invader法による抗酸菌同定法も改善の余地はある。例えば、*M. nonchromogenicum*と *M. arupense*, *M. marinum*と *M. ulcerance* および *M. shinshuense*を区別することができない点である。このような場合は、種内で保存された菌種特異的な遺伝子配列を検索し、そこにプローブを設定することで分類が可能となる。なお、*M. arupense*は、2006年に *M. nonchromogenicum*に近縁な臨床分離株から同定された菌種²⁹⁾で、正木らが新菌種として報告していた *M. kumamotoense*³⁰⁾と同一菌種である。一方、データベースに登録されていない16S rRNA遺伝子配列を有する臨床分離株も稀ではあるが存在し、Invader法で同定できないケースもあった。この場合、プローブを数種類ミックスすることにより同定が可能となり、実際、*M. gordonae*はシグナルプローブを追加することによりNo.121とNo.630の株の同定が可能となった。さらに、*Mycobacterium* sp.と判定された株の同定率を上げるために、16S rRNA遺伝子の超可変A領域にプローブを設定することにより、データには示していないが、*M. neoaurum*³¹⁾, *M. celatum*³²⁾, *M. mucogenicum*³³⁾³⁴⁾, *M. mageritense*³⁵⁾および *M. heckeshornense*³⁶⁾³⁷⁾の同定が可能であることを確認している。

また、今回の検討では、さまざまな非結核性抗酸菌が同定された。*M. lentiflavum*は1996年にヒトの脊椎椎間板炎病巣から分離された菌種で、喀痰、胃液、尿などからも分離例が報告されている³⁸⁾。近年、分子遺伝学的同定法の進歩により、本邦での分離同定例も増加し、本検討でも臨床分離株の約2%が *M. lentiflavum*であった。また、*M. parascrofulaceum*は2004年に Turenneらによって

*M. scrofulaceum*や*M. simiae*として同定されていた ATCC 株の中から新菌種として提案された菌種であり^{39),40)}, *M. simiae*と相同性の高い16S rRNA 遺伝子と ITS-1 を有するが、生化学性状は*M. scrofulaceum*に類似し、*M. scrofulaceum*には存在しない16S rRNA 遺伝子の超可変 B 領域に存在する12塩基を有していることが特徴的である。この領域の12塩基配列は迅速発育菌と*M. simiae* complexの遅速発育菌での保有が確認されている。一方、ITS-1の領域は、*M. simiae*と*M. scrofulaceum*に非常に相同性の高い配列を有している。これまでに日本での*M. parascrofulaceum*の分離の報告はなく、本検討における分離例が初めてである。さらに、今回新たにプローブを設定した*M. farcinogenes*/*M. senegalense*/*M. houstonense*あるいは*M. porcinum*/*M. boenickei*/*M. neworleansense*の菌種と*M. peregrinum*と*M. septicum*などを加えたグループを「*M. fortuitum* complex」と称することがあるように、遺伝学的には非常に近縁な菌種である。*M. houstonense*, *M. boenickei*, *M. neworleansense*は、2004年に新菌種の提案がされる以前は、*M. fortuitum* third biovariant complexと分類されていた経緯がある⁴¹⁾。

近年、MGIT培地などの液体培地の導入や塩基配列解析などの遺伝子解析による同定方法の開発により、これまであまり同定されなかった菌種や新菌種が報告されるようになってきた。菌種の同定に基づき治療内容の選択が行われることから、正確にかつ臨床に重要な多くの菌種の同定が可能な測定系が望まれている。われわれの開発したInvader法による抗酸菌同定法は、これらの要求を満たした同定方法であり、臨床に広く使用されることを期待する。

謝 辞

本検討を実施するにあたり、多くのご助言を頂きました。広島県環境保健協会の斎藤肇先生に深く感謝致します。また、本報告にあたり株式会社ビー・エム・エルの江頭徹氏、霜島正浩氏および山本英俊氏のご協力に感謝致します。

文 献

- 1) 日本結核病学会非定型抗酸菌症対策委員会：肺非結核性抗酸菌症診断に関する見解—2003年。結核。2003；78：569-572。
- 2) 坂谷光則：非定型抗酸菌症。結核。2005；80：25-30。
- 3) American Thoracic Society, Medical Section of the American Lung Association: Diagnosis and Treatment of Disease Caused by Nontuberculous Mycobacteria. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 1997；156：1-25。
- 4) American Thoracic Society: An Official ATS/IDSA Statement: Diagnosis, Treatment, and Prevention of non-tuberculous mycobacterial diseases. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2007；175：367-416。
- 5) Ogata H: 非定型抗酸菌症の治療。日本医事新報。2002；4054：138-139。
- 6) Tortoli E, Bartoloni A, Bottger EC, et al.: Burden of unidentifiable mycobacteria in a reference laboratory. J Clin Microbiol. 2001；39：4058-4065。
- 7) Tortoli E: Impact of genotypic studies on mycobacterial taxonomy: the new mycobacteria of the 1990s. Clin Microbiol Rev. 2003；16：319-354。
- 8) Turenne CY, Tschetter L, Wolfe J, et al.: Necessity of quality-controlled 16S rRNA gene sequence databases: identifying nontuberculous Mycobacterium species. J Clin Microbiol. 2001；39：3637-3648。
- 9) Springer B, Stockman L, Tescher K, et al.: Two-laboratory collaborative study on identification of mycobacteria: molecular versus phenotypic methods. J Clin Microbiol. 1996；34：296-330。
- 10) Roth A, Fisher M, Hamid ME, et al.: Differentiation of phylogenetically related slowly growing mycobacteria based on 16S-23S rRNA gene internal transcribed spacer sequences. J Clin Microbiol. 1998；36：139-147。
- 11) Ringuet H, Akoua-Koffi C, Honore S, et al.: *hsp65* sequencing for identification of rapidly growing mycobacteria. J Clin Microbiol. 1999；37：852-857。
- 12) 鹿住祐子, 前田伸司, 菅原 勇: *rpoB* 遺伝子と16S rRNA解析による抗酸菌同定の試み。結核。2006；81：551-558。
- 13) Goto M, Oka S, Okuzumi K, et al.: Evaluation of acridinium-ester-labeled DNA probes for identification of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* and *Mycobacterium avium-Mycobacterium intracellulare* complex in culture. J Clin Microbiol. 1991；29：2473-2476。
- 14) Reisner BS, Gaston AM, Woods GL: Use of Gen-Probe AccuProbes to identify *Mycobacterium avium* complex, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* complex, *Mycobacterium kansasii*, and *Mycobacterium goodii* directly from BACTEC TB broth cultures. J Clin Microbiol. 1994；32：2995-2998。
- 15) Tomioka H, Saito H, Sato K: Identification of *Mycobacterium avium* complex strains belonging to serovars 21-28 by three commercial DNA probe tests. Tuberc Lung Dis. 1993；74：91-95。
- 16) Kusunoki S, Ezaki T, Tamesada M, et al.: Applications of colorimetric microdilution plate hybridization for rapid identification of 22 mycobacterium species. J Clin Microbiol. 1991；29：1596-1603。
- 17) 江崎孝之: DNAを用いた抗酸菌の迅速同定。結核。1992；67：803-806。
- 18) Fors L, Lieder KW, Vavra SH, et al.: Large-scale SNP scoring from unamplified genomic DNA. Pharmacogenomics. 2000；1：219-229。
- 19) Lyamichev V, Neri B: Invader assay for SNP genotyping. Methods Mol Biol. 2003；212：229-240。

