Evaluation of potential factors contributing to microbiological treatment failure in *Streptococcus pyogenes* pharyngitis

Susan M Kuhn MD^1 , Jutta Preiksaitis MD^2 , Gregory J Tyrrell $\mathrm{PhD}^{1,2}$, Taj Jadavji $\mathrm{MD}^{1,3}$, Deirdre Church MD PhD^3 , H Dele Davies $\mathrm{MD}^{1,3}$

SM Kuhn, J Preiksaitis, GJ Tyrrell, T Jadavji, D Church, HD Davies. Evaluation of potential factors contributing to microbiological treatment failure in *Streptococcus pyogenes* pharyngitis. Can J Infect Dis 2001;12(1):33-39.

BACKGROUND: A cohort study of children with pharyngitis aged two to 16 years was conducted to assess the role of microbial and host factors in group A beta-hemolytic streptococcus (GABHS) microbiological treatment failure.

METHODS: GABHS-infected children had pharyngeal swabs repeated two to five days after completing a 10-day course of penicillin V. M and T typing, and pulsed field gel electrophoresis were performed on the isolates, and the isolates were evaluated for tolerance. Patient characteristics and clinical features were noted and nasopharyngeal swabs for respiratory viruses were taken at enrolment.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS: Of 286 patients enrolled, 248 (87%) could be evaluated. GABHS was cultured from 104 patients (41.9%), of whom 33 (33.7%) had microbiological treatment failures on follow-up. Although there was a trend toward failure for younger children (mean 6.5 ± 2.4 years versus 7.3 ± 2.4 years, P=0.07) and M type 12 (24% versus 10%, P=0.08), no factors were associated with treatment failure.

Key Words: Pharyngitis; Streptococcus pyogenes; Respiratory viruses; Treatment failure

Évaluation des facteurs potentiels contribuant à l'échec microbiologique dans la pharyngite à Streptococcus pyogenes

HISTORIQUE: Étude de cohorte auprès d'enfants souffrant de pharyngite, âgés de 2 à 16 ans, effectuée dans le but d'évaluer le rôle des antibiotiques et des facteurs liés à l'hôte dans l'échec du traitement antibiotique contre le streptocoque bêta-hémolytique du groupe A (GABHS).

MÉTHODES: Des enfants infectés au GABHS ont subi des cultures de gorge à répétition, deux à cinq jours après une antibiothérapie de dix jours avec pénicilline V. Le typage M et T et l'électrophorèse sur champ pulsé ont été appliqués aux isolats et ces derniers ont été évalués sur le plan de la tolérance. Les caractéristiques des patients et les caractéristiques cliniques ont été notées et des échantillons naso-pharyngés ont été prélevés pour frottis afin de déceler la présence de virus respiratoires au moment de l'admission à l'étude.

RÉSULTATS ET CONCLUSION: Parmi les 286 patients inscrits, 248 (87 %) ont pu être évalués. Le GABHS a été mis en culture chez 104 patients (41,9 %), dont 33 (33,7 %) ont présenté des échecs thérapeutiques au moment du suivi. Malgré une tendance à l'échec thérapeutique chez les enfants plus jeunes (moyenne 6,5 \pm 2,4 ans vs 6,3 \pm 2,4 ans; p = 0,07) et un typage M 12 (24 % vs 10 %; p = 0,08), aucun facteur n'a été associé à l'échec thérapeutique.

Presented in part at the 36th Interscience Conference on Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapeutics, September 15 to 18, 1996, New Orleans, Louisiana, USA [Abstract number K71]

Departments of ¹ Pediatrics and ³Medical Microbiology and Infectious Disease, University of Calgary, Calgary, Alberta; ²Medical Microbiology and Public Health, University of Alberta Hospitals, Edmonton, Alberta

Correspondence and reprints: Dr HD Davies, Child Health Research Unit, Alberta Children's Hospital, 1820 Richmond Road SW, Calgary, Alberta T2T 5C7. Telephone 403-229-7813, fax 403-541-7508, e-mail dele.davies@crha-health.ab.ca

Received for publication September 7, 1999. Accepted March 15, 2000

haryngeal group A beta-hemolytic streptococcus (GABHS) microbiological treatment failure has been reported in 2.5% to 37% of children with GABHS pharyngitis (1,2), although most studies find treatment failure in the range of 10% to 15% (3). Treatment failure is defined as the detection of GABHS of the same serotype, with or without symptoms of pharyngitis, after recent completion of appropriate antibiotic therapy. Follow-up cultures are usually performed five to 10 days after completing antibiotics to confirm eradication (1,4,5). Symptomatic treatment failure in GABHS pharyngitis has a greater risk of acute rheumatic fever and other complications than asymptomatic treatment failure (6,7). Recent concerns regarding outbreaks of rheumatic fever (8) and occasional severe suppurative complications (9) have led some authorities to suggest attempted eradication in some patients, particularly when associated with continued symptoms (10).

