

# *Actinomyces* and Related Organisms in Human Infections

Eija Könönen,<sup>a,b</sup> William G. Wade<sup>c</sup>

University of Turku, Institute of Dentistry, Turku, Finland<sup>a</sup>; Welfare Division, City of Turku, Turku, Finland<sup>b</sup>; Blizard Institute, Barts and The London School of Medicine and Dentistry, Queen Mary University of London, London, United Kingdom<sup>c</sup>

SUMMARY .....	420
INTRODUCTION .....	420
UPDATE ON TAXONOMY OF <i>ACTINOMYCES</i> AND CLOSELY RELATED TAXA .....	421
NATURAL HABITATS OF <i>ACTINOMYCES</i> AND CLOSELY RELATED TAXA .....	422
Oral Cavity .....	422
Pharynx .....	422
Other Sites of Bacterial Colonization .....	423
<i>Actinomyces</i> at Normally Sterile Body Sites .....	423
ACTINOMYCOSIS .....	423
Orocervicofacial Actinomycosis .....	424
Thoracic Actinomycosis .....	424
Abdominal/Pelvic Actinomycosis .....	425
Other Types of Actinomycosis .....	425
Cutaneous actinomycosis .....	425
Musculoskeletal actinomycosis .....	425
Cerebral actinomycosis .....	426
Disseminated actinomycosis .....	426
Actinomycosis Occurring in a Specific Context .....	426
Bisphosphonate-related osteonecrosis of the jaw .....	426
Osteoradionecrosis .....	426
Anti-tumor necrosis factor alpha drugs .....	426
Hereditary hemorrhagic telangiectasia .....	426
Chronic granulomatous disease .....	426
OTHER INFECTIONS WITH INVOLVEMENT OF <i>ACTINOMYCES</i> .....	427
Brain Abscesses .....	427
Eye Infections .....	427
Ear, Nose, and Throat Infections .....	428
Oral Infections .....	428
Dental caries .....	428
Endodontic infections .....	428
Oral infections in tissues surrounding teeth/implants .....	428
Pulmonary Infections .....	428
Superficial Infections .....	429
The upper body .....	429
The lower body .....	429
Genitourinary Infections .....	429
Genital tract .....	429
Urinary tract .....	429
Bone/Joint Infections .....	429
Foreign-Body Infections .....	430
Infective Endocarditis .....	430
Bacteremia/Sepsis .....	430
INFECTIOUS ROLE OF SOME <i>ACTINOMYCES</i> -RELATED ORGANISMS .....	430
<i>Actinotignum</i> (Formerly <i>Actinobaculum</i> ) Species in the Urogenital Tract .....	430
<i>Varibaculum cambriense</i> as a Soft Tissue Pathogen .....	430
<i>Propionibacterium propionicum</i> Infections .....	431

(continued)

Published 18 March 2015

Citation Könönen E, Wade WG. 18 March 2015. *Actinomyces* and related organisms in human infections. Clin Microbiol Rev doi:10.1128/CMR.00100-14.

Address correspondence to Eija Könönen, eija.kononen@utu.fi.

Copyright © 2015, American Society for Microbiology. All Rights Reserved.

doi:10.1128/CMR.00100-14

VIRULENCE PROPERTIES OF <i>ACTINOMYCES</i> .....	431
CONCOMITANT/COINFECTING MICROBES .....	431
IDENTIFICATION IN CLINICAL LABORATORIES .....	433
CLINICAL ANTIMICROBIAL SUSCEPTIBILITY TESTING .....	433
CONCEPTS OF TREATMENT .....	433
FUTURE CONSIDERATIONS .....	434
ACKNOWLEDGMENT .....	434
REFERENCES .....	434
AUTHOR BIOS .....	442

## SUMMARY

*Actinomyces israelii* has long been recognized as a causative agent of actinomycosis. During the past 3 decades, a large number of novel *Actinomyces* species have been described. Their detection and identification in clinical microbiology laboratories and recognition as pathogens in clinical settings can be challenging. With the introduction of advanced molecular methods, knowledge about their clinical relevance is gradually increasing, and the spectrum of diseases associated with *Actinomyces* and *Actinomyces*-like organisms is widening accordingly; for example, *Actinomyces meyeri*, *Actinomyces neuii*, and *Actinomyces turicensis* as well as *Actinotignum* (formerly *Actinobaculum*) *schaalii* are emerging as important causes of specific infections at various body sites. In the present review, we have gathered this information to provide a comprehensive and microbiologically consistent overview of the significance of *Actinomyces* and some closely related taxa in human infections.

## INTRODUCTION

Human actinomycosis, a chronic, granulomatous infectious disease, has been recognized for a long time (1), and its causative agent, originally named *Streptothrix israeli* (currently *Actinomyces israelii*), was described in 1896 by Kruse (2). It was not until 1951 that another *Actinomyces* species, *Actinomyces naeslundii*, was implicated in actinomycotic lesions in humans (3), while *Actinomyces odontolyticus* and *Actinomyces viscosus* (first named as *Odontomyces viscosus*) were described in 1958 and 1969, respectively (4–6).

It is well established that actinomycosis is an endogenous infection. The causative *Actinomyces* species reside on mucosal surfaces and gain access to deeper tissues via trauma, surgical procedures, or foreign bodies, which disrupt the mucosal barrier. Inside the tissue, these bacteria form masses consisting of aggregates of branching, filamentous bacilli (7–9). Actinomycosis is defined as a hard mass-type lesion with a specific histopathological structure. There are a large number of case reports of actinomycosis in the literature, but in most cases, diagnosis has been based solely on clinical and histopathological findings. In the majority of early reports, microbiological confirmation of diagnosis was lacking. Even when microbiological assessment was included, culture was typically the only method used. If, however, antimicrobial treatment had been started before sample collection, the results of culture may be falsely negative. The increasing introduction of molecular bacterial detection and identification methods is helping to overcome such problems.

A large number of *Actinomyces* species have been described since the description of *A. israelii*, *A. naeslundii*, *A. odontolyticus*, and *A. viscosus*. In addition, reassignments within some species,

TABLE 1 Human *Actinomyces* species

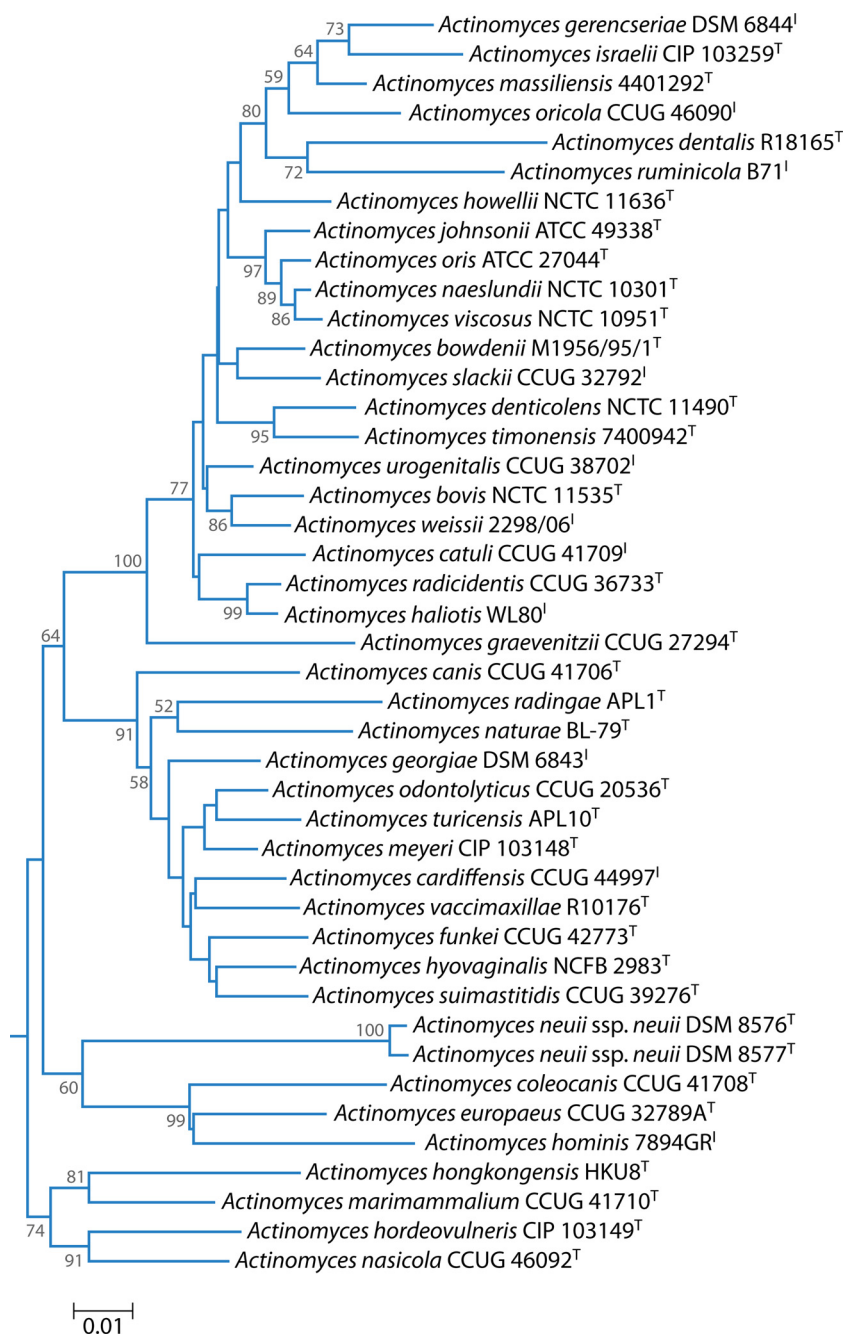
Species	Yr of description	Reference(s)
<i>A. israelii</i>	1896	2
<i>A. naeslundii</i>	1951	3
<i>A. odontolyticus</i>	1958	4
<i>A. viscosus</i>	1969	5, 6
<i>A. meyeri</i>	1984	205
<i>A. georgiae</i>	1990	17
<i>A. gerencseriae</i>	1990	17
<i>A. neuii</i> subsp. <i>neuii</i> and subsp. <i>anitratius</i>	1994	207
<i>A. radingae</i>	1995	288
<i>A. turicensis</i>	1995	288
<i>A. europaeus</i>	1997	202
<i>A. graevenitzi</i>	1997	197
<i>A. radidentis</i>	2000	188
<i>A. urogenitalis</i>	2000	45
<i>A. funkei</i>	2001	244
<i>A. cardiffensis</i>	2002	65
<i>A. hongkongensis</i>	2003	130
<i>A. nasicola</i>	2003	179
<i>A. oricola</i>	2003	189
<i>A. dentalis</i>	2005	190
<i>A. naeslundii</i> (sensu stricto) <sup>a</sup>	2009	10
<i>A. oris</i>	2009	10
<i>A. johnsonii</i>	2009	10
<i>A. massiliensis</i>	2009	246
<i>A. timonensis</i>	2010	224
<i>A. hominis</i>	2010	214

<sup>a</sup> Emended description of *A. naeslundii*.

such as *A. naeslundii* and *A. viscosus*, have occurred (10). However, only some human-associated *Actinomyces* species, including *A. israelii*, *Actinomyces gerencseriae*, and *Actinomyces graevenitzi*, may be involved in classical actinomycosis (11, 12). A wide range of *Actinomyces* species are being increasingly associated with infections at many body sites (11, 13, 14). *Actinomyces meyeri*, *Actinomyces neuii*, and *Actinomyces turicensis* are emerging as important causes of such infections.

Although actinomycosis is relatively rare, at least in Western populations (8), recently reported observations implicating *A. meyeri* in brain abscesses (15) and *Actinobaculum schaalii* (currently *Actinotignum schaalii*) in urosepsis (16) and the introduction of advanced microbiological techniques, which can identify even very fastidious organisms, have resulted in an increased awareness of *Actinomyces* and other Gram-positive, non-spore-forming bacilli in clinical microbiology.

To date, 25 validly published *Actinomyces* species from human material have been described (Table 1). Of these, the descriptions



**FIG 1** Phylogenetic tree based on 16S rRNA gene sequence comparisons over 1,260 aligned bases showing the relationship between species of the genus *Actinomyces*. The tree was reconstructed by using the neighbor-joining method from a distance matrix constructed from aligned sequences using the Jukes-Cantor correction. Numbers represent bootstrap values for each branch based on data for 1,000 trees.

of 13 species occurred solely during this century. In the present review, we aim to give a comprehensive overview of human *Actinomyces* and closely related organisms and their roles in different types of actinomycoses and other infections.

#### UPDATE ON TAXONOMY OF ACTINOMYCES AND CLOSELY RELATED TAXA

The clinically relevant Gram-positive anaerobic bacilli are found in two phyla: *Actinobacteria* and *Firmicutes*. The genus *Actinomyces* belongs to the *Actinobacteria*, is one of six genera within the

family *Actinomycetaceae*, and is currently comprised of 42 validly published species (<http://www.bacterio.net/actinomyces.html>). The type species is *Actinomyces bovis*. A phylogenetic tree based on 16S rRNA gene sequence comparisons (Fig. 1) shows that there are three principal clusters albeit not particularly strongly supported by bootstrap analysis. The majority of species belong to the cluster that includes *A. bovis*, while the remaining clusters, which include *A. neuii* and *Actinomyces hordeovulneris*, respectively, should be investigated further to determine if they warrant proposal as novel genera.

The *A. naeslundii*/*A. viscosus* group has long been known to be heterogeneous. *A. viscosus* was originally isolated from a hamster (5), but human strains were subsequently isolated with sufficient phenotypic similarity to be assigned to this species. DNA-DNA hybridization studies showed that human *A. viscosus* strains were in fact more closely related to *A. naeslundii* genospecies 2 than *A. viscosus* and that *A. viscosus* includes strains resident in animals only (17). An additional genetic homology group, *A. naeslundii* genospecies WVA963, was also described. Multilocus sequence analysis has further clarified the relationships within this group, leading to a narrowing of the definition of *A. naeslundii* and the proposal of the new species *A. oris* for strains formerly assigned to *A. naeslundii* genospecies 2 and *A. johnsonii* for strains formerly assigned to genospecies WVA963 (10). Despite this work, human strains have continued to be assigned to *A. viscosus*, and it is often difficult to determine the taxon to which they belong in the current scheme. Most of these strains, however, are likely to be members of *A. oris*. For the remainder of this review, “*A. viscosus*” is denoted in quotation marks as a reminder of the taxonomic uncertainty regarding human strains identified as this species.

Taxonomic reassessment of members of this genus has led to some species being assigned to other genera, such as *Actinobaculum suis* (previously *Actinomyces suis*) (18), *Cellulomonas humilata* (formerly *Actinomyces humiferus*) (19), *Trueperella bernardiae* (formerly *Actinomyces bernardiae* and *Arcanobacterium bernardiae*) (20), and *Trueperella pyogenes* (formerly *Actinomyces pyogenes* and *Arcanobacterium pyogenes*) (20). In addition to *Actinobaculum suis*, which is of animal origin, three human *Actinomyces*-like species were also described as the novel species *Actinobaculum schaalii* (18), *Actinobaculum massiliae* (later corrected to *A. massiliense*) (21), and *Actinobaculum urinale* (22). Recently, *A. schaalii* and *A. urinale* were assigned to the new genus *Actinotignum*, and a strain from human blood was characterized and described as *Actinotignum sanguinis* (23). In the latter study, the type strain of *Actinobaculum massiliense* obtained from two culture collections was found to be phylogenetically distinct, on the basis of 16S rRNA gene sequence comparisons, from the strain originally described. The *A. massiliense* type strain currently deposited in culture collections appears to be closely related to *A. schaalii* (23). A group of *Actinomyces*-like strains isolated from human infections were found to represent a novel genus, *Varibaculum*, within the family *Actinomycetaceae* (24). The novel species “*Actinomyces lingnae*” and “*Actinomyces houstonensis*” were proposed by Clarridge and Zhang (25), but because the descriptions were incomplete and the strains have not been deposited with culture collections, the proposals have not been validated.

Until recently, all *Actinomyces* species described were isolated from microbiota associated with mammals. Rao et al. (26), however, isolated *Actinomyces naturae* from chlorinated solvent-contaminated groundwater. The optimal temperature for growth of this species, 30°C to 37°C, suggests that the primary source may have been an animal.

Although, as listed above, there have been a number of new *Actinomyces* species proposed in recent years, culture-independent studies directly targeting 16S rRNA genes have revealed sequences representing novel *Actinomyces* taxa. For the human mouth alone, the Human Oral Microbiome Database (<http://www.homd.org/>) lists 18 as-yet-unnamed species-level *Actinomyces* taxa (27).