- 20) Ichimura S, Nagano M, Ito N, et al.: Evaluation of the Invader assay with the BACTEC MGIT 960 system for prompt isolation and identification of Mycobacterial species from clinical specimens. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2007; 45: 3316-3322.
- 21) Harmsen D: RIDOM: Ribosomal Differentiation of Medical Microorganisms Database. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 2002; 30: 416-417.
- 22) Janda JM and Abbott SL: 16S rRNA gene sequencing for bacterial identification in the diagnostic laboratory: pluses, perils, and pitfalls. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2007; 45: 2761-2764.
- 23) Itoh S, Kazumi Y, Takahashi M, et al.: Heterogeneity of RNA polymerase gene (*rpoB*) sequences of *Mycobacterium gordonae* clinical isolates identified with a DNA probe kit and by conventional methods. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2003; 41: 1656-1663.
- 24) 鹿住祐子, 大友幸二, 高橋光良, 他: 皮膚から分離された *Mycobacterium shinshuense* の細菌学的解析. *結核.* 2004; 79: 437-441.
- 25) 長沢光章, 新井恵子, 森新眞一, 他: DNA-DNA マイクロプレートハイブリダイゼーション法による抗酸菌同定 (DDH マイコバクテリア '極東') の基礎的検討. *臨床機器・試薬.* 1993; 16: 141-145.
- 26) 山崎利雄, 高橋 宏, 中村玲子: マイクロプレートハイブリダイゼーション法による抗酸菌同定法の検討. *結核.* 1993; 68: 5-11.
- 27) 斎藤 宏, 長友雅彦, 中野雅信, 他: DNA-DNA Hybridization法を原理とする「DDH マイコバクテリア '極東」を用いた抗酸菌同定とその同定精度の検討. *JARMAN.* 1994; 6: 23-28.
- 28) Wayne LG, Brenner DJ, Colwell RR, et al.: International Committee on Systematic Bacteriology. Report of the ad hoc committee on reconciliation of approaches to bacterial systematics. *Int J Syst Bacteriol.* 1987; 37: 463-464.
- 29) Cloud JL, Meyer JJ, Pounder JI, et al.: *Mycobacterium arupense* sp. nov., a non-chromogenic bacterium isolated from clinical specimens. *Int J Syst Evol Microbiol.* 2006; 56: 1413-1418.
- 30) Masaki T, Ohkusu K, Hata H, et al.: *Mycobacterium kumamotoense* sp. nov. recovered from clinical specimen and the first isolation report of *Mycobacterium arupense* in Japan: Novel slowly growing, nonchromogenic clinical isolates related to *Mycobacterium terrae* complex. *Microbiol Immunol.* 2006; 50: 889-897.
- 31) Tsukamura M: A new species of rapidly growing, scotochromogenic mycobacteria, *Mycobacterium neoaurum* Tsukamura n. sp. (Japanese) *Med Biol.* 1972; 85: 229-233.
- 32) Butler WR, O'Connor SP, Yakus MA, et al.: *Mycobacterium celatum* sp. nov. *Int J Syst Bacteriol.* 1993; 43: 539-548.
- 33) Springer B, Böttger EC, Kirschner P, et al.: Phylogeny of the *Mycobacterium chelonae*-like organism based on partial sequencing of the 16S rRNA gene and proposal of *Mycobacterium mucogenicum* sp. nov. *Int J Syst Bacteriol.* 1995; 45: 262-267.
- 34) Adékambi T, Foucault C, La Scola B, et al.: Report of two fatal cases of *Mycobacterium mucogenicum* central nervous system infection in immunocompetent patients. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2006; 44: 837-840.
- 35) Domenech P, Jimenez MS, Menendez MC, et al.: *Mycobacterium mageritense* sp. nov. *Int J Syst Bacteriol.* 1997; 47: 535-540.
- 36) Roth A, Reischl U, Schonfeld N, et al.: *Mycobacterium heckeshornense* sp. nov., a new pathogenic slowly growing *Mycobacterium* sp. causing cavitary lung disease in an immunocompetent patient. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2000; 38: 4102-4107.
- 37) 鹿住祐子, 菅原 勇, 和田雅子, 他: 2症例から細菌学的に同定された *Mycobacterium heckeshornense* について. *結核.* 2006; 81: 603-607.
- 38) Springer B, Wu WK, Bodmer T, et al.: Isolation and characterization of a unique group of slowly growing mycobacteria: description of *Mycobacterium lentiflavum* sp. nov. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1996; 34: 1100-1107.
- 39) Turenne CY, Cook VJ, Burdz TV, et al.: *Mycobacterium parascrofulaceum* sp. nov., novel slowly growing, scotochromogenic clinical isolates related to *Mycobacterium simiae*. *Int J Syst Evol Microbiol.* 2004; 54: 1543-1551.
- 40) Tortoli E, Chianura L, Ffbro L, et al.: Infections due to the newly described species *Mycobacterium parascrofulaceum*. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2005; 43: 4286-4287.
- 41) Schinsky MF, Morey RE, Steigerwalt AG, et al.: Taxonomic variation in the *Mycobacterium fortuitum* third biovariant complex: description of *Mycobacterium boenickei* sp. nov., *Mycobacterium houstonense* sp. nov., *Mycobacterium neworleansense* sp. nov. and *Mycobacterium brisbanense* sp. nov. and recognition of *Mycobacterium porcinum* from human clinical isolates. *Int J Syst Evol Microbiol.* 2004; 54: 1653-1667.

Original Article

IDENTIFICATION OF 23 MYCOBACTERIAL SPECIES BY INVADER ASSAY
WITH TARGETING 16S rRNA GENE AND ITS-1 REGION
— Comparison with DDH Method in Clinical Isolates —

¹Makoto NAGANO, ²Sadahiro ICHIMURA, ¹Nobuko ITO, ²Takayuki TOMII,
³Yuko KAZUMI, ²Katsuaki TAKEI, ^{4,5}Chiyoji ABE, and ¹Isamu SUGAWARA

Abstract [Purpose and Method] The Invader assay was developed to identify 23 mycobacterial species using probes derived from the species-specific region of the 16S rRNA gene and the 16S–23S rRNA internal transcribed spacer 1 (ITS-1) region, with minor modifications of our previous study. In the present study, we compared the identification capability between the Invader assay and DNA-DNA hybridization (DDH) method. DDH is commonly used to identify non-tuberculosis mycobacterium in Japan and 636 clinical mycobacterial strains cultured on Ogawa slants were tested.

[Results] The Invader assay could identify 615 (96.7%) of the 636 strains. The results contained 14 *M. lentiflavum*, 3 *M. parascrofulaceum* and 1 *M. intermedium*, which were undetectable with DDH method. On the other hand, DDH method could identify 580 (91.2%) strains with duplicate assay. Of 628 strains except 8 strains identified as a few species by Invader assay, 551 (87.7%) strains were identified as the same species by two methods. Discordant results were mainly recognized for the identification of *M. gordonae*, *M.*

avium, *M. lentiflavum* and *M. intracellulare*. The results of other methods targeting 16S rRNA indicated correctness of the Invader assay.

[Conclusion] These results indicate that Invader assay could identify more correctly than DDH method and could identify about 97% of clinically important mycobacterium.