A variety of mechanisms have been proposed for treatment failures, including: reinfection through various means, including fomites (11); lack of compliance (12); streptococcal tolerance to penicillin (13); early initiation of antibiotics resulting in inadequate immune response (4,14); lack of protective microflora or its inadvertent eradication (15,16); and copathogenicity of beta-lactamase-producing flora (BLPF), such as anaerobes (1,2), with their resulting implications for the choice of antibiotic treatment (3).

Other factors may also contribute to treatment failure. These include host and treatment factors, such as demographic features, and clinical signs and symptoms at presentation. Organism characteristics, such as microbial load and serotype, may be important. Serotype has been used to distinguish treatment failure from new infection but has not been evaluated as an independent risk factor. Pulsed field gel electrophoresis (PFGE) has not been employed in past treatment failure studies to determine the relatedness of initial and follow-up strains but has been shown to be useful in distinguishing new infections from relapses involving the same organism (17). Also, although the influence of coexistent bacterial flora has been considered, there are other pharyngeal organisms to examine.

A hypothesis that has not been considered is a possible association between respiratory viruses and GABHS treatment failure. There is a temporal similarity in the occurrence of the two infections: streptococcal pharyngitis is most common during fall and winter months in the northern latitudes (18), and respiratory viral infections have a similar season. Coisolation of GABHS with a virus has been reported to occur in 8% of paediatric pharyngitis cases, although it is unclear whether this actually represents infection (19). Viral infections have direct effects on respiratory epithelial cells, including ciliary impairment (20) and increased bacterial adherence (21). Viruses may also alter the host immune response (22,23). Both the impact on respiratory epithelial cells and the alteration of host immune response may not only increase the risk of infection, but may also impede bacterial clearance despite therapy. Respiratory virus isolation, coexisting with bacterial acute otitis media (AOM), has been associated with both persistent symptoms of AOM (24) and persistent isolation of bacteria in the middle ear fluid after institution of antibiotic therapy (25-27). Given the parallels of AOM and GABHS pharyngitis in seasonality, in apparent relationship to respiratory viruses and in anatomic proximity, a similar relationship between viral coisolation and failure to eradicate GABHS may also be found in GABHS pharyngitis.

The objective of this study was to assess whether failure of group A streptococcus eradication following treatment for GABHS pharyngitis was associated with specific patient demographic characteristics, specific GABHS M types and colony counts, or viral co-infection.

PATIENTS AND METHODS

Study sites and populations: The Alberta Children's Hospital is a tertiary regional referral centre in Calgary, Alberta that is affiliated with the Faculty of Medicine of the University of Calgary. The hospital serves a population base of 1.2 million people, and children are referred from southern Alberta, southeastern British Columbia and southwestern Saskatchewan. A community-based cohort study was conducted, enrolling patients through five offices of paediatricians and the emergency department of the Alberta Children's Hospital. Children were included in the study if they were between two and 18 years old, complained of sore throat and had one or more of the following physical findings: pharyngeal injection or exudate, temperature higher than 38.4°C or tender cervical lymphadenopathy. Patients were excluded if there was a history of penicillin allergy, antibiotic use in the preceding 72 h, acute rheumatic fever or if informed consent was refused.

Specimens and follow-up: Pharyngeal and nasopharyngeal (NP) swabs were obtained and a prescription was given (penicillin V 50 mg/kg/day tid for 10 days). Physicians could choose to instruct patients to fill the prescription immediately or wait for the throat swab result (rapid test or culture) in 24 to 48 h. Patients positive for GABHS returned for follow-up throat and NP swabs two to five days after the completion of antibiotics. Treatment failure was defined as definite if isolates of the same M and T type were found on initial and follow-up cultures. It was defined as probable if the follow-up swab was positive using the Optical Immunoassay (OIA) (Biostar, United States) but was culture negative. Compliance was defined as consumption of at least 80% of the prescribed doses (1) within 10 days as documented by diary and/or measurement of residual medication. At least one measurement was required for the patient to be evaluated.

Throat swabs were inoculated onto a blood agar plate and incubated anaerobically at 37°C, then inspected at 24 h for beta-hemolytic colonies. The foam plug at the base of the swab transport tube was incubated in Todd-Hewitt broth under the same conditions, subcultured to blood agar plate at 24 h and inspected at 48 h. Those confirmed to be Grampositive, catalase-negative and bacitracin-sensitive cocci were grouped using the PathDX kit (Intermedico) or Oxoid Diagnostic Reagents (Oxoid Diagnostics). If GABHS grew on agar plates, then bacterial load was determined. Colony counts were categorized (1+ to 4+) according to the number

of colonies in plate quadrants one to four respectively as follows:

- 1+ if less than 10, less than five, zero and zero colonies
- 2+ if greater than 10, greater than five, less than five and zero colonies
- 3+ if greater than 10, greater than 10, greater than five and less than five colonies
- 4+ if greater than 10, greater than 10, greater than five and greater than five colonies

Rapid detection of GABHS by OIA (28,29) was performed after the swab was planted for culture. Serotyping of isolates was performed on the basis of M precipitation and T agglutination (30-32), as well as PFGE with the restriction endonuclease *Sma I* (33) at the National Centre for Streptococcus in Edmonton, Alberta.