## NATURAL HABITATS OF ACTINOMYCES AND CLOSELY RELATED TAXA

### Oral Cavity

*Actinomyces* is one of the predominant genera in the oral cavity. Indeed, at the age of 2 months, one-third of infants in one study were already colonized with *Actinomyces* (28). On oral mucosal surfaces of these edentulous infants, *A. odontolyticus* was the only representative of the genus found. The diversity of *Actinomyces* populations increased so that >90% of children harbored one or more *Actinomyces* species in their mouths from the age of 1 year onwards. During this 2-year longitudinal study, despite the appearance of *A. naeslundii*, “*A. viscosus*,” *A. graevenitzii*, and *A. gerencseriae* in the oral cavity at the time of the eruption of the primary teeth, *A. odontolyticus* clearly remained the most prominent oral *Actinomyces* species recovered from saliva in children (28). *Actinomyces* species play a central role in the initial stages of biofilm formation on teeth (i.e., dental plaque) both above (supragingival) and below (subgingival) the gumline (29). Indeed, *A. odontolyticus*, *A. naeslundii*, *A. oris*, and *A. gerencseriae* have been shown to participate in the formation of supragingival plaque on primary teeth of children aged 3 to 4 years (30). An interesting observation was that *A. israelii*, which is considered the major causative agent of human actinomycosis, is uncommon in the oral cavity of young children (28, 30). In the original description of *A. georgiae* (17), most characterized isolates came from gingival crevice samples from periodontally healthy children. *A. odontolyticus* has been shown to be one of the predominant *Actinomyces* species in developing biofilms on tooth surfaces in subjects of all ages, and the proportions found were not related to periodontal disease status (31). In a study characterizing 195 fresh *Actinomyces* isolates collected from supra- and subgingival plaque samples of five adults with chronic periodontitis, *A. oris* (formerly *A. viscosus* serotype II) was the isolate most commonly identified, followed by *A. gerencseriae*, *A. naeslundii*, *A. georgiae*, and *A. israelii*; *A. meyeri* was not found (32). In general, members of the genus *Actinomyces* are not considered to play a pathogenic role in periodontitis. Although the relative abundance of *Actinomyces* is decreased in diseased sites, its total biomass in subgingival plaque does not differ between periodontally healthy and diseased subjects (33). *A. turicensis* was reported to be the most common *Actinomyces* species on the tongue surface of eight subjects with oral malodor, followed by *A. odontolyticus*, *A. israelii*, and *A. radingae* (34). A recent study on the human oral microbiome, being part of the NIH-supported Human Microbiome Project and using comprehensive molecular tools, revealed *A. georgiae*, *A. gerencseriae*, *A. israelii*, *A. meyeri*, *A. naeslundii*, *A. odontolyticus*, *A. oricola*, *A. radidentis*, as well as several not-yet-cultivated *Actinomyces* phylotypes as members of the resident microbiota in the human mouth (27).

### Pharynx

Relatively few studies have characterized *Actinomyces* populations at nonoral human body sites. In nasopharyngeal specimens collected from infants during their first 2 years of life and examined by culture, *Actinomyces* organisms were common during acute otitis media episodes compared to their occasional presence during periods of health (35). In a recent study of the tonsillar crypt microbiota (36), oral species such as *A. georgiae*, *A. israelii*/*A. gerencseriae*, *A. meyeri*, *A. naeslundii*, *A. odontolyticus*, *A. radidentis*, and the recently described *A. cardiffensis* and *A. massiliensis* were

found. The bacterial diversity and composition within tonsillar crypts were compared on the one hand between 10 children and 10 adults and on the other hand between 10 subjects with recurrent tonsillitis and 10 corresponding healthy subjects. Interestingly, *A. odontolyticus* colonized all 20 subjects, and *A. naeslundii* colonized half of the subjects regardless of age or disease status, whereas *A. cardiffensis* and *A. massiliensis* were recovered mainly from healthy children (36).

### Other Sites of Bacterial Colonization

It is often stated in reviews and case reports that in addition to the mouth, *Actinomyces* organisms are common inhabitants of the gut, genitourinary tract, and skin. It is true that at the phylum level, *Actinobacteria* are frequent colonizers of most ecological niches of the human body (37–39). At the genus level, however, the organisms found may belong to genera other than *Actinomyces*; for instance, until the introduction of accurate molecular methods of identification, many *Bifidobacterium* isolates from urine, cervix/uterus exudates, peritoneal wound, appendix wound, and blood were likely to have been misidentified as *Actinomyces* on the basis of their similarities in Gram stain and culture characteristics (40). Thus, organisms belonging to the phylum *Actinobacteria* may merely represent the genus *Bifidobacterium* in the gut or the genus *Propionibacterium* on skin and hair. The distal human esophagus has been reported to offer a relatively stable environment for bacterial colonization, including some *Actinomyces* species, such as *A. odontolyticus* (in particular), *A. meyeri*, and *A. graevenitzii* (41), although whether this site is truly colonized or whether the bacteria detected there are derived from saliva is unclear. *A. graevenitzii* was identified in biopsy specimens from the proximal small intestine of children with celiac disease, and an unidentified *Actinomyces* sp. was shown to be attached to the epithelial lining (38). Fecal samples were shown to harbor only a few clones identified as *Actinomyces*, with “*A. viscosus*” and *A. odontolyticus* being represented (42). *Actinomyces* species found in the human (female) urogenital tract in the absence of actinomycetal infection include *A. meyeri*, *A. neuui*, *A. radingae*, *A. turicensis*, and *A. urogenitalis* (43–47). After the detection of *Actinobaculum schaalii* (currently *Actinotignum schaalii*), a taxon closely related to the members of the genus *Actinomyces*, in urine, groin swabs, and vaginal swabs (18), it was recently suggested that this organism might be a relatively frequent commensal residing on the skin and mucosae of urogenital sites, but not in the colon, since no detection from feces was made (48).

### *Actinomyces* at Normally Sterile Body Sites

*Actinomyces* species have been detected at body sites where microbes are not normally found. For example, *Actinomyces* was found to be a core component of the microbiota in sputum samples from 22 tuberculous patients and 14 controls examined by 16S rRNA gene pyrosequencing (49). This is consistent with a report that *Actinomyces* was among the most prevalent genera in the sputum of cystic fibrosis patients (50). Urine has historically been considered a sterile fluid, but recent data have challenged this. Hilt et al. (51) used a combination of standard and expanded quantitative urine cultures and 16S rRNA gene sequencing to identify bacteria in urine specimens collected from 65 women (41 with overactive bladder and 24 controls). *Actinomyces* proved to be among the most prevalent genera, being found in 7% of the women. *A. neuui*, *A. turicensis*, *A. urogenitalis*, *A. europaeus*, *A.*

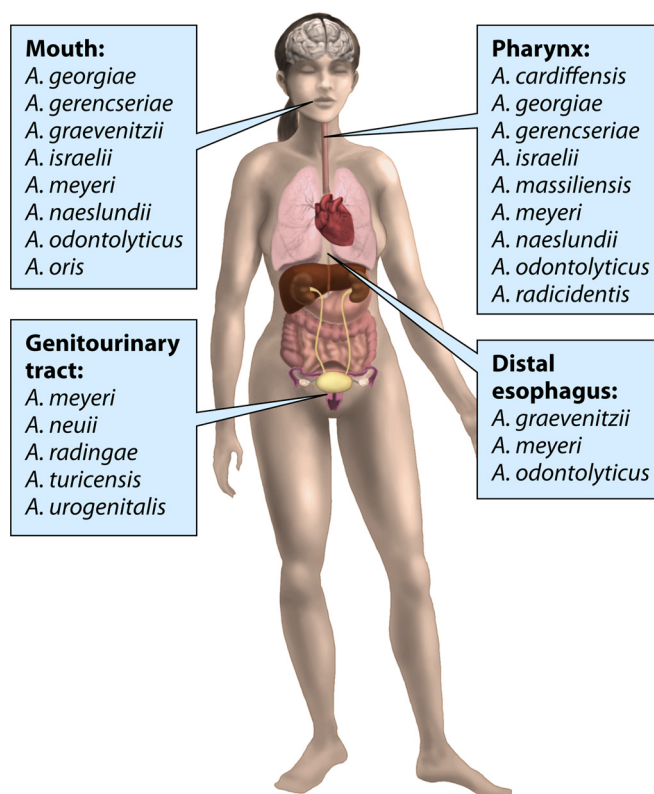


FIG 2 Natural habitats of human *Actinomyces* species.

*odontolyticus*, *A. graevenitzii*, *A. naeslundii*, and *A. oris* were detected, as were the closely related genus *Actinobaculum* (currently *Actinotignum*) and the species *A. schaalii* and *A. urinale*. Based on their detection of viable bacteria, those authors concluded that there is indeed a resident low-abundance microbiota in the adult female bladder (51). It is usually considered that overactive bladder is not of infectious origin; however, *A. neuui* and *A. schaalii* were recovered from symptomatic women only (11% and 16%, respectively) (52).

Figure 2 summarizes the distribution of *Actinomyces* species at various body sites of a healthy subject.

### ACTINOMYCOSIS

Actinomycosis is generally considered an uncommon disease; however, current prevalence rates are not available, and furthermore, data from developing countries are incomplete (8). Actinomycosis affects subjects of all ages, although pediatric cases are much less frequent than cases in adults, where the disease is more common in men. The disease can appear in both immunocompetent and immunocompromised individuals (8, 9).

Typical actinomycosis is an indolent, slowly progressing granulomatous disease, which can be categorized, according to the body site, as orocervicofacial, thoracic, and abdominopelvic forms (7–9). The disease can also appear as cutaneous actinomycosis, musculoskeletal disease, pericarditis, infection of the central nervous system (CNS), or disseminated disease. Moreover, some actinomycosis cases have been linked to specific conditions, such as osteoradionecrosis or bisphosphonate-related osteonecrosis of the jaws (53, 54), the use of anti-inflammatory drugs (55, 56), or some hereditary diseases (57, 58). Also, unusual presentations of

human actinomycosis have been reported, which presents a diagnostic challenge (59). Conversely, it is important to remember that *Actinomyces* species are found in a variety of polymicrobial infections, particularly associated with the head and neck, and only a minority of these are classical actinomycoses.

Early diagnosis of slowly progressing actinomycosis is difficult due to the nonspecific nature of the signs and symptoms of the disease, such as swelling, cough, low-grade fever, and weight loss, which leads to delays in patients seeking medical care. An additional diagnostic challenge is that a growing fibrotic mass, spreading through tissue planes, can resemble a malignant tumor (9). For example, in a recent case series of 94 thoracic actinomycosis cases (60), one-third of the cases were initially diagnosed as lung cancer, and only 6% were diagnosed as actinomycosis. Radiographic imaging techniques, such as computed tomography, and magnetic resonance imaging are valuable diagnostic tools for recognizing the location and size of the lesion(s) (61–63). Characteristic features of actinomycosis include chronic manifestations, abscess formation with sinus tracts, and purulent discharge (9). Hard macroscopic grains, “sulfur granules,” in pus have been considered among the confirmatory characteristics of actinomycotic lesions; however, they are not always present in pus samples (7, 12). When available, sulfur granules are of diagnostic value; in a histopathological examination, the granules are crushed, Gram stained, and viewed under a microscope, revealing typical Gram-positive branching filaments forming segment-like structures and being surrounded by inflammatory cells, mainly polymorphonuclear neutrophils (9, 14).

### Orocervicofacial Actinomycosis

Orocervicofacial actinomycosis is the most common form of actinomycosis, consisting of more than half of all actinomycosis cases (7–9). According to the experience of Schaal and Lee (13) in Germany over a period of 25 years, cervicofacial actinomycosis cases were common, making up ~25% of the odontogenic infections examined in their laboratory. This may not be surprising, since the mouth, particularly dental plaque, is the primary habitat of *Actinomyces* species. Indeed, poor oral hygiene is seen as an important predisposing factor for actinomycosis, as are smoking and heavy use of alcohol, reflecting the health behavior of the host. *Actinomyces* can easily gain access to oral tissues via invasive dental procedures such as tooth extraction (8).

To date, the most comprehensive data on the bacteriology of this form of actinomycosis come from a study conducted in two reference laboratories in Germany (12). Altogether, 12,253 specimens, collected between 1972 and 1999 from patients having cervicofacial inflammatory processes, were examined thoroughly by using culture-based techniques with a wide variety of growth media and incubation times of up to 14 days. Of these, 1,997 specimens yielded growth of filamentous bacteria, consisting primarily of *A. israelii* (42%) and *A. gerencseriae* (26.7%). In addition, *A. naeslundii*/*A. viscosus* was found in ~9% of the specimens, while *A. odontolyticus*, *A. meyeri*, *A. georgiae*, and *A. neuii* subsp. *neuii* were occasionally recovered. Those authors suggested, however, that the latter *Actinomyces* findings could be due to these species being part of a polymicrobial infection rather than indicating their potential to cause true actinomycotic lesions, and the absence of real causative organisms may be explained by missing them in culture. Furthermore, 20% of *Actinomyces* isolates could not be identified to the species level, which is not surprising if the

number of recently described novel species and the number of known unnamed species are considered. Noteworthy is that ~90% of the 1,997 specimens also contained other bacterial species. In a reference laboratory in the United Kingdom, 88 clinical strains from unspecified infections of the neck-face area were identified; *A. israelii*, *A. naeslundii*, *A. odontolyticus*, and *A. gerencseriae* proved to be the main *Actinomyces* species, with each of them having a prevalence of ~10% (64). Among the strain collection, several *A. graevenitzi*, *A. meyeri*, and *A. turicensis* as well as sporadic *A. europaeus*, *A. georgiae*, *A. neuii*, *A. cardiffensis*, and *A. funkei* strains were also identified (64, 65).

A recent report (66) reviewed 17 cases of pediatric cervicofacial actinomycosis, defined as a culture positive for *Actinomyces* or a biopsy specimen with “sulfur granules.” Of the 13 cases with a culture positive for *Actinomyces*, five isolates were identified as *A. israelii*, and three isolates each were identified as *A. odontolyticus*, “*A. viscosus*,” or *A. bovis*. It is not uncommon, however, that there are uncertainties in identifications in sporadic case reports. For instance, as nonhuman species, *A. bovis* and “*A. viscosus*” have probably been misidentified. Bacterial masses similar to those seen in actinomycosis, and from which *A. israelii* has been isolated, have also been recognized in pediatric osteomyelitis, and in the majority of cases, their location is the mandible (67).

Within the oral cavity, the hard palate is an uncommon site for actinomycosis, since only four cases have been described in the literature; in one of these cases, *A. naeslundii* was isolated from a diabetic patient (68). Another report described an ulcer-type actinomycotic lesion with *A. odontolyticus* on the oral mucosa of a patient with diabetes (69). Other locations for actinomycotic lesions categorized as cervicofacial actinomycosis include, for instance, the nasal and sinus region (70–72); pharynx (73, 74); larynx/tonsillae (75–78); middle ear, mastoid, and/or temporal bone (79–81); and skull base with the craniovertebral junction (82). A somewhat more distant location is the esophagus, from where actinomycotic lesions have also been recovered in both immunocompetent and immunocompromised individuals (83, 84). Except for actinomycotic cases with *A. meyeri* in the middle ear and mastoid (79) and *A. israelii* in the mastoid (81) and in the skull base (82), identified by molecular methods, as well as *A. odontolyticus* in the larynx (77), diagnoses were not based on microbiology but on clinical manifestations and histopathology with or without a presentation of sulfur granules. In some cases, culture was performed, resulting in “no growth,” or the species identification was not defined. Therefore, which specific *Actinomyces* species could have been involved in these actinomycotic lesions remains unclear.

### Thoracic Actinomycosis

The main source of thoracic actinomycosis is considered to be the aspiration of oropharyngeal secretions, although hematogenous spread or direct spread from local infections can result in actinomycotic lesions at pulmonary sites (7, 8). Alternative causes to be considered in differential diagnoses include lung cancer, pneumonia, and tuberculosis (60). Since the spread of an actinomycotic lesion occurs despite anatomic barriers, invasion into the pleura or the chest wall can result in empyema or actinomycosis in the chest wall and surrounding bone structures (7, 9).

*A. graevenitzi* appears to have a predilection for respiratory sites (25, 64). Indeed, *A. graevenitzi* has been reported to be a causative organism in thoracic actinomycosis (56, 85, 86), multi-

ple lung abscesses mimicking coccidioidomycosis (87), and organizing pneumonia with microabscesses (88). These observations are credible due to the possibility of aspiration, since *A. graevenitzii* colonizes the oral cavity in particular (28). *A. meyeri* (89–94), *A. israelii* (95, 96), *A. odontolyticus* (97, 98), and *A. cardiffensis* (99) have been recovered from actinomycotic lesions at pulmonary sites. *A. cardiffensis* has also been isolated from the blood of a patient with multiple lung abscesses and septicemia (100). Sporadic findings of *A. naeslundii* and “*A. viscosus*” from pediatric actinomycosis cases have been reported (95). Interestingly, a variety of typical oral species were present as concomitant bacteria in most specimens. Rarely, a progressing thoracic lesion extends to extrathoracic tissues, with abscess formation on the thoracic wall and pus eroding through the chest wall, causing “empyema necessitatis.” This is a severe condition, where *A. odontolyticus*, *A. israelii*, *A. gerencseriae*, and unspecified *Actinomyces* species have been detected as causative organisms besides mycobacteria and staphylococci (101–103). There are reports of cases where thoracic actinomycosis was found together with tuberculosis (85). In most of these cases, actinomycosis was due to *A. israelii*, while in one case, *A. graevenitzii* was identified as the causative organism.

Other *Actinomyces* species isolated from thorax specimens, collected in routine clinical laboratories and identified in a reference laboratory, were mainly *A. meyeri* and *A. odontolyticus*, but one isolate each of *A. turicensis*, *A. cardiffensis*, and *A. funkei* were also detected (64). Since there was no further clinical/histopathological information, it is not possible to confirm their connection specifically to actinomycosis.

### Abdominal/Pelvic Actinomycosis

Abdominal actinomycosis is mainly a consequence of invasive procedures or abdominal infection such as appendicitis (8). Laparoscopic cholecystectomy with a lost gallstone(s) has been reported to be a potential complication leading to actinomycosis; *A. naeslundii* and an unspecified *Actinomyces* sp. were detected in two cases of abdominal abscesses (104), while *A. meyeri* was found in a case of abdominal actinomycosis extending from the kidney up to the thorax (105) and in an actinomycotic subphrenic abscess (106). *A. israelii* and *A. meyeri* have been identified in pus specimens from periappendical abscesses (107). *A. meyeri* was also implicated in splenic abscesses in a young girl with autoimmune hepatitis (108). In some abdominal actinomycosis cases arising from an abdominal source or even from the mouth, *Actinomyces* can result in pericarditis or the involvement of the liver; several *Actinomyces* species, particularly *A. israelii* (109–112) and *A. meyeri* (92, 113) but also *A. funkei* (114), *A. odontolyticus* (115), and *A. turicensis* (116), have been detected in liver abscesses. *A. neuii* has been detected in pericardial effusion samples of patients with chronic pericarditis (117). It is notable, however, that *A. neuii* is not considered to be involved in classical actinomycosis (118, 119).