Key words: Identification of mycobacteria, Invader assay, 16S rRNA gene, ITS-1 region, DDH method

¹Development of Clinical Genomics, BML, Inc., ²Department of Microbiology, BML, Inc., ³Mycobacterium Reference Center, Research Institute of Tuberculosis, JATA, ⁴BML, Inc., ⁵Nippon Becton Dickinson Company, Ltd.

Correspondence to: Makoto Nagano, Development of Clinical Genomics, BML, Inc., 1361-1, Matoba, Kawagoe-shi, Saitama 350-1101 Japan. (E-mail: nagano-m@bml.co.jp)

Critical Involvement of Pneumolysin in Production of Interleukin-1 α and Caspase-1-Dependent Cytokines in Infection with *Streptococcus pneumoniae* In Vitro: a Novel Function of Pneumolysin in Caspase-1 Activation[∇]

Shereen Shoma, Kohsuke Tsuchiya,* Ikuo Kawamura, Takamasa Nomura, Hideki Hara, Ryosuke Uchiyama, Sylvia Daim, and Masao Mitsuyama

Department of Microbiology, Kyoto University Graduate School of Medicine, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606-8501, Japan

Received 15 September 2007/Returned for modification 7 November 2007/Accepted 8 January 2008

Pneumolysin is a pore-forming cytotoxin known as a major virulence determinant of *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. This protein toxin has also been shown to activate the Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4) signaling pathway. In this study, a mutant *S. pneumoniae* strain deficient in pneumolysin (Δ ply) and a recombinant pneumolysin protein (rPLY) were constructed. Upon infection of macrophages in vitro, the ability to induce the production of interleukin-1 α (IL-1 α), IL-1 β , and IL-18 was severely impaired in the Δ ply mutant, whereas there was no marked difference in the induction of tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α) and IL-12p40 between the wild type and the Δ ply mutant of *S. pneumoniae*. When macrophages were stimulated with rPLY, the production of IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18 was strongly induced in a TLR4-dependent manner, whereas lipopolysaccharide, a canonical TLR4 agonist, hardly induced these cytokines. In contrast, lipopolysaccharide was more potent than rPLY in inducing the production of TNF- α , IL-6, and IL-12p40, the cytokines requiring no caspase activation. Activation of caspase-1 was observed in macrophages stimulated with rPLY but not in those stimulated with lipopolysaccharide, and the level of activation was higher in macrophages infected with wild-type *S. pneumoniae* than in those infected with the Δ ply mutant. These results clearly indicate that pneumolysin plays a key role in the host response to *S. pneumoniae*, particularly in the induction of caspase-1-dependent cytokines.

Streptococcus pneumoniae is a gram-positive bacterium that causes bacterial pneumonia, otitis media, bacterial meningitis, and septicemia (32). Due to the severe disease burden and mortality, the emergence of drug-resistant clinical isolates (14, 36), the lack of a universally effective vaccine (17, 39), and an increase in the number of immunocompromised patients, it is increasingly important to understand the pathogenic processes of pneumococcal disease in order to develop novel therapeutic modalities and an effective vaccine.

Pneumolysin (PLY), a 53-kDa protein toxin produced by virtually all clinical isolates of *S. pneumoniae*, has been regarded as a key virulence factor of this bacterium (7) and as one of the candidates for vaccine development against pneumococcal infection (21). PLY is one of the cholesterol-dependent cytotoxins (24) that are known to form ring- or arc-shaped pores on cholesterol-containing membranes and whose activity is blocked by free cholesterol (40, 50). PLY is a multifunctional protein toxin that causes cytolysis and induces complement activation and the production of cytokines and nitric oxide (5, 9, 18, 33, 43). However, the mechanisms by which PLY affects the host defense are only partly understood.

In mammals, the sensing of microbial components by innate immune cells, such as macrophages and dendritic cells, is initiated by the recognition of conserved and unique pathogen-

derived structures via pattern recognition molecules, such as Toll-like receptors (TLRs) (31). TLRs, transmembrane proteins belonging to the Toll/interleukin-1 (Toll/IL-1) receptor family (16), mediate host immune responses by inducing proinflammatory cytokines and costimulatory molecules through the activation of nuclear factor kappa B (NF- κ B) and mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs) after recognition of specific agonists (19). Among several TLRs, TLR4 plays a critical role in the recognition of lipopolysaccharide (LPS), a major component of the outer membranes of gram-negative bacteria, in cooperation with LPS-binding protein, CD14, and MD2 (1, 25, 51, 53), and plays a critical role in the host defense against gram-negative pathogens (8, 37). Several recent studies have shown that the association of TLR4 with PLY (and other cholesterol-dependent cytotoxins) initiates an intracellular signaling cascade resulting in the activation of NF- κ B (20, 27, 41, 49, 51). For pneumococcal infection, Malley et al. (27) reported an important role of TLR4 in the host defense with the finding that C3H/HeJ mice, which display mutant nonfunctional TLR4, were more susceptible than wild-type (wt) mice to invasive disease after pneumococcal colonization in the nasopharynx. Moreover, a protective role of TLR4 in the pneumococcal pneumonia model was also reported (8). Thus, it appears that PLY, a TLR4 agonist in this gram-positive pathogen (27), is involved in the induction of a host protective response against *S. pneumoniae*.

Several reports have shown that proinflammatory cytokines, such as IL-1, tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α), IL-6, and IL-18, play protective roles against pneumococcal infection (22, 26, 48, 54, 55). Moreover, gamma interferon has been

* Corresponding author. Mailing address: Department of Microbiology, Kyoto University Graduate School of Medicine, Yoshida Konoe-cho, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606-8501, Japan. Phone: 81 75 753 4440. Fax: 81 75 753 4446. E-mail: tsuchiya@mb.med.kyoto-u.ac.jp.

[∇] Published ahead of print on 14 January 2008.

demonstrated to protect mice against infection with *S. pneumoniae* by promoting the accumulation of neutrophils in the infected lung (34). In addition, exogenous administration of IL-12 improved the innate defense against *S. pneumoniae* in the lung by inducing gamma interferon production (23). However, the involvement of PLY in the production of various cytokines induced in pneumococcal infections has yet to be clarified.

In the present study, we constructed an in-frame deletion mutant with a mutation in the *S. pneumoniae ply* gene and a recombinant protein of PLY to analyze the precise role for PLY in the host cytokine response to *S. pneumoniae*. Using an in vitro model of infection, we compared the levels of various proinflammatory cytokines secreted from macrophages, the cells comprising the front line of host defense and the innate immune response, after infection with the wt or *ply*-deficient mutant strain of *S. pneumoniae*. This study revealed a unique function of PLY in the induction of caspase-1-dependent cytokine production that could not be observed with LPS, a canonical TLR4 ligand.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Experimental animals. wt female C57BL/6 mice were purchased from Japan SLC (Shizuoka, Japan). C57BL/6 background TLR4 gene knockout (TLR4 KO) mice were purchased from Oriental Bioservices (Kyoto, Japan) and maintained in a specific-pathogen-free environment for use at 7 to 8 weeks of age. All animal experiments were approved by the Animal Ethics and Research Committee of Kyoto University Graduate School of Medicine.