The penicillin tolerance of isolates from children with eradication failure was assayed as previously described (34). Briefly, doubling dilutions of penicillin ranging from 8 g/mL to 0.004 g/mL were performed in cation-adjusted Mueller-Hinton broth supplemented with 5% defibrinated horse blood. A 100fold dilution of a 0.5 McFarland of the test organism was added to each dilution of penicillin and incubated overnight at 37°C. The minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) was then determined in the last tube with visible growth of the test organism. To determine the minimal bactericidal concentration (MBC), a 10 L aliquot from the first tube showing no growth (the MIC tube) and the four dilutions afterwards were plated and incubated overnight. The antibiotic dilution with 10 colonies or less was considered to be 99.9% kill and was read as the MBC. Tolerance was defined by a fourfold or greater difference in the MBC compared with the MIC.

NP swabs were inoculated onto four cell lines: African green monkey kidney and HEp2 cells at 37°C, and rhesus monkey kidney and human embryonic lung cells at 33°C. Cultures were examined for cytopathic effect at seven and 14 days. Positive results were confirmed using electron microscopy for adenovirus and rhinovirus, direct fluorescent antibody for respiratory syncytial virus, and hemadsorption followed by direct fluorescent antibody testing for influenza A and B, and parainfluenza (35).

Sample size calculation: Sample size calculation was based on the assumptions of the novel hypothesis. The primary outcome measure was the number of children with GABHS microbiological treatment failure in the viral coisolation group compared with those with no virus coisolation. Given the expected frequency of microbiological treatment failure, a fourfold difference in the outcome was considered to have clinical significance. A similar effect has been shown in at least one study of viral coisolation in AOM (25). Therefore, assuming a 20% treatment failure rate in those without viral coisolation and a viral coisolation rate of 10% (19), a total sample of 60 (of whom six had viral coisolation) would provide a power of 0.80 with a two-sided alpha of 0.05. Although GABHS rates as high as almost 40% have been found among children with pharyngitis (19), a conservative estimate of GABHS infection rate (25%) was used to calculate a required, total enrolment sample size of at least 240 children.

TABLE 1 Comparison of characteristics of enrolled patients with group A streptococcus pharyngitis by risk factor

Characteristic	Patients with viral coisolation (n=10) (%)	Patients without viral coisolation (n=94) (%)
Male	5 (50.0)	55 (58.5)
Mean age ± SD (years)	7.4 ± 3.1	7.0 ± 2.5
Symptoms		
Sore throat	9 (90.0)	92 (97.9)
Sore lymph nodes	5 (50.0)	66 (70.2)
Parental report of fever	9 (90.0)	72 (76.6)
Clinical signs		
Inflamed pharynx	9 (90.0)	89 (94.7)
Exudate	4 (40.0)	42 (44.7)
Enlarged and/or tender lymph nodes	6 (60.0)	68 (72.3)
Mean temperature $(^{\circ}C)^* \pm SD$	38.7±0.7	37.7±1.0
Antibiotic started		
immediately	5 (50.0)	57 (60.6)
Compliant with medication	9 (90.0)	87 (92.6)

^{*}P<0.01, t test with unequal variances

Ethics: The study protocol was approved by the Research Committee at the Alberta Children's Hospital and the Conjoint Medical Ethics Committee at the University of Calgary.

Data management and statistical analysis: Data were entered into Microsoft Access Version 2.0 (Microsoft Corporation, United States) and analysis was performed using Stata (Stata Corporation, United States). Differences between groups were compared using Fisher's exact test for categorical variables and Student's *t* test for continuous variables. P<0.05 was considered statistically significant. Relative risk was calculated with an exact 95% CI.

RESULTS

Study population: A total of 286 children were enrolled between November 1994 and March 1996. Thirty-eight children were excluded from the analysis because of enrolment or protocol violations, or penicillin allergy, leaving 248 children. Twelve of the 38 excluded patients (31.6%) were excluded because of missed follow-up appointments. The majority of enrolments occurred in the first year of the study (195 of 248, 78.6%). GABHS were detected in 104 children (41.9%), nongroup A streptococci were found in six children (2.4%) and 10 children (4.0%) had a virus in the absence of other potential bacterial causes of pharyngitis. All enrolment throat swabs that were positive for GABHS by OIA were also culture-positive by at least one method.

