L. Barth Reller and Melvin P. Weinstein, Section Editors

New Consensus Guidelines from the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing of Infrequently Isolated or Fastidious Bacteria

James H. Jorgensen¹ and Janet F. Hindler²

¹Department of Pathology, The University of Texas Health Science Center, San Antonio, Texas; and ²Department of Pathology and Laboratory Medicine, UCLA Medical Center, Los Angeles, California

The Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) recently published a new laboratory guideline for antimicrobial susceptibility testing of infrequently encountered or fastidious bacteria not covered in previous CLSI publications. The organisms include Aeromonas species, Bacillus species, and Vibrio species that may cause infections following environmental exposure. Fastidious organisms that may cause endocarditis or medical device infections include Abiotrophia and Granulicatella species; coryneform bacteria; Haemophilus, Actinobacillus, Cardiobacterium, Eikenella, and Kingella group gramnegative rods; and the instrinsically vancomycin-resistant gram-positive organisms Erysipelothrix, Lactobacillus, Leuconostoc, and Pediococcus species. Organisms not previously covered in depth in CLSI guidelines include Branhamella catarrhalis, Campylobacter jejuni, Campylobacter coli, Listeria species, and Pasteurella species. Clinically important drug resistance has been reported for each of these organisms. The guidelines provide recommendations for when it may be important to test these organisms, how standard methods may be easily adapted for testing, and appropriate interpretive criteria for results. Communication with infectious diseases clinicians prior to performing such testing is emphasized.

Improved management of cases involving immunosuppressed patients, expanded use of various prosthetic devices, and the wide use of intravascular catheters occasionally lead to infections with infrequently encountered bacteria and fungi [1–3]. Infections due to corynebacteria, lactobacilli, *Bacillus* species, *Leuconostoc* species, and *Pediococcus* species can occur in these circumstances. Endocarditis associated with native or prosthetic valves may be caused by species belonging to genera such as *Abiotrophia* or *Granulicatella* or by members of the *Haemophilus*, *Actinobacillus*, *Cardiobacterium*, *Eikenella*, and *Kingella* (HACEK) group of fastidious gram-negative rods [4, 5]. Softtissue infections due to *Aeromonas*, *Plesiomonas*, or *Vibrio* spe-

cies may occur following exposure to fresh or salt water [6, 7]. Animal bite wound infections due to Pasteurella species are not uncommon, and soft-tissue or systemic infections due to Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae can result from fish, poultry, or swine exposures [8, 9]. When these uncommon bacterial pathogens are encountered, it may prompt consultation with an infectious diseases specialist for optimal patient management. Even the most experienced clinician may ask, "What should an infection due to that organism be treated with? Can you provide me susceptibility data on my patient's isolate?" The response from the clinical microbiology laboratory is often, "There are no guidelines for testing that organism." However, resistance to antimicrobial agents that might be selected for therapy has been reported for nearly all of these organisms, emphasizing the need for reliable in vitro susceptibility testing recommendations for these bacteria. The purpose of this review is to provide the rationale for the development of the new Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI; formerly the NCCLS) guidelines on antimicrobial susceptibility testing of infrequently encountered or fastidious bacteria. A second goal is to emphasize

Received 18 July 2006; accepted 19 September 2006; electronically published 7 December 2006.

Reprints or correspondence: Dr. James H. Jorgensen, Dept. of Pathology, University of Texas Health Science Center, 7703 Floyd Curl Dr., San Antonio, TX 78229 (jorgensen@uthscsa.edu).

Clinical Infectious Diseases 2007; 44:280-6

© 2006 by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. All rights reserved. 1058-4838/2007/4402-0021\$15.00

the critical importance of communication between clinicians and clinical microbiology laboratories when testing of these organisms is contemplated in individual cases.

THE ROLE OF THE CLSI IN ANTIMICROBIAL SUSCEPTIBILITY TESTING

Laboratories have relied upon the CLSI for many years to provide comprehensive, up-to-date standards and guidelines for antimicrobial susceptibility testing. The CLSI documents provide guidance on the most-relevant drugs to test and report on specific organisms, quality-control ranges to assure accurate and reproducible results, and interpretive criteria or breakpoints to interpret MICs and disk diffusion zone measurements [10–12].