Bacterial strains and growth conditions. A serotype 2 strain of *Streptococcus pneumoniae* D39 was purchased from the National Collection of Type Cultures (NCTC 7466; Central Public Health Laboratory, London, United Kingdom). *S. pneumoniae* was grown on tryptic soy agar (Difco Laboratories, Detroit, MI) with 5% (vol/vol) defibrinated sheep blood (Nacalai Tesque, Kyoto, Japan) and in Todd-Hewitt broth (Difco) supplemented with 0.5% yeast extract (THY) at 37°C and 5% CO₂ and subsequently stored at -80°C in THY plus 10% glycerol. For the preparation of bacterial stocks for macrophage stimulation, pneumococci were grown overnight on blood agar plates at 37°C and 5% CO₂. Colonies were inoculated into the THY medium, grown until mid-logarithmic phase (optical density at 600 nm [OD₆₀₀] = 0.5), and centrifuged at 6,000 × g for 15 min. The bacterial pellet was suspended in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and stocked at -80°C. The concentration was determined by viable cell counting on blood agar plates.

Construction of *ply* deletion mutant. A deletion mutant of *S. pneumoniae* D39 for the PLY gene (*ply*) was constructed by using homologous recombination-based allelic exchange. To generate the *ply* deletion, the upstream (733 bp) and downstream (692 bp) flanking regions of *ply* were PCR amplified from D39 genomic DNA, using the primer sets P1/P2 and P3/P4, respectively (primer sequences are given in Table 1). Primers P1 and P4 carried one BamHI site, and P2 and P3 carried HindIII sites in their 5' ends. Amplified fragments were digested with HindIII and ligated. The resulting fusion gene product was amplified by PCR using primers P1 and P4, digested with BamHI, and then ligated with BamHI-digested vector DNA (pTN-E18EM) (Amp^r Em^r). Plasmid pTN-E18EM is a pUC18-derived vector carrying ampicillin and erythromycin resistance genes and the multiple cloning site of pUC18. The erythromycin resistance gene (*ermC*) was amplified from plasmid pE194 by PCR and inserted into pUC18.

Transformation into *S. pneumoniae* and selection of *ply* deletion mutant. To carry out the transformation of the recombinant plasmid, frozen stocks of *S. pneumoniae* were thawed and diluted 1:20 in competence medium (tryptic soy broth [Difco], pH 8.0, 10% glycerol, 0.16% bovine serum albumin, 0.01% CaCl₂) containing competence-stimulating peptide 1 (100 ng/ml; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). *S. pneumoniae* D39 was preincubated for 20 min at 37°C and 5% CO₂ and then incubated for 1 h with approximately 1 μg of DNA. The cells were plated on blood agar containing erythromycin, and transformants were obtained. For the selection of the *ply* deletion mutant, transformants were grown in THY medium without antibiotics and plated on blood agar without antibiotics, and then colonies were plated on replica plates with or without erythromycin. Erythromycin-sensitive colonies were selected, and *ply*-negative mutants were con-

TABLE 1. Oligonucleotide primers used in this study

Primer	Nucleotide sequence (5'-3')
IL-1α-F	CTCTAGAGCACCATTGCTACAGAC
IL-1α-R	TGGAATCCAG-GGGAACACTG
IL-1β-F	AAGCTCTCCACCTCAATGGACAG
IL-1β-R	CTCAAACCTCCAC-TTTGCTCTTGA
IL-18-F	ACTGTACAACCCAGTAATACGG
IL-18-R	AGTGAACATTACAGATTATCCC
TNF-α-F	GGCAGCTACTTTGGAGTCATTGC
TNF-α-R	ACAITTCGAGGCTCCAGTGAATTCCA
IL-6-F	GAGGATACCACCTCCAAACAGACC
IL-6-R	AAGTGCATCATCGTTGTTCATACA
IL-12p40-F	TCCGGAGTAATTTGGTGCTTCACA
IL-12p40-R	GCAAGAGACACAGTCTCTGGG
GAPDH-F	TGCCAGAACATCATCCCTG
GAPDH-R	AACACGGAAGGATCCAGCCAG
PLY-F	CGATGGATCGTATGGCAATAAAGCAGTAA
PLY-R	ACGCGGTACCCTAGTCAATTTTCTACCTTAT
P1	ACACGGATCCCTAACAGGCATCCATCCACA
P2	GCGCAAGCTTGAGAATGCTTGGCAGC AAAA
P3	GCGCAAGCTTGAATCAGCCGTGGTTGGACT
P4	ACACGGATCCCGCAAGCCCTTTTCTAGC

ferred by PCR to have an absence of *ply*, using primers PLY-F and PLY-R (Table 1), and the presence of the upstream and downstream sequences of the *ply* gene. The absence of PLY in the *ply* deletion mutant was verified by Western blotting using a monoclonal antibody against PLY (NovoCastra Laboratories Ltd., Newcastle upon Tyne, United Kingdom).

Production and purification of rPLY. Full-length recombinant PLY (rPLY) was prepared as described previously (4). Briefly, the *ply* gene was cloned into the pQE-31 vector (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), and the recombinant vector was transformed into *Escherichia coli* SG13009 (Qiagen) harboring a pREP4 plasmid, which contains *lacI* and kanamycin resistance genes. rPLY was produced in *E. coli* cells as a six-His-tagged protein by incubation of the transformants with 2 mM isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactopyranoside (Nacalai Tesque) at 25°C for 6 h. The *E. coli* cells were then harvested by centrifugation, incubated with lysis buffer (50 mM NaH₂PO₄, 300 mM NaCl, 20 mM imidazole, 1 mg/ml lysozyme, 200 U DNase I, pH 8.0), and disrupted by vortexing with 0.1-μm zirconia-silica beads (Bio-Spec Products, Inc., Bartlesville, OK). rPLY was then purified from the soluble fraction by use of a nickel-nitrilotriacetic acid column (Qiagen) under native conditions according to the manufacturer's instructions. Contaminating LPS was extensively removed using a Detoxi-Gel endotoxin-removing gel (Pierce Chemical Co., Rockford, IL). The level of LPS in the rPLY preparation was determined by the Limulus Color KY test (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Osaka, Japan) and was found to be <0.4 pg/ml when the preparation was suspended in PBS at a protein concentration of 1 μg/ml. The purity was analyzed by Coomassie brilliant blue staining and immunoblotting using an anti-His-tag monoclonal antibody (penta-His antibody; Qiagen) after sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE).

To inhibit its cytolytic activity, rPLY was treated with 20 μg/ml of cholesterol for 30 min on ice (35). Heat-treated PLY and LPS were prepared by heating the aqueous stock suspensions, in 50% glycerol-water (vol/vol) for PLY and in PBS for LPS, in a boiling water bath for 60 min (27).