Evaluable patients had a mean age of 7.1 years and were equally divided between the sexes. GABHS-positive patients were more likely to be male (57.7% versus 45.8%, P=0.07), to have tender and/or enlarged lymph nodes (71.2% versus 51.4%, P<0.01) and to be prescribed antibiotics immediately (59.6% versus 29.2%, P<0.001). However, the frequency of viral isolation was similar for those with (10 of 104, 9.6%)

TABLE 2
Patient and laboratory characteristics by bacteriological outcome

Characteristic	Patients with group A streptococcus treatment failure (n=33) (%)	Patients without group A streptococcus treatment failure (n=71) (%)
Demographics		
Entered study in year 1	26 (78.8)	49 (69.0)
Male	21 (63.6)	39 (54.9)
Mean age ± SD (years)*	6.5 ± 2.4	7.3 ± 2.6
Clinical presentation		
Sore throat	32 (97.0)	69 (97.2)
Sore lymph nodes	23 (69.7)	48 (67.6)
Parental report of fever [†]	22 (66.7)	59 (83.1)
Inflamed throat	30 (90.9)	68 (95.8)
Exudate	16 (48.5)	30 (42.3)
Enlarged and/or tender lymph nodes	25 (75.8)	49 (69.0)
Measured temperature ± SD (°C) [‡]	37.6 ± 1.0	38.0 ± 1.0
Temperature higher than 38.4°C‡	5 (18.5)	18 (32.7)
Antibiotics started immediately	18 (54.6)	44 (62.0)
Compliant with therapy	30 (90.9)	66 (93.0)

^{*}Fisher exact test, P=0.07; [†]Fisher exact test, P=0.13. Of the 23 children with no history of fever, six (26.1%) had documented temperature higher than 38.4°C on presentation, eight (34.8%) were afebrile and nine (39.1%) had no temperature recorded; [‡]Data recorded for 27 children with treatment failure and 55 with group A streptococcus eradication

TABLE 3
Group A beta-hemolytic streptococcus (GABHS) M type by bacteriological outcome

M type	Patients with GABHS (n=33) (%)	Patients without GABHS (n=67) (%)	Total
1	5 (15.2)	9 (13.4)	14
2	0	2 (3.0)	2
3	6 (18.2)	15 (22.4)	21
4	4 (12.1)	6 (9.0)	10
6	2 (6.1)	4 (6.0)	6
12*	8 (24.2)	7 (10.4)	15
28	3 (9.1)	10 (14.9)	13
62	0	3 (4.5)	3
77	3 (9.1)	5 (7.5)	8
Nontypeable	2 (6.1)	6 (9.0)	8

^{*}Two-sided Fisher exact test, P=0.08

TABLE 4
Frequency of colony counts on throat swabs taken at enrolment and follow-up for patients with and without treatment failure

Patients with GABHS		reatment failure (n=29)	Patients without GABHS treatment failure (n=65)*
Colony count	Pretreatment (%)	Post-treatment (%)	Pretreatment (%)
Rare	1 (3.4)	0	3 (4.6)
1+	0	1 (3.4)	3 (4.6)
2+	4 (13.8)	6 (20.7)	5 (7.7)
3+	4 (13.8)	4 (13.8)	8 (12.3)
4+	20 (69.0)	18 (62.1)	46 (70.8)

^{*} χ^2 for trend, P=0.46 for both pretreatment groups. 1+ if less than 10, less than five, zero and zero colonies; 2+ if greater than 10, greater than five and zero colonies; 3+ if greater than 10, greater than 10, greater than five and less than five colonies; 4+ if greater than 10, greater than 10, greater than five and greater than five colonies. CABHS Group A beta-hemolytic streptococcus

and without (10 of 144, 6.9%) GABHS-associated pharyngitis. Comparison of GABHS-infected children with and without viral coisolation revealed similar demographic and clinical characteristics (Table 1).

Outcome: Failure to eradicate GABHS occurred in 33 children (31.7%), of whom all but four met the criteria for definite treatment failure. Three of those with probable treatment failure were GABHS-positive at follow-up by OIA (but not culture), and

in one case the isolate was lost. One child acquired a new strain of GABHS and was not considered to be a treatment failure. Eleven children (33.3%) with microbiological treatment failure were symptomatic (with any of the same pharyngitis symptoms as at enrolment) at the time of their follow-up visit. Treatment failure occurred in two of 10 children (20.0%) with viral coisolation compared with 31 of 94 (33.0%) without viral coisolation (two-sided Fisher's exact test, P=0.50). The relative

risk of treatment failure with respiratory virus coisolation, compared with no viral coisolation, was 0.57 (95% CI 0.16 to 2.03, Taylor series). Exclusion of the four children with probable treatment failure did not change the results of the analysis (relative risk 0.67, 95% CI 0.19 to 2.40, P=0.72).

