The deduced amino acid sequences of partial ORF V1 of budgerigar BFDV genotype 1 showed 96.7–99.4% homologies to the sequences of the published sequences derived from budgerigars (BG3-NZ, AY148301; UFS 3 to UFS 5; DQ384623 to DQ384625), whereas genotype 2 showed 91.8–94.6%. A phylogenic tree based on partial ORF VP1 using the UPGMA method revealed that genotype 1 isolates clustered together with BG3-NZ and UFS 3 to UFS 5, which classified into the BG lineage [7, 10], whereas genotype 2 isolates clustered a unique group (data not shown). These results suggested that budgerigar BFDV genotype 2 might be phylogenically distinct from previously described BFDV.

There were two clinical forms of the affected birds with budgerigar BFDV genotype 1, one was acute-form and another was chronic-form. Of the 17 budgerigar BFDV genotype 2 isolates, 3 forms were acute and the other 14 were chronic. No relationship between clinical forms and both genotypes was observed in the present study.

To confirm the further taxonomic position of these six budgerigar BFDV isolates, phylogenic trees were constructed based on the whole genome sequence analysis. The budgerigar BFDV genotype 1 and genotype 2 were located in independently different clusters (Fig. 1a). The genotype 2 isolates were particularly distinct from other BFDV isolates and clustered a unique lineage. This relationship was supported by analysis of the both ORF V1 and C1, respectively (Fig. 1b, c). The phylogenic analysis of whole genome sequence and both ORF V1 and C1 shows

identical placement of the previously described BFDVs and the budgerigar BFDV genotype 2. Hereby, it is proposed that budgerigar BFDV genotype 2 belongs to a novel lineage (BG2). During review of this article, three budgerigar BFDV sequences were reported as a unique isolate in South Africa [11]. However, these isolates were also classified into the BG lineage, which was related to genotype 1, and not clustered a novel unique BG2 lineage.

Ypelaar's PCR targeting ORF V1 has been used as a universal method by other researchers [3, 6, 7]. However, it was reported that Ypelaar's PCR might not detect all isolates because of the diversity of BFDV genotypes [3]. In fact, our PCR results showed the existence of budgerigar BFDV, which could not be detected by Ypelaar's PCR. To investigate why the budgerigar BFDV genotype 2 was not detected by Ypelaar's PCR, the sequences targeted by Primer2 and Primer4 were compared on the genomic sequences of both genotype 1 and 2. The sequences of genotype 1 were identical to both primer sequences and those of genotype 2 were identical to Primer4, whereas 6-7 of the 18 nucleotides were different in the sequences of genotype 2, which correspond to the central region of Primer2 (Fig. 2). In the case of Ogawa's PCR, several nucleotide substitutions were scattered in budgerigar BFDV genotype 1 and genotype 2 sequences. However, consecutive nucleotide substitutions such as the genotype 2 in Primer2 were not found. The phylogenic classification of the six budgerigar BFDV genomes was the same as the tentative classification found in both PCR amplification

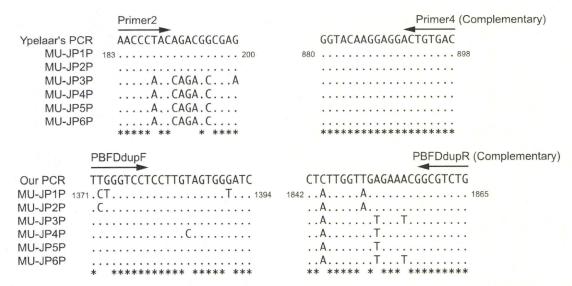


Fig. 2 Sequence comparison of the primer target sites of Ypelaar's PCR [9] and Ogawa's PCR [8] in budgerigar BFDV genotype 1 and genotype 2 sequences. *Dots* indicate positions in agreement with the primer sequences. The numbers to the left and right of the row following MU-JP1P indicate nucleotide positions of the MU-JP1P sequence. *Asterisks* indicate that corresponding positions of alignment

are identical. 6–7 of 18 nucleotides were different in budgerigar BFDV genotype 2 sequences which correspond to the above Primer2 sequences. In PBFDdupF and PBFDdupR, several nucleotide substitutions were scattered in budgerigar BFDV genotype 1 and genotype 2 sequences



results. It is conceivable that the combination of the results of both PCRs would be useful to identify the budgerigar BFDV genotypes. Therefore, it is possible that additional uncovered BFDV exist in other psittacine species.

In conclusion, this study revealed the presence of a novel lineage of BFDV in budgerigars, with further investigation involving the identification of any antigenic differences present.

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Epidemiology of *Chlamydophila caviae*-like *Chlamydia* Isolated from Urethra and Uterine Cervix

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In 2000, chlamydial strains OK133 and OK135 were isolated from 2 female patients with cervicitis. These strains were unresponsive to commercially available PCR and LCR test kits for the diagnosis of Chlamydia trachomatis infection, and their phenotypic characteristics were very similar. The OK135 nucleotide sequence in MOMP-VD2 gene closely resembled that of Chlamydophila caviae GPIC. A similar strain was isolated in 2003 from a male patient OKM2 with urethritis, from which the strain SC10-6 was cloned by the plaque purification method. The nucleotide sequence of the entire MOMP gene of SC10-6 was exactly the same as that of OK135. Thus, the strains OK135 and SC10-6, together with OK133, have been called C. caviae-like Chlamydia. We designed primers for nested PCR assay, the product of which showed a single-band 311-bp fragment, to detect C. caviae-like Chlamydia. Of swab specimens obtained from 202 patients from 2003 to 2006 (119 male and 83 female patients), 18 specimens (8.9%) from 14 male and 4 female patients were positive, suggesting that C. caviae-like Chlamydia infection is rather common. Thus far, it has not been determined whether C. caviae-like Chlamydia is pathogenic for humans.