Isolation and stimulation of peritoneal macrophages. Peritoneal exudate cells were collected from C57BL/6 wt and TLR4 KO mice 3 days after an intraperitoneal injection of 4% thioglycolate medium (Eiken Chemical, Tokyo, Japan). Cells were cultured in 48-well plates (2 × 10⁶ cells per well) in medium consisting of RPMI 1640 (Gibco-BRL Life Technologies, Rockville, MD) supplemented with 10% (vol/vol) heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (Gibco) for 2 h at 37°C and 5% CO₂. After removal of nonadherent cells, the adherent cells were used as peritoneal macrophages and infected with wt *S. pneumoniae* and its isogenic *ply* deletion mutant (*Δply*) at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10 in gentamicin-free medium. To inhibit the growth of bacteria in the medium, 100 μg/ml of gentamicin (Gibco) was added to the cultures 8 h after infection, when the largest number of bacteria were associated with cells, and the cells were incubated for an additional 16 h. Supernatants were collected and stored at -80°C until they were assayed for cytokines. Similarly, peritoneal macrophages were stimulated with rPLY, LPS (from *E. coli* O55:B5; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO), or Pam₂CSK₄ (InvivoGen, San Diego, CA). In some experiments, polymyxin B

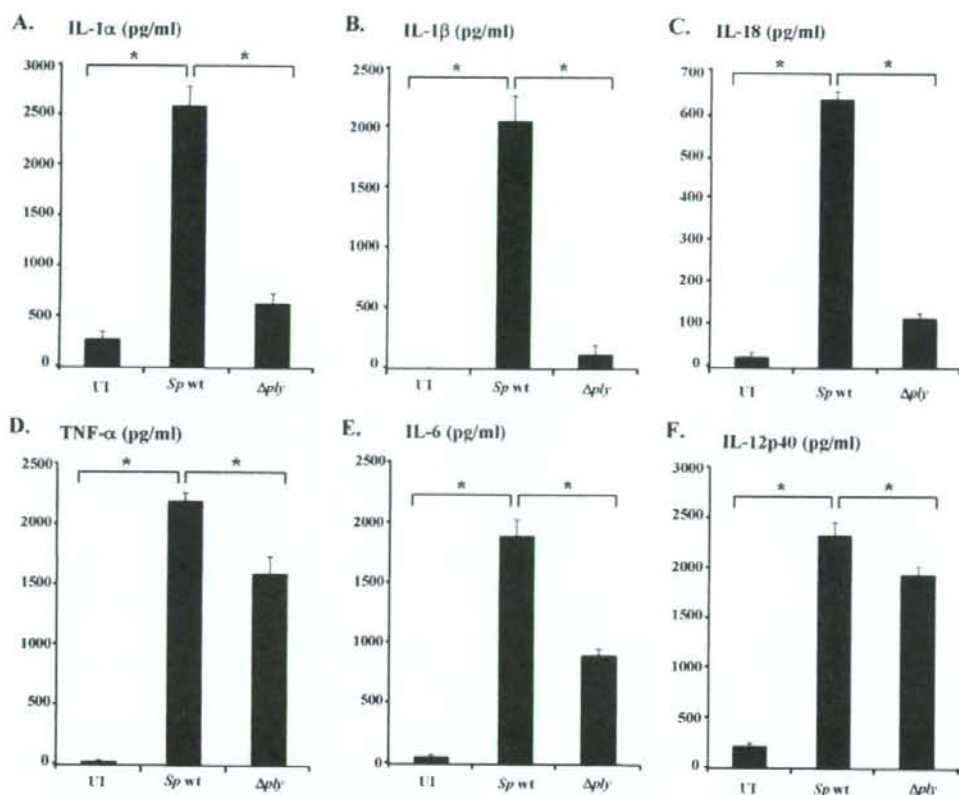


FIG. 1. Pneumolysin is essential for the secretion of IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18 in response to *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. Peritoneal macrophages were left uninfected (UI) or infected with wt *S. pneumoniae* (Sp wt) or the *ply* mutant (Δ ply) at a macrophage/bacterium ratio of 1:10 for 8 h. Cells were cultured for an additional 16 h in the presence of gentamicin (100 μ g/ml), and culture supernatants were then collected. The amounts of IL-1 α (A), IL-1 β (B), IL-18 (C), TNF- α (D), IL-6 (E), and IL-12p40 (F) were determined using ELISAs specific for each cytokine. The results are representative of three similar experiments. The data are the means \pm standard deviations for three determinations. *, $P < 0.05$ for uninfected cells compared to wt *S. pneumoniae*-infected cells and for wt *S. pneumoniae*-infected cells compared to Δ ply mutant-infected cells.

(PMB; Nacalai Tesque), z-VAD-fmk (Peptide Institute, Osaka, Japan), and z-VYAD-cmk (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN) were added to the cultures 30 min before stimulation with rPLY or LPS.

Reverse transcription-PCR. Total cellular RNA was extracted from peritoneal macrophages by using Nucleospin RNA II (Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany). Total RNA (0.2 μ g) was treated with RNase-free DNase (Promega, Madison, WI) to eliminate contaminating DNA and then subjected to reverse transcription using random primers (Invitrogen) and ReverTra Ace (Toyobo, Osaka, Japan). PCR was performed using KOD-Plus DNA polymerase (Toyobo) under the following PCR conditions: 94°C for 15 s, 60°C for 30 s, and 68°C for 30 s. The reaction was extended by incubation at 68°C for 7 min. The samples were amplified for 28 to 30 cycles. The most appropriate number of amplification cycles for each cytokine was determined by preliminary experiments. PCR products were analyzed in 2% agarose gels. Primer sequences used for the amplification of specific genes by reverse transcription-PCR are shown in Table 1.

Cytokine measurement. Levels of secreted cytokines in culture medium were determined by two-site sandwich enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA). ELISA kits for IL-1 α and IL-1 β were purchased from BD Biosciences (San Diego, CA). IL-6, TNF- α , and IL-12p40 kits were obtained from eBioscience (San Diego, CA), and an IL-18 kit was obtained from MBL (Nagoya, Japan). All samples were assayed according to the respective manufacturer's instructions.

Western blot analysis. For Western blotting, cells were lysed in 2 \times SDS-PAGE sample buffer (62.5 mM Tris-HCl, 2% SDS, 10% glycerol, 50 mM dithiothreitol, 0.1% bromophenol blue) and subjected to brief ultrasonication and

boiling for 5 min. The lysates were resolved by SDS-PAGE and then transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membranes (Millipore, Bedford, MA). Antibodies specific for mouse I κ B α , p38 MAPK, phospho-p38 MAPK (Thr180/Tyr182), and phospho-ERK1/ERK2 (Thr202/Tyr204) were purchased from Cell Signaling Technology (Danvers, MA) and were used as recommended by the manufacturer.

Caspase-1 activation assay. To determine the activation of caspase-1, peritoneal exudate cells were seeded in 24-well tissue culture plates at 5×10^5 cells per well. After removal of nonadherent cells, the adherent cells were incubated with 30 μ M biotinylated YVAD-cmk (Alexis Biochemicals, San Diego, CA) for 1 h. The cells were then either left unstimulated or stimulated with rPLY or LPS for 3 h at different concentrations. In the case of LPS plus ATP stimulation, cells were primed with LPS for 2.5 h and subsequently stimulated with 1 mM ATP (Amersham) for 30 min. Similarly, peritoneal macrophages were infected with wt *S. pneumoniae* and the Δ ply mutant at an MOI of 10 for 3 or 6 h. Cells were then washed with PBS three times and lysed with 1 ml lysis buffer consisting of 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 100 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 1% Triton X-100, 5 μ g/ml leupeptin, 5 μ g/ml aprotinin, 5 μ g/ml pepstatin, and 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride. Lysates were centrifuged at 12,000 \times g for 1 min to remove cell debris. To adjust the amount of lysate recovered from each well, 10 μ l of cleared lysate was subjected to Western blotting using a specific antibody for β -actin (Sigma), and the rest of the lysate was used for pull-down assay for detecting the active form of caspase-1. Activated caspase-1 (bound to biotinylated YVAD-cmk) was