Relationship to other variables: There were no statistically significant associations found between the outcome and any other demographic or clinical characteristic. Bacteriological treatment failure was not explained by either early initiation of antibiotics or lack of compliance (Table 2). The latter was analyzed in greater detail by comparing the mean number of doses taken by participants having treatment failure with the mean number taken by those without treatment failure. This was completed using both diary information $(28.1\pm1.6 \text{ versus } 27.9\pm2.0, P=0.94)$ and medication measurement $(29.6\pm1.3 \text{ versus } 29.9\pm1.9, P=0.20)$. However, a trend was found between treatment failure and younger age, as well as a history of fever at presentation (Table 2).

Similarly, there were no microbial factors clearly associated with the outcome. The most common M types overall were M3, M12, M1 and M28, with only M12 being more common among those with treatment failure (24.2% versus 10.2%, P=0.08) (Table 3). Furthermore, there were no significant differences (greater than two bands) within M types using PFGE, nor any differences between pretreatment and post-treatment isolates by PFGE. All but one child with microbiological treatment failure had colony counts of 2+ or greater (Table 4). Penicillin tolerance was not demonstrated in any of the 23 paired pretreatment and post-treatment isolates that were tested.

DISCUSSION

In this study, there were no associations between treatment failure after GABHS pharyngitis and various demographic, clinical and microbial factors. In particular, there was no association between coisolation of a respiratory virus and persistent GABHS detection.

Among the demographic and clinical variables studied, age was associated with treatment failure. Although it did not reach statistical significance, the children with treatment failure in our study were, on average, one year younger than those who had GABHS eradicated. Carriers under the age of 15 years have previously been shown to have a higher rate of microbiological treatment failure compared with older patients (36). A recent retrospective study over a 20-year period showed recurrences to be significantly more common in younger children (aged one to eight years) than in older children (aged 13 to 19 years) (37). These findings are consistent with another study which show a reduced local pharyngeal immune response to GABHS in younger children compared with older children (38). If this immune response is important in the eradication of GABHS in the pharynx, younger children may be more likely to have GABHS treatment failures. None of the other demographic and clinical factors appeared to have predictive use for GABHS eradication.

Of the microbial factors studied, only M type 12 showed a trend toward association with the outcome. An outbreak of M12 pharyngitis was previously noted to be associated with

high penicillin treatment failure rates (10), although in this study, M12 isolates comprised only 15% of the enrolled GABHS-infected children. We questioned whether there could be a strain-associated characteristic that predisposed patients infected with this M type to treatment failure. However, there are no studies of endemic GABHS pharyngitis that have investigated the relationship between treatment failure and specific M type, so this relationship cannot be corroborated. M12 is a common cause of uncomplicated streptococcal pharyngitis (39) but has been associated with post-streptococcal glomerulonephritis (40) and invasive infection (41). It is possible that there are strain-specific characteristics that impair its clearance from the pharynx; however, this possibility requires further investigation.

It is intriguing that, while respiratory viruses appear to have no relationship to bacterial persistence in GABHS pharyngitis, they do seem to play such a role in AOM. Because the viral effects on respiratory epithelial cells seem to be similar, anatomy may account for the outcome differences. While continued mucosal swelling secondary to the viral infection may not have an impact in the pharynx, it may delay the restoration of patency of the eustachian tube and, therefore, the drainage of middle ear fluid and its bacterial pathogens (27).

Conducting this study over two years ensured a variety of viral isolates and GABHS serotypes. Including more than one viral season reduced the likelihood of the effect of predominant viruses having very strong or weak correlations with GABHS treatment failure. Enrolment over several seasons also allowed us to assess the potential role of multiple GABHS serotypes. Although the majority of enrolments occurred in the first year of the study, this was not associated with outcome (Table 2).

NP swabs were chosen for viral detection because they are technically easier to perform and are better tolerated (42). False-negative viral cultures were unlikely, given the prompt delivery of specimens and the similarity of viral isolation rates to past studies (6.9% in the GABHS-negative group). Positive viral cultures were found in 10.2% in one paediatric pharyngitis study (43) and 15.7% in another (19). Enrolment criteria may explain slight differences in viral frequency between these studies. If false-negative viral cultures did occur, their frequency should not have differed between those with and without GABHS eradication and, therefore, would not have altered the results.

