

Propionibacterium acnes Resistance: A Worldwide Problem

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Key Words

Propionibacterium acnes • Antibiotic resistance •
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Abstract

Antibiotic therapy directed against *Propionibacterium acnes* has been a mainstay of treatment for more than 40 years. Despite years of widespread use of systemic tetracyclines and erythromycin, change in *P. acnes* sensitivity to antibiotics was not seen until the early 1980s. The first clinically relevant changes in *P. acnes* antibiotic sensitivity were found in the USA shortly after the introduction of topical formulations of erythromycin and clindamycin. By the late 1980s, *P. acnes* strains with very high MIC levels for erythromycin and elevated MICs for tetracycline were increasingly found in the UK and the USA. Mutations in the genes encoding the 23S and 16S subunits of ribosomal RNA were first identified in the UK and also seen in a recent survey from clinics in Europe, Japan, Australia and the USA. In addition, strains were found in which these known mutations could not be identified, indicating that as yet unidentified resistance mechanisms have evolved. These findings indicate the need to develop strategies to minimize the use of antibiotics in acne therapy.

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The link between proliferation of *Propionibacterium acnes* in the environment of the microcomedo and the development of the inflammatory phase of acne has been well established. Over the past 25 years, antimicrobial therapy has been the major area of new drug development by the pharmaceutical industry. *P. acnes* is highly sensitive to a wide range of antibiotic classes (table 1) including the tetracycline and macrolide families. The challenge for antimicrobial therapy has been delivery into the lipid-rich environment of the microcomedo where *P. acnes* is proliferating in a cocoon of abnormally desquamated follicular corneocytes.

Widespread use of tetracyclines and erythromycin occurred for more than 25 years before less-sensitive strains and clinically relevant or 'resistant' strains were identified. In the late 1970s, a few strains of *P. acnes* that were relatively insensitive to erythromycin and clindamycin were first reported and were not viewed to be clinically significant [1]. In the early 1980s, shortly after the introduction of topical formulations of erythromycin and clindamycin, clinically relevant, less-sensitive strains were reported from a small group of patients in the USA [2]. Some of these strains were highly resistant to erythromycin. Subsequently, in the late 1980s and early 1990s in extensive studies at Leeds, more clinically significant antibiotic resistance and strains with multiple drug resistance were identified [3–5]. For example, continuous monitoring for nearly a decade in Leeds showed a steady increase in resistance with a prevalence of 65% seen in a specialized referral center by 1997 [5]. In addition, resistant *P. acnes* strains were identified in other countries [6–9].

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Table 1. *P. acnes* sensitivity to antibiotic classes

Very sensitive	Resistant
Tetracyclines, especially minocycline and doxycycline	Aminoglycoside Mupirocin
Erythromycin and other macrolides	Metronidazole
Clindamycin	
Penicillin and cephalosporins	
Quinolones	
Sulfonamides	

Table 2. *P. acnes* antibiotic resistance

Erythromycin	Mutations in the genes encoding 23S ribosomal RNA
Group I	A→G transition at <i>E. coli</i> equivalent base 2058 Highly resistant to erythromycin Variable for other macrolides and clindamycin
Group III	G→A transition at <i>E. coli</i> equivalent base 2057 Low level erythromycin resistance
Group IV	A→G transition at <i>E. coli</i> equivalent base 2059 Highly resistant to erythromycin and all macrolides Elevated but variable resistance to clindamycin
Tetracycline	Mutation in the gene encoding 16S ribosomal RNA G→C transition at <i>E. coli</i> equivalent base 1058 Variable resistance to tetracycline, doxycycline and minocycline

Molecular Basis for *P. acnes* Resistance

In general, bacteria develop antibiotic resistance by acquiring mobile genetic elements such as plasmids, which can be transferred between strains of a species and even between species in some instances. With tetracyclines and erythromycin, mobile plasmids and transposons encode for pump proteins that efflux antibiotics away from ribosomes, and less commonly resistance is due to enzymatic inactivation [10–12]. In the case of clinically relevant strains of resistant *P. acnes*, mobile elements have not been found. Rather, point mutations in the genes encoding the 23S rRNA (erythromycin) and the 16S rRNA (tetracycline) have been identified [13–16].