Key words: Chlamydophila caviae-like Chlamydia, urethra, uterine cervix, epidemiology, sexually transmitted infection

pecies of the family *Chlamydiaceae* are obligate intracellular prokaryotic parasites of various types of eukaryotic cells including human and animal cells. A unique developmental cycle, in which chlamydial organisms alternate between an infectious elementary body (EB) and the vegetative reticulate body

(RB), distinguishes chlamydial organisms from other bacteria [1]. The family Chlamydiaceae includes 2 genera Chlamydia and Chlamydophila, and nine species, Chlamydia trachomatis, Chlamydia muridarum, Chlamydia suis, Chlamydophila pneumoniae, Chlamydophila psittaci, Chlamydophila pecorum, Chlamydophila abortus, Chlamydophila caviae and Chlamydophila felis [2]. C. pneumoniae and C. psittaci are well known as pathogens of the respiratory tract. C. trachomatis, which was originally associated with the ocular disease trachoma,

is recognized as the most common pathogen of sexually transmitted infections (STIs) including urethritis and epididymitis in men, cervicitis, urethritis and upper genital tract infections in women, and conjunctivitis and pneumonia in newborns. Complications arising from *C. trachomatis* infection include pelvic inflammatory diseases such as ectopic pregnancy and infertility in women. Efforts to reduce the prevalence of infection with *C. trachomatis* in both men and women may be hampered by the relatively high frequency of asymptomatic patients in both sexes [3]. Due to the diversification of sexual cultures and behaviors, the increase in STI has become a social problem that cannot be ignored in Japan [4].

A commercially available PCR test kit and a ligase chain reaction (LCR) test kit, both targeting the 7.5kb cryptic plasmid common to all members of C. trachomatis. have been widely used in the diagnosis of urogenital C. trachomatis infection in Japan. The results of laboratory experiments have shown that the detection limit for both PCR and LCR test kits is just two EBs, and these test kits are highly sensitive and specific [5, 6]. However, using these test kits alone, the biological characteristics of etiologic C. trachomatis strains cannot be analyzed because the isolation and propagation of C. trachomatis strains are not required in the diagnosis. Furthermore, studies have reported the presence of C. trachomatis lacking the plasmid [7] and STI with plasmid-free C. trachomatis [8-10]. Moreover, C. trachomatis strains missing part of the nucleic acid sequence in the plasmid were currently reported [11]. Hence, when using only the PCR or LCR test kit, infection caused by C. trachomatis lacking the plasmid and/or missing a plasmid sequence would be overlooked.

In a preliminary survey of *C. trachomalis* urogenital infection in 2000, we isolated strains OK133 and OK135, which were unresponsive to PCR and LCR test kits, from female patients with severe cervicitis. Their phenotypic characteristics were very similar. Genetic analysis of OK135 revealed that the nucleotide sequence of the MOMP-VD2 gene closely resembled that of *C. caviae* GPIC. A strain similar to OK135 was more recently isolated from a male patient OKM2 with urethritis and cloned as strain SC10-6 by the plaque purification method [7]. Analysis of the entire MOMP gene showed that SC10-6 and OK135 were identical and closely resembled *C. caviae* GPIC

(hereinafter referred to as *C. caviae*-like *Chlamydia*). In the present paper, we report an epidemiological study of *C. caviae*-like *Chlamydia* detected in swab specimens collected from the urethra and uterine cervix, using nested PCR with primers especially designed in our laboratory.

Materials and Methods

Patient specimens and cell cultures for isolation of C. caviae-like Chlamydia. The specimens were obtained from patients with symptoms consistent with STI including OK133, OK135 and OKM2 from 2000 to 2006. Several specimens were obtained from female patients who were asymptomatic, but anxious to undergo STI examinations. For female genital specimens, a cotton swab was inserted into the endocervical canal and was gently rotated. For male urethral specimens, a swab was inserted 3 to 4cm into the urethra and rotated. Each swab was placed in a test tube containing 0.5 ml of sucrose-phosphateglutamate (SPG) buffer and 0.5g of glass beads (0.5mm in diameter), and then stored at -70° C until testing. After quickly thawing at 37°C, a Vortex mixer was used to vigorously stir each test tube to release the chlamydial organisms from the cotton swab with about 1ml of SPG buffer (0.5ml in the tube and another 0.5 ml to wash the beads). After centrifuging at $300 \times g$ for 3 min at room temperature, the supernatant (0.25 ml/well) was placed on McCoy cell confluent monolayers in a 24-well culture plate (Corning Costar Corp., Corning, NY, USA), followed by centrifugation (860 × g, 25°C, 60 min) using a Hitachi himac CR21E centrifuge (Hitachi Koki Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). The inoculated cells were then incubated at 37°C in an atmosphere of 5% CO₂ in Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (DMEM; Nissui, Tokyo, Japan) containing $1\mu g/ml$ of cycloheximide, $10 \mu \text{g/ml}$ of kanamycin, $10 \mu \text{g/ml}$ of vancomycin, $10\mu \mathrm{g/ml}$ of amphotericin B and supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS; Gibco BRL, Life Technologies Inc., Grand Island, NY, USA). Under a phase-contrast microscope, cell conditions were monitored at appropriate intervals, and once a cytopathic effect was seen, the cells were suspended in SPG buffer (1 ml/well) and stored at -70° C.