The high treatment failure rate in this study (33.7%) necessitates the examination of other potential explanations. Poor compliance (12) and penicillin tolerance (13) have been linked to microbiological treatment failure, but neither explains the treatment failure rates in this study. Chronic carriage has been suggested to comprise up to 20% of treatment failures (44) and has been distinguished from acute infections by the lack of a serological response (45). Antistreptolysin O testing was not performed given both ethical and practical concerns about performing nonbeneficial blood tests in children. Moreover, the correlation of serum immune response to true infection status has been questioned (46,47) and, therefore, may not be a fail-safe means of identifying carriers. The lack

of difference in virus isolation between patients in whom GABHS was and was not eradicated suggests that chronic GABHS carriage alone is unlikely to account for the treatment failures seen in the present study. Similar treatment failure rates have been noted in other study populations (48).

The absence of a suitable explanation for the GABHS treatment failure rate in this study suggests that other theories should be explored. Previous investigators have proposed that BLPF and/or GABHS-inhibitory pharyngeal organisms (not cultured in this study) may play a role in this phenomenon (16,49). BLPF is postulated to break down penicillin in vivo, thus preventing its action against GABHS and resulting in treatment failure (49). Thus, broader spectrum agents have been promoted to overcome this problem (3). Normal oral flora such as alpha-streptococci have been shown to be antagonistic to GABHS (50), preventing colonization (51) and reducing carriage and infection (16,49). This theory is still considered controversial. Alternatively, it is possible that other factors, such as penicillin penetration into pharyngeal or tonsillar tissue and host factors, also play a role in treatment failure.

High treatment failure rates, particularly when associated with symptoms, have prompted some authorities to suggest a need to re-examine penicillin as the first treatment choice in such populations (48,52). Some physicians have noted that patient dissatisfaction was higher in cases of symptomatic than asymptomatic treatment failure (local pediatricians, per-

REFERENCES

- 1. Tanz RR, Shulman ST, Sroka PA, Marubio S, Brook I, Yogev R. Lack of influence of beta-lactamase-producing flora on recovery of group A streptococci after treatment of acute pharyngitis. I Pediatr 1990;117:859-63.
- Brook, I. Role of beta-lactamase producing bacteria in the failure of penicillin to eradicate group A streptococci. Pediatr Infect Dis J 1985;4:491-5.
- Pichichero ME, Margolis PA. A comparison of cephalosporins and penicillins in the treatment of group A beta-hemolytic streptococcal pharyngitis: a meta-analysis supporting the concept of microbial copathogenicity. Pediatr Infect Dis J 1991;10:275-81.
- 4. Gerber MA, Randolph MF, DeMeo KK, Kaplan EL. Lack of impact of early antibiotic therapy for streptococcal pharyngitis on recurrence rates. J Pediatr 1990;117:853-8.
- Smith TD, Huskins WC, Kim KS, Kaplan EL. Efficacy of beta-lactamase-resistant penicillin and influence of penicillin tolerance in eradicating streptococci from the pharynx after failure of penicillin therapy for group A streptococcal pharyngitis. J Pediatr 1987;110:777-82.
- Catanzaro FJ, Stetson CA, Morris AJ, et al. The role of the streptococcus in the pathogenesis of rhematic fever. Am J Med 1954;17:749-56.
- Catanzaro FJ, Rammelkamp CHJ, Chamovitz R. Prevention of rheumatic fever by treatment of streptococcal infections.
 II. Factors responsible for failures. N Engl J Med 1958;259:51-7.
- Factors responsible for failures. N Engr J Med 1936;239:31-7
 Kaplan EL, Hill HR. Return of rheumatic fever: consequences, implications, and needs. J Pediatr 1987;111:244-6.
- Davies HD, McGeer A, Schwartz B, et al. Invasive group A streptococcal infections in Ontario, Canada. Ontario Group A Streptococcal Study Group. N Engl J Med 1996;335:547-54.
- Kaplan EL, Johnson DR. Eradication of group A streptococci from the upper respiratory tract by amoxicillin with clavulanate after oral penicillin V treatment failure. J Pediatr 1988;113:400-3.
- 11. Brook I, Gober AE. Persistence of group A beta-hemolytic streptococci in toothbrushes and removable orthodontic

sonal communication). However, given the concern about the use of broad spectrum antibiotics and the lack of evidence that acute rheumatic fever outbreaks are due to decreased penicillin efficacy (53), most experts continue to favour penicillin as the drug of choice (53-55).

CONCLUSIONS

The present study did not demonstrate an association between any demographic, clinical or microbial factors, including that of viral coisolation and bacterial treatment failure after GABHS pharyngitis. However, the contributory roles of M type and age warrant further evaluation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS: The authors acknowledge the contributions of the other members of the Calgary Group A Streptococcal Study Group (Drs T Govender, H Schroter, S Wainer, J Heard, S Cardwell, J Wu, P Niemann, N Cooper, D Palmer, T Prince, M Wright, E Sheleyko and C Nijssen-Jorden, as well as Ms Doreen Ma, Mr Gary Katzko and Ms Marguerite Lovgren). Special thanks go to research assistants Ms Nancy Martin and Ms Debbie Buser, all of the participating emergency department physicians and microbiology technicians at Alberta Children's Hospital, Ms Barbara LeBlanc in the virology laboratory (Northern Alberta Provincial Laboratory) and secretary Ms Marilyn Dorozio. We also thank Dr Ben Schwartz and Dr Itzak Brook for their helpful comments on the manuscript. The study was funded by a grant from the Alberta Children's Hospital Foundation. Dr HD Davies is a Medical Scholar for the Alberta Foundation for Medical Research. The Canadian Infectious Diseases Society Glaxo Wellcome Research Fellowship Award supported Dr S Kuhn.