The most widely used CLSI documents include M2 for performance of disk diffusion tests [11] and M7 for performance of MIC tests [10]. These 2 documents are used with a companion document, M100 [12], which contains the supplemental tables with drugs recommended for testing and reporting, interpretive breakpoints, and quality-control ranges. Both M2 [11] and M7 [10] address testing of common, rapidly growing aerobic bacteria, including staphylococci, enterococci, members of the family Enterobacteriaceae, Pseudomonas species, Acinetobacter species, Burkholderia cepacia, Stenotrophomonas maltophilia, and Vibrio cholerae. M2 [11] and M7 [10] also include recommendations for testing of Haemophilus influenzae, Neisseria gonorrhoeae, Streptococcus species (including Streptococcus pneumoniae), and, most recently, Neisseria meningitidis. Since 2001, some limited recommendations have been added for susceptibility testing of potential agents of bioterrorism, including Bacillus anthracis, Brucella species, Burkholderia mallei, Burkholderia pseudomallei, Francisella tularensis, and Yersinia pestis [12]. Another CLSI document, M11 [13], describes agar and broth microdilution MIC tests for anaerobic bacteria.

CLSI METHODS FOR ESTABLISHING BREAKPOINTS

To establish MIC interpretive criteria or breakpoints for new antimicrobial agents, to modify existing breakpoints, or to establish breakpoints for organisms for which breakpoints have not previously existed, 4 types of data have been required, as outlined in a CLSI publication [14]. First, an analysis in performed of the MICs of a particular drug with wild-type bacterial isolates that lack known drug-resistance mechanisms, as well as of the MICs of the drug with strains that contain known drug-resistance mechanisms that affect the particular drug class, to assess the impact of that drug-resistance mechanism. Second, the pharmacokinetics of the drug are examined, including levels achieved in various body fluids and tissues in healthy volunteers and in patients with various types of infections.

In recent years, the CLSI has found pharmacodynamic de-

terminations to be a useful third parameter to consider in establishing breakpoints. The importance of the peak serum level of the drug or the area under the drug-concentration curve (AUC), compared with the drug's MICs, has been recognized with aminoglycosides and fluoroquinolones. In addition, the duration of the period in which the drug levels in serum or other fluids are maintained above a proposed MIC breakpoint (T>MIC) is useful with β -lactams and glycopeptides [15]. Mathematical modeling of the likelihood of attaining the desired pharmacodynamic parameters with various drug doses has assisted in the selection of safe interpretive breakpoints [16].

The fourth element in the determination of breakpoints involves a careful review of clinical and bacteriological response data usually collected during large clinical trials of a new agent before its approval by the US Food and Drug Administration. It should be noted, however, that these data are often limited by the design of clinical trials to systematically exclude patients whose isolates are thought to be drug resistant on the basis of prior assumptions from the microbiological and pharmacokinetic data. Moreover, data from large clinical trials are generally not available for reassessment of older drugs when new bacterial drug-resistance mechanisms emerge several years after a drug has been introduced into clinical practice. The process of integrating the 4 types of data in determining breakpoints has been outlined in detail in CLSI document M23-A2 [14].

A NEED FOR ADDITIONAL ANTIMICROBIAL SUSCEPTIBILITY TESTING RECOMMENDATIONS

Despite the comprehensive nature of CLSI documents M2, M7, M11, and M100 [10-13], there were several genera of bacteria that were isolated periodically by clinical microbiology laboratories from human infections for which there were no CLSI recommendations. These included various coryneform bacteria, Bacillus species (other than B. anthracis), Abiotrophia and Granulicatella species, and several species of fastidious gramnegative bacteria (e.g., HACEK group organisms and Pasteurella species). Very limited information was provided in CLSI documents M2 [11] and M7 [10] for testing Listeria species, Campylobacter jejuni, and Campylobacter coli. The lack of test methods or interpretive criteria for these organisms and the lack of guidance regarding the most important drugs for testing made it difficult to assess the susceptibility of isolates from individual patients and difficult for public health authorities to monitor any emerging drug resistance. This realization led CLSI to examine the incidence of drug resistance and to pursue development of guidelines for antimicrobial susceptibility testing of several infrequently encountered or fastidious bacteria that were not addressed in the previous CLSI documents.