Fluorescent and iodine staining. McCoy

cell monolayers prepared on cover slips (14mm in diameter) were inoculated with chlamydial isolates by centrifugation and incubated at 37°C. At 24 to 30 h post-inoculation, the cells were fixed with ethanol and stained with fluorescein-conjugated monoclonal antibody directed against the genus-specific antigen (Chlamydia FA Seiken [DFA stain]; Denka Seiken, Tokyo, Japan) to observe chlamydial inclusions. To check for glycogen accumulation in inclusions, the cover slips harvested at 30 h post-inoculation were dried and fixed with methanol, and then subjected to iodine staining according to the method of Matsumoto et al. [12].

Plaque purification. Plaque purification was carried out according to the method of Matsumoto et al. [7]. Briefly, 100μ l of chlamydial suspensions prepared in a series of 10-fold dilutions was directly added to each well containing 2ml culture medium. After sufficient stirring and centrifugation at 860 × g for 60 min, the cells were overlaid with agarose medium consisting of 10% FBS-DMEM containing 1 μg/ml of cycloheximide and 0.5% agarose (SeaKem ME agarose; FMC BioProducts, Rockland, ME, USA). After solidification, the liquid medium, which was prepared by omitting agarose from the agarose medium, was added and incubated at $37\,^{\circ}\!\!\mathrm{C}$ in a $5\,^{\circ}\!\!\mathrm{C}$ CO2 incubator. The liquid medium was exchanged every 4 to 5 days. At an appropriate time after infection, the liquid medium was removed, and agarose medium containing 0.03% (final concentration) of neutral red was loaded on the agarose medium. After incubation at 37°C for 12 to 15h, single plaques with sufficient separation from each other were recovered with agar-well punchers commonly used to make holes in the Ouchterlony immunodiffusion test. Each agarose plug placed in 1 ml of SPG buffer was sonicated and centrifuged at $300 \times g$ for 5 min, and the supernatant was inoculated onto McCoy cells as described above. To purify each strain, this procedure was repeated three times.

In vitro drug susceptibility. The antimicrobial agents tested were clarithromycin (Taisho Pharmaceutical, Tokyo, Japan), minocycline (Wyeth Lederle, Tokyo, Japan) and tosufloxacin (Toyama Chemical, Tokyo, Japan). The agents were dissolved by the master dilution method. MICs of chlamydial strains obtained by plaque purification were determined by the standard method of the Japan Society of

Chemotherapy [13]. Briefly, HeLa 229 cell confluent monolayers prepared on cover slips placed in 24-well culture plate were inoculated with chlamydial suspension at 1,000 IFU/well by centrifugation (860 \times g, 60min). After centrifugation, 1ml of culture medium, consisting of Eagle's MEM, 10% heat-inactivated FBS, and cycloheximide, at a final concentration of $1\mu g/ml$ was applied. The medium also contained one concentration of the antimicrobial agents. Then, the plates were incubated at 37°C in an atmosphere of 5% CO2 for 48h. After ethanol fixation, the infected cells were stained with DFA and the inclusions were observed. The MIC was defined as the lowest concentration at which inclusion formation was completely inhibited.

Purification of EBs. EBs of purified strains and laboratory strains, such as C. caviae GPIC (VR-813, obtained from the American Type Culture Collection, Manassas, VA, USA), C. trachomatis biovars D and L2, and C. psittaci Cal 10 were prepared by the method reported previously [7]. Infected McCoy cells with well-developed inclusions were sonicated to facilitate the release of chlamydial organisms from the host cells. After brief centrifugation at $300 \times g$ for 10 min to remove large debris, the supernatant was subjected to 25% sucrose-cushioning centrifugation (8,000 × g, 4°C, 60 min), and then the suspension was incubated with DNase (20 µg/ml) and RNase $(20 \mu \text{g/ml})$ in a water bath at 37°C for 60 min, followed by treatment with trypsin $(10 \mu \text{g/ml})$ at 37°C for 60 min. Similarly, EBs of C. pneumoniae TW183 were prepared from HEp2 cells having well-grown inclusions. After sonication to disperse large aggregates, the suspension was subjected to 25% sucrosecushioning centrifugation again. The sediment was suspended in SPG buffer and used for the extraction of genomic DNA.