- appliances following treatment of pharyngotonsillitis. Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg 1998;124:993-5.
- Green JL, Ray SP, Charney E. Recurrence rate of streptococcal pharyngitis related to oral penicillin. J Pediatr 1969;75:292-4.
- 13. Kim KS, Kaplan EL. Association of penicillin tolerance with failure to eradicate group A streptococci from patients with pharyngitis. J Pediatr 1985;107:681-4.
- 14. el-Daher NT, Hijazi SS, Rawashdeh NM, al-Khalil IA, Abu-Ektaish FM, Abdel-Latif DI. Immediate vs delayed treatment of group A beta-hemolytic streptococcal pharyngitis with penicillin V. Pediatr Infect Dis J 1991;10:126-30.
- 15. Roos K, Grahn E, Holm SE. Evaluation of beta-lactamase activity and microbial interference in treatment failures of acute streptococcal tonsillitis. Scand J Infect Dis 1986;18:313-9.
- Roos K, Grahn E, Holm SE, Johansson H, Lind L. Interfering alpha-streptococci as a protection against recurrent streptococcal tonsillitis in children. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol 1993;25:141-8.
- 17. Bingen E, Denamur E, Lambert-Zechovsky N, Braimi N, el Lakany M, Elion J. DNA restriction fragment length polymorphism differentiates recurrence from relapse in treatment failures of *Streptococcus pyogenes* pharyngitis. J Med Microbiol 1992;37:162-4.
- Bisno AL. Streptococcus pyogenes. In: Mandell GL, Bennett JE, Dolin R, eds. Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases. New York: Churchill Livingstone, 1995:1786-99.
- 19. McMillan JA, Sandstrom C, Weiner LB, et al. Viral and bacterial organisms associated with acute pharyngitis in a school-aged population. J Pediatr 1986;109:747-52.
- 20. Carson JL, Collier AM, Hu SS. Acquired ciliary defects in nasal epithelium of children with acute viral upper respiratory infections. N Engl J Med 1985;312:463-8.
- 21. Davison VE, Sanford BA. Adherence of *Staphylococcus aureus* to influenza A virus-infected Madin-Dorby canine kidney cell cultures. Infect Immunol 1981;32:118-26.
- 22. Abramson JS, Mills EL. Depression of neutrophil function

- induced by viruses and its role in secondary microbial infections. Rev Infect Dis 1988;10:326-41.
- 23. Bielfeldt OH, Bieuk LA, Harland R. Cytokine synergy with viral cytopathic effects and bacterial products during the pathogenesis of respiratory tract infection. Clin Immunopathol 1991;60:153-70.
- 24. Arola M, Ziegler T, Ruuskanen O. Respiratory virus infection as a cause of prolonged symptoms in acute otitis media. J Pediatr 1990;116:697-701.
- 25. Chonmaitree T, Owen MJ, Howie VM. Respiratory viruses interfere with bacteriologic response to antibiotic in children with acute otitis media. J Infect Dis 1990;162:546-9.
- 26. Chonmaitree T, Owen MJ, Patel JA, Hedgpeth D, Horlick D, Howie VM. Effect of viral respiratory tract infection on outcome of acute otitis media. J Pediatr 1992;120:856-62.
- 27. Sung BS, Chonmaitree T, Broemeling LD, et al. Association of rhinovirus infection with poor bacteriologic outcome of bacterial-viral otitis media. Clin Infect Dis 1993;17:38-42.
- 28. Harbeck RJ, Teague J, Crossen GR, Maul DM, Childers PL. Novel, rapid optical immunoassay technique for detection of group A streptococci from pharyngeal specimens: comparison with standard culture methods. J Clin Microbiol 1993;31:839-44.
- 29. Kuhn S, Davies HD, Katzko G, Jadavji T, Church DL. Evaluation of the Strep A OIA assay versus culture methods: ability to detect different quantities of group A Streptococcus. Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis 1999;34:275-80.
- 30. Gugyitius F. Serological classification of *Streptococcus pyogenes*. J Hyg (Lond) 1934;3:542-84.
- 31. Maxted WR, Widdowson JP, Fraser CA, Ball LC, Bassett DC. Use of the serum-opacity reaction in the typing of group-A streptococci. J Med Microbiol 1973;6:83-90.
- 32. Rotta J, Krause RM, Lancefield RC, Everly W, Lackland H. New approaches for the laboratory recognition of M types of group A streptococci. J Exp Med 1971;134:1298-315.
- 33. Single LA, Martin DR. Clonal differences within M-types of the group A streptococcus revealed by pulsed field gel electrophoresis. FEMS Microbiol Lett 1992;70:85-9.
- 34. Knapp C, Moody JA. Tests to assess bactericidal activity. In: Isenberg, ed. Clinical Microbiology Procedures Handbook. Washington, DC: American Society for Microbiology, 1996:1-6.
- 35. Lennette EH, Halonen P, Murphy FA. Laboratory Diagnosis of Infectious Diseases: Principles and Practice: Viral, Rickettsial, and Chlamydial Diseases. New York: Springer Verlag, 1988.
- 36. Davies HD, Low DE, Schwartz B, et al. Evaluation of short-course therapy with cefixime or rifampin for eradication of pharyngeally carried group A streptococci. The Ontario GAS Study Group. Clin Infect Dis 1995;21:1294-6.
- 37. Pichichero ME, Green JL, Francis AB, et al. Recurrent group A streptococcal tonsillopharyngitis. Pediatr Infect Dis J 1998;17:809-15.
- 38. O'Connor SP, Darip D, Fraley K, Nelson CM, Kaplan EL, Cleary PP. The human antibody response to streptococcal C5a peptidase. J Infect Dis 1991;163:109-16.