SOME RESISTANCE CONCERNS FOR INFREQUENTLY ISOLATED OR FASTIDIOUS BACTERIA

Resistance in uncommon gram-positive cocci and rods. Notable among the Corynebacterium species are Corynebacterium jeikeium and Corynebacterium urealyticum, both of which have been reported to be multidrug resistant (including resistance to penicillins and cephalosporins, macrolides, and aminoglycosides) and both of which may cause medical devicerelated infections [17]. Corynebacterium striatum may be resistant to macrolides, lincosamides, tetracyclines, and fluoroquinolones [17, 18]. The related genera, Arcanobacterium and Arthrobacter, can be resistant to fluoroquinolones and aminoglycosides [17], Brevibacterium species may have reduced β lactam susceptibility [19], and Turicella may be macrolide and clindamycin resistant [19]. It is not widely known that Microbacterium resistens is intrinsically vancomycin resistant [20], and Leifsonia aquatica strains have diminished vancomycin susceptibility [19]. *Listeria monocytogenes* is predictably susceptible to penicillin, to ampicillin, and to synergy between those agents and gentamicin, but it is intrinsically cephalosporin resistant [21]. However, alternative agents may be needed for patients who are allergic to or intolerant of the drugs of choice [22].

There are numerous species of *Bacillus* that can cause wound or ocular infections resulting from traumatic inoculations with soil or water. *Bacillus cereus* and *Bacillus thuringiensis* produce 1 or more potent broad-spectrum β -lactamases that affect all penicillins, cephalosporins, and carbapenems [23]. However, *Bacillus* species may be susceptible to other drug classes, including vancomycin, macrolides, fluoroquinolones, or aminoglycosides, that could be used for therapy [24].

There are several uncommon, intrinsically vancomycinresistant, gram-positive cocci and rods that can cause serious human infections. These include Leuconostoc, Pediococcus, Ervsipelothrix rhusiopathiae, and many—but not all—species of Lactobacillus. Some of these bacteria can, at times, be confused with vancomycin-resistant enterococci [25]. Lactobacilli can cause bacteremia and endocarditis that is difficult to treat because of resistance or marginal susceptibility to penicillins, cephalosporins, and aminoglycosides [26]. Some strains may only be susceptible to carbapenems or newer agents directed against drug-resistant gram-positive bacteria [27, 28]. Leuconostoc and Pediococcus species are infrequently encountered relatives of the streptococci that are resistant to vancomycin but are usually susceptible to β -lactams, chloramphenicol, tetracyclines, and aminoglycosides [27]. However, resistance to cephalosporins and carbapenems has been reported in Leuconostoc species [29].

Isolates previously known as nutritionally-deficient or "satelliting" streptococci have now been placed in 2 new genera:

Abiotrophia and Granulicatella. It is difficult for clinical laboratories to separate these 2 genera by standard biochemical tests; they may simply be reported as Abiotrophia or Granulicatella species. They have been reported to have diminished susceptibility to penicillin, resulting in poorer response to treatment with penicillin in patients with endocarditis [30]. Fluoroquinolone resistance has been reported in an Abiotrophia isolate from a neutropenic patient with cancer [31].

Resistance in less-commonly isolated, nonfastidious gramnegative rods. Aeromonas species, Plesiomonas shigelloides, and noncholera Vibrio species represent less frequently isolated gram-negative rods that have lacked CLSI interpretive criteria, even though they are not fastidious and grow well in or on unsupplemented Mueller-Hinton medium. Aeromonas species can produce as many as 3 different β -lactamases, including a carbapenemase [32]. Although it is generally recognized that Aeromonas species are resistant to ampicillin, they can have variable susceptibility to cephalosporins [33]. P. shigelloides has been transferred to the family Enterobacteriaceae but has not specifically been included in the CLSI M2, M7, and M100 publications [10-12]. P. shigelloides isolates produce a β -lactamase that may be weakly expressed under standard test conditions, such that susceptibility to ampicillin is greatly affected by the density of the inoculum used in a susceptibility test [34]. Most of the clinically significant Vibrio species, including the so-called halophilic species, grow well in standard Mueller-Hinton medium without additional NaCl. The susceptibility of the different species can vary, particularly with respect to the older penicillins, cephalosporins, and the sulfonamides [35].