Pelvic actinomycosis has usually been connected to *Actinomyces* present on an intrauterine contraceptive device (IUCD) after its prolonged use (8, 9). In a study conducted in Singapore, cervical smears of 1,108 women with IUCDs were screened for *Actinomyces*-like organisms by two cytologists (120). The prevalence of smears positive for target organisms was nearly 14%; however, no connection between positive smears and the duration of placement of the IUCD was found, contrary to most reports (121). Moreover, nearly all women, despite the presence of *Actinomyces*-

like organisms, were asymptomatic (120, 121). When considering the frequency of use of IUCDs, the recovery of <100 actinomycotic specimens, most of those being tubo-ovarian abscesses, between 1926 and 1995 indicated that the risk of pelvic actinomycosis in relation to the use of IUCDs is very low (122). Among 130 *Actinomyces* isolates from clinical material associated with IUCDs sent to a reference laboratory for identification to the species level, one-third were identified as *A. israelii*, with its prevalence being double those of *A. turicensis*, *A. naeslundii*, *A. odontolyticus*, and *A. gerencseriae*, which were the next most common species (64). In an *in vitro* study, *A. israelii* grown in synthetic intrauterine medium was demonstrated to attach to and form spiderlike colonies and porous biofilm structures on copper plates, where the presence of sulfur was also confirmed (123). *A. israelii* has been found in IUCD users with pelvic manifestations (124, 125). Furthermore, *A. odontolyticus* (126) and some of the more recently isolated *Actinomyces* species, including *A. urogenitalis* (127, 128), *A. hongkongensis* (129, 130), *A. cardiffensis* (65), and *A. turicensis* (131, 132), appear to play a role in IUCD-associated pelvic actinomycosis. Certain gynecologic procedures may predispose an individual to complications with *Actinomyces* organisms; a case of bacteremia from a tubo-ovarian abscess caused by *A. urogenitalis* in a non-IUCD user exposed to a transvaginal oocyte retrieval procedure was reported (128), while in IUCD users, a similar procedure resulted in an infectious complication with *A. israelii* (124), and another gynecologic procedure, hysterectomy and salpingectomy, resulted in pelvic actinomycosis due to *A. hongkongensis* (129). In fact, the type strain of *A. hongkongensis* originates from a pus specimen from a pelvic actinomycosis case where ovarian tubes were described as being filled with pus (130).

The spread of causative organisms from pelvic sites to the abdominal region or vice versa can lead to abdominopelvic actinomycosis (7).

### Other Types of Actinomycosis

**Cutaneous actinomycosis.** Cutaneous actinomycosis is usually a secondary infectious process with an underlying focus at deeper tissues, or it appears as a result of hematogenous spread from actinomycotic lesion elsewhere in the body. Manifestations with a single or multiple draining sinuses can occur at various body sites, including the face, chest, midriff, hip, as well as upper and lower extremities. Primary cutaneous actinomycosis with multiple lesions has been described to be a first sign of a patient’s HIV infection (133). *A. meyeri* and “*A. viscosus*” have been reported to be causative organisms of cutaneous actinomycosis (92, 133–135).

**Musculoskeletal actinomycosis.** Musculoskeletal actinomycotic disease has been associated mainly with *A. israelii*. Typically, the patients’ dentition and oral hygiene are poor, which are predisposing factors for the disease to occur. A recent report described an actinomycotic case with an involvement of the cervical spine, where *A. meyeri* was isolated from prevertebral pus samples and blood (136). Among 15 actinomycotic cases with an involvement of thoracic vertebral bone, however, *A. israelii* was detected in 9 of the cases, and *A. meyeri* was detected in 1 (137). In one *A. israelii* case, no signs of osteomyelitis in the spinal column were observed; the organism was detected in cerebrospinal fluid, and the entire spinal cord was involved, leaving the patient with severe neurological symptoms (138). Furthermore, *A. israelii* has been isolated from actinomycotic tissue biopsy specimens taken from the spine, together with *Fusobacterium nucleatum* and *Aggregati-*

*bacter actinomycetemcomitans* (139); iliac bone (140); and bones of a hand with extensive deformities (141). The latter was a most unusual case, initiated during the invasion of Normandy Beach in 1944, due to the persistence of the lesion despite long-term therapeutic interventions.

**Cerebral actinomycosis.** Actinomycotic lesions in the CNS cause the most severe form of actinomycosis (7, 8). *Actinomyces* organisms usually gain access to this area either by hematogenous spread from remote sites or directly from local actinomycotic lesions of the head, and the disease usually appears as a single or multiple brain abscesses; among 70 cases of actinomycosis in the CNS, two-thirds proved to be brain abscesses (142). *Actinomyces* species isolated from cerebrospinal fluid include *A. israelii*, from a patient with meningitis (107), and *A. naeslundii* (sensu stricto) (10). Clinicians should be aware of the possibility of actinomycosis in the CNS, especially in patients with neurological symptoms who have a history of actinomycosis elsewhere in the body (143). Pediatric cerebral actinomycosis cases are very rare; *A. israelii* was detected in a 10-year-old boy with congenital heart disease (144), and “*A. viscosus*” together with *Streptococcus constellatus* were detected in an immunocompetent 7-year-old girl, who died due to subdural empyema (145). In the latter case, again, poor dental health was suspected to be a predisposing factor.

**Disseminated actinomycosis.** Disseminated actinomycosis exhibits multiorgan involvement (9) and usually also has a polymicrobial nature; *Aggregatibacter* (formerly *Actinobacillus*) *actinomycetemcomitans* is often among the coinfecting organisms (89, 146, 147). *A. meyeri* in particular has a tendency to be involved in disseminated infections (89, 146, 148). Despite the severity of disseminated infection, it can have clinically mild manifestations. For example, a patient with longstanding shoulder pain with gradual spread to the chest area was finally diagnosed with pericarditis and pneumonia, after many challenges. This infection was caused by *Actinomyces* and *Actinobacillus* (*Aggregatibacter*) *actinomycetemcomitans*, and 6 months later, the patient also developed a brain abscess (147). Notably, the patient’s poor dentition was seen as a predisposing factor.

### Actinomycosis Occurring in a Specific Context

**Bisphosphonate-related osteonecrosis of the jaw.** Bisphosphonates are commonly used drugs in oncology. Bisphosphonate-related osteonecrosis of the jaws (BRONJ) is widely considered a specific disease entity where *Actinomyces* organisms may play an important role (54, 149). In three case series on BRONJ including a total of 96 patients, the rate of detection of *Actinomyces* varied between 53% and 86% (54, 150, 151). As known for most actinomycosis cases, concomitant or coinfecting organisms are usually present; therefore, it is conceivable that multiple bacterial morphotypes, located on active sites of bone resorption, were seen in BRONJ lesions examined by scanning electron microscopy (152).

**Osteoradionecrosis.** Another type of therapy used in oncology, namely, irradiation of the head and neck area, can lead to devitalization and necrosis of the jaw bone. Out of 50 patients examined, 12% were diagnosed as having an actinomycotic bone lesion (150). It is notable that, already in the early 1980s, *A. israelii* was suggested to be an associated organism on the basis of immunocytological findings (153), but this was ignored at that time. Later, the impact of *Actinomyces* as an infectious organism under this condition was reinforced when *Actinomyces*, identified as *A. israelii*, was found prominently colonizing necrotic bone in the major-

ity of 31 patients with osteoradionecrosis (53). Furthermore, it was shown that patients with bone biopsy specimens positive for *Actinomyces* were more susceptible to treatment failures than those with *Actinomyces*-negative biopsy specimens (154). In a study using sequencing of the 16S rRNA gene, however, only one *A. israelii*-positive specimen from osteoradionecrotic bone was found among six specimens examined (155), whereas the use of a DNA-DNA checkerboard method with targeted probes revealed the presence of *Actinomyces* species in all 12 resected jaw bone specimens examined (156). Ten specimens consisting of deep medullar bone of the jaw were positive for *A. israelii*, six for were positive “*A. viscosus*,” and five were positive for *A. gerencseriae*. These discrepancies in bacterial findings may be explained by different methodologies used in these studies.

**Anti-tumor necrosis factor alpha drugs.** Anti-tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- $\alpha$ ) drugs, which are increasingly used in the treatment of inflammatory diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis and Crohn’s disease, have been linked to an increased susceptibility to bacterial infections. The most common infections resulting in hospitalization are pneumonia, skin/soft tissue infections, urinary tract infections, and bacteremia/sepsis (157). Sporadic actinomycosis cases have also been reported in this context, including thoracic actinomycosis due to *A. graevenitzi* (56), rapidly progressing pneumonia due to *A. meyeri* (93), as well as cutaneous actinomycosis, with one case due to *A. neuii* subsp. *anitratus* and another case due to coinfection with *A. turicensis* and *A. urogenitalis* (55).

**Hereditary hemorrhagic telangiectasia.** Hereditary hemorrhagic telangiectasia is a vascular dysplasia with multiple-organ involvement. Recently, a case of multiple brain abscesses caused by *A. israelii* in a patient with hereditary hemorrhagic telangiectasia was described, and a review of such cases was conducted (57). Individuals with this syndrome are especially predisposed to brain abscesses, which are found in 75% of these individuals. In the literature between 1953 and 2013, ~10 actinomycosis cases in telangiectasia patients are known, where *A. israelii*, *A. meyeri*, *A. odontolyticus*, and *A. bovis* were implicated (57, 158). Other bacteria were also present in half of the cases; for example, organisms isolated concomitantly with *A. meyeri* were *Streptococcus intermedius*, *Fusobacterium nucleatum*, *Capnocytophaga* spp., and *Staphylococcus epidermidis* (159), and in another case, organisms isolated concomitantly with *A. odontolyticus* included *Haemophilus aphrophilus* (now *Aggregatibacter aphrophilus*), peptostreptococci, and *Bacteroides* sp. (160). These findings suggest an oral source of these polymicrobial brain abscesses.

**Chronic granulomatous disease.** The rare hereditary condition chronic granulomatous disease, which affects the clearance of phagocytosed microorganisms, can lead to severe infections, especially in the lungs, skin, lymph nodes, gastrointestinal tract, and liver, caused by fungi (e.g., *Aspergillus*) or aerobic bacteria (e.g., *Staphylococcus aureus*) (161). Interestingly, *Actinomyces* was detected in two pulmonary specimens from a total of 684 infectious episodes in 284 patients. Indeed, it was recently reported that patients suffering from chronic granulomatous disease could be especially vulnerable to actinomycosis (58). This case series of 10 patients consisted mainly of abscess specimens collected from the upper part of the body (submandibular region, neck, liver, and lung). Typically, recurrent infections in these patients are connected to catalase-producing bacteria and fungi (162), but here mainly catalase-negative *Actinomyces* species, including *A.*



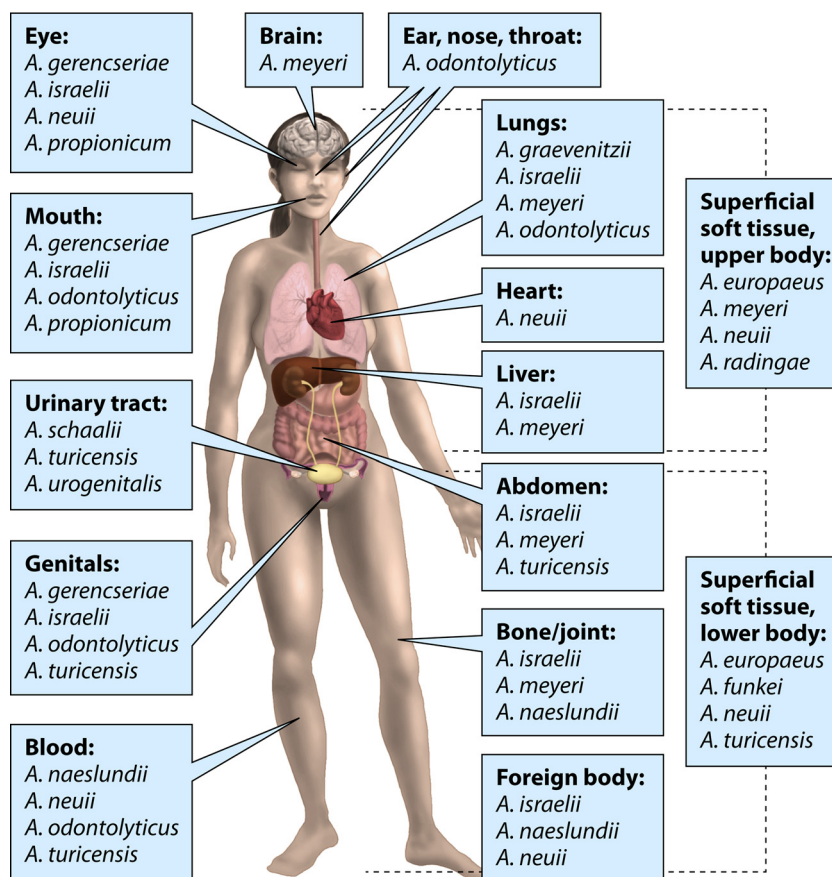


FIG 3 Major *Actinomyces* findings in human infections at different body sites.

*naeslundii* ( $n = 5$ ), *A. gerencseriae* ( $n = 1$ ), *A. meyeri* ( $n = 1$ ), an unspecified *Actinomyces* sp. ( $n = 1$ ), and two cases specified as “actinomycosis,” were suggested to be causative organisms of chronic granulomatous disease-related actinomycosis (58). However, whether the described cases represented typical actinomycosis or another type of *Actinomyces*-associated infection remained unclear.

#### OTHER INFECTIONS WITH INVOLVEMENT OF ACTINOMYCES

The range of clinical infections with an involvement of *Actinomyces* species is widening due to the introduction of novel species that have been described during this century. Figure 3 presents infectious sites and major *Actinomyces* recoveries from human infections besides classical actinomycosis.

#### Brain Abscesses

In a recent comprehensive nationwide study conducted in Norway, the bacteriology of brain abscess specimens collected over a 2-year period was examined by culture and direct 16S rRNA gene sequencing, and positive specimens ( $n = 52$ ) were reanalyzed by using massive parallel sequencing (15). Of these specimens, 37 came from spontaneous brain abscesses, 3 were from spontaneous subdural infections, and 12 were from postoperative infections. That study revealed a bacterial detection rate by massive parallel sequencing that was three times higher than that obtained by standard culture-based routine diagnostics. The vast majority of abscess specimens yielded polymicrobial growth, where *Aggregati-*

*bacter aphrophilus*, *Fusobacterium nucleatum*, *Streptococcus intermedius*, and *Actinomyces* were among the predominant organisms. A very interesting observation was that nearly all *Actinomyces* isolates recovered from 37 spontaneous brain abscesses were identified as *A. meyeri* ( $n = 12$ ), while other findings included *A. georgiae* ( $n = 2$ ), *A. israelii* ( $n = 1$ ), and *Actinomyces* sp. ( $n = 1$ ) (15). Indeed, there are several reported cases of the involvement of *A. meyeri* in brain abscesses and/or other types of CNS infections (64, 92, 163), indicating the predilection of this organism for severe infections in the human CNS.

#### Eye Infections

*Actinomyces* species have been isolated from cases of endophthalmitis, keratitis, and canaliculitis. Of these, the most common infection is postoperative endophthalmitis after an ocular procedure, where *A. neuii* (164–166), *A. meyeri* (167), and “*A. viscosus*” (168) have been detected, while in cases of endogenous endophthalmitis, which is far less common, *A. neuii* (169) and *A. israelii* (170) have been detected. *A. israelii* has also been isolated from cases of postoperative keratitis (171) and primary infections of the lacrimal duct, i.e., canaliculitis (172–174). In addition, *A. meyeri* and *A. georgiae* have been found in specimens from cases of canaliculitis (172, 175), while *A. naeslundii* was identified in a swab specimen taken from a cornea leading to keratitis (107). Of 59 eye secretions/tear fluid examined in a reference laboratory in Germany, 22% were positive for “*A. viscosus*,” 19% were positive for *A. israelii*, 14% were positive for *A. naeslundii*,

and 10% were positive for *A. gerencseriae* and *A. odontolyticus* each; *A. israelii* and *A. gerencseriae* were isolated from canaliculitis cases, whereas “*A. viscosus*,” *A. naeslundii*, and *A. odontolyticus* were more common in cases of conjunctivitis (13). Among 15 clinical strains collected from eye infections (infection not specified) and sent to a reference laboratory in the United Kingdom for identification, *A. gerencseriae*, *A. israelii*, *A. odontolyticus*, *A. naeslundii*, and *A. georgiae*, in descending order, were detected (64).

### Ear, Nose, and Throat Infections

*Actinomyces* has been detected at increased frequencies in the nasopharynx of children suffering from recurrent otitis media during their first 2 years of life (35). In nasopharyngeal aspirates collected during acute otitis media episodes, one-quarter were colonized by *A. odontolyticus*, but *A. gerencseriae* was also found (176). In a culture-based study of peritonsillar abscesses, *A. odontolyticus* was found in one-quarter of 124 pus aspirates collected from young adults (177). *A. turicensis* has been detected in chronic otitis media and mastoiditis cases (47, 178), while one *A. cardiffensis* strain was found in pus collected from temporal, large, and small parietal and ear abscesses in a patient after mastoidectomy (65). Moreover, another *A. cardiffensis* strain was obtained from an antral washout specimen of a patient with sinusitis (65), and a novel *A. nasicola* strain was obtained from pus collected from the nasal antrum (179).