- 39. Johnson DR, Stevens DL, Kaplan EL. Epidemiologic analysis of group A streptococcal serotypes associated with severe systemic infections, rheumatic fever, or uncomplicated pharyngitis.

 J Infect Dis 1992;166:374-82.
- 40. Gaworzewska E, Colman G. Changes in the pattern of infection caused by *Streptococcus pyogenes*. Epidemiol Infect 1988;100:257-69.
- Demers B, Simor AE, Vellend H, et al. Severe invasive group A streptococcal infections in Ontario, Canada: 1987-1991. Clin Infect Dis 1993;16:792-802.
- 42. Woods GL, Washingon JA. The clinician and the microbiology laboratory. In: Mandell GL, Bennett JE, Dolin R, eds. Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases. New York: Churchill Livingstone, 1995:169-99.
- 43. Glezen WP, Clyde WA Jr, Senior RJ, Sheaffer CI, Denny FW. Group A streptococci, mycoplasmas, and viruses associated with acute pharyngitis. JAMA 1967;202:455-60.
- 44. Kaplan EL, Gastanaduy AS, Huwe BB. The role of the carrier in treatment failures after antibiotic for group A streptococci in the upper respiratory tract. J Lab Clin Med 1981;98:326-35.
- 45. Kaplan EL. The group A streptococcal upper respiratory tract carrier state: an enigma. J Pediatr 1980;97:337-45.
- 46. Pichichero ME. Explanations and therapies for penicillin failure in streptococcal pharyngitis. Clin Pediatr (Phila) 1992;31:642-9.
- 47. Gerber MA, Randolph MF, Mayo DR. The group A streptococcal carrier state. A reexamination. Am J Dis Child 1988;142:562-5.
- 48. Pichichero ME. Cephalosporins are superior to penicillin for treatment of streptococcal tonsillopharyngitis: is the difference worth it? Pediatr Infect Dis J 1993;12:268-74.
- 49. Brook I, Gilmore JD. Evaluation of bacterial interference and beta-lactamase production in management of experimental infection with group A beta-hemolytic streptococci. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1993;37:1452-5.
- Sanders E. Bacterial interference. I. Its occurrence among the respiratory tract flora and characterization of inhibition of group A streptococci by viridans streptococci. J Infect Dis 1969;120:698-707.
- 51. Crowe CC, Sanders WE Jr, Longley S. Bacterial interference. II. Role of the normal throat flora in prevention of colonization by group A streptococcus. J Infect Dis 1973;128:527-32.
- 52. Stillerman M. Comparison of oral cephalosporins with penicillin therapy for group A streptococcal pharyngitis. Pediatr Infect Dis J 1986;5:649-54.
- 53. Markowitz M, Gerber MA, Kaplan EL. Treatment of streptococcal pharyngotonsillitis: reports of penicillin's demise are premature. J Pediatr 1993;123:679-85.
- 54. Canadian Paediatric Society Infectious Diseases and Immunization Committee. Treatment of group A streptococcal pharyngitis. Can J Infect Dis 1997;8:17-8.
- 55. Peter G. Group A streptococcal infections. In: 1997 Red Book Report of the Committee on Infectious Diseases, 24th edn. Elk's Grove: American Academy of Pediatrics, 1997.