Resistance in fastidious gram-negative rods. The HACEK group of fastidious gram-negative bacilli have long been recognized as causative agents of infective endocarditis [36]. As part of the normal oropharyngeal flora, these bacteria can be repeatedly exposed to antimicrobial agents during therapy for various types of infections, leading to the development of drug resistance. Haemophilus aphrophilus and Haemophilus paraphrophilus are the species most often associated with endocarditis or brain abscesses. Actinobacillus actinomycetemcomitans may be resistant to penicillins, macrolides, and aminoglycosides [37]. Eikenella corrodens is often implicated in bite-wound infections that may be treated empirically with agents that are active against anaerobes and gram-positive bacteria (e.g., clindamycin) but not E. corrodens. Cardiobacterium hominis, E. corrodens, and Kingella species may produce β -lactamases that are inhibited by clavulanic acid. These β -lactamases can be readily detected by testing of colonies with nitrocefin [38-40].

Pasteurella species are relatively fastidious gram-negative rods that are most often associated with infected cat or dog bites but can cause pneumonia and bacteremia in immunosuppressed individuals. *Pasteurella* species may be penicillin resistant because of production of a β -lactamase [41], and they are often not susceptible to oral agents that might be used for empiric therapy of bite wound infections [42, 43]. The β -lactamases in *Pasteurella* species can also be detected by testing with nitrocefin [41].

C. jejuni and C. coli cause gastrointestinal infections in both developed and developing countries. In some parts of the world, fluoroquinolone and macrolide resistance occurs in those 2 species, and fluoroquinolone and macrolide resistance is increasing in the United States as well [44–46]. Therefore, it is likely that clinical laboratories will be asked to test individual clinical isolates of Campylobacter in the future, and public health laboratories will need to perform surveillance of antimicrobial resistance in human and animal isolates. The CLSI previously described testing conditions for Campylobacter species but did not define interpretive breakpoints [12].

Drug resistance in Moraxella catarrhalis. M. catarrhalis causes a variety of mild-to-moderate respiratory infections that are often treated with oral antimicrobial agents. Approximately 90% of contemporary isolates produce 1 of 2 relatively weak β-lactamases (BRO-1 and BRO-2) that render them resistant to penicillin and amoxicillin, but these β-lactamases are inhibited by clavulanic acid and do not hydrolyze most expanded-or extended-spectrum cephalosporins to a significant extent [47]. However, M. catarrhalis, like Neisseria species, are intrinsically resistant to trimethoprim, and infrequent resistance to sulfonamides and tetracyclines has been reported [48, 49].

THE NEW CLSI M45-A GUIDELINE

In response to the recognized need for guidance in performing antimicrobial susceptibility testing of the fastidious or uncommon bacteria described above, the CLSI formed a working group in 2003 to develop a new CLSI document. The document, "Methods for Antimicrobial Dilution and Disk Susceptibility Testing of Infrequently Isolated or Fastidious Bacteria," was published as an approved guideline (M45-A) in May 2006 [50] and represents a consensus approach to standardized antimicrobial susceptibility testing of 14 genera, species, or organism groups of uncommon or fastidious bacteria. It includes details of the standardized methodology for testing each organism or organism group, gives reasons for testing or not testing the organisms, lists appropriate quality-control measures, and provides specific interpretive breakpoints. There are 14 separate tables that highlight this information and also provide key drugresistance concerns, references for deriving the interpretive breakpoints, and several additional testing notes.

M45-A TESTING RECOMMENDATIONS

For all organisms included in M45-A [50], the testing media, incubation conditions, and quality-control procedures are the same standardized methods as those recommended for testing commonly encountered bacteria in CLSI M2, M7, and M100 [10–12]; no exotic test media or test formats have been suggested. Broth microdilution MIC tests are described for all of

Table 1. Summary of infrequently isolated or fastidious bacteria included in Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute document M45-A [50] and the suggested media for testing.