### Oral Infections

*Actinomyces* species are involved in infectious processes of the mouth, including a wide variety of diseases induced by polymicrobial consortia living in biofilms.

**Dental caries.** The role of *Actinomyces* in dental caries is well known; in this context, the most important species are *A. gerencseriae* and *A. israelii* (30, 180, 181). *A. gerencseriae* in particular is among the most active species in dental plaque of children suffering from severe early childhood caries, which is a chronic disease causing extensive destruction of the primary dentition (181). Elderly subjects with exposed root surfaces (usually due to treated or untreated advanced periodontitis) are susceptible to root caries, where certain *Actinomyces* species are considered important causative organisms, particularly *A. israelii* and *A. gerencseriae*, but *A. naeslundii*, *A. odontolyticus*, and *A. georgiae* have also been isolated (180). Both *A. naeslundii* genospecies 1 (*A. naeslundii* sensu stricto) and genospecies 2 (now *A. oris*) colonize active root caries lesions (182).

**Endodontic infections.** The primary cause of endodontic infection is dental caries, which, when untreated, progresses into the pulp cavum and root canal, infecting the pulp and eventually causing necrosis of the pulpal tissue. Since the infectious process can be asymptomatic, if no root canal treatment is given, microorganisms may gain access to even periapical sites. *Actinomyces* species are rarely involved in early stages of endodontic infections but are typically found in persistent infections and extraradicular lesions (183–187). Rates of detection of *Actinomyces* in clinical endodontic samples varied from 9% among 53 specimens examined by DNA-DNA checkerboard analysis (185) to 56% among 129 specimens examined by PCR (187). There were also obvious differences in the species distribution: *A. gerencseriae* and *A. israelii* (185) on the one hand and “*A. viscosus*” and *A. israelii* (187) on the other hand were reported as major *Actinomyces* species in teeth

with abscesses, whereas *A. naeslundii* was either absent (185) or present at low levels (187). In a culture-based study of refractory periapical infections, sulfur granules were found in 9 of 36 periapical lesions (186); five of the seven culture-positive granules grew *Actinomyces*, including *A. israelii*, “*A. viscosus*,” *A. naeslundii*, and *A. meyeri*. Also, *A. radidentis* isolates have been recovered sporadically from endodontic specimens (184, 188). Most, if not all, endodontic infections are polymicrobial (183–187). Two novel *Actinomyces* species, *A. oricola* and *A. dentalis*, with one strain each, have been isolated from dental abscesses (189, 190).

**Oral infections in tissues surrounding teeth/implants.** *Actinomyces* organisms, particularly *A. naeslundii* and *A. oris*, are common in dental plaque (10). Indeed, *A. naeslundii* has been found in cases of dental plaque-induced gingivitis, although *A. naeslundii* and *A. gerencseriae* were also reported to be associated with periodontal health (191). Somewhat surprising was the detection of *A. gerencseriae* as one of the dominant species of the microbiota at the gingival margin in relation to a severe form of gingival disease, necrotizing ulcerative gingivitis (192). Typically, Gram-negative anaerobes, such as fusobacteria, *Prevotella intermedia*, and spirochetes, are considered the etiologic organisms of this acute and painful disease, which destroys soft tissues around affected teeth, especially interdental gingival papillae. Elevated levels of *A. neuii* in subgingival sites of women with gingivitis were reported in a study where the DNA-DNA checkerboard technique was used as a detection method (193). Otherwise, *A. neuii* is seldom detected in oral biofilms. The known cross-reactivity of the checkerboard method may explain this unusual finding. Furthermore, *A. odontolyticus*, *A. israelii*, *A. naeslundii*, “*A. viscosus*,” *A. meyeri*, and *A. gerencseriae*, in descending order, have been recovered from a case of pericoronitis of wisdom teeth (194), while *A. odontolyticus*, *A. naeslundii*, “*A. viscosus*,” *A. israelii*, *A. georgiae*, *A. gerencseriae*, and *A. graevenitzii*, in descending order, were recovered from 33 failed dental implant fixtures, which had been removed due to infection (195). When bone was harvested from jawbone(s) for augmentation procedures, which may occasionally be needed for successful implantation of dental implant fixtures, *A. odontolyticus* was found to be among the most frequent contaminants of bone debris (196).

### Pulmonary Infections

On the basis of the literature, it is unclear whether reported pneumonia or other disease cases with an involvement of *Actinomyces* represent thoracic actinomycosis or lung infection without specific actinomycotic lesions. For instance, in the original description of *A. graevenitzii*, three out of four strains characterized came from respiratory material, including bronchus brush, bronchial secretion, and sputum samples; however, no information on the clinical situation regarding these strains was given (197). This was also the case in another study, where four *A. graevenitzii* isolates were obtained from similar pulmonary sources (25). In a recent epidemiological investigation, *A. graevenitzii* proved to be the predominant species identified in *Actinomyces*-positive bronchoscopy cultures (198). The 18 case patients had abnormalities on chest radiography but no biopsy findings typical of pulmonary actinomycosis; 12 of the patients were positive for *A. graevenitzii*, 3 were positive for *A. odontolyticus*, 1 was positive for both *A. graevenitzii* and *A. odontolyticus*, and 2 were positive for unspecified *Actinomyces* species. An interesting observation was the significant increase in the number of *Actinomyces*-positive pulmo-

nary specimens after the culture protocol was modified (198). Previously, *A. israelii* had been identified as the main *Actinomyces* species recovered in bronchial secretions (13). *A. meyeri* was isolated from a pus specimen related to an empyema that developed after pneumonia (107). Indeed, several *A. meyeri* cases in connection to pneumonia have been reported (92). Besides *A. meyeri*, *A. odontolyticus*, *A. turicensis*, *A. cardiffensis*, and *A. funkei* were among thorax specimens that were identified in a reference laboratory in the United Kingdom (64); due to the lack of other information, it was not possible to estimate whether they were associated with thoracic actinomycosis or other pulmonary infections.

### Superficial Infections

**The upper body.** Many *Actinomyces* species have been identified in soft tissue abscesses of the body above the waistline. Breast tissue is a site commonly affected by actinomycosis, with *A. neuii* especially being identified as a causative organism (11, 64, 119, 175, 199–201). Also, *A. europaeus* (25, 64, 202, 203), *A. radingae* (25, 64, 204), *A. meyeri* (92, 205), and *A. turicensis* (25, 204, 206) have been recovered. In one breast abscess case, *A. turicensis* was isolated in pure culture (25). Nipple piercing was suggested to be a predisposing factor for *Actinomyces* infection of the breast in two patients, one due to *A. radingae* (204) and another due to *A. turicensis* together with a Gram-positive anaerobic coccus, *Peptoniphilus harei* (206). Other sites of the upper body with abscesses with an involvement of *Actinomyces* organisms include the face, neck, axilla, armpit, chest, and/or back, with *A. europaeus*, *A. georgiae*, *A. meyeri*, *A. neuii* (both subspecies), and *A. radingae* being the identified species (25, 64, 92, 107, 175, 205). In addition, *A. turicensis* has been isolated from necrotic tissue associated with cervicofacial fasciitis (107), and *A. neuii* has been isolated from a mammary hematoma (207).

**The lower body.** The majority of skin-related infections caused by *Actinomyces* below the waistline are due to *A. turicensis* (25, 64, 107, 178, 208, 209). Abscesses are typically found in the groin, buttock, rectal area, and skin of the genitals. Other *Actinomyces* species commonly detected include *A. europaeus*, *A. funkei*, *A. neuii* (both subspecies), and *A. radingae* (25, 47, 64, 107, 114, 175, 178, 202, 209). It has been suggested that lipid-rich areas are favorable for the growth of these *Actinomyces* species (178). Furthermore, *A. europaeus*, *A. funkei*, and *A. turicensis* have been isolated from decubitus ulcers (25, 114, 202); *A. neuii* and *A. radingae* have been isolated from diabetic ulcers (118, 175); and *A. europaeus*, *A. turicensis*, and *A. odontolyticus* have been isolated from skin-related infections in lower extremities (25, 202, 210). It was suggested that the latter species, isolated from an intravenous drug abuser, originated from the oral cavity due to licking of an injection needle (210). This is consistent with the results of a study comparing bacterial recoveries from soft tissue abscesses of intravenous drug abusers and nonusers (211). Oral-type bacteria, including *A. odontolyticus*, dominated in the majority of abscesses of drug abusers but not nonusers. In another case, *A. odontolyticus* together with *Eikenella corrodens*, both oral species, caused infection in a foot due to trauma by toothpick puncture (212). A coinfection by two *Actinomyces* species, *A. europaeus* and *A. turicensis*, resulting in subcutaneous fistulae in association with an irritative exoprosthesis of a leg was reported (213). Sporadic *Actinomyces* findings include *A. neuii* and *A. europaeus* in infected atheromas (118, 202) and an *A. hominis* strain in a wound specimen (214), but their location was not specified. A case with a large vulvar

lesion was connected to *A. israelii*, present together with *Propionibacterium acnes* and *Peptostreptococcus* sp. (215). Recently, a polymicrobial case of Fournier's gangrene affecting an immunocompetent elderly man was analyzed by using 16S rRNA gene sequencing, which revealed the presence of *A. funkei* together with *Fusobacterium gonidiaformans* and *Clostridium hathewayi* as etiologic organisms (216). Seven cases of *A. funkei* infection were also detected recently in Spain by using sequencing-based isolate identification. Positive specimens included specimens from three abscesses, three wounds, and one bronchial aspirate (216).

### Genitourinary Infections

**Genital tract.** The most common infections due to *Actinomyces* species in the genital tract are associated with the use of an IUCD. Among 130 isolates from IUCD-related infections, *A. israelii* in particular as well as *A. turicensis*, the *A. naeslundii*-*A. viscosus* complex, *A. odontolyticus*, and *A. gerencseriae* were identified as the main species in a reference laboratory in the United Kingdom, but *A. cardiffensis* and *A. funkei* were also not uncommon (64, 65). According to data from a reference laboratory in Germany (13), *A. israelii* was the most frequently detected isolate from IUCDs and cervical secretions. Also "*A. viscosus*" was frequently found, whereas *A. gerencseriae*, *A. naeslundii*, and *A. odontolyticus* were identified in only 5% of 82 specimens. In addition, *A. urogenitalis* and *A. radingae* have been isolated from IUCDs and vaginal secretions (11, 45, 175). *A. urogenitalis* has also been detected in high numbers in vaginal samples from patients with bacterial vaginosis (45). *A. turicensis* can be detected in a variety of infections of the female genital tract, such as adnexitis, endometritis, cervicitis, vaginitis, and vulvitis (178). In pregnancy, *A. neuii* has been found in infected amniotic fluid (118) and in severe cases of chorioamnionitis, leading to sepsis of the neonate (217). *A. meyeri* has been found to cause chorioamnionitis, leading to necrotizing funisitis and preterm birth (218). In infections of the genital tract in males, *A. neuii* has been detected in prostatitis cases (118), and *A. turicensis* has been detected in balanitis, penile abscess, and prostatitis cases (64, 175, 178).

**Urinary tract.** In both males and females, *A. turicensis* has been detected in connection with urethritis and cystitis (25, 107, 178). Other *Actinomyces* organisms found in the urinary tract include *A. urogenitalis* from urethra and urine (45), *A. neuii* in urinary tract infection (118), and *A. europaeus* in patients with cystitis or purulent urethritis (178). There are often other bacteria present, and only slightly elevated levels of leukocytes are observed in urine (178).

### Bone/Joint Infections

*Actinomyces* species have been recovered from infections affecting bone, including osteomyelitis with an involvement of *A. meyeri* in the jaw, symphysis pubis, leg (tibia), and foot (92); *A. israelii* in osteomyelitis of the sternum (219); *A. naeslundii* in chronic osteomyelitis with thickening of the periosteum in the lower leg (220); and *A. graevenitzii* in an osteitis lesion of the jaw (197). There are also reports where two causative organisms of chronic osteomyelitis have been described, including *A. meyeri* together with *Fusobacterium nucleatum* in the leg (fibula) (221) and *A. neuii* subsp. *neuii* together with *Dermabacter hominis* in the calcaneus (222). Spondylodiscitis can rarely be due to *Actinomyces* organisms, such as *A. meyeri* (92) and *A. israelii* (223). A strain representing the novel *Actinomyces* species *A. timonensis* was isolated from an os-

teoarticular specimen of a 13-year-old girl suffering from chronic sacroiliitis (224).

### Foreign-Body Infections

Different types of devices and materials are increasingly used in modern medicine to support defective or lost functions of the human body. According to recent reports, *A. neuui*, especially *A. neuui* subsp. *neuui*, seems to be the most frequently detected *Actinomyces* species in infected tissues around different types of prostheses, including mammary prostheses (225), penile prostheses (226), prosthetic valves (227), and hip prostheses (228), but also in connection to medical devices such as ventriculoperitoneal shunts (229, 230) and peritoneal dialysis catheters (231). In addition, *A. israelii* and *A. naeslundii* have been identified as causative agents of periprosthetic infections of the hip or knee joints (232–234). Moreover, *A. odontolyticus* was isolated from a subcutaneous abscess connected to an exit site of a catheter in a patient treated with continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis (235). Recently, *A. meyeri* was found to be the cause of a disseminated infection resulting in fatal mediastinitis after an esophageal stent operation (236).

### Infective Endocarditis

Although *Actinomyces* species are rarely considered causative organisms in cases of endocarditis, isolation of *A. neuui* (119, 227, 237), *A. funkei* (238), *A. israelii* (239, 240), “*A. viscosus*” (240–242), and *A. meyeri* (92, 243) has been reported. One reason for the rarity of reports of *Actinomyces* in blood specimens could be due to considering the finding to be insignificant or, if an organism is isolated, to the difficulty of identification of members of this group. Methodological improvements in identification and the availability of these methods in clinical microbiology laboratories, e.g., matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization–time of flight (MALDI-TOF) mass spectrometry and 16S rRNA gene sequencing, may allow more definitive data to be collected.

### Bacteremia/Sepsis

Several *Actinomyces* species have been detected in blood, including *A. funkei* (244), *A. georgiae* (64, 175), *A. graevenitzii* (245), *A. massiliense* (246), *A. naeslundii* (10, 64, 247), *A. neuui* (107, 119, 207), *A. odontolyticus* (25, 64, 97, 107), *A. turicensis* (64, 175, 178), and “*A. viscosus*” (107). An important source of *Actinomyces* bacteremias is the mouth in particular. Since bacteremia is common after invasive dental procedures and after tooth brushing in subjects with gingivitis and periodontitis, who typically have inflamed bleeding gums, oral actinobacteria can easily gain access to the bloodstream; *A. georgiae*, *A. meyeri*, *A. odontolyticus*, *A. cardiffensis*, and a number of unnamed *Actinomyces* phylotypes were detected in blood samples particularly following the extraction of a tooth without antibiotic prophylaxis (248).

### INFECTIOUS ROLE OF SOME ACTINOMYCETES-RELATED ORGANISMS

#### *Actinotignum* (Formerly *Actinobaculum*) Species in the Urogenital Tract

Five *Actinomyces*-like strains characterized as *A. schaalii* were isolated from either human blood or urine in the original description of the novel genus *Actinobaculum* (18). Subsequently, two novel *Actinobaculum* strains were detected in urine samples from women with urinary tract infections, namely, *A. massiliae* (*A.*

*massiliense*) and *A. urinale* (21, 22). Following these reports, it remained unclear as to whether these species played a significant role as human pathogens. This may have been because routine aerobic culture of urine samples, with an incubation time of 18 to 24 h, was not adequate for the detection of these fastidious and slow-growing species. In addition, if they had been cultivated, they may have been regarded as being insignificant commensals. Therefore, the first reports on their involvement in infections of the urinary tract came from laboratories with a special interest in unusual organisms and expertise in molecular detection methods. Among these organisms, *A. schaalii* was found to be a causative organism in several cystitis cases (249) and, more significantly, in patients with disseminated infection (249–252). The first described pediatric case of *A. schaalii* infection was that of a child with purulent pyelonephritis (253). Sporadic findings of *A. urinale* and *A. massiliense* were also reported (250, 252, 254). Before the 2010s, there were a total of ~30 cases caused by human *Actinobaculum* (currently *Actinotignum*) species in the literature. Since then, an extensive number of reports, especially on *A. schaalii* as an important uropathogen, have been published.

Typically, individuals affected by *A. schaalii* have an underlying condition in the urinary tract and are >60 years of age (255–257). Interestingly, considerable proportions of individuals without symptoms can also be positive for this organism; urine specimens from 13% of 38 healthy controls (aged between 63 and 81 years) proved to be positive by real-time PCR (255), and 22% of 55 culture-positive elderly subjects were characterized as having asymptomatic bacteriuria (256). *A. schaalii* is thus considered a uropathogen in the elderly, but the significance of this species in children is receiving attention (258, 259). Cystitis, pyelonephritis, and urosepsis are the major forms of *Actinotignum* (formerly *Actinobaculum*)-associated infections; however, other types of infections, especially with *A. schaalii*, are increasingly being reported, including bacteremia, abscesses, cellulitis, spondylodiscitis, bladder necrosis, epididymitis, and endocarditis (16, 260–264). In a case of Fournier’s gangrene, only *A. schaalii* was detected by 16S rRNA gene sequencing (265). Despite improved techniques and targeted searches for *Actinotignum* (formerly *Actinobaculum*) species in urine specimens, only single findings of *A. massiliense* and *A. urinale* in urine or blood have been made (256, 261, 266), differing from the obvious involvement of *A. schaalii* in infections in, and occasionally outside, the urogenital tract.

