

1164 hematologic in nature. Extrapulmonary manifestations can be a result of disseminated infection, especially in patients with humoral immunodeficiencies (e.g., septic arthritis); postinfectious autoimmune phenomena (e.g., Guillain-Barré syndrome); or possibly ADP-ribosylating toxin. Overall, these manifestations are uncommon, given the frequency of *M. pneumoniae* infection. Notably, many patients with extrapulmonary *M. pneumoniae* disease do not have respiratory disease.

Skin eruptions described with *M. pneumoniae* infection include erythematous (macular or maculopapular), vesicular, bullous, petechial, and urticarial rashes. In some reports, 17% of patients with *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia have had an exanthem. Erythema multiforme major (Stevens-Johnson syndrome) is the most clinically significant skin eruption associated with *M. pneumoniae* infection; it appears to occur more commonly with *M. pneumoniae* than with other infectious agents.

A wide spectrum of neurologic manifestations has been reported with *M. pneumoniae* infection. The most common are meningoencephalitis, encephalitis, Guillain-Barré syndrome, and aseptic meningitis. *M. pneumoniae* has been implicated as a likely etiologic agent in 5–7% of cases of encephalitis. Other neurologic manifestations may include cranial neuropathy, acute psychosis, cerebellar ataxia, acute demyelinating encephalomyelitis, cerebrovascular thromboembolic events, and transverse myelitis.

Hematologic manifestations of *M. pneumoniae* infection include hemolytic anemia, aplastic anemia, cold agglutinins, disseminated intravascular coagulation, and hypercoagulopathy. When anemia does occur, it generally develops in the second or third week of illness.

In addition, hepatitis, glomerulonephritis, pancreatitis, myocarditis, pericarditis, rhabdomyolysis, and arthritis (septic and reactive) have been convincingly ascribed to *M. pneumoniae* infection. Septic arthritis has been described most commonly in hypogammaglobulinemic patients.

DIAGNOSIS

Clinical findings, nonmicrobiologic laboratory tests, and chest radiography are not useful for differentiating *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia from other types of community-acquired pneumonia. In addition, since *M. pneumoniae* lacks a cell wall, it is not visible on Gram's stain. Although of historical interest, the measurement of cold agglutinin titers is no longer recommended for the diagnosis of *M. pneumoniae* infection because the findings are nonspecific and assays specific for *M. pneumoniae* are now available.

Acute *M. pneumoniae* infection can be diagnosed by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) detection of the organism in respiratory tract secretions or by isolation of the organism in culture (Table 212-1). Oropharyngeal, nasopharyngeal, and pulmonary specimens are all acceptable for diagnosing *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia. Other bodily fluids, such as cerebrospinal fluid, are acceptable for extrapulmonary infection. *M. pneumoniae* culture (which requires special media) is not recommended for routine diagnosis because the organism may take weeks to grow and is often difficult to isolate from clinical specimens. In contrast, PCR allows rapid, specific diagnosis earlier in the course of clinical illness.


The diagnosis can also be established by serologic tests for IgM and IgG antibodies to *M. pneumoniae* in paired (acute- and convalescent-phase) serum samples; enzyme-linked immunoassay is

the recommended serologic method. An acute-phase sample alone is not adequate for diagnosis, as antibodies to *M. pneumoniae* may not develop until 2 weeks into the illness; therefore, it is important to test paired samples. In addition, IgM antibody to *M. pneumoniae* can persist for up to 1 year after acute infection. Thus its presence may indicate recent rather than acute infection.

The combination of PCR of respiratory tract secretions and serologic testing constitutes the most sensitive and rapid approach to the diagnosis of *M. pneumoniae* infection.

TREATMENT MYCOPLASMA PNEUMONIAE INFECTIONS

Although in the majority of untreated cases symptoms resolve within 2–3 weeks without significant associated morbidity, *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia can be a serious illness that responds to appropriate antimicrobial therapy (Table 212-2). Randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trials in adults have demonstrated that antimicrobial treatment significantly decreases the duration of fever, cough, malaise, hospitalization, and radiologic abnormalities in *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia. Treatment options for acute *M. pneumoniae* infection include macrolides (e.g., oral azithromycin, 500 mg on day 1, then 250 mg/d on days 2–5), tetracyclines (e.g., oral doxycycline, 100 mg twice daily for 10–14 days), and respiratory fluoroquinolones. However, ciprofloxacin and ofloxacin are not recommended because of their high minimal inhibitory concentrations against *M. pneumoniae* isolates and their poor performance in experimental studies. A 10- to 14-day course of quinolone therapy appears adequate.

 In Japan and China, very high levels (up to ≥90%) of *M. pneumoniae* resistance to macrolides have been reported. In Europe and to a lesser degree in the United States, macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae* is emerging. In investigated outbreaks of respiratory illness due to *M. pneumoniae* in the United States, macrolide resistance has been reported in 8–27% of isolates. Clinical studies have demonstrated that, when treated with macrolides, patients with community-acquired pneumonia due to macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae* experience a significantly longer duration of symptoms than do patients infected with macrolide-sensitive organisms; thus macrolide resistance in *M. pneumoniae* does appear to have clinical significance. If macrolide resistance is prominent in a particular geographic locale or is suspected, then a nonmacrolide antibiotic should be considered for treatment; in addition, culture of *M. pneumoniae* may prove useful in these instances, providing an isolate for susceptibility testing.

Clinical observations and experimental data suggest that the addition of glucocorticoids to an antibiotic regimen may be of value for the treatment of severe or refractory *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia. However, relevant clinical experience is limited. Even though appropriate antibiotic therapy significantly reduces the duration of respiratory illness, it does not appear to shorten the duration of detection of *M. pneumoniae* by culture or PCR; therefore, a test of cure or eradication is not suggested.

The roles of antimicrobial drugs, glucocorticoids, and IV immunoglobulin in the treatment of neurologic disease due to *M. pneumoniae* remain unknown.

TABLE 212-1 DIAGNOSTIC TESTS FOR RESPIRATORY MYCOPLASMA PNEUMONIAE INFECTION^a

Test	Sensitivity, %	Specificity, %
Respiratory culture	≤60	100
Respiratory PCR	65–90	90–100
Serologic studies ^b	55–100	55–100

^aA combination of PCR and serology is suggested for routine diagnosis. If macrolide resistance is suspected, *M. pneumoniae* culture may prove useful, providing an isolate for susceptibility testing. ^bAcute- and convalescent-phase serum samples are recommended.

Abbreviation: PCR, polymerase chain reaction.

TABLE 212-2 ANTIMICROBIAL AGENTS OF CHOICE FOR MYCOPLASMA INFECTIONS^a

Organism	Drug(s)
<i>M. pneumoniae</i>	Azithromycin, clarithromycin, erythromycin, doxycycline, levofloxacin, moxifloxacin, gemifloxacin (not ciprofloxacin or ofloxacin)
<i>U. urealyticum</i> , <i>U. parvum</i>	Azithromycin, clarithromycin, erythromycin, doxycycline
<i>M. hominis</i>	Doxycycline, clindamycin
<i>M. genitalium</i>	Azithromycin

^aAntimicrobial resistance has been reported in mycoplasmas, as described in the text.