Organism	Broth microdilution MIC test	Disk diffusion test
Gram positive		
Abiotrophia and Granulicatella species	CAMHB and 2.5%-5% LHB and 0.001% pyridoxal HCl	NR
Bacillus species (excluding Bacillus anthracis)	САМНВ	NR
Corynebacterium species	CAMHB and 2.5%-5% LHB	NR
Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae	CAMHB and 2.5%-5% LHB	NR
Lactobacillus species	CAMHB and 2.5%-5% LHB	NR
Leuconostoc species	CAMHB and 2.5%-5% LHB	NR
Listeria monocytogenes	CAMHB and 2.5%-5% LHB	NR
Pediococcus species	CAMHB and 2.5%-5% LHB	NR
Gram negative		
Aeromonas hydrophila complex and Plesiomonas shigelloides	САМНВ	MHA
Campylobacter jejuni and Campylobacter coli	CAMHB and 2.5%-5% LHB	MHA
HACEK group ^a	CAMHB and 2.5%-5% LHB	NR
Moraxella catarrhalis	САМНВ	NR
Pasteurella species	CAMHB and 2.5%-5% LHB	MHA and 5% SB
Vibrio species (excluding Vibrio cholerae)	САМНВ	MHA

NOTE. CAMHB, cation-adjusted Mueller-Hinton broth; LHB, lysed horse blood; MHA, Mueller-Hinton agar; NR, not recommended; SB, sheep blood.

^a HACEK group includes *Haemophilus aphrophilus*, *Haemophilus paraphrophilus*, *Haemophilus segnis*, *Actinobacillus actinomycetem-comitans*, *Cardiobacterium* species, *Eikenella corrodens*, and *Kingella* species.

the organisms, incorporating either unsupplemented cationadjusted Mueller-Hinton broth or cation-adjusted Mueller-Hinton broth supplemented with 2.5%–5% lysed horse blood (table 1). The latter is the same medium recommended for testing of *S. pneumoniae* and other streptococci [12]. The only organisms in M45-A [50] for which disk diffusion testing with some drugs is recommended at present are *Aeromonas, Plesiomonas, Campylobacter, Pasteurella*, and *Vibrio* species (table 1). Recommendations for testing *Aeromonas, Plesiomonas*, and *Vibrio* species, including disk diffusion and MIC breakpoints, are the same as those for testing Enterobacteriaceae, described in CLSI M2, M7, and M100 [10–12].

Use of standard quality-control organisms recommended for tests described in CLSI M2, M7, and M100 [10–12], including *S. pneumoniae* ATCC 49619, *Staphylococcus aureus* ATCC 29213 and ATCC 25923, *Escherichia coli* ATCC 25922 and ATCC 35218, and *C. jejuni* ATCC 33560, are used as controls for testing the organisms included in M45-A [50].

DEVELOPING M45-A INTERPRETIVE BREAKPOINTS

As mentioned above, CLSI's standard process for developing interpretive breakpoints is very complex and requires data from testing large numbers of organisms and studying outcomes in significant numbers of human infections. Because of the low frequency of infections due to the organisms included in M45-A [50], and because most of the antimicrobial agents of interest have been marketed for a number of years, it was not possible to adhere to all of the rigorous requirements outlined in CLSI document M23-A2 [14] to establish interpretive breakpoints for these "orphan" organisms. The breakpoints listed in M45-A [50] were derived, in most cases, from breakpoints currently listed in CLSI M100 [12] for more-common species that cause similar types of infections at similar body sites. In a few cases, tests were performed to help establish M45-A [50] breakpoints (e.g., coryneform bacteria, Bacillus species, Pasteurella species, and the C. jejuni and C. coli disk diffusion breakpoints). Within each of the 14 organism-group tables of interpretive criteria in M45-A [50], the sources used for the breakpoints are indicated. Thus, the methodology employed in M45-A [50] is well standardized, although the interpretive breakpoints proposed in this "guideline" were not derived using the large data bases normally associated with CLSI standards. The appropriateness of the chosen breakpoints for each organism or organism group was assessed by determining the usual distribution of MICs of wildtype strains and MICs of strains with well-characterized drugresistance mechanisms reported in the published literature and/ or determined by tests performed in the laboratories of several of the working group members. The limited number of publications that were available indicating clinical responses in case reports or case series were scoured for MICs of the drugs

associated with success or clinical failures. Where no known drug resistance has been described, a susceptible-only breakpoint was assigned.