#### *Varibaculum cambriense* as a Soft Tissue Pathogen

Fifteen *Actinomyces*-like strains from infections at a variety of body sites in 14 subjects were characterized and described as belonging to the genus *Varibaculum*, including one species, *V. cambriensis* (later corrected to *V. cambriense*) (24). Most cases were abscesses, including sites such as brain, ear, cheek, jaw, breast, and the ischioanal area, but were also infections of the female genital tract with or without an IUCD. In addition, a study performed in Hong Kong in 2006 reported four cases caused by *V. cambriense* (267). All four subjects suffered from superficial abscesses, with the pus specimens originating from a recurrent umbilical scar with abscess formation on the skin, an abscess in the groin, a persistent lump in the groin, and an abscess on the back. Taken together, *V. cambriense* was proven to be a pathogen involved in superficial soft tissue infections.

### **Propionibacterium propionicum Infections**

*Propionibacterium propionicum* is an organism resembling *Actinomyces* (formerly *Actinomyces propionicus* and then *Arachnia propionica*), but it differs from *Actinomyces* by producing large amounts of propionic acid as its metabolic end product in glucose fermentation (14). The morphological and biochemical resemblance to *A. israelii* is particularly striking. *P. propionicum* can cause infections similar to those with an involvement of *Actinomyces* organisms, such as actinomycotic lesions and abscesses (12, 13). In addition, this organism has been associated mainly with infections of the eye (13, 172, 268) and various endodontic infections (183, 184, 269, 270). In a German reference laboratory, 22% of 59 specimens from eye secretions/tear fluid and 12% of 43 bronchial secretion specimens were found to be positive for *P. propionicum* (13). Of 26 *P. propionicum* isolates recovered from patients with eye infections by a United Kingdom reference laboratory, the majority originated from cases of canalculitis in the elderly (268). A study using a nested-PCR assay targeted to *P. propionicum* and *A. radidentis* revealed high rates of detection of *P. propionicum* in primary endodontic infections: 50% in teeth with acute apical periodontitis, 37% in teeth with periradicular abscesses, and 29% in teeth with chronic periradicular lesions (184). Moreover, a different disease pattern was observed for *A. radidentis*. *P. propionicum* was also among the species related to endodontic treatment failures (270). A pulmonary infection with multiple microabscesses in a 7-year-old child with chronic granulomatous disease (271) and a brain abscess in a young male with congenital cyanotic heart disease (272) due to *P. propionicum* have been described. The involvement of *P. propionicum* in brain abscesses is very rare, with only two reports in the current literature (272, 273). The first case of pelvic actinomycosis caused by *P. propionicum* was that of a woman who had long-term use of an IUCD as a predisposing factor (274). In addition to *P. propionicum*, two peptostreptococcal organisms were isolated from a pus specimen from the right ovary, and their identification was confirmed by 16S rRNA gene sequencing. Although three different microorganisms were present, of those, *P. propionicum* was considered the most significant (274). Recently, a psoas abscess caused by *P. propionicum* in a woman with no history of IUCD, other foreign bodies, or previous surgery was reported (275).

### **VIRULENCE PROPERTIES OF ACTINOMYCES**

Little is known regarding virulence factors of *Actinomyces* species. They do not produce classical exotoxins, and the virulence determinants that allow *A. israelii*, *A. gerencseriae*, and others to cause actinomycosis are unknown. Presumably, they possess the ability to evade clearance by the host immune system and, thus, cause a chronic lesion. An *A. israelii* strain that was able to cause infection in an animal model was rapidly phagocytosed *in vitro*, and it was hypothesized that the ability of this organism to form a dense mass of interlinked branched chains of bacilli inhibited phagocytic clearance *in vivo* (276).

The virulence factors involved in polymicrobial soft tissue infections are also poorly characterized, but it is thought that multispecies communities can work together to evade the host, for example, by the production of a capsule (277) and serially degrade host tissues to provide nutrients for the whole community (278). Since *Actinomyces* species are frequently isolated from polymicrobial infections, they must be assumed to contribute to the pathogenetic processes involved in such situations.

*A. oris* and *A. naeslundii* play an important role in dental plaque (biofilm) formation. They are early colonizers and produce fimbriae that bind to saliva proline-rich proteins and statherin, which adsorb onto the tooth surface (279, 280). They also interact with a range of other dental plaque bacteria, including representatives of the genera *Fusobacterium*, *Prevotella*, and *Veillonella*, by coaggregation (281), which provides structural integrity to the plaque (282). Once a biofilm has formed, and in the presence of a fermentable carbohydrate, many plaque bacteria, such as *Actinomyces* species, can produce acid, which may lead to dental caries (182, 283).

### **CONCOMITANT/COINFECTING MICROBES**

It is noteworthy that the vast majority of actinomycotic lesions as well as other *Actinomyces*-associated infections are polymicrobial, with the rate of occurrence of concomitants varying between 75 and 95% (12, 13, 178). The role of concomitant organisms is considered to synergistically enhance the infectious process. Bacteria frequently occurring together with *Actinomyces* species include strict anaerobes, such as *Fusobacterium* spp.; members of the family *Bacteroidaceae*; and Gram-positive anaerobic cocci (GPAC), especially *Parvimonas micra*, microaerophilic anginosus group streptococci (formerly "*Streptococcus milleri*"), and the capnophilic *Aggregatibacter* species *A. actinomycetemcomitans* (formerly *Actinobacillus actinomycetemcomitans*) and *A. aphrophilus* (formerly *Haemophilus paraphrophilus*), and aerobic coagulase-negative staphylococci.

Analysis of material from sulfur granules and/or pus of 1,997 specimens from cervicofacial actinomycotic lesions, collected by incision or needle aspiration and thoroughly examined under various culture conditions and with prolonged incubation, revealed that 95.5% of specimens were positive for not only fermentative actinomycetes, mainly *A. israelii* and *A. gerencseriae*, but also aerobic and/or anaerobic companions (12). "Microaerophilic and anaerobic streptococci" were identified in 49.7% of the specimens. Based on previously reported data from the same laboratories in Germany, it can be estimated that 60% of these organisms were anginosus group streptococci and that 40% were GPAC (13). Other common findings, in descending order, were coagulase-negative staphylococci (39.1%); *Fusobacterium* spp. (37.7%); *Propionibacterium* spp. other than *P. propionicum* (27.5%); pigmented and nonpigmented *Prevotella*-*Porphyromonas* spp. (25.1% and 21%, respectively); corroding Gram-negative rods (18.5%), including *Campylobacter gracilis*, *Capnocytophaga* spp., and *Eikenella corrodens*; and *Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans* (14.2%) (12).

Data on pediatric cases include data from 10 case reports of cervicofacial actinomycosis, 8 of which reported the presence of concomitant organisms (66), and 14 case reports of thoracic actinomycosis, with all specimens being positive for concomitants (95). In cases of cervicofacial actinomycosis, except for a recent report of concomitants representing the genera *Capnocytophaga*, *Prevotella*, *Enterococcus*, and *Streptococcus*, only a few, poorly defined bacterial taxa have been identified (66). Among 14 thoracic actinomycosis cases involving children, *Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans* and *Fusobacterium nucleatum* were the most commonly detected organisms, being detected in 9 and 5 cases, respectively (95).

Brain abscesses with an involvement of *A. meyeri* seem to harbor striking similarities in the compositions of their concomitant and/or coinfecting microbiota. Based on data reported recently by

TABLE 2 Concomitant/coinflecting organisms in 12 brain abscess cases with an involvement of *Actinomyces meyeri*<sup>a</sup>

Case	Concomitant/coinflecting organism							
	<i>Aggregatibacter</i>	<i>Campylobacter</i>	<i>Eikenella</i>	<i>Eubacterium</i>	<i>Fusobacterium</i>	<i>Parvimonas</i>	<i>Streptococcus</i>	Other
A	<i>A. aphrophilus</i>	<i>C. gracilis</i> <i>C. rectus</i>	<i>E. corrodens</i>		<i>F. nucleatum</i>	<i>Parvimonas</i> sp.		
B	<i>A. aphrophilus</i>	<i>C. gracilis</i>		<i>E. brachy</i>	<i>Fusobacterium</i> sp.	<i>P. micra</i> <i>Parvimonas</i> sp.	<i>S. intermedius</i>	<i>Actinomyces georgiae</i>
C	<i>A. aphrophilus</i>				<i>F. nucleatum</i>	<i>P. micra</i> <i>Parvimonas</i> sp.	<i>S. constellatus</i>	<i>Anaeroglobus geminatus</i>
D	<i>A. aphrophilus</i>						<i>S. intermedius</i>	<i>Actinomyces georgiae</i> <i>Capnocytophaga</i>
E	<i>A. aphrophilus</i>	<i>C. gracilis</i>	<i>E. corrodens</i>	<i>E. brachy</i> <i>E. yurii</i>	<i>F. nucleatum</i>	<i>P. micra</i>	<i>S. intermedius</i>	<i>Capnocytophaga</i> <i>Tannerella forsythia</i>
F					<i>Fusobacterium</i> sp.	<i>Parvimonas</i> sp.	<i>S. intermedius</i>	
G		<i>C. gracilis</i>	<i>E. corrodens</i>		<i>F. nucleatum</i>	<i>P. micra</i> <i>Parvimonas</i> sp.	<i>S. intermedius</i>	<i>Gemella morbillorum</i>
H				<i>E. brachy</i>	<i>F. nucleatum</i>	<i>P. micra</i>	<i>S. intermedius</i>	
I		<i>C. gracilis</i>	<i>E. corrodens</i>	<i>E. brachy</i> <i>E. yurii</i>	<i>F. nucleatum</i>	<i>P. micra</i>	<i>S. intermedius</i>	<i>Prevotella oris</i> <i>Prevotella timonensis</i> <i>Tannerella forsythia</i>
J		<i>C. gracilis</i>	<i>E. corrodens</i>		<i>F. nucleatum</i> <i>Fusobacterium</i> sp.	<i>P. micra</i>	<i>S. intermedius</i>	<i>Prevotella</i> sp.
K		<i>C. rectus</i>		<i>E. brachy</i>	<i>F. nucleatum</i>	<i>P. micra</i>	<i>S. intermedius</i>	
L	<i>A. aphrophilus</i>	<i>C. gracilis</i>	<i>E. corrodens</i>	<i>E. brachy</i>	<i>Fusobacterium</i> sp.	<i>Parvimonas</i> sp.	<i>S. intermedius</i>	<i>Johnsonella ignava</i>

<sup>a</sup> Data adapted from reference 15.

Kommedal et al. (15) (Table 2), 4 to 10 species were found in specimens from 12 spontaneous brain abscesses with an involvement of *A. meyeri*. In these specimens, *Fusobacterium nucleatum*, *Parvimonas micra*, and *Streptococcus intermedius* were the major concomitants, but also, *Aggregatibacter aphrophilus*, *Campylobacter gracilis*, *Eikenella corrodens*, and *Eubacterium brachy* were each detected in at least half of the specimens (15). All these organisms are inhabitants of the oral cavity. Interestingly, *Aggregatibacter aphrophilus* has been linked to invasive infections of the CNS, and its frequency in brain abscesses was considered disproportional to its presence in its natural habitat, the oropharynx (284). Among 26 various types of actinomycosis cases caused by *A. meyeri* identified from 1960 to 1995, 17 cases involved concomitants; of these, *Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans* was the most common (89). This is, however, contradictory to the assumption that *Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans* acts as a concomitant solely for *A. israelii* (25).

In a case report of a polybacterial brain abscess, *Capnocytophaga* spp. and *Streptococcus intermedius* were found together with *Actinomyces*, i.e., all typical inhabitants of the mouth, thus indicating an oral source, since the 25-year-old patient had severe gingivitis and three infected wisdom teeth (285). The authors of that report underlined the importance of prolonged incubation in detection of these fastidious organisms. In another case, after 14 days of incubation, nonpigmented *A. odontolyticus* was isolated

together with *Haemophilus paraphrophilus* (i.e., *Aggregatibacter aphrophilus*), *Fusobacterium nucleatum*, and *Peptostreptococcus micros* (now *Parvimonas micra*) (286). A case of a cerebellar abscess where *Actinomyces* (“non-israelii” *Actinomyces*) was found among other oral-type bacteria, namely, alpha-hemolytic streptococci, *Eikenella corrodens*, and *P. micros* (i.e., *P. micra*), was suggested to be linked to tongue piercing (287). On the other hand, according to a report on five intracranial cases of *Actinomyces* infection in immunocompetent individuals, three cases were coinfecting with another bacterium, including *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, or *Staphylococcus warneri* (61). These findings obviously reflect an origin other than the oral cavity. *Aggregatibacter* species have not been detected together with *A. funkei*, *A. radingae*, or *A. turicensis*. Instead, their typical concomitants are, for example, *Bacteroides* spp., especially *B. fragilis*; enterococci; and coagulase-negative staphylococci but also GPAC (25, 114, 288). Together with *A. europaeus*, coagulase-negative staphylococci and corynebacteria, commonly found on the skin, are typical (25).

Similar to infections with *Actinomyces*, those with *P. propionium* and *A. schaalii* are often polymicrobial (13, 257). For example, together with *A. schaalii*, other bacteria were isolated from 5 of 12 (42%) urine and 5 of 21 (24%) blood specimens examined, while polymicrobial infection was detected in all 7 abscess specimens (257). In polybacterial blood cultures, *Pseudomonas aerugi-*

*nosa*, *Finegoldia magna*, *Clostridium clostridioforme*, *Bacteroides fragilis*, and/or *Veillonella* spp. were identified.

### IDENTIFICATION IN CLINICAL LABORATORIES

Direct microscopic examination of samples collected from suspected cases of actinomycosis should be performed. The presence of masses of Gram-positive branching filaments is characteristic of the disease, as are sulfur granules visible with the naked eye, although, as discussed above, these may not always be present. The presence of branching Gram-positive organisms in cervical smear specimens from women with an IUCD suggests an infection with *Actinomyces* (122). Results of microscopy of samples from superficial infections at mucosal surfaces where *Actinomyces* and other Gram-positive bacilli are commonly found should be interpreted with caution. It is important not to imply a diagnosis of actinomycosis in the absence of a relevant clinical history, signs, and symptoms.

Identification of presumptive *Actinomyces* species using conventional biochemical tests is possible for most species but challenging (14). Strains frequently exhibit indifferent growth in test media, leading to false-negative results and poor reproducibility. Recent taxonomic changes have compounded these problems. Many species descriptions have been based on a single strain, so the natural variation of test results within species is unknown. Furthermore, the taxonomy of some species, e.g., members of the *A. naeslundii* group, have been clarified on the basis of multilocus gene sequence analysis, and there are no phenotypic characteristics that differentiate certain species (10).

Commercially available identification kits that test for preformed enzymes can be used to identify the members of this group. Although kits offer a convenient method for isolate identification, they are typically supported by databases, which are incomplete in that either representatives of recently described species are not included or profiles for named species are inaccurate (175, 289).

Because it is now recognized that the use of conventional and biochemical tests may result in misidentification of clinical isolates of *Actinomyces* and related taxa, alternative methods with greater precision are increasingly being used. 16S rRNA gene sequence analysis, which was originally used to reconstruct phylogenetic relationships between organisms, is now frequently used for isolate identification. Far more precise identifications can be obtained by 16S rRNA gene sequence analysis (290). Genomic DNA can be extracted easily from isolates by using commercially available kits and the 16S rRNA gene amplified with “universal” primers that amplify all members of the domain *Bacteria* (291). A partial sequence of ~500 bp will allow the identification of most *Actinomyces* species. Sequences can be submitted via the Internet to databases such as the Ribosomal Database Project (292) for identification. Although this method is extremely powerful and can be relied upon for genus-level identification, some validly published species have highly similar 16S rRNA sequences, and there has been extensive recombination in the genomes, including the 16S rRNA gene, among certain groups of organisms, notably those that are naturally competent, such as the genus *Neisseria* (293). The *A. naeslundii* group presents similar problems, and 16S rRNA gene sequence analysis does not allow unequivocal identification of some of the recently described members of this group (10).

A bacterial identification method based on MALDI-TOF mass

spectrometry is being widely adopted by clinical laboratories (294). Evaluations of its use with *Actinomyces* species have yielded positive results. In a comparative study, MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry correctly identified 97% of 32 strains to the species level, while a commercially available biochemical kit achieved only 33% success (209). This method was also shown to correctly identify five clinical isolates of *A. neuii* (295).

### CLINICAL ANTIMICROBIAL SUSCEPTIBILITY TESTING

Susceptibility testing of anaerobes is seldom performed in clinical microbiology laboratories. In general, this may not be an important issue with *Actinomyces* species, since they are rarely, if ever, resistant to beta-lactam agents (14). As Gram-positive organisms, they are also susceptible to vancomycin. Whenever isolates originate from serious invasive infections, however, antimicrobial susceptibility testing is indicated. Standard methods and interpretations, as for other anaerobic Gram-positive nonsporulating rods, can be used. Recently, an excellent review on susceptibility testing of anaerobic bacteria was reported, describing the methods to be used and their challenges (296). For testing of single clinical isolates, a commercially available MIC gradient diffusion method, which gives results equivalent to those generated by using the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) agar dilution method (296), is the most appropriate choice.

### CONCEPTS OF TREATMENT

An appropriate diagnosis is the cornerstone to be able to choose a proper treatment modality and, conceivably, to have a successful treatment outcome. In the case of actinomycosis, it has been considered that a long duration of antimicrobial therapy with high doses is necessary, with treatment extending up to 1 year (or even longer). This concept is changing, and medications are now adjusted on the basis of individual treatment needs (8). The same is valid for surgery, which was previously used routinely for treatment of actinomycotic lesions; however, the current trend is to limit invasive procedures and to rely on a targeted antibiotic regimen instead (8, 9). Treatment of abscesses usually requires drainage, whereas resective surgery may be indicated only in cases with extensive necrotic lesions or when antimicrobial therapy fails.