MOMP gene sequencing. The Puregene DNA purification kit (Gentra System, Minneapolis, MN, USA) was used for genomic DNA extraction from purified EBs of each strain. PCR was performed under the conditions shown in Table 1 using genomic DNA as a template and the primers reported by Kaltenboeck et al. [14] to amplify the entire MOMP gene of strains, namely OK135 and SC10-6, obtained through plaque purification. The resulting amplification products were cleaned using MagExtractor (Toyobo, Osaka, Japan), and the BigDye terminator

cycle sequencing FS ready reaction kit (Applied Biosystems Japan, Tokyo, Japan) was used to make sequencing templates. The ABI 310 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems Japan) was used to determine the MOMP gene of each strain, and a BLAST search was used to investigate the homology of the sequence in the MOMP genes with that of the standard strain, *C. caviae* GPIC [15].

Molecular diagnosis of clinical specimens. Based on the nucleotide sequence data of the MOMP gene of the OK135 clone, primers (2 pairs) specific to the ompA gene of the same strain were designed (Table 1). The expected amplification product of nested PCR using these primer sets was a 311-bp DNA fragment. The genomic DNA of each strain was prepared from purified EBs with the QIAamp DNA stool mini kit (QIAGEN, Tokyo, Japan). Under the conditions shown in Table 1, 5μ l of template and 45μ l of reaction solution were added (10 × buffer, 0.2 mM dNTPs, 0.625U Taq polymerase (TaKaRa, Shiga, Japan) and $0.2\mu\mathrm{M}$ primer) for a total volume of $50\,\mu\mathrm{l}$ to perform nested PCR using Astec PC 801 thermal cycler. The resulting PCR product was subjected to electrophoresis using 1.2% agarose gel in relation to a 100-bp DNA ladder (New England Biolabs Japan, Tokyo, Japan) as a molecular standard, and the 311bp band was examined.

In addition to the chlamydial culture, all swab specimens, from 119 male and 83 female subjects, were examined with the commercially available PCR test kit (AMPLICOR Chlamydia trachomatis: Roche Diagnostics K.K., Tokyo, Japan) for C. trachomatis and the PCR test kit (AMPLICOR Neisseria gonorrhoeae; Roche Diagnostic K.K.) for N. gonorrhoeae or gonococcal cultures. When the microscopic examinations were positive but the PCR for C. trachomatis was undetermined, nested PCR, for which 2 pairs of primers specific to the ompA gene of OK135 were especially designed, was carried out (Table 1).

For the male samples, Mycoplasma genitarium, Mycoplasma hominis, Ureaplasma urealyticum and Ureaplasma parvum were also examined with the multiplex PCR test kit (Mitsubishi Chemical Medience Corp., Tokyo, Japan) to confirm a solo infection with the chlamydial strain identical with OK135. Such tests were, however, not subjected to the female samples because of their heavier contamination with other microorganisms.

Results

Morphology of chlamydial strains obtained by the plague purification. In the preliminary DFA test, the inclusions formed from swab specimens of 3 patients, OKM2, OK133 and OK135 were noted their morphology. Therefore, these isolates were examined with staining methods in detail. It was suggested strongly that the swab specimen of the OKM2 patient contained, at least, 2 different Chlamydia species. To separate and purify each strain, the plaque formation was carried out successively, and 2 strains, SC10-6 and ST13-6-1, were obtained. The inclusions of ST13-6-1 were round or oval in shape (Fig. 1B) while those of SC10-6 were irregular (Fig. 1A). Simultaneously, many small particles showing specific stainability with DFA were scattered on the cell layers, suggesting that the particles were chlamydial bodies resulted from an inclusion burst. Consequently, it was likely that the strain SC10-6 grew rapidly. Fig. 2 shows the iodine-stained images of both SC10-6 and ST13-6-1 strains. The ST13-6-1 inclusions at 48h post-inoculation were intensely stained (Fig. 2B), indicating glycogen accumulation. The stainability, together with the round-shaped inclusion morphology in the DFA test, indicated that the ST13-6-1 strain was undoubtedly a member of the C. trachomatis species. By contrast, the SC10-6 inclusions were not stained even after 48h post-inoculation

Table 1 PCR primers and conditions used in this study

Primer specificity			Product length .bp.					
		Primer sequences		Initial denaturation	Cycling	Cycle	Final extention	Reference
		F: 5-ACGCATGCAAGACACTCCTCAAAGCC-3 R: 5-ACGAATTCCTAGGTTCTGATAGCGGGAC-3		3min, 94°C	10 min, 96°C; 1 min, 69°C; 1 min, 72°C 11 min, 96°C; 1 min, 59°C; 1 min, 72°C	10 25	10min, 72°C	14
***************************************	1 st PCR	F: 5'-CCTTGTGATCCTTGCGCTACTT-3 R: 5'-GTGAGCAGCTCTTTCGTTGAT-3	951		30 sec. 94 °C; 20 sec. 55 °C, 25 sec. 72 °C	30	5min, 72°C	this study
ompA of OK135	2nd PGR	F: 5'-CCGTTGCAGACAGGAATAAC-3' R: 5'-GCACAACGACATTCCCATAAAG-3'	311	3min, 94°C	30 sec. 94°C: 20 sec. 55°C: 25 sec. 72°C	30	5min, 72°C	

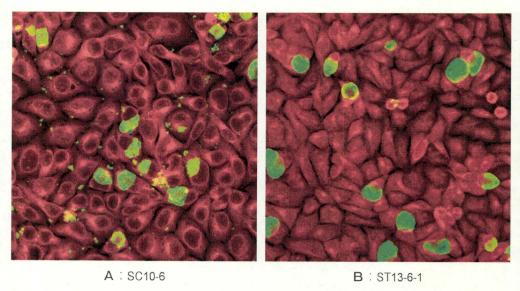


Fig. 1 Fluorescent images of SC10-6 (A) and ST13-6-1 (B), 2 clones from OKM2 (a male patient with urethritis). DFA staining with genus-specific fluorescein-conjugated monoclonal antibody was used. Inclusions of ST13-6-1 were of the typical round shape, indicating *C. trachomatis*, but those of SC10-6 had irregular borders, and numerous lysed cells were seen at 48h post-inoculation.