APPLICATION OF CLSI M45-A IN A CLINICAL MICROBIOLOGY LABORATORY

It is very important to understand that the provision of this new CLSI guideline does not mean that antimicrobial susceptibility testing should be performed on every clinical isolate for the organisms included in M45-A [50]. The numbers of isolates tested will be low for most of the organisms or organism groups. Exceptions will occur for *Bacillus*, *Corynebacterium*, *Lactobacillus*, and *Leuconostoc* species that are often considered to be normal flora. As with other organisms that are indigenous to the skin and mucous membranes, it is imperative to be certain, prior to testing, that a particular isolate among these genera is likely to be clinically significant and not representative of contamination or normal flora.

Although Aeromonas, Plesiomonas, Campylobacter, Erysipelothrix, Listeria, Moraxella, Pasteurella, Pediococcus, and Vibrio species are more likely to be associated with a pathogenic process, susceptibility testing of these organisms is not always necessary. Even cases of infective endocarditis due to Abiotrophia or Granulicatella or a HACEK gram-negative rod may often be managed by following recommendations in the medical literature without the results of susceptibility testing.

Consequently, antimicrobial susceptibility testing of organisms addressed in M45-A should "only be undertaken in consultation with infectious diseases or other expert clinicians that can assist in determining if susceptibility testing is needed in the management of a specific patient, and in interpretation of any results generated" [50, p. 5]. This statement is included in bold type in the introductory pages of M45-A [50]. Generally, only isolates involved in serious infections would be tested, and additional considerations for testing would include (1) persistent infection, (2) clinical failure, (3) allergy to or intolerance of the drugs of choice, and (4) possible resistance to a drug that might be prescribed. Testing of the organisms described in M45-A [50] should only be performed by laboratories experienced with the recommended broth microdilution MIC procedures.

Acknowledgments

We thank the other members of the CLSI M45 working group—Diane Citron, Frank Cockerill, Thomas Fritsche, Guido Funke, Jean Patel, Paul Schreckenberger, John Turnidge, Robert Walker, and David Welch—for their diligent efforts in the development of M45-A.

Potential conflicts of interest. J.H.J. has received recent research funding from BD Microbiology Systems, bioMérieux, and Cubist and has served on advisory boards for BD Microbiology Systems and bioMérieux. J.F.H. serves on the speakers' bureaus of bioMérieux, Dade Behring MicroScan, and Ortho McNeil Pharmaceutical and serves as a consultant to Dade Behring MicroScan.

References

- Klastersky J, Aoun M. Opportunistic infections in patients with cancer. [Review] Ann Oncol 2004; 15(Suppl 4):329–35.
- Arciola CR, An YH, Campoccia D, et al. Etiology of implant orthopedic infections: a survey on 1027 clinical isolates. Int J Artif Organs 2005;28: 1091–100.
- Campoccia D, Montanaro L, Arciola CR. The significance of infection related to orthopedic devices and issues of antibiotic resistance review]. Biomaterials 2006; 27:2331–9.
- 4. Christensen JJ, Facklam RR. *Granulicatella* and *Abiotrophia* species from human clinical specimens. J Clin Microbiol **2001**; 39:3520–3.
- Das M, Badley AD, Cockerill FR, et al. Infective endocarditis caused by HACEK microorganisms. Ann Rev Med 1997; 48:25–33.
- Jones BL, Wilcox MH. Aeromonas infections and their treatment. J Antimicrob Chemother 1995; 35:453–61.
- 7. Chiang SR, Chuang YC. *Vibrio vulnificus* infection: clinical manifestations, pathogenesis, and antimicrobial therapy. J Microbiol Immunol Infect **2003**; 36:81–8.
- 8. Talan DA, Citron DM, Abrahamian FM, et al. Bacteriologic analysis of infected dog and cat bites. N Engl J Med 1999; 340:85–92.
- Gorby GL, Peacock JE. Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae endocarditis: microbiologic, epidemiologic, and clinical features of an occupational disease. Rev Infect Dis 1988; 10:317–25.
- Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute. Methods for dilution antimicrobial susceptibility tests for bacteria that grow aerobically. Approved standard M7-A7. Wayne, PA: Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute, 2006.
- Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute. Performance standards for antimicrobial disk susceptibility tests. Approved standard M2-A9. Wayne, PA: Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute, 2006.
- Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute. Performance standards for antimicrobial susceptibility testing. Supplement M100-S16. Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute: Wayne, PA: Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute, 2006.
- NCCLS. Methods for antimicrobial susceptibility testing of anaerobic bacteria. Approved standard M11-A6. Wayne, PA: NCCLS, 2004.
- NCCLS. Development of in vitro susceptibility testing criteria and quality control parameters. NCCLS document M23-A2. Wayne, PA: NCCLS, 2001
- Craig WA. Pharmacokinetics/pharmacodynamic parameters: rationale for antibacterial dosing of mice and men. Clin Infect Dis 1998; 26: 1–10
- Montgomery MJ, Beringer PM, Aminimanizani A, et al. Population pharmacokinetics and use of Monte Carlo simulation to evaluate currently recommended dosing regimens of ciprofloxacin in adult patients with cystic fibrosis. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2001; 45:3468–73.
- Funke G, Bernard KA. Coryneform gram-positive rods. In: Murray PR, Baron EJ, Jorgensen JH, Pfaller MA, Yolken RH, eds. Manual of clinical microbiology. 8th ed. Washington, DC: American Society for Microbiology, 2003:472–501.
- Martínez-Martínez L, Suárez AI, Ortega MC, et al. Comparative in vitro activities of new quinolones against coryneform bacteria. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1994; 38:1439–41.
- Funke G, Pünter V, von Graevenitz A. Antimicrobial susceptibility patterns of some recently established coryneform bacteria. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1996; 40:2874