In general, *Actinomyces* species are susceptible to penicillin and other beta-lactam antibiotics as well as to most agents used against Gram-positive anaerobic rods; however, it must be noted that they are intrinsically resistant to metronidazole (14). In a recent survey on antimicrobial susceptibilities of anaerobic bacteria conducted in laboratories in Ontario, Canada, nearly 400 *Actinomyces* and 30 *Actinobaculum* (currently *Actinotignum*) strains were tested against six antimicrobial agents, including penicillin, piperacillin-tazobactam, meropenem, cefoxitin, clindamycin, and metronidazole (297). Except for high rates of resistance to metronidazole (>80% for both genera) and clindamycin (18% for *Actinomyces* and 53% for *Actinobaculum*), the strains were fully susceptible to the other antimicrobial agents examined. Moreover, it is noteworthy that there are considerable differences in MICs among *Actinomyces* species, with *A. europaeus* and *A. turicensis* being the most resistant (298). *A. turicensis* strains showed resistance to clindamycin, tetracyclines (doxycycline and tetracycline), macrolides (clarithromycin and erythromycin), ciprofloxacin, and/or linezolid, whereas *A. europaeus* strains showed resistance to ceftriaxone, clindamycin, macrolides (clarithromycin and erythromycin), ciprofloxacin, and/or tazobactam (298).

In addition, sporadic strains with increased MIC values to tested antimicrobial agents have been observed for other *Actinomyces* species, such as *A. funkei* (tetracycline), *A. graevenitzi* (doxycycline and tetracycline), *A. israelii* (linezolid), *A. odontolyticus* (clindamycin), and “*A. viscosus*” (clindamycin) (298–301).

For the treatment of *A. schaalii* infections of the urinary tract, beta-lactam antibiotics are recommended (16). In contrast, fluoroquinolones are considered ineffective despite their relatively good (except for ciprofloxacin) *in vitro* activities. Indeed, *A. schaalii* is resistant to typical antibiotics used for the treatment of urinary tract infections (262). Although there are no clear guidelines for the length of antimicrobial therapy of *A. schaalii*-associated infections, it has been suggested that the duration should be 2 weeks or more (16).

The impact of concomitant/co-infecting organisms is not well known. Despite the lack of data, it is generally accepted that targeted therapy against *Actinomyces* organisms, *P. propionicum*, or *A. schaalii* will result in the expected outcome.

## FUTURE CONSIDERATIONS

It is clear from this review that there are still a number of uncertainties regarding the role of *Actinomyces* and related organisms in human infections. On the one hand, actinomycosis is relatively rare and often diagnosed by clinical and histopathological means, with accurate microbiological analysis not being performed. Multicenter studies should be performed in order to be able to include a sufficiently high number of cases. At the very least, major centers should store the strains isolated from confirmed cases of actinomycosis so that detailed microbiological investigations can be performed later. On the other hand, there needs to be enhanced educational efforts to make health care professionals aware that *Actinomyces* species are members of the healthy core microbiome, particularly in the mouth, and are thus frequently isolated from samples collected from mucous membranes. Whether these organisms can or do play a pathogenic role in these circumstances should also be the focus of research. As discussed above, little is known regarding the virulence properties of *A. israelii* and other disease-associated *Actinomyces* species. The increasing availability of genome sequences of strains representing many *Actinomyces* species should be exploited, in order to better understand their pathogenesis in human infection and to enable the development of new methods of treatment.

Recent taxonomic advances, including the naming of a number of novel *Actinomyces* species, have led to interesting and specific disease associations. This demonstrates the value of and need for taxonomic studies; the high number of known unnamed *Actinomyces* species-level taxa suggests that this genus should be a priority.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We thank Klaus Könönen for generating the anatomical figures for this article.

## REFERENCES

- Israel J. 1878. Neue Beobachtungen auf dem Gebiete der Mykosen des Menschen. Arch Pathol Anat 74:15–53.
- Kruse W. 1896. Systematik der Streptothricheen und Bakterien, p 48–96. In Flugge C (ed), Die Mikroorganismen, 3rd ed, vol 2. Vogel, Leipzig, Germany.
- Thompson L, Lovstedt SA. 1951. An *Actinomyces*-like organism obtained from the human mouth. Proc Staff Meet Mayo Clin 26:169–175.
- Batty I. 1958. *Actinomyces odontolyticus*, a new species of actinomycete regularly isolated from deep carious dentine. J Pathol Bacteriol 75:455–459. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/path.1700750225>.
- Howell A, Jr, Jordan HV, Georg LK, Pine L. 1965. *Odontomyces viscosus*, gen. nov., spec. nov., a filamentous microorganism isolated from periodontal plaque in hamsters. Sabouraudia 4:65–68. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00362176685190181>.
- Georg LK, Pine L, Gerencser MA. 1969. *Actinomyces viscosus*, comb. nov., a catalase positive, facultative member of the genus *Actinomyces*. Int J Syst Bacteriol 19:291–293. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/00207713-19-3-291>.
- Smego RA, Foglia G. 1998. Actinomycosis. Clin Infect Dis 26:1255–1261.
- Wong VK, Turmezei TD, Weston VC. 2011. Actinomycosis. BMJ 343:d6099. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmj.d6099>.
- Russo TA. 2009. Agents of actinomycosis, p 2864–2873. In Mandell GL, Bennett JE, Dolin R (ed), Principles and practice in infectious diseases, 7th ed. Elsevier, Philadelphia, PA.
- Henssge U, Do T, Radford DR, Gilbert SC, Clark D, Beighton D. 2009. Emended description of *Actinomyces naeslundii* and descriptions of *Actinomyces oris* sp. nov. and *Actinomyces johnsonii* sp. nov., previously identified as *Actinomyces naeslundii* genospecies 1, 2 and WVA 963. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 59:509–516. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/ijs.0.000950-0>.
- Hall V. 2008. *Actinomyces*—gathering evidence of human colonization and infection. Anaerobe 14:1–7. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.anaerobe.2007.12.001>.
- Pulverer G, Schutt-Gerowitt H, Schaal KP. 2003. Human cervicofacial actinomycoses: microbiological data for 1997 cases. Clin Infect Dis 37:490–497. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/376621>.
- Schaal KP, Lee HJ. 1992. Actinomycete infections in humans—a review. Gene 115:201–211. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0378-1119\(92\)90560-C](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0378-1119(92)90560-C).
- Wade WG, Könönen E. 2011. *Propionibacterium*, *Lactobacillus*, *Actinomyces*, and other non-spore-forming anaerobic gram-positive rods, p 817–833. In Versalovic J, Carroll KC, Funke G, Jorgensen JH, Landry ML, Warnock DW (ed), Manual of clinical microbiology, 10th ed. ASM Press, Washington, DC.
- Kommedal Ø, Wilhelmsen MT, Skrede S, Meisal R, Jakovljević A, Gaustad P, Hermansen NO, Vik-Mo E, Solheim O, Ambur OH, Sæbø Ø, Høstmælingen CT, Helland C. 2014. Massive parallel sequencing provides new perspectives on bacterial brain abscesses. J Clin Microbiol 52:1990–1997. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.00346-14>.
- Cattoir V. 2012. *Actinobaculum schaalii*: review of an emerging uropathogen. J Infect 64:260–267. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jinf.2011.12.009>.
- Johnson JL, Moore LV, Kaneko B, Moore WE. 1990. *Actinomyces georgiae* sp. nov., *Actinomyces gerencseriae* sp. nov., designation of two genospecies of *Actinomyces naeslundii*, and inclusion of *A. naeslundii* serotypes II and III and *Actinomyces viscosus* serotype II in *A. naeslundii* genospecies 2. Int J Syst Bacteriol 40:273–286. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/00207713-40-3-273>.
- Lawson PA, Falsen E, Akervall E, Vandamme P, Collins MD. 1997. Characterization of some *Actinomyces*-like isolates from human clinical specimens: reclassification of *Actinomyces suis* (Soltys and Spratling) as *Actinobaculum suis* comb. nov. and description of *Actinobaculum schaalii* sp. nov. Int J Syst Bacteriol 47:899–903. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/00207713-47-3-899>.
- Collins MD, Pascual C. 2000. Reclassification of *Actinomyces humiferus* (Gledhill and Casida) as *Cellulomonas humilata* nom. corrig., comb. nov. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 50:661–663. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/00207713-50-2-661>.
- Yassin AF, Hupfer H, Siering C, Schumann P. 2011. Comparative chemotaxonomic and phylogenetic studies on the genus *Arcanobacterium* Collins et al. 1982 emend. Lehnen et al. 2006: proposal for *Trueperella* gen. nov. and emended description of the genus *Arcanobacterium*. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 61:1265–1274. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/ijs.0.020032-0>.
- Greub G, Raoult D. 2002. “*Actinobaculum massiliae*,” a new species causing chronic urinary tract infection. J Clin Microbiol 40:3938–3941. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.40.11.3938-3941.2002>.
- Hall V, Collins MD, Hutson RA, Falsen E, Inganas E, Duerden BI. 2003. *Actinobaculum urinale* sp. nov., from human urine. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 53:679–682. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/ijs.0.02422-0>.
- Yassin AA, Spröer C, Pukall R, Sylvestre M, Siering C, Schumann P.



- 18 November 2014. Dissection of the genus *Actinobaculum*: reclassification of *Actinobaculum schaalii* Lawson et al. 1997 and *Actinobaculum urinale* Hall et al. 2003 as *Actinotignum schaalii* gen. nov., comb. nov. and *Actinotignum urinale* comb. nov., description of *Actinotignum sanguinis* sp. nov. and emended description of the genus *Actinobaculum*. Re-examination of *Actinobaculum massiliense* culture deposited as CCUG 47753T (=DSM 19118T) revealed that it does not represent a strain of this species. *Int J Syst Evol Microbiol* <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/ijso.0.069294-0>.
24. Hall V, Collins MD, Lawson PA, Hutson RA, Falsen E, Inganas E, Duerden B. 2003. Characterization of some *Actinomyces*-like isolates from human clinical sources: description of *Varibaculum cambriensis* gen. nov., sp. nov. *J Clin Microbiol* 41:640–644. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.41.2.640-644.2003>.
  25. Clarridge JE, Zhang Q. 2002. Genotypic diversity of clinical *Actinomyces* species: phenotype, source, and disease correlation among genospecies. *J Clin Microbiol* 40:3442–3448. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.40.9.3442-3448.2002>.
  26. Rao JU, Rash BA, Nobre MF, da Costa MS, Rainey FA, Moe WM. 2012. *Actinomyces naturae* sp. nov., the first *Actinomyces* sp. isolated from a non-human or animal source. *Antonie Van Leeuwenhoek* 101:155–168. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10482-011-9644-4>.
  27. Dewhirst FE, Chen T, Izard J, Paster BJ, Tanner ACR, Yu W-H, Lakshmanan A, Wade WG. 2010. The human oral microbiome. *J Bacteriol* 192:5002–5017. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JB.00542-10>.
  28. Sarkonen N, Könönen E, Summanen P, Kanervo A, Takala A, Jousimies-Somer H. 2000. Oral colonization with *Actinomyces* species in infants by two years of age. *J Dent Res* 79:864–867. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/00220345000790031301>.
  29. Zijne V, van Leeuwen MBM, Degener JE, Abbas F, Thurnheer T, Gmür R, Harmsen HJM. 2010. Oral biofilm architecture on natural teeth. *PLoS One* 5:e9321. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0009321>.
  30. Tang G, Yip HK, Samaranyake LP, Luo G, Lo ECM, Teo CS. 2003. *Actinomyces* spp. in supragingival plaque of ethnic Chinese preschool children with and without active dental caries. *Caries Res* 37:381–390. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1159/000072172>.
  31. Liljemark WF, Bloomquist CG, Bandt CL, Pihlstrom BL, Hinrichs JE, Wolff LF. 1993. Comparison of the distribution of *Actinomyces* in dental plaque on inserted enamel and natural tooth surfaces in periodontal health and disease. *Oral Microbiol Immunol* 8:5–15. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1399-302X.1993.tb00536.x>.
  32. Ximénez-Fyvie LA, Haffajee AD, Martin L, Tanner A, Macuch P, Socransky SS. 1999. Identification of oral *Actinomyces* species using DNA probes. *Oral Microbiol Immunol* 14:257–265. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1034/j.1399-302X.1999.140410.x>.
  33. Abusleme L, Dupuy AK, Dutzan N, Silva N, Burleson JA, Strausbaugh LD, Gamonal J, Diaz PI. 2013. The subgingival microbiome in health and periodontitis and its relationship with community biomass and inflammation. *ISME J* 7:1016–1025. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2012.174>.
  34. Tyrrell KL, Citron DM, Warren YA, Nachnani S, Goldstein EJC. 2003. Anaerobic bacteria cultured from the tongue dorsum of subjects with oral malodor. *Anaerobe* 9:243–246. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1075-9964\(03\)00109-4](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1075-9964(03)00109-4).
  35. Könönen E, Syrjänen R, Takala A, Jousimies-Somer H. 2003. Nasopharyngeal carriage of anaerobes during health and acute otitis media by two years of age. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis* 46:167–172. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0732-8893\(03\)00049-X](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0732-8893(03)00049-X).
  36. Jensen A, Fagö-Olsen H, Sørensen CH, Kilian M. 2013. Molecular mapping to species level of the tonsillar crypt microbiota associated with health and recurrent tonsillitis. *PLoS One* 8:e56418. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0056418>.
  37. Cho I, Blaser MJ. 2012. The human microbiome: at the interface of health and disease. *Nat Rev Genet* 13:260–270. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nrg3182>.
  38. Ou G, Hedberg M, Hörstedt P, Baranov V, Forsberg G, Drobni M, Sandström O, Wai SN, Johansson I, Hammarström M-L, Hernell O, Hammarström S. 2009. Proximal small intestinal microbiota and identification of rod-shaped bacteria associated with childhood celiac disease. *Am J Gastroenterol* 104:3058–3067. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ajg.2009.524>.
  39. Stearns JC, Lynch MDJ, Senadheera DB, Tenenbaum HC, Goldberg MB, Cvitkovich DG, Croitoru K, Moreno-Hagelsieb G, Neufeld JD. 2011. Bacterial biogeography of the human digestive tract. *Sci Rep* 1:170. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/srep00170>.
  40. Mahlen SD, Clarridge JE. 2009. Site and clinical significance of *Alloscardovia omnicoles* and *Bifidobacterium* species isolated in the clinical laboratory. *J Clin Microbiol* 47:3289–3293. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.00555-09>.
  41. Pei Z, Bini EJ, Yang L, Zhou M, Francois F, Blaser MJ. 2004. Bacterial biota in the human distal esophagus. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 101:4250–4255. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0306398101>.
  42. Hoyles L, Clear JA, McCartney AL. 2013. Use of denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis to detect *Actinobacteria* associated with the human faecal microbiota. *Anaerobe* 22:90–96. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.anaerobe.2013.06.001>.
  43. El Aila NA, Tency I, Claeys G, Verstraelen H, Saerens B, Santiago GLDS, De Backer E, Cools P, Temmerman M, Verhelst R, Vanechoutte M. 2009. Identification and genotyping of bacteria from paired vaginal and rectal samples from pregnant women indicates similarity between vaginal and rectal microflora. *BMC Infect Dis* 9:167. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2334-9-167>.
  44. Nikolaitchouk N, Andersch B, Falsen E, Strömbeck L, Mattsby-Baltzer I. 2008. The lower genital tract microbiota in relation to cytokine-, SLP1- and endotoxin levels: application of checkerboard DNA-DNA hybridization (CDH). *APMIS* 116:263–277. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0463.2008.00808.x>.
  45. Nikolaitchouk N, Hoyles L, Falsen E, Grainger JM, Collins MD. 2000. Characterization of *Actinomyces* isolates from samples from the human urogenital tract: description of *Actinomyces urogenitalis* sp. nov. *Int J Syst Evol Microbiol* 50:1649–1654. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/00207713-50-4-1649>.
  46. Santiago GLDS, Cools P, Verstraelen H, Trog M, Missine G, El Aila N, Verhelst R, Tency I, Claeys G, Temmerman M, Vanechoutte M. 2011. Longitudinal study of the dynamics of vaginal microflora during two consecutive menstrual cycles. *PLoS One* 6:e28180. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0028180>.
  47. Vandamme P, Falsen E, Vancanneyt M, Van Esbroeck M, Van de Merwe D, Bergmans A, Schouls L, Sabbe L. 1998. Characterization of *Actinomyces turicensis* and *Actinomyces radingae* strains from human clinical samples. *Int J Syst Bacteriol* 48:503–510. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/00207713-48-2-503>.
  48. Olsen AB, Andersen PK, Bank S, Søby KM, Lund L, Prag J. 2013. *Actinobaculum schaalii*, a commensal of the urogenital area. *BJU Int* 112:394–397. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-410X.2012.11739.x>.
  49. Cheung MK, Lam WY, Fung WY, Law PTW, Au CH, Nong W, Kam KM, Kwan HS, Tsui SKW. 2013. Sputum microbiota in tuberculosis as revealed by 16S rRNA pyrosequencing. *PLoS One* 8:e54574. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0054574>.
  50. Tunney MM, Klem ER, Fodor AA, Gilpin DF, Moriarty TF, McGrath SJ, Muhlebach MS, Boucher RC, Cardwell C, Doering G, Elborn JS, Wolfgang MC. 2011. Use of culture and molecular analysis to determine the effect of antibiotic treatment on microbial community diversity and abundance during exacerbation in patients with cystic fibrosis. *Thorax* 66:579–584. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/thx.2010.137281>.
  51. Hilt EE, McKinley K, Pearce MM, Rosenfeld AB, Zilliox MJ, Mueller ER, Brubaker L, Gai X, Wolfe AJ, Schreckenberger PC. 2014. Urine is not sterile: use of enhanced urine culture techniques to detect resident bacterial flora in the adult female bladder. *J Clin Microbiol* 52:871–876. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.02876-13>.
  52. Pearce MM, Hilt EE, Rosenfeld AB, Zilliox MJ, Thomas-White K, Fok C, Kliethermes S, Schreckenberger PC, Brubaker L, Gai X, Wolfe AJ. 2014. The female urinary microbiome: a comparison of women with and without urgency urinary incontinence. *mBio* 5(4):e01283-14. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/mBio.01283-14>.
  53. Hansen T, Kunkel M, Kirkpatrick CJ, Weber A. 2006. *Actinomyces* in infected osteoradionecrosis—underestimated? *Hum Pathol* 37:61–67. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.humpath.2005.09.018>.
  54. Schipmann S, Metzler P, Rössle M, Zemann W, von Jackowski J, Obwegeser JA, Grätz KW, Jacobsen C. 2013. Osteopathology associated with bone resorption inhibitors—what role does *Actinomyces* play? A presentation of 51 cases with systematic review of the literature. *J Oral Pathol Med* 42:587–593. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/jop.12038>.
  55. Breton AL, Lamblin G, Pariset C, Jullien D. 2014. Cutaneous actinomycosis associated with anti-TNF-alpha therapy: report of two cases. *Dermatology* 228:112–114. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1159/000357522>.