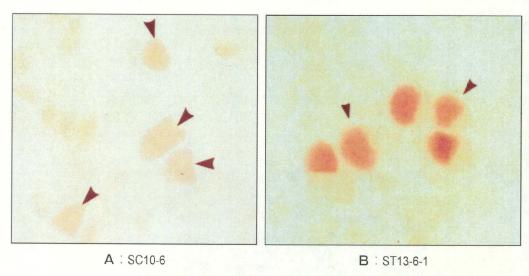


Fig. 2 lodine staining for SC10-6 (A) and ST13-6-1 (B) infected cells. Inclusions of ST13-6-1 stained brown, indicating glycogen accumulation associated with *C. trachomatis*. However, inclusions of SC10-6 were not stained, and no glycogen accumulation was confirmed.

(Fig. 2A). This result, together with the inclusion morphology and the presence of scattered chlamydial bodies in the DFA test, indicated that the SC10-6 strain was different from *C. trachomatis*. Additionally, the ST13-6-1 strain reacted positively with the PCR

test kit while SC10-6 did not.

Determination of the species of SC10-6 and OK135 strains. To determine the species of SC10-6 and OK135 strains, the ompA gene was amplified from purified EBs of each strain and its nucle-

otide sequence was analyzed. The results revealed that the nucleotide sequences of ompA gene of both strains, SC10-6 and OK135, were exactly the same, that their ompA genes were highly homologous to the nucleotide sequence (99.0%) of the ompA gene in C. caviae GPIC, and that their putative 389-amino-acid sequences were exactly the same as that of OmpA in C. caviae GPIC. Therefore, it was concluded that OKM2 and OK135 patients were infected with 2 different species of chlamydiae; one was a typical C. trachomatis strain and the other was an unusual chlamydial species in human urogenital infections, C. caviae-like Chlamydia. Although the analysis of the ompA gene was not done for OK133, its phenotypic characteristics were quite similar to those of other two C. caviae-like Chlamydia strains, and the result obtained in nested PCR confirmed that OK133 was also C. caviae-like Chlamydia (see below).

Drug susceptibility of C. caviae-like Chlamydia. Determination of drug susceptibility of the strains SC10-6 and OK135 was requested by physicians at the clinics where the patients OKM2 and OK135 were medicated, because of their poor response to antichlamydial chemotherapy. The drug susceptibility of the strains, together with the ST13-6 strain and C. trachomatis server D, were tested. The MIC values obtained for clarithromycin, minocycline and tosufloxacin were 0.016, 0.016 to 0.031 and

 $0.25\,\mu\text{g/ml}$, respectively; no difference in the MIC value was detected between the 2 strains. Additionally, there was no marked difference from the standard *C. trachomatis* servoar D. Based on the results, it was very likely that the patient's poor response to chemotherapy was not a result of the chlamydial properties, but might have been due to *in vivo* drug circulation into histopathological regions in the patients.

Epidemiological analysis. The fact that the patients were dually infected with either SC10-6 or OK135 and C. trachomatis strains impelled us to investigate whether C. caviae-like Chlamydia was a pathogenic agent of human STI, and if so, whether C. caviae-like Chlamydia is widespread. Genomic DNA was extracted from purified EBs of OK133, OK135, SC10-6, C. caviae GPIC, C. trachomatis serovar D and L2, C. psittaci Cal 10 and C. pneumoniae TW183. Using extracted DNA, the nested PCR assay, designed on the basis of the ompA sequence of the OK135 strain, was performed as shown in Table 1, and a 311-bp amplification product was observed for OK133, OK135, SC10-6 and C. caviae GPIC (Fig. 3). The results demonstrate that this nested PCR assay was specific to C. caviae GPIC and C. caviae-like Chlamydia, and that OK133, OK135 and SC10-6 were all C. caviae-like Chlamydia. This suggests that the nested PCR assay specific to C. caviae GPIC can be used in epidemiological studies.

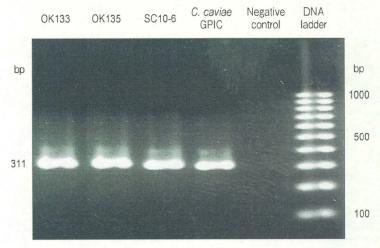


Fig. 3 Electrophoresis of amplification products obtained by nested PCR assay which was performed using two pairs of primers specific to the *ompA* gene of *C. caviae*-like *Chlamydia* OK135 (Table 1). Electrophoresis was conducted using 1.2% agarose gel and a 100-bp DNA ladder as a molecular standard. The expected amplification product was a 311-bp DNA fragment.