 –8.
- Funke G, Lawson PA, Nolte FS, et al. Aureobacterium resistens sp. nov. exhibiting vancomycin resistance and teicoplanin susceptibility. FEMS Microbiol Lett 1998; 158:89–93.
- Jones EM, MacGowan AP. Antimicrobial chemotherapy of human infection due to *Listeria monocytogenes*. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 1995; 14:165–75.
- Safdar A, Armstrong D. Antimicrobial activities against 84 Listeria monocytogenes isolates from patients with systemic listeriosis at a comprehensive cancer center (1955–1997). J Clin Microbiol 2003; 41:483–5.

- Andrews JM, Wise R. Susceptibility testing of *Bacillus* species. J Antimicrob Chemother 2002; 49:1039–46.
- Weber DJ, Saviteer SM, Rutalla WA, et al. *In vitro* susceptibility of Bacillus spp. to selected antimicrobial agents. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1988; 32:642–5.
- Swenson JM, Facklam RR, Thornsberry C. Antimicrobial susceptibility of vancomycin-resistant *Leuconostoc*, *Pediococcus*, and *Lactobacillus* species. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1990; 34:543–9.
- Husni RN, Gordon SM, Washington JA, et al. Lactobacillus bacteremia and endocarditis: review of 45 cases. Clin Infect Dis 1997; 25:1048–55.
- 27. de la Maza L, Ruoff KL, Ferraro MJ. *In vitro* activities of daptomycin and other antimicrobial agents against vancomycin-resistant gram-positive bacteria. Antimicrob Agents Chemother **1989**; 33:1383–4.
- Goldstein EJ, Citron DM, Merriam CV, et al. *In vitro* activities of daptomycin, vancomycin, quinupristin-dalfopristin, linezolid, and five other antimicrobials against 307 gram-positive anaerobic and 31 *Co-rynebacterium* clinical isolates. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2003; 47:337–41.
- 29. Deye G, Lewis J, Patterson J, et al. A case of *Leuconostoc* ventriculitis with resistance to carbapenem antibiotics. Clin Infect Dis **2003**; 37: 869–70.
- Ruoff KL. Nutritionally variant streptococci. Clin Microbiol Rev 1991;
 4:184–90
- 31. Murray CK, Walter EA, Crawford S, et al. *Abiotrophia* bacteremia in a patient with neutropenic fever and antimicrobial susceptibility testing of *Abiotrophia* isolates. Clin Infect Dis **2001**; 32:e140–2.
- Rossolini GM, Walsh T, Amicosante G. The Aeromonas metallo-β-lactamases: genetics, enzymology, and contribution to drug resistance. Microb Drug Resist 1996; 2:245–51.
- Bakken JS, Sanders CC, Clark RB, et al. β-Lactam resistance in *Aeromonas* spp. caused by inducible β-lactamases active against penicillins, cephalosporins, and carbapenems. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1988; 32:1314–9.
- Stock I, Wiedemann B. β-Lactam-susceptibility patterns of *Plesiomonas shigelloides* strains: importance of inoculum and medium. Scand J Infect Dis 2001; 33:692–6.
- Farmer III J J, Janda JM, Birkhead K. Vibrio, In: Murray PR, Baron EJ, Jorgensen JH, Pfaller MA, Yolken RH, eds. Manual of clinical microbiology. 8th ed. Washington, DC: American Society for Microbiology, 2003:706–18.
- 36. Das M, Badley AD, Cockerill FR, et al. Infective endocarditis caused by HACEK microorganisms. Ann Rev Med 1997; 48:25–33.