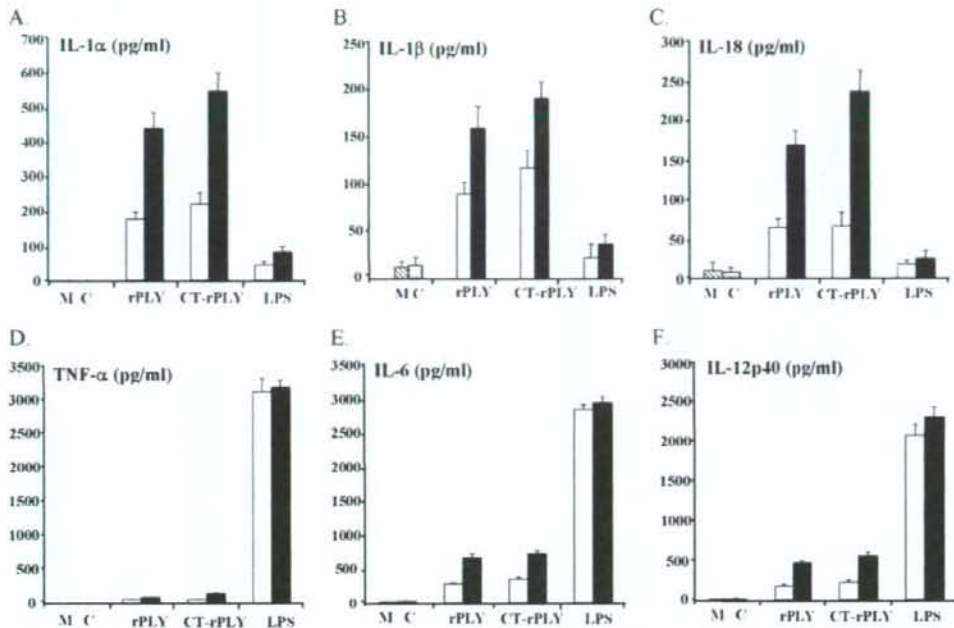


FIG. 2. Pneumolysin is a strong inducer of IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18 production. Peritoneal macrophages were left unstimulated (M), treated with cholesterol only (C), or stimulated with rPLY, cholesterol-treated rPLY (CT-rPLY), or LPS at a concentration of 0.1 μ g/ml (white bars) or 1 μ g/ml (black bars) for 24 h, and culture supernatants were then collected. The levels of cytokines in supernatants were determined by ELISA. The results are representative of three similar experiments. The data are the means \pm standard deviations for three determinations.

concentrated with tetrameric avidin resin (Promega) and detected by Western blotting using anti-caspase-1 polyclonal antibody (MBL).

Statistical analysis. For comparisons between two groups, the Mann-Whitney U test was used, and statistical significance was determined as a P value of <0.05 . Multigroup comparisons of mean values were conducted by the Kruskal-Wallis test and the Games-Howell post hoc test ($P < 0.05$) after the confirmation of homogeneity of variances among the groups by using Bartlett's test.

RESULTS

Role of PLY in cytokine production by macrophages infected with *S. pneumoniae* in vitro. To evaluate the involvement of PLY in inducing proinflammatory cytokines in response to *S. pneumoniae*, peritoneal macrophages from C57BL/6 mice were infected with live wt *S. pneumoniae* or the Δ ply mutant, and the levels of cytokines in supernatants were assayed. wt *S. pneumoniae* potently induced IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18, whereas the Δ ply mutant was unable to induce these cytokines, indicating a critical role of PLY in inducing IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18. In contrast, no marked difference was observed between the two strains in the ability to induce TNF- α , IL-6, and IL-12p40, suggesting a minor role of PLY in induction of these cytokines (Fig. 1). The impaired ability of the Δ ply mutant to induce cytokine production was not due to any enhanced cytotoxicity, as the release of lactate dehydrogenase from macrophages infected with the mutant never exceeded the level induced by wt *S. pneumoniae* (data not shown).

PLY strongly induces IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18. To confirm whether the ply gene product was responsible for the difference

in cytokine induction between the ply-positive wt and ply-deficient mutant strains, we next examined the profiles of various cytokines induced by rPLY stimulation. Although it was difficult to determine the exact amount of PLY released from wt *S. pneumoniae* in our in vitro infection system, we tried to estimate the amount based on a previous report on the relationship between bacterial number and the amount of PLY protein (18). The amount of PLY released from the infection dose of wt *S. pneumoniae* used in this study was calculated to be 0.04 μ g/ml. In a study by Malley et al. (27), rPLY was used at concentrations of 0.1 μ g/ml to 10 μ g/ml to determine TLR4-dependent cytokine-inducing activity. Taking these findings into consideration, we used rPLY in the present study at cytolytic (1 μ g/ml) and sublytic (0.1 μ g/ml) concentrations, which caused 53.0% and 5.1% release of lactate dehydrogenase from macrophages, respectively. Both doses of rPLY exhibited a stronger activity to induce IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18 than did LPS (Fig. 2) and TLR2 ligands, such as Pam₂CSK₄ (data not shown). In contrast, the ability of rPLY to induce IL-6, IL-12p40, and TNF- α was significantly lower than that of LPS. A treatment of 1 μ g/ml or 0.1 μ g/ml of rPLY with cholesterol resulted in the reduction of the cytolytic activity determined by lactate dehydrogenase release assay, by 95.3% and 100%, respectively. However, the cytokine-inducing activity was not affected by cholesterol pretreatment, even after the abolishment of cytolytic activity. Both cholesterol-treated rPLY and untreated rPLY induced similar levels of all cytokines tested (Fig.

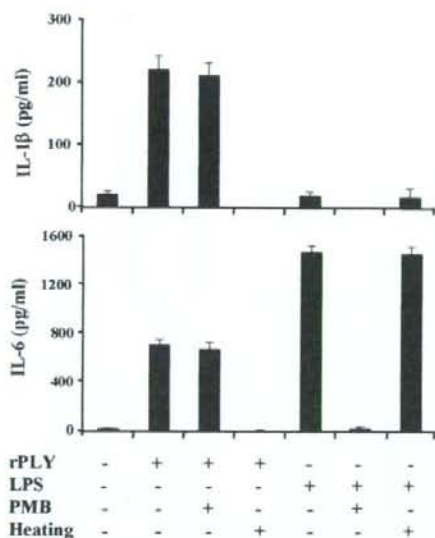


FIG. 3. Effects of PMB and heating on rPLY-induced IL-1 β and IL-6 production. Peritoneal macrophages were stimulated with cholesterol-treated rPLY or LPS for 24 h, and the culture supernatant was then collected. The amounts of IL-1 β (A) and IL-6 (B) in the culture supernatant were measured by ELISA. The effects of the addition of 0.5 μ g of PMB/ml and heating at 100°C for 1 h were examined. The results are representative of three similar experiments. The data are the means \pm standard deviations for three determinations.

2), indicating that cytokine-inducing activity and cytolytic activity of PLY may be dissociated. The absence of any stimulating or toxic activity was confirmed in the medium containing cholesterol alone.

To eliminate the possibility that cytokine induction by rPLY was due to contamination of LPS from *E. coli*, we added PMB to the cell culture before stimulation with rPLY and LPS. PMB did not affect rPLY-induced production of IL-1 β or IL-6 (Fig. 3) as well as IL-1 α , IL-18, TNF- α , and IL-12p40 (data not shown), whereas the same amount of PMB completely abolished the production of cytokines induced by LPS. Furthermore, when rPLY was heated at 100°C for 60 min, the ability to induce these cytokines was completely abrogated. Based on these findings, the possibility of contaminating LPS-induced cytokine production was ruled out.