Based on the results, the nested PCR assay was performed on swab specimens obtained from a total of 202 patients, including 119 male patients with urethritis and 83 female patients with either cervicitis or suspected STI from July, 2003 to December, 2006. In each patient, the presence or absence of N. gonorrhoeae (117 male and 83 female patients tested). C. trachomatis (114 male and 83 female patients tested) and C. caviae-like Chlamydia (all 202 patients tested) was determined (Fig. 4). Of the 119 male patients with urethritis, 34 had N. gonorrhoeae, 33 had C. trachomatis, and 8 had both N. gonorrhoeae and C. trachomatis. With regard to the 83 female patients, 45 asymptomatic patients underwent tests for sexually transmitted diseases after becoming pregnant or changing partners, and the other 38 patients had cervicitis-related symptoms, such as increased discharge, abnormal color and vaginal erosion. Of the 83 female patients, 2 had N. gonorrhoeae, 15 had C. trachomatis, and 1 patient had both N. gonorrhoeae and C. trachomatis. To determine the infection of C. caviaelike Chlamydia, the nested PCR assay was carried out as mentioned above; the results are summarized in Fig. 4. Among 14 male patients, including OKM2, who were positive for C. caviae-like Chlamydia, 7 had

C. trachomatis, 4 had N. gonorrhoeae, and 1 had both N. gonorrhoeae and C. trachomatis. On the other hand, among the 4 female patients positive for C. caviae-like Chlamydia, 2 had C. trachomatis. In other words, C. caviae-like Chlamydia, with neither C. trachomatis nor N. gonorrhoeae, was detected in a total of 6 patients (4) male and 2 female patients). Table 2 summarizes the clinical backgrounds of the 20 patients who were positive for C. caviae-like Chlamydia, including OK133 and OK135. Eleven of the 14 male patients had urethritis-related symptoms, such as pain on urination and pus discharge, and 2 of the 6 female patients had cervicitis-related symptoms. In most patients, symptoms improved after chemotherapy. However, in case OK135, symptoms did not improve and intractable cervicitis developed, and in cases 9, 13 and 14, symptoms such as pain on urination continued even after chemotherapy. M. genitalium was detected in the male patients (cases 9, 10, 13 and 14) who were positive for C. caviae-like Chlamydia and negative for C. trachomatis and N. gonorrhoeae. In the female cases 11 and 12, the presence or absence of Mycoplasma and *Ureaplasma* spp. was not tested.

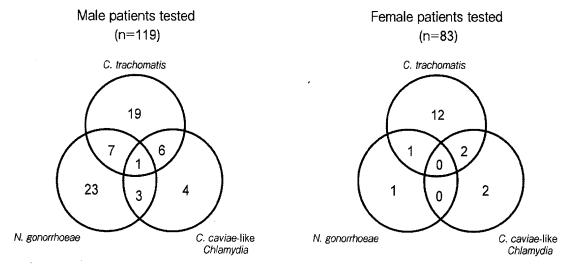


Fig. 4 C. trachomatis, N. gonorrhoeae and C. caviae-like Chlamydia infections are summarized for the 119 male and 83 female patients tested. In each patient, the presence or absence of N. gonorrhoeae (117 male and 83 female patients tested), C. trachomatis (114 male and 83 female patients tested) and C. caviae-like Chlamydia (all 202 patients tested) was determined. C. caviae-like Chlamydia was detected in 14 male and 4 female patients, including OK133 and OK135, which were isolated in 2000; a total of 20 C. caviae-like Chlamydia strains were isolated from 2000 to 2006.

Table 2 Clinical analysis of STI patients with C. caviae-like Chlamydia

No. of cases	Patient identification number	Date of the first medical examination	Sex	Age	Symptoms	C. trachomatis	N. gonorrhoeae	PCR tor OK135 clone	Strain identification number of <i>C. caviae-</i> like <i>Chlamydia</i>
	OK133	2000	female	20	nothing special	:	10.00	!	OK133
	OK135	2000	female	27	leukorrhea	i	***		OK135
1	OKM2	2003, 07, 01	male	34	pus discharge		_	÷-	SC10-6
2	OKM10	2004, 01, 08	male	20	pain on urination	4	~~	4	no cloning
3	OKM11	2004, 01, 26	male	29	inguinal pain	-9-		+-	no cloning
4	OKM13	2004, 02, 17	male	29	nothing special	÷		4	no cloning
5	OKM52	2005, 06, 18	temale	33	leukorrhea	4-	100	-+-	no cloning
6	OKM59	2005. 08. 08	male	44	residual urine	1	-	1	no cloning
7	OKM75	2005. 10. 14	male	21	pain on urination			1	no cloning
8	OKM88	2005. 11. 30	female	20	nothing special		_	1	no cloning
9	OKM96	2006, 02, 13	male	36	pain on urination, pus discharge			-4-	no cloning
10	OKM98	2005. 12. 16	male	44	NR			+	no cloning
11	OKM104	2006, 02, 15	female	NR	check for STI			-4-	no cloning
12	OKM109	2006. 01. 05	female	NR	check for STI	***	-	-+-	no cloning
13	OKM112	2006. 03. 02	male	21	pain on urination	with the second	1000	1	no cloning
14	OKM116	2006. 03. 13	male	NR	pain on urination, pyuria		same	1	no cloning
15	OKM136	2006. 06. 24	male	NR	pain on urination, pus discharge	i		1	no cloning
16	OKM147	2006. 08. 18	male	30	pain on urination, pus discharge			÷	no cloning
17	OKM185	2006. 10. 31	male	43	pus discharge			+	no cloning
18	OKM202	2006. 12. 09	male	24	pus discharge			+	no cloning