- Kugler KC, Biedenbach DJ, Jones RN. Determination of the antimicrobial activity of 29 clinically important compounds tested against fastidious HACEK group organisms. Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis 1999; 34:73–6.
- 38. Lu PL, Hsueh P-R, Hung C-C. Infective endocarditis complicated with progressive heart failure due to β-lactamase-producing *Cardiobacterium hominis*. J Clin Microbiol **2000**; 38:2015–7.
- Goldstein EJC, Citron DM, Merriam CV, et al. *In vitro* activities of a new des-fluoroquinolone, BMS 284756, and seven other antimicrobial agents against 151 isolates of *Eikenella corrodens*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2002; 46:1141–3.
- Sordillo EM, Rendel M, Sood R, et al. Septicemia due to β-lactamase–positive Kingella kingae. Clin Infect Dis 1993; 17:818–9.
- Lion C, Lozniewski A, Rosner V, et al. Lung abscess due to β-lactamase–producing Pasteurella multocida.. Clin Infect Dis 1999; 29:1345–6.
- Goldstein EJ, Citron DM, Merriam CV, et al. *In vitro* activities of garenoxacin (BMS-284756) against 170 clinical isolates of nine *Pas*teurella species. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2002; 46:3068–70.
- 43. Citron DM, Warren YA, Fernandez HT, et al. Broth microdilution and disk diffusion tests for susceptibility testing of *Pasteurella* species from human clinical specimens. J Clin Microbiol **2005**; 43:2485–8.
- 44. Engberg J, Aarestrup FM, Taylor DE, et al. Quinolone and macrolide resistance in *Campylobacter jejuni* and *C. coli* resistance mechanisms and trends in human isolates. Emerg Infect Dis **2001**;7:24–34.
- 45. Murphy GS Jr, Echeverria P, Jackson LR, et al. Ciprofloxacin- and

- azithromycin-resistant *Campylobacter* causing traveler's diarrhea in US troops deployed to Thailand in 1994. Clin Infect Dis **1996**; 22:868–9.
- Nachamkin I, Ung H, Li M. Increasing fluoroquinolone resistance in *Campylobacter jejuni*, Pennsylvania, USA, 1982–2001. Emerg Infect Dis 2002; 8:1501–3.
- 47. Wallace RJ, Steingrube VA, Nash DR, et al. BRO β-lactamases of *Branhamella catarrhalis* and *Moraxella* subgenus *Moraxella*, including evidence for chromosomal β-lactamase transfer by conjugation in *B. catarrhalis*, *M. nonliquefaciens*, and *M. lacunata*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother **1989**; 33:1845–54.
- 48. Doern GV, Tubert TA. In vitro activities of 39 antimicrobial agents for
- *Branhamella catarrhalis* and comparison of results with different quantitative susceptibility test methods. Antimicrob Agents Chemother **1988**; 32:259–61.
- 49. Felmingham D, Gruneberg RN. A multicentre collaborative study of the antimicrobial susceptibility of community-acquired, lower respiratory tract pathogens, 1992–1993: the Alexander Project. The Alexander Project Group. J Antimicrob Chemother 1996; 38 (Suppl A):1–57.
- Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute. Methods for antimicrobial dilution and disk susceptibility testing of infrequently isolated or fastidious bacteria. Approved standard M45-A. Wayne, PA: Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute, 2006.