Three phenotypes for erythromycin-resistant *P. acnes* have been classified (table 2). Group I is associated with an A→G transition at *Escherichia coli* equivalent nucleotide base 2058 and confers resistance to erythromycin and all macrolide, lincosamide and streptogramin B (MLS)

Table 3. *P. acnes* resistance: worldwide study

	73 strains 35 resistant to erythromycin only 15 resistant to tetracycline only 23 resistant to both
Erythromycin	Group I phenotype – 14 strains Group III phenotype – 3 strains Group IV phenotype – 22 strains Unidentified – 9 strains
Tetracycline	16S RNA mutations at base 1058 – 34 strains Unidentified – 4 strains

Table 4. Future strategies

Minimize antibiotic use
Withdraw antibiotics once inflammation is controlled
Use combination topical retinoids/antibiotic therapy
Maintenance therapy
Topical retinoids
Benzoyl peroxide or benzoyl peroxide-antibiotic therapy
Isotretinoin systemically for resistant cases

antibiotics with the MIC varying with both drug and strain. Phenotype III is associated with a G→A transition at base 2057 and confers low level resistance to erythromycin only. Group IV has an A→G mutation at base 2059 and confers high level resistance to all 14, 15 and 16 membered ring macrolides. In the case of tetracycline, resistance is associated with a mutation (G→C transition) in the 16S rRNA of the small ribosomal subunit at *E. coli* equivalent base 1058.

Worldwide Survey

In a recent survey, resistant strains isolated in France, Germany, Japan, Australia and the USA were compared with UK strains (table 3): a total of 73 strains of which 35 were resistant to erythromycin alone, 15 to tetracycline alone and 23 resistant to both were studied [17]. Interestingly, strains from Germany and Japan were resistant to only erythromycin and those from Australia were predominately resistant to tetracycline.

Phenotype I erythromycin resistance was found in 24 strains, type III in 3 and type IV in 22 strains and 9 strains with unidentified mutations. In the case of tetracycline, 34 of 38 strains showed the previously described mutation at base 1058. Nine erythromycin-resistant isolates

from Germany did not have base mutations for 23S rRNA but did show the resistance pattern found with phenotype I.

P. acnes was more sensitive to tetracycline than to macrolides with lowest MIC₉₀ seen with the more lipophilic tetracyclines such as doxycycline and minocycline. The highest levels of minocycline resistance was seen in strains from the USA. These strains of *P. acnes* were highly sensitive to penicillin, trimethoprim and madifloxacin (a recently approved quinolone).

Clinical Significance of 'Resistant Strains'

Classically, the clinical significance of less-sensitive strains is established by comparing the MIC or the minimum bactericidal concentration with the achievable concentration of the antibiotics in the body site in which the organism is proliferating. Unfortunately, no data exist for antibiotic levels in individual sebaceous follicles. Despite technological advances in microanalytical techniques, antibiotic levels in individual follicles have not yet been quantified. This means that no clinically relevant 'break point' has been established. Rather, we have had to resort to a much more difficult type of analysis, i.e. comparing clinical outcomes in those treated with antibiotics to which *P. acnes* is insensitive [4]. Despite the difficulties of

such studies, there are enough data to indicate that clinical outcomes are poor in those with 'resistant strains'. In clinical practice, one cannot obtain *P. acnes* antibiotic sensitivities on a routine basis. Rather, one must use clinical sense in the setting of a patient who is no longer responding to an antibiotic which was previously effective.

Implication and Strategies for the Future

It is now clear that antibiotic resistant strains of *P. acnes* are found worldwide. The level of resistance is greatest to erythromycin but tetracycline resistance including minocycline is also occurring, as is reduced sensitivity to clindamycin. The evidence points to an evolving problem. The common practice of long-term use of antibiotics, years in many instances, is now hard to defend unless one prescribes some form of benzoyl peroxide which suppresses emergence of resistant strains [18]. In this regard, the potential usefulness of benzoyl peroxide washes, which deposit benzoyl peroxide which resists rinsing off, are particularly interesting. Another strategy is the use of topical retinoids to maintain clearing once antibiotic therapy has suppressed the inflammatory phase of acne and possibly to consider systemic isotretinoin as an option for those in whom inflammation cannot be controlled without prolonged antibiotic use (table 4).

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