NR: no records

Discussion

The results obtained in the present study revealed the presence of novel chlamydial strains that were undetectable with the PCR or LCR commonly used for diagnosis of C. trachomatis infection and that closely resembled C. caviae. C. caviae GPIC is well known as an etiologic agent in guinea pigs, but to the best of our knowledge, there have been no reports of isolated C. caviae or similar chlamydial strain from humans. How then was C. caviae-like Chlamydia isolated from the male urethra and cervical canal? No conclusive evidence on this point has been obtained. At the moment, it is speculated that C. caviae-like Chlamydia has been transmitted and colonized in the human pharynx or sexual organs through close contact with guinea pigs, and that sexual acts, including oral sex, can spread the organism from human to human. Such a speculation seems to be supported by the facts that other Chlamydophila, such as C. abortus and C. felis, regarded for a long time as animal- restricted pathogens, were revealed to be the causes of chlamydial abortion [16, 17] and conjunctivitis [18-20] in humans who might have been infected through close contact with carrier and/or infected animals. During transmission and colonization of C. caviae-like Chlamydia, genetic variations appeared to occur, because the homology of the *ompA* gene of this strain to the GPIC strain was very high but not identical. This fact leads us to speculate that several genes, not only the gene encoding MOMP but also other genes encoding functional proteins, have evolved to be stable during their transmission and multiplication in humans. Thus, it will be necessary to sequence the whole genome of *C. caviae*-like *Chlamydia* in the future.

Using the nested PCR assay specific to *C. caviae*-like *Chlamydia*, the organism was detected in a total of 18 patients. Of these patients, *C. trachomatis* and *N. gonorrhoeae* were detected in 9 and 4 patients, respectively, with one patient having both. Thus, *C. caviae*-like *Chlamydia*, with neither *C. trachomatis* nor *N. gonorrhoeae*, was detected in a total of 6 patients (4 male and 2 female patients). However, additional diagnostic tests detected *M. genitalium* in the 4 male patients. The samples of the 2 female patients were not tested because of possible genital contamination by microorganisms. Therefore, we cannot state conclusively that *C. caviae*-like *Chlamydia* is pathogenic for humans; the organism appeared to be rather common (positive percentage was 8.9%).

In general, chlamydial isolations should be done prior to antibiotic medication; fortunately, we managed to isolate strains OK135 and SC10-6 through the McCoy cell after anti-chlamydial medication. In spite of the poor response *in vivo* and the rapid growth *in vitro*, the purified strains of *C. caviae*-like *Chlamydia* were susceptible to drugs such as clarithromycin, minocycline and tosufloxacin at similar levels as other chlamydiae. It is therefore concluded that the failure of chemotherapy was due to reduced drug circulation into histopathological regions in the patients. This finding should be a warning that the drug susceptibility of chlamydiae should be determined using organisms isolated from unresponsive patients; otherwise, the drug efficacy can be misunderstood.

Recently, we have started to collect pairs of samples: from the throat and urethra for men and from the throat and uterine cervix for women. These studies are expected to clarify the prevalence of infection with *C. caviae*-like *Chlamydia* as an STI, as well as its pathogenicity. Because urethritis or cervicitis caused solely by *C. caviae*-like *Chlamydia* has not been reported, further investigations are needed to determine its pathogenicity in humans. It will also be necessary to investigate the possibility of *C. caviae*-like *Chlamydia* causing nongonococcal/nonchlamydial urethritis or cervicitis, intrapelvic peritonitis, or infertility.

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GAKUSOSHA 2010

特集



腫瘍における画像診断

樋口誠一

鳥類のクラミジア感染症 動物の環境・ ストレスと病気の関係

「ペットロスと向き合う」鷲巣月美

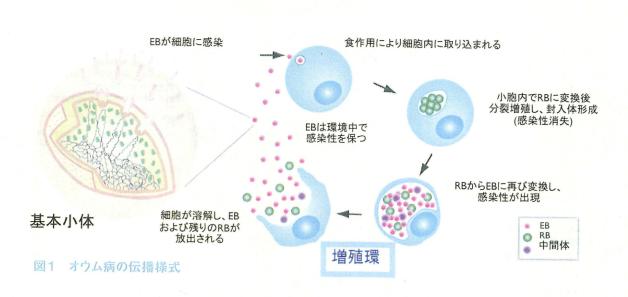
連載

「獣医麻酔の本質―科学の心でアートする―」長濱正太郎

INFECTION

ヒトと鳥が安心して共存していくために

ヒトのオウム病として知られる鳥類のクラミジア感染症 その伝播経路から診断・治療までを解説する。



ラミジアに有効な抗生 のクラミジアの増殖環 様体の時期である。 物質が有効な時期は と薬剤感受性には関連 型球型粒子である。 があり、 通常の抗生

逸すると多くの場合、

死亡する。

療されれば回復するが、

時期を

こともある。

鳥類では早期に治

症状に気づかないまま死亡する

基本小体 細胞内で形態学的変化 可能な細菌の一 真核細胞内でのみ増 を伴う増殖環を有する である。クラミジアは (Chlamydia) ウ 本 Chlamydophila 他の細菌と異なり 4 感染性粒子は 病 (elementary ク psittaci 種であ ラミジ