Supplementation with rPLY enhanced IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18 production by macrophages infected with the Δ ply mutant. Although rPLY demonstrated a significantly higher activity in inducing IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18 than did LPS (Fig. 2), the levels were significantly lower than those induced by infection of macrophages with wt *S. pneumoniae* (Fig. 1). To examine whether high levels of these cytokines induced upon infection with wt *S. pneumoniae* were due to simultaneous stimulation with PLY and other bacterial components, we infected macrophages with the Δ ply mutant in the presence of rPLY. Costimulation with rPLY and the Δ ply mutant induced a greatly enhanced production of IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18, which was comparable to that induced by wt *S. pneumoniae* (Fig. 4). In the absence of rPLY, an increase in the dose of the

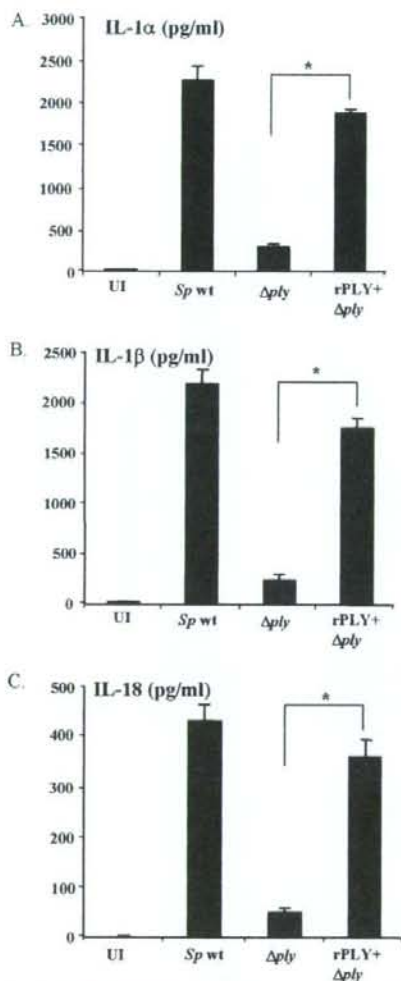


FIG. 4. Costimulation of rPLY with the Δ ply mutant significantly increased IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18 production by the Δ ply mutant. Peritoneal macrophages were left uninfected (UI) or infected with wt *S. pneumoniae* (*Sp* wt), the Δ ply mutant, or rPLY (1 μ g/ml) plus the Δ ply mutant at a macrophage/bacterium ratio of 1:10. The amounts of IL-1 α (A), IL-1 β (B), and IL-18 (C) in culture supernatants were determined by ELISAs specific for each cytokine. The results are representative of three similar experiments. The data are the means \pm standard deviations for three determinations. *, $P < 0.05$ for the Δ ply mutant versus rPLY plus the Δ ply mutant.

Δ ply mutant up to an MOI of 50 did not result in such an enhancement (data not shown). These findings clearly indicate that the PLY-dependent cytokine response is enhanced by other stimuli from bacterial cells but that PLY, not any other bacterial components, is solely responsible for the induction of IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18 production, which requires the activation of cleaving enzymes, including caspase-1. However, costimulation with rPLY and purified TLR agonists, such as LPS or Pam₃CSK₄, resulted in no marked enhancement of the

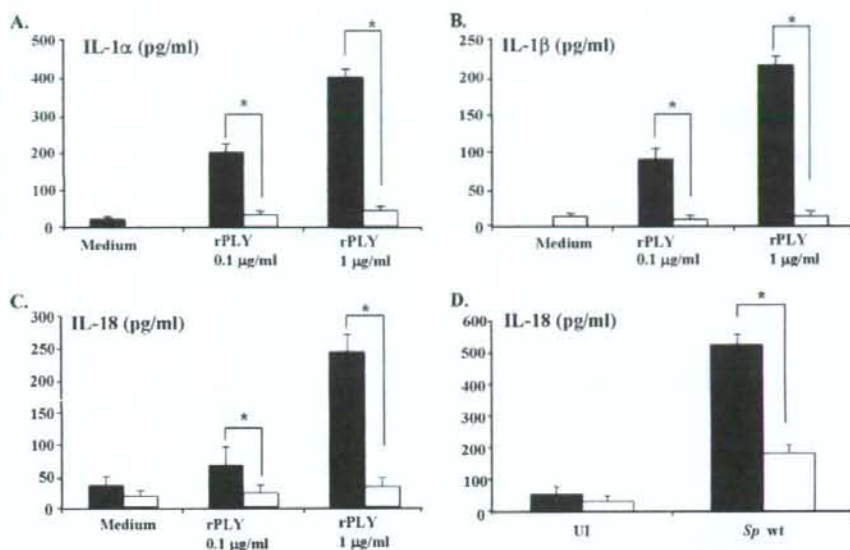


FIG. 5. TLR4-dependent induction of inflammatory cytokines by PLY. Peritoneal macrophages from C57BL/6 wt mice (black bars) and TLR4 KO mice (white bars) were stimulated with cholesterol-treated rPLY (A to C) or infected with wt *S. pneumoniae* at a macrophage/bacterium ratio of 1:10 (D) for 24 h, and the culture supernatants were then collected. The amounts of IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18 in culture supernatants were determined by ELISA. The results are representative of three similar experiments. The data are the means \pm standard deviations for three determinations. Asterisks indicate that the value is significantly different from that of wt cells ($P < 0.05$).

production of IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18 (data not shown), suggesting that the mechanism of enhancement might be more complex than just a simultaneous stimulation with rPLY and TLR agonists from *S. pneumoniae*.

Critical role of TLR4 in IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18 production induced by PLY. In a previous study, it was shown that PLY induces TNF- α and IL-6 production through TLR4 (27). To investigate whether TLR4 is also required for the production of IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18 induced by rPLY, we compared the levels of these cytokines produced by macrophages from C57BL/6 background TLR4-deficient mice and wt mice in response to rPLY. In addition to that of TNF- α and IL-6, the production of IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18 induced by rPLY was dependent on TLR4, as these cytokines were produced only by wt macrophages upon stimulation with rPLY (Fig. 5A to C). The production of IL-18 induced by infection with wt *S. pneumoniae* was also critically dependent on the presence of TLR4, suggesting that production of the cytokine in response to *S. pneumoniae* is due to the recognition of PLY via TLR4 (Fig. 5D). Because the production of IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18 is regulated both transcriptionally and posttranscriptionally, we next examined the involvement of TLR4 in the rPLY-induced gene expression of these cytokines. rPLY induced or up-regulated the expression of IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18 in macrophages from wt mice but not in those from TLR4 KO mice (Fig. 6). These results indicate that TLR4 plays a role in the production of IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18 induced by rPLY, at least at the gene expression level. In addition, the difference between rPLY and LPS in inducing the production of IL-1 α , IL-1 β , and IL-18 resulted from a posttranscriptional process, not the abil-

ity to induce gene expression, because LPS induced gene expression of these cytokines at levels comparable to those induced by rPLY.