56. Cohen RD, Bowie WR, Enns R, Flint J, Fitzgerald JM. 2007. Pulmonary actinomycosis complicating infliximab therapy for Crohn's disease. *Thorax* 62:1013–1014. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/thx.2006.075150>.
57. Koubaa M, Lahiani D, Málouli I, Fourati H, Chaari L, Marrakchi C, Mnif Z, Boudawara Z, Ben Jemâa M. 2013. Actinomycotic brain abscess as the first clinical manifestation of hereditary hemorrhagic telangiectasia—case report and review of the literature. *Ann Hematol* 92:1141–1143. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00277-012-1666-0>.
58. Reichenbach J, Lopatin U, Mahlaoui N, Beovic B, Siler U, Zbinden R, Seger RA, Galmiche L, Brousse N, Kayal S, Gungor T, Blanche S, Holland SM. 2009. *Actinomyces* in chronic granulomatous disease: an emerging and unanticipated pathogen. *Clin Infect Dis* 49:1703–1710. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/647945>.
59. Acevedo F, Baudrand R, Letelier LM, Gaete P. 2008. Actinomycosis: a great pretender. Case reports of unusual presentations and a review of the literature. *Int J Infect Dis* 12:358–362. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2007.10.006>.
60. Kim SR, Jung LY, Oh I-J, Kim Y-C, Shin K-C, Lee MK, Yang S-H, Park HS, Kim M-K, Kwak JY, Um S-J, Ra SW, Kim WJ, Kim S, Choi E-G, Lee YC. 2013. Pulmonary actinomycosis during the first decade of 21st century: cases of 94 patients. *BMC Infect Dis* 13:216. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2334-13-216>.
61. Akhaddar A, Elouennass M, Baallal H, Boucetta M. 2010. Focal intracranial infections due to *Actinomyces* species in immunocompetent patients: diagnostic and therapeutic challenges. *World Neurosurg* 74:346–350. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.wneu.2010.05.029>.
62. Han J-Y, Lee K-N, Lee JK, Kim YH, Choi SJ, Jeong YJ, Roh M-S, Choi PJ. 2013. An overview of thoracic actinomycosis: CT features. *Insights Imaging* 4:245–252. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s13244-012-0205-9>.
63. Heo SH, Shin SS, Kim JW, Lim HS, Seon HJ, Jung S-I, Jeong YY, Kang HK. 2014. Imaging of actinomycosis in various organs: a comprehensive review. *Radiographics* 34:19–33. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1148/rg.341135077>.
64. Hall V, Talbot PR, Stubbs SL, Duerden BI. 2001. Identification of clinical isolates of *Actinomyces* species by amplified 16S ribosomal DNA restriction analysis. *J Clin Microbiol* 39:3555–3562. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.39.10.3555-3562.2001>.
65. Hall V, Collins MD, Hutson R, Falsen E, Duerden BI. 2002. *Actinomyces cardiffensis* sp. nov. from human clinical sources. *J Clin Microbiol* 40:3427–3431. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.40.9.3427-3431.2002>.
66. Thacker SA, Healy CM. 2014. Pediatric cervicofacial actinomycosis: an unusual cause of head and neck masses. *J Pediatr Infect Dis* 3:e15–e19. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/jpids/pit016>.
67. Robinson JL, Vaudry WL, Dobrovolsky W. 2005. Actinomycosis presenting as osteomyelitis in the pediatric population. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 24:365–369. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/01.inf.0000157215.15152.c2>.
68. de Andrade AL, Novaes MM, Germano AR, Luz KG, de Almeida Freitas R, Galvao HC. 2014. Acute primary actinomycosis involving the hard palate of a diabetic patient. *J Oral Maxillofac Surg* 72:537–541. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.joms.2013.08.006>.
69. Alamillos-Granados FJ, Dean-Ferrer A, Garcia-Lopez A, Lopez-Rubio F. 2000. Actinomycotic ulcer of the oral mucosa: an unusual presentation of oral actinomycosis. *Br J Oral Maxillofac Surg* 38:121–123. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1054/bjom.1997.0373>.
70. Özcan C, Talas D, Görür K, Aydın Ö, Yıldız A. 2005. Actinomycosis of the middle turbinate: an unusual cause of nasal obstruction. *Eur Arch Otorhinolaryngol* 262:412–415. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00405-004-0832-y>.
71. Vorasubin N, Wu AW, Day C, Suh JD. 2013. Invasive sinonasal actinomycosis: case report and literature review. *Laryngoscope* 123:334–338. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/lary.23477>.
72. Woo H-J, Bae CH, Song S-Y, Choi YS, Kim Y-D. 2008. Actinomycosis of the paranasal sinus. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* 139:460–462. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.otohns.2008.06.001>.
73. Daamen N, Johnson JT. 2004. Nasopharyngeal actinomycosis: a rare cause of nasal airway obstruction. *Laryngoscope* 114:1403–1405. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/00005537-200408000-00016>.
74. Zheng Y, Tang J. 2013. Retropharyngeal abscess due to *Actinomyces* species in an immunocompromised patient: case report. *J Oral Maxillofac Surg* 71:e147–e150. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.joms.2012.11.008>.
75. Batur Calis A, Özbâl AE, Basak T, Turgut S. 2006. Laryngeal actinomycosis accompanying laryngeal carcinoma: report of two cases. *Eur Arch Otorhinolaryngol* 263:783–785. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00405-006-0057-3>.
76. Cohen PR, Tschén JA. 2010. Tonsillar actinomycosis mimicking a tonsillolith: colonization of the palatine tonsil presenting as a foul-smelling, removable, unilateral, giant tonsillar concretion. *Int J Dermatol* 49:1165–1168. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-4632.2009.04432.x>.
77. Lensing F, Abele T, Wiggins R, III, Quigley E. 2014. Laryngeal actinomycosis. *Proc Bayl Univ Med Cent* 27:35–36.
78. Takasaki K, Kitaoka K, Kaieda S, Hayashi T, Abe K, Takahashi H. 2006. A case of actinomycosis causing unilateral tonsillar hypertrophy. *Acta Otolaryngol* 126:1001–1004. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00016480600590604>.
79. Kakuta R, Hidaka H, Yano H, Miyazaki H, Suzaki H, Nakamura Y, Kanamori H, Endo S, Hirakata Y, Kaku M, Kobayashi T. 2013. Identification of *Actinomyces meyeri* actinomycosis in middle ear and mastoid by 16S rRNA analysis. *J Med Microbiol* 62:1245–1248. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/jmm.0.051698-0>.
80. Mehta D, Statham M, Choo D. 2007. Actinomycosis of the temporal bone with labyrinthine and facial nerve involvement. *Laryngoscope* 117:1999–2001. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/MLG.0b013e318133a127>.
81. Salipante SJ, Hoogestraat DR, Abbott AN, SenGupta DJ, Cummings LA, Butler-Wu SM, Stephens K, Cookson BT, Hoffman NG. 2014. Coinfection of *Fusobacterium nucleatum* and *Actinomyces israelii* in mastoiditis diagnosed by next-generation DNA sequencing. *J Clin Microbiol* 52:1789–1792. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.03133-13>.
82. Nomura M, Shin M, Ohta M, Nukui Y, Ohkusu K, Saito N. 2011. Atypical osteomyelitis of the skull base and craniovertebral junction caused by *Actinomyces* infection—case report. *Neurol Med Chir (Tokyo)* 51:64–66. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2176/nmc.51.64>.
83. Abdalla J, Myers J, Moorman J. 2005. Actinomycotic infection of the oesophagus. *J Infect* 51:E39–E43. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jinf.2004.08.011>.
84. Murchan EM, Redelman-Sidi G, Patel M, Dimaio C, Seo SK. 2010. Esophageal actinomycosis in a fifty-three-year-old man with HIV: case report and review of the literature. *AIDS Patient Care STDs* 24:73–78. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1089/apc.2009.0185>.
85. Tietz A, Aldridge KE, Figueroa JE. 2005. Disseminated coinfection with *Actinomyces graevenitzi* and *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*: case report and review of the literature. *J Clin Microbiol* 43:3017–3022. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.43.6.3017-3022.2005>.
86. Gliga S, Devaux M, Gosset Woimant M, Mompoin D, Perronne C, Davido B. 2014. *Actinomyces graevenitzi* pulmonary abscess mimicking tuberculosis in a healthy young man. *Can Respir J* 21:e75–e77.
87. Nagaoka K, Izumikawa K, Yamamoto Y, Yanagihara K, Ohkusu K, Kohno S. 2012. Multiple lung abscesses caused by *Actinomyces graevenitzi* mimicking acute pulmonary coccidioidomycosis. *J Clin Microbiol* 50:3125–3128. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.00761-12>.
88. Fujita Y, Iikura M, Horio Y, Ohkusu K, Kobayashi N. 2012. Pulmonary *Actinomyces graevenitzi* infection presenting as organizing pneumonia diagnosed by PCR analysis. *J Med Microbiol* 61:1156–1158. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/jmm.0.040394-0>.
89. Apothéoz C, Regamey C. 1996. Disseminated infection due to *Actinomyces meyeri*: case report and review. *Clin Infect Dis* 22:621–625. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/clinids/22.4.621>.
90. Attaway A, Flynn T. 2013. *Actinomyces meyeri*: from “lumpy jaw” to empyema. *Infection* 41:1025–1027. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s15010-013-0453-8>.
91. Costiniuk CT, Voduc N, de Souza C. 2011. Pulmonary actinomycosis in a male patient with a tracheal bronchus. *Can Respir J* 18:84–86.
92. Fazili T, Blair D, Riddell S, Kiska D, Nagra S. 2012. *Actinomyces meyeri* infection: case report and review of the literature. *J Infect* 65:357–361. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jinf.2012.02.016>.
93. Marie I, Lahaxe L, Levesque H, Heliot P. 2008. Pulmonary actinomycosis in a patient with diffuse systemic sclerosis treated with infliximab. *QJM* 101:419–421. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/qjmed/hcn028>.
94. Vallet C, Pezzetta E, Nicolet-Chatelin G, El Lamaa Z, Martinet O, Ris H-B. 2004. Stage III empyema caused by *Actinomyces meyeri*: a plea for decortication. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg* 127:1511–1513. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jtcvs.2003.11.043>.
95. Bartlett AH, Rivera AL, Krishnamurthy R, Baker CJ. 2008. Thoracic actinomycosis in children: case report and review of the literature. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 27:165–169. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/INF.0b013e3181598353>.
96. Huits RM, Winter HL, Slebos DJ. 2006. A painful swelling on the chest. Thoracic actinomycosis. *Clin Infect Dis* 42:100–102, 148–150. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/498513>.
97. Cone LA, Leung MM, Hirschberg J. 2003. *Actinomyces odontolyticus*

- bacteremia. *Emerg Infect Dis* 9:1629–1632. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3201/eid0912.020646>.
98. Takiguchi Y, Terano T, Hirai A. 2003. Lung abscess caused by *Actinomyces odontolyticus*. *Intern Med* 42:723–725. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2169/internalmedicine.42.723>.
  99. Wakabayashi K, Yano S, Kadowaki T, Tokushima T, Kanda H, Kobayashi K, Kimura M, Ishikawa S, Ikeda T. 2012. Pulmonary actinomycosis caused by *Actinomyces cardiffensis*. *Intern Med* 51:2929–2931. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2169/internalmedicine.51.7997>.
  100. Seo JY, Yeom J-S, Ko KS. 2012. *Actinomyces cardiffensis* septicemia: a case report. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis* 73:86–88. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.diagmicrobio.2012.02.012>.
  101. Gupta A, Lodato RF. 2012. Empyema necessitatis due to *Actinomyces israelii*. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 185:e16. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1164/rccm.201108-1532CR>.
  102. Llamas-Velasco M, Domínguez I, Ovejero E, Pérez-Gala S, García-Díez A. 2010. Empyema necessitatis revisited. *Eur J Dermatol* 20:115–119. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1684/ejd.2010.0809>.
  103. Pérez-Castrillón JL, González-Castáñeda C, del Campo-Matías F, Belido-Casado J, Díaz G. 1997. Empyema necessitatis due to *Actinomyces odontolyticus*. *Chest* 111:1144.
  104. Vyas JM, Kasmar A, Chang HR, Holden J, Hohmann E. 2007. Abdominal abscesses due to actinomycosis after laparoscopic cholecystectomy: case reports and review. *Clin Infect Dis* 44:e1–e4. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/510077>.
  105. Ladic A, Petrovic I, Augustin G, Puretic H, Skegro M, Gojevic A, Nikolic I. 2013. Hemoptysis as an early symptom of abdominal actinomycosis with thoracic extension ten years after cholecystectomy with retained gallstone. *Surg Infect* 14:408–411. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1089/sur.2012.027>.
  106. Zbar AP, Ranasinghe W, Kennedy PJ. 2009. Subphrenic abscess secondary to *Actinomyces meyeri* and *Klebsiella ozaenae* following laparoscopic cholecystectomy. *South Med J* 102:725–727. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/SMJ.0b013e3181abddc5>.
  107. Hansen JM, Fjeldsøe-Nielsen H, Sulim S, Kemp M, Christensen JJ. 2009. *Actinomyces* species: a Danish survey on human infections and microbiological characteristics. *Open Microbiol J* 3:113–120. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2174/1874285800903010113>.
  108. Garduño E, Rebollo M, Asencio MA, Carro J, Pascasio JM, Blanco J. 2000. Splenic abscesses caused by *Actinomyces meyeri* in a patient with autoimmune hepatitis. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis* 37:213–214. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0732-8893\(00\)00133-4](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0732-8893(00)00133-4).
  109. Llenas-García J, Lalueza-Blanco A, Fernández-Ruiz M, Villar-Silva J, Ochoa M, Lozano F, Lizasoain M, Aguado JM. 2012. Primary hepatic actinomycosis presenting as purulent pericarditis with cardiac tamponade. *Infection* 40:339–341. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s15010-011-0200-y>.
  110. Makaryus AN, Lutzman J, Yang R, Rosman D. 2005. A rare case of *Actinomyces israelii* presenting as pericarditis in a 75-year-old man. *Cardiol Rev* 13:125–127. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/01.crd.0000148846.97618.a>.
  111. Saad M, Moorman J. 2005. Images in clinical medicine. Actinomycosis hepatic abscess with cutaneous fistula. *N Engl J Med* 353:e16. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1056/NEJMicm050528>.
  112. Uehara Y, Takahashi T, Yagoshi M, Shimoguchi K, Yanai M, Kumasa K, Kikuchi K. 2010. Liver abscess of *Actinomyces israelii* in a hemodialysis patient: case report and review of the literature. *Intern Med* 49:2017–2020. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2169/internalmedicine.49.3700>.
  113. Harsch IA, Benninger J, Niedobitek G, Schindler G, Schneider HT, Hahn EG, Nusko G. 2001. Abdominal actinomycosis: complication of endoscopic stenting in chronic pancreatitis? *Endoscopy* 33:1065–1069. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1055/s-2001-18930>.
  114. Hinić V, Straub C, Schultheiss E, Kaempfer P, Frei R, Goldenberger D. 2013. Identification of a novel 16S rRNA gene variant of *Actinomyces funkei* from six patients with purulent infections. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 19:E312–E314. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1469-0691.12201>.
  115. Chao CT, Liao CH, Lai CC, Hsueh PR. 2011. Liver abscess due to *Actinomyces odontolyticus* in an immunocompetent patient. *Infection* 39:77–79. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s15010-010-0063-7>.
  116. Riegert-Johnson DL, Sandhu N, Rajkumar SV, Patel R. 2002. Thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura associated with a hepatic abscess due to *Actinomyces turicensis*. *Clin Infect Dis* 35:636–637. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/342327>.
  117. Levy P-Y, Fournier P-E, Charrel R, Metras D, Habib G, Raoult D. 2006. Molecular analysis of pericardial fluid: a 7-year experience. *Eur Heart J* 27:1942–1946. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/eurheartj/ehl025>.
  118. Funke G, von Graevenitz A. 1995. Infections due to *Actinomyces neuii* (former “CDC coryneform group 1” bacteria). *Infection* 23:73–75. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF01833868>.
  119. von Graevenitz A. 2011. *Actinomyces neuii*: review of an unusual infectious agent. *Infection* 39:97–100. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s15010-011-0088-6>.
  120. Kalaichelvan V, Maw AA, Singh K. 2006. *Actinomyces* in cervical smears of women using the intrauterine device in Singapore. *Contraception* 73:352–355. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.contraception.2005.09.005>.
  121. Westhoff C. 2007. IUDs and colonization or infection with *Actinomyces*. *Contraception* 75:S48–S50. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.contraception.2007.01.006>.
  122. Fiorino AS. 1996. Intrauterine contraceptive device-associated actinomycotic abscess and *Actinomyces* detection on cervical smear. *Obstet Gynecol* 87:142–149. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0029-7844\(95\)00350-9](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0029-7844(95)00350-9).
  123. Carrillo M, Valdez B, Vargas L, Alvarez L, Schorr M, Zlatev R, Stoytcheva M. 2010. *In vitro Actinomyces israelii* biofilm development on IUD copper surfaces. *Contraception* 81:261–264. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.contraception.2009.09.008>.
  124. Asemota OA, Girda E, Dueñas O, Neal-Perry G, Pollack SE. 2013. Actinomycosis pelvic abscess after *in vitro* fertilization. *Fertil Steril* 100:408–411. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.fertnstert.2013.04.018>.
  125. Elhag KM, Bahar AM, Mubarak AA. 1988. The effect of a copper intra-uterine contraceptive device on the microbial ecology of the female genital tract. *J Med Microbiol* 25:245–251. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/00222615-25-4-245>.
  126. Woo PCY, Fung AMY, Lau SKP, Hon E, Yuen K. 2002. Diagnosis of pelvic actinomycosis by 16S ribosomal RNA gene sequencing and its clinical significance. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis* 43:113–118. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0732-8893\(02\)00375-9](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0732-8893(02)00375-9).
  127. Elsayed S, George A, Zhang K. 2006. Intrauterine contraceptive device-associated pelvic actinomycosis caused by *Actinomyces urogenitalis*. *Anaerobe* 12:67–70. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.anaerobe.2005.12.004>.
  128. Van Hoecke F, Beuckelaers E, Lissens P, Boudewijns M. 2013. *Actinomyces urogenitalis* bacteremia and tubo-ovarian abscess after an *in vitro* fertilization (IVF) procedure. *J Clin Microbiol* 51:4252–4254. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.02142-13>.
  129. Flynn AN, Lyndon CA, Church DL. 2013. Identification by 16S rRNA gene sequencing of an *Actinomyces hongkongensis* isolate recovered from a patient with pelvic actinomycosis. *J Clin Microbiol* 51:2721–2723. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.00509-13>.
  130. Woo PC, Fung AM, Lau SK, Teng JL, Wong BH, Wong MK, Hon E, Tang GW, Yuen KY. 2003. *Actinomyces hongkongensis* sp. nov. a novel *Actinomyces* species isolated from a patient with pelvic actinomycosis. *Syst Appl Microbiol* 26:518–522. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1078/072320203770865819>.
  131. Matsuda K, Nakajima H, Khan KN, Tanigawa T, Hamaguchi D, Kitajima M, Hiraki K, Moriyama S, Masuzaki H. 2012. Preoperative diagnosis of pelvic actinomycosis by clinical cytology. *Int J Womens Health* 4:527–533. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2147/IJWH.S35573>.
  132. Ong C, Barnes S, Senanayake S. 2012. *Actinomyces turicensis* infection mimicking ovarian tumour. *Singapore Med J* 53:e9–e11.
  133. Gomes J, Pereira T, Carvalho A, Brito C. 2011. Primary cutaneous actinomycosis caused by *Actinomyces meyeri* as first manifestation of HIV infection. *Dermatol Online J* 17:5.
  134. Capobianco G, Dessole S, Becchere MP, Profili S, Cosmi E, Cherchi PL, Meloni GB. 2005. A rare case of primary actinomycosis of the breast caused by *Actinomyces viscosus*: diagnosis by fine-needle aspiration cytology under ultrasound guidance. *Breast J* 11:57–59. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1075-122X.2005.21613.x>.
  135. Hermida MD, Della Giovanna P, Lapadula M, García S, Cabrera HN. 2009. *Actinomyces meyeri* cutaneous actinomycosis. *Int J Dermatol* 48:154–156. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-4632.2009.03798.x>.
  136. Duvignaud A, Ribeiro E, Moynet D, Longy-Boursier M, Malvy D. 2014. Cervical spondylitis and spinal abscess due to *Actinomyces meyeri*. *Braz J Infect Dis* 18:106–109. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bjid.2013.05.016>.
  137. Honda H, Bankowski MJ, Kajioka EHN, Chokrungranon N, Kim W, Gallacher ST. 2008. Thoracic vertebral actinomycosis: *Actinomyces israelii* and *Fusobacterium nucleatum*. *J Clin Microbiol* 46:2009–2014. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.01706-07>.