症 0) 原 大 菌 は となる。

症状

られることもある。 の漿液性ないし化膿性鼻漏があ 元気消失、 ストレス、 が引き金となり発症する。通常 保菌鳥は輸送、 緑灰色下痢便、 食欲減退、 栄養不良などの要因 密飼いなどの 急性例では 粘液便が見 鼻腔から

る直径約300

nm の 小

body: 山田)

と呼ばれ

類疾患である。 おいて全数届出の オウム病は感染症法に 病として知られている。 psittaci 感染は 症 を 症 (Chlamydia) であ 病 は 鳥 T 原体とする感染 オウ 類のクラミジア る Chlamydophila ム病クラミ 上 psittac 1 オウ 第四 0 0

病原体

伝播経路

は発症し死亡する。 の初感染では一部の感染ひな鳥 で感染性を保っている。 基本小体は乾燥に強く ある基本小体が多数含まれる。 にはクラミジアの感染性粒子で である。 感染症はほとんどが不顕性感染 る水平伝搬であり介卵伝達はな 搬様式は接触、 鳥類間におけるクラミジアの 類 0 45種から報告されている。 (図2)。 ではオウム目を含む18 psittaciの宿主 感染鳥が排泄する糞便 鳥類のクラミジア 吸入、 他は保菌鳥 一域は広 経口によ 環境中 ひな鳥

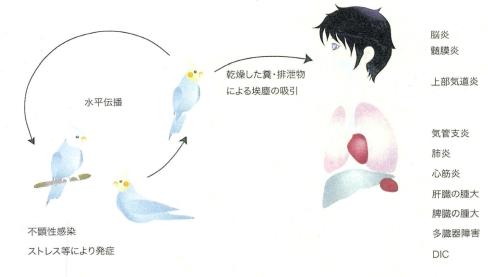
► Profile

福士秀人 (ふくしひでと)

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ゴシキセイガイインコ(11



オウム病の伝播様式

うに持続感染が成立し、 ミジアが存在する。このよ 泌液には10~10/ gのクラ糞便には10~10/ g、鼻分 続的ないし間欠的に排泄し きな役割を果たしている。 ラミジアの生存と伝搬に大 ク

よれば、 みると、 疑 体 の調査では健康診断依頼検 ける鳥類の国内生産数は 流通販売実態調査報告書に 3月に公表したペット動物 と環境省が実施し平成15年 体である鳥類について見る 染症が疑われた5例中13例 検出された。 (7·6%) % 84500 羽 アが検出された。 2003年における我 (NB·3%) 日本における感染源の主 われた検体71例中5例 491 15000羽であった。 セキセイインコ (13%) および何らかの疾病が 平成 クラミジア保有率 インコ 例中25例 にクラミジアが 斃死鳥では感 からクラミジ 14年度にお 輸入数は (保有率16 鳥種別に 5.4

となり、 する。 7 道感染である む塵埃の吸入により感染する。 は排泄物に多量の病原体を排出 触があったと考えられる。 14日の潜伏期の後に悪寒を この病原体を大量に含 (図2)。

たり排泄物中に病原体を連 不顕性感染鳥は長期間にわ などであった。 %)、チャガシラハネナガ (5%)

オウム病

合でも、 らない。 があることを啓蒙しなければな ないため、 らドバトからの感染は予防でき 街など広く生息している。 ドバトは神社仏閣、 は野外のハト の感染源として愛玩鳥に次ぐの 類がほぼ6%である。オウム病 である。感染源はオウムインコ 年までに327件の届け出があ 例が報告されているが、 の接触や関わりを見出せない症 発症している場合が多い。 染による。感染源となった鳥も めてまれである。家族発生の場 ドバトなど自覚のない鳥との接 psittaciの解析結果から野外の 999年4月から2009 年間の平均届け出数は32件 同一の感染源からの感 人から人への伝搬は極 市民に感染の危険性 (ドバト)である。 公園、 原因の. 鳥と これ 住宅

感染鳥からヒトへの伝播は気 排泄物が乾燥すると塵埃 感染鳥

オウム病についてみると、 便からDNAを抽出し、 診断 となっている。 が主となっている。 症状を主徴とする。

応用により定量的な検出も可能

によりクラミジア遺伝子を検出

オウム病の診断は遺伝子診断

鳥の新鮮糞

PCR

している。

Real-time

PCRO

治 療

これは鳥種により抗生物質への いるが、 物質も有効である ン系抗生物質の投与が行われて ある。一般にはテトラサイクリ 反応性に相違が見られるためで れた処方は必ずしも存在しない 鳥類の治療については確立さ マクロライド系の抗生

おわりに

進めている。 とにより、 育鳥の健康管理を適正に行うこ 管理にほかならない。日頃の飼 安心して暮らせるように研究を えることができる。ヒトと鳥が オウム病の予防は鳥類の健康 オウム病の発生を抑

部ないし下部呼吸器疾患および 週間持続する。 伴う高熱で突然発症し、 筋肉痛などのインフルエンザ様 頭痛、 **蓋明**、 上