Activation of TLR4 downstream signals by rPLY. As shown in Fig. 2 and 6, there was dissociation between the gene expression and production of TNF- α after stimulation of macrophages with rPLY. Moreover, the levels of rPLY-induced gene

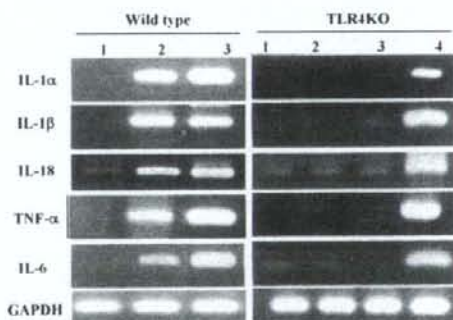


FIG. 6. Expression of mRNAs for various cytokines induced by rPLY was TLR4 dependent. Peritoneal macrophages of C57BL/6 wt and TLR4 KO mice were stimulated with rPLY, LPS, and Pam₃CSK₄ (1 μ g/ml) for 6 h. Total RNA was extracted and subjected to reverse transcription-PCR for detection of cytokine mRNAs for IL-1 α , IL-1 β , IL-18, TNF- α , IL-6, and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH). Lanes: 1, PBS; 2, rPLY; 3, LPS; 4, Pam₃CSK₄. Representative results are shown. Similar results were obtained in three separate experiments.

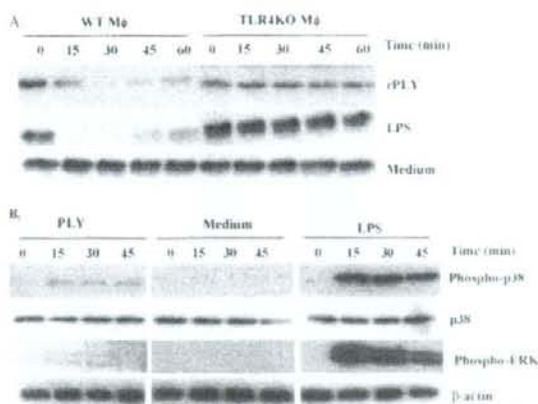


FIG. 7. Activation of TLR4 downstream signals by rPLY. Peritoneal macrophages from C57BL/6 (WT) and TLR4 KO mice were stimulated with medium alone, rPLY, or LPS ($1 \mu\text{g/ml}$). (A) At the indicated times, cell lysates were collected and I κ B α degradation was analyzed by Western blotting. (B) The cell lysates described in panel A were then subjected to Western blotting using antibodies specific to p38, phospho-p38, phospho-ERK, and β -actin. The results are representative of at least three independent experiments.

expression and production of TNF- α and IL-6 were significantly lower than those induced by LPS (Fig. 2 and 6). These findings may be due to some difference in the events downstream of TLR4 ligation with rPLY or LPS. Therefore, we first examined the proteolysis of I κ B α , a regulator of NF- κ B, to estimate the activation of NF- κ B. Both rPLY and LPS induced the degradation of I κ B α , but some differences were observed in its strength and kinetics. The LPS-induced degradation of I κ B α was observed as early as 5 min after stimulation (data not shown), whereas that induced by rPLY took place later (Fig. 7A). The degradation of I κ B α was not observed in TLR4-deficient macrophages after stimulation with both rPLY and LPS. Next, the activation of MAPKs was compared. LPS strongly induced the phosphorylation of p38 MAPK and extracellular signal-regulated kinases (ERKs). In contrast, rPLY induced only weak phosphorylation of p38 MAPK and hardly induced ERK phosphorylation (Fig. 7B). These results indicate that the activation of the signaling process after sensing by TLR4 differs between stimulation with rPLY and LPS, which may account for the different profiles of the cytokine response to stimulation with these two TLR4 agonists.

Caspase-1 dependency of PLY-induced IL-1 β and IL-18 production. Intracellular IL-1 β and IL-18 are not secreted from cells as active forms until they are cleaved by caspase-1. To understand whether PLY-induced macrophage production of IL-1 β and IL-18 is due to the activation of caspase-1, the effects of caspase inhibitors were examined. Peritoneal macrophages were pretreated with the caspase-1-specific inhibitor z-YVAD-cmk or the broad-spectrum caspase inhibitor z-VAD-fmk. Both inhibitors effectively reduced the secretion of IL-1 β and IL-18 in the culture supernatant, suggesting that caspase-1 activation was induced by rPLY stimulation (Fig. 8). Nonspecific effects of the two inhibitors could be ruled out

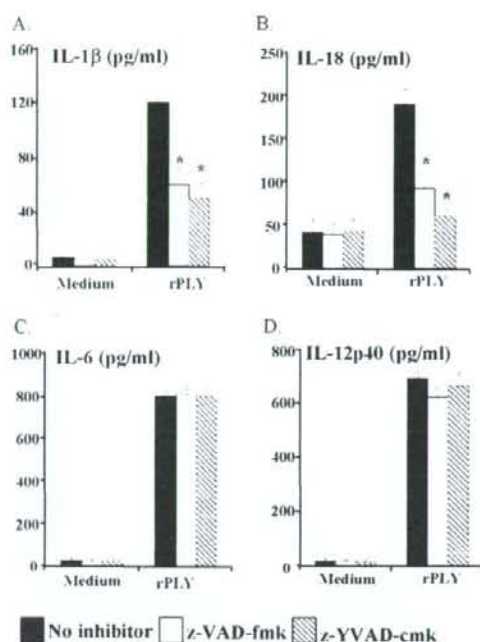


FIG. 8. Pneumolysin-induced IL-1 β and IL-18 production is caspase-1 dependent. Peritoneal macrophages were stimulated with cholesterol-treated rPLY ($1 \mu\text{g/ml}$) in the presence or absence of a broad-spectrum caspase inhibitor (z-VAD-fmk [$30 \mu\text{M}$]) and a caspase-1-specific inhibitor (z-YVAD-cmk [$30 \mu\text{M}$]) for 24 h, and the culture supernatant was collected. The amounts of IL-1 β (A), IL-18 (B), IL-6 (C), and IL-12p40 (D) were determined by ELISA. The results are representative of three separate experiments. The data are the means \pm standard deviations for three or four determinations. *, $P < 0.05$ compared to no-inhibitor treatment.

because the production of IL-6 and IL-12p40 was unaffected by either inhibitor.

Activation of caspase-1 by PLY. Since the production of IL-1 β and IL-18 induced by rPLY was dependent on caspase-1, to confirm the PLY-induced caspase activation, we first tried to detect the active form of caspase-1 in macrophages stimulated with rPLY by means of Western blotting using a polyclonal antibody against the cleaved p20 fragment of caspase-1. This approach was not successful, however, because the amount of p20 fragment inside cells was too small, probably due to a rapid secretion of the active form soon after the cleavage (28). For this reason, we concentrated intracellular activated caspase-1 by a pull-down method using biotinylated YVAD-cmk, which binds to the active form of caspase-1, as previously described, with slight modification (29), and then applied the samples to Western blotting. The activated form of caspase-1 could be detected in macrophages stimulated by both cholesterol-treated rPLY and untreated rPLY (Fig. 9A). Caspase-1 activation was induced sufficiently with even a low dose ($0.1 \mu\text{g/ml}$) of rPLY, whereas $1 \mu\text{g/ml}$ LPS was not capable of inducing caspase-1 activation. As previously reported (47), an additional stimulation with ATP was required for the activation of caspase-1 in macrophages stimulated with LPS (Fig. 9B). To