138. Gaiñi S, Røge BT, Pedersen C, Pedersen SS, Brenøe A-S. 2006. Severe *Actinomyces israelii* infection involving the entire spinal cord. *Scand J Infect Dis* 38:211–213. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00365540500322312>.
139. Ghafghaichi L, Troy S, Budvytiene I, Banaei N, Baron EJ. 2010. Mixed infection involving *Actinomyces*, *Aggregatibacter*, and *Fusobacterium* species presenting as perispinal tumor. *Anaerobe* 16:174–178. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.anaerobe.2009.07.003>.
140. Edwards TM, Demos TC, Lomasney LM. 2011. Radiologic case study. Musculoskeletal actinomycosis. *Orthopedics* 34:641, 730–733. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3928/01477447-20110714-49>.
141. Musher DM. 1998. Actinomycosis of 54 years' duration. *Clin Infect Dis* 27:889. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/514965>.
142. Smego RA, Jr. 1987. Actinomycosis of the central nervous system. *Rev Infect Dis* 9:855–865. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/clinids/9.5.855>.
143. Van Dellen JR. 2010. Actinomycosis: an ancient disease difficult to diagnose. *World Neurosurg* 74:263–264. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.wneu.2010.06.012>.
144. Olah E, Berger C, Boltshauser E, Nadal D. 2004. Cerebral actinomycosis before adolescence. *Neuropediatrics* 35:239–241. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1055/s-2004-820895>.
145. Bouziri A, Khaldi A, Smaoui H, Menif K, Ben Jaballah N. 2011. Fatal subdural empyema caused by *Streptococcus constellatus* and *Actinomyces viscosus* in a child—case report. *J Microbiol Immunol Infect* 44:394–396. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jmii.2010.03.002>.
146. Kuijper EJ, Wiggerts HO, Jonker GJ, Schaal KP, de Gans J. 1992. Disseminated actinomycosis due to *Actinomyces meyeri* and *Actinobacillus actinomycetemcomitans*. *Scand J Infect Dis* 24:667–672. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3109/00365549209054655>.
147. Zijlstra EE, Swart GR, Godfroy FJ, Degener JE. 1992. Pericarditis, pneumonia and brain abscess due to a combined *Actinomyces-Actinobacillus actinomycetemcomitans* infection. *J Infect* 25:83–87. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0163-4453\(92\)93633-2](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0163-4453(92)93633-2).
148. Colmegna I, Rodriguez-Barradas M, Rauch R, Clarridge J, Young EJ. 2003. Disseminated *Actinomyces meyeri* infection resembling lung cancer with brain metastases. *Am J Med Sci* 326:152–155. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/00000441-200309000-00010>.
149. Naik NH, Russo TA. 2009. Bisphosphonate-related osteonecrosis of the jaw: the role of *Actinomyces*. *Clin Infect Dis* 49:1729–1732. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/648075>.
150. Curi MM, Dib LL, Kowalski LP, Landman G, Mangini C. 2000. Opportunistic actinomycosis in osteoradionecrosis of the jaws in patients affected by head and neck cancer: incidence and clinical significance. *Oral Oncol* 36:294–299. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1368-8375\(99\)00080-9](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1368-8375(99)00080-9).
151. Kos M, Kuebler JF, Luczak K, Engelke W. 2010. Bisphosphonate-related osteonecrosis of the jaws: a review of 34 cases and evaluation of risk. *J Craniomaxillofac Surg* 38:255–259. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jcms.2009.06.005>.
152. Sedghizadeh PP, Kumar SKS, Gorur A, Schaudinn C, Shuler CF, Costerton JW. 2009. Microbial biofilms in osteomyelitis of the jaw and osteonecrosis of the jaw secondary to bisphosphonate therapy. *J Am Dent Assoc* 140:1259–1265. <http://dx.doi.org/10.14219/jada.archive.2009.0049>.
153. Happonen RP, Viander M, Pelliniemi L, Aitasalo K. 1983. *Actinomyces israelii* in osteoradionecrosis of the jaws. Histopathologic and immunocytochemical study of five cases. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 55:580–588. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0030-4220\(83\)90374-2](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0030-4220(83)90374-2).
154. Hansen T, Wagner W, Kirkpatrick CJ, Kunkel M. 2006. Infected osteoradionecrosis of the mandible: follow-up study suggests deterioration in outcome for patients with *Actinomyces*-positive bone biopsies. *Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg* 35:1001–1004. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijom.2006.08.006>.
155. Aas JA, Reime L, Pedersen K, Eribe ERK, Abesha-Belay E, Støre G, Olsen I. 13 July 2010. Osteoradionecrosis contains a wide variety of cultivable and non-cultivable bacteria. *J Oral Microbiol* <http://dx.doi.org/10.3402/jom.v2i0.5072>.
156. Støre G, Eribe ERK, Olsen I. 2005. DNA-DNA hybridization demonstrates multiple bacteria in osteoradionecrosis. *Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg* 34:193–196. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijom.2004.06.010>.
157. Curtis JR, Yang S, Patkar NM, Chen L, Singh JA, Cannon GW, Mikuls TR, Delzell E, Saag KG, Safford MM, DuVall S, Alexander K, Nappalkov P, Winthrop KL, Burton MJ, Kamaau A, Baddley JW. 2014. Risk of hospitalized bacterial infections associated with biologic treatment among US veterans with rheumatoid arthritis. *Arthritis Care Res* 66:990–997. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/acr.22281>.
158. Chen KH, Lin CH. 2013. Brain abscess as an initial presentation in a patient of hereditary haemorrhagic telangiectasia caused by a novel ENG mutation. *BMJ Case Rep* 2013:bcr2013008802. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bcr-2013-008802>.
159. Hall WA. 1994. Hereditary hemorrhagic telangiectasia (Rendu-Osler-Weber disease) presenting with polymicrobial brain abscess Case report. *J Neurosurg* 81:294–296.
160. Woods ML. 1998. Photo quiz I. Hereditary hemorrhagic telangiectasia, pulmonary arteriovenous malformations, and brain abscess. *Clin Infect Dis* 26:1071, 1220–1221.
161. van den Berg JM, van Koppen E, Ahlin A, Belohradsky BH, Bernatowska E, Corbeel L, Español T, Fischer A, Kurenko-Deptuch M, Mouy R, Petropoulou T, Roesler J, Seger R, Stasia M-J, Valerius NH, Weening RS, Wolach B, Roos D, Kuijpers TW. 2009. Chronic granulomatous disease: the European experience. *PLoS One* 4:e5234. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0005234>.
162. Agger WA, Kowalski TJ. 2010. Chronic granulomatous disease, catalase, and *Actinomyces*. *Clin Infect Dis* 50:1325–1326. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/651690>.
163. Hagiya H, Otsuka F. 2014. *Actinomyces meyeri* meningitis: the need for anaerobic cerebrospinal fluid cultures. *Intern Med* 53:67–71. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2169/internalmedicine.53.0403>.
164. Garelick JM, Khodabakhsh AJ, Josephberg RG. 2002. Acute postoperative endophthalmitis caused by *Actinomyces neuii*. *Am J Ophthalmol* 133:145–147. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0002-9394\(01\)01206-5](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0002-9394(01)01206-5).
165. Pérez-Santonja JJ, Campos-Mollo E, Fuentes-Campos E, Samper-Giménez J, Alió JL. 2007. *Actinomyces neuii* subspecies anitratus chronic endophthalmitis after cataract surgery. *Eur J Ophthalmol* 17:445–447.
166. Raman VS, Evans N, Shreshta B, Cunningham R. 2004. Chronic postoperative endophthalmitis caused by *Actinomyces neuii*. *J Cataract Refract Surg* 30:2641–2643. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jcrs.2004.04.070>.
167. Peponis VG, Chalkiadakis SE, Parikakis EA, Mitropoulos PG. 2011. Chronic postoperative endophthalmitis caused by *Actinomyces meyeri*. *Case Rep Ophthalmol* 2:95–98. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1159/000326062>.
168. Scarano FJ, Ruddat MS, Robinson A. 1999. *Actinomyces viscosus* postoperative endophthalmitis. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis* 34:115–117. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0732-8893\(99\)00009-7](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0732-8893(99)00009-7).
169. Graffi S, Peretz A, Naftali M. 2012. Endogenous endophthalmitis with an unusual infective agent: *Actinomyces neuii*. *Eur J Ophthalmol* 22:834–835. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5301/ejo.5000106>.
170. Milman T, Mirani N, Gibler T, Van Gelder RN, Langer PD. 2008. *Actinomyces israelii* endogenous endophthalmitis. *Br J Ophthalmol* 92:427–428. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bjo.2007.123596>.
171. Karimian F, Feizi S, Nazari R, Zarin-Baksh P. 2008. Delayed-onset *Actinomyces* keratitis after laser in situ keratomileusis. *Cornea* 27:843–846. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/ICO.0b013e31816a624a>.
172. Hussain I, Bonshek RE, Loudon K, Armstrong M, Tullo AB. 1993. Canalicular infection caused by *Actinomyces*. *Eye* 7:542–544. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/eye.1993.118>.
173. Olender A, Matysik-Woźniak A, Rymgayłło-Jankowska B, Rejda R. 2013. The cause of *Actinomyces* canalculitis—a case study. *Ann Agric Environ Med* 20:742–744.
174. Yuksel D, Hazirolan D, Sungur G, Duman S. 2012. Actinomycosis canalculitis and its surgical treatment. *Int Ophthalmol* 32:183–186. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10792-012-9531-7>.
175. Kerttula AM, Carlson P, Sarkonen N, Hall V, Könönen E. 2005. Enzymatic/biochemical analysis of *Actinomyces* with commercial test kits with an emphasis on newly described species. *Anaerobe* 11:99–108. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.anaerobe.2004.11.002>.
176. Könönen E, Kanervo A, Bryk A, Aino T, Syrjänen R, Jousimies-Somer H. 1999. Anaerobes in the nasopharynx during acute otitis media episodes in infancy. *Anaerobe* 5:237–239. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/anae.1999.0225>.
177. Jousimies-Somer H, Savolainen S, Mäkitie A, Ylikoski J. 1993. Bacteriological findings in peritonsillar abscesses in young adults. *Clin Infect Dis* 16(Suppl 4):S292–S298. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/clinids/16.Supplement\\_4.S292](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/clinids/16.Supplement_4.S292).
178. Sabbe LJ, Van De Merwe D, Schouls L, Bergmans A, Vanechoutte M, Vandamme P. 1999. Clinical spectrum of infections due to the newly described *Actinomyces* species *A. turicensis*, *A. radingae*, and *A. europaeus*. *J Clin Microbiol* 37:8–13.

179. Hall V, Collins MD, Lawson PA, Falsen E, Duerden BI. 2003. *Actinomyces nasicola* sp. nov., isolated from a human nose. *Int J Syst Evol Microbiol* 53:1445–1448. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/ijs.0.02582-0>.
180. Brailsford SR, Tregaskis RB, Leftwich HS, Beighton D. 1999. The predominant *Actinomyces* spp. isolated from infected dentin of active root caries lesions. *J Dent Res* 78:1525–1534. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/00220345990780090701>.
181. Tanner ACR, Mathney MJ, Kent RL, Chalmers NI, Hughes CV, Loo CY, Pradhan N, Kanasi E, Hwang J, Dahlan MA, Papadopoulou E, Dewhirst FE. 2011. Cultivable anaerobic microbiota of severe early childhood caries. *J Clin Microbiol* 49:1464–1474. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.02427-10>.
182. Bowden GH, Nolette N, Ryding H, Cleghorn BM. 1999. The diversity and distribution of the predominant ribotypes of *Actinomyces naeslundii* genospecies 1 and 2 in samples from enamel and from healthy and carious root surfaces of teeth. *J Dent Res* 78:1800–1809. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/00220345990780120601>.
183. Signoretto FGC, Endo MS, Gomes BPFA, Montagner F, Tosello FB, Jacinto RC. 2011. Persistent extraradicular infection in root-filled asymptomatic human tooth: scanning electron microscopic analysis and microbial investigation after apical microsurgery. *J Endod* 37:1696–1700. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.joen.2011.09.018>.
184. Siqueira JF, Rôças IN. 2003. Polymerase chain reaction detection of *Propionibacterium propionicus* and *Actinomyces radidentis* in primary and persistent endodontic infections. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 96:215–222. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1079-2104\(03\)00158-6](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1079-2104(03)00158-6).
185. Siqueira JF, Rôças IN, Souto R, de Uzeda M, Colombo AP. 2002. *Actinomyces* species, streptococci, and *Enterococcus faecalis* in primary root canal infections. *J Endod* 28:168–172. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/00004770-200203000-00006>.
186. Sunde PT, Olsen I, Debelian GJ, Tronstad L. 2002. Microbiota of periapical lesions refractory to endodontic therapy. *J Endod* 28:304–310. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/00004770-200204000-00011>.
187. Xia T, Baumgartner JC. 2003. Occurrence of *Actinomyces* in infections of endodontic origin. *J Endod* 29:549–552. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/00004770-200309000-00001>.
188. Collins MD, Hoyles L, Kalfas S, Sundquist G, Monsen T, Nikolaitchouk N, Falsen E. 2000. Characterization of *Actinomyces* isolates from infected root canals of teeth: description of *Actinomyces radidentis* sp. nov. *J Clin Microbiol* 38:3399–3403.
189. Hall V, Collins MD, Hutson RA, Inganäs E, Falsen E, Duerden BI. 2003. *Actinomyces oricola* sp. nov., from a human dental abscess. *Int J Syst Evol Microbiol* 53:1515–1518. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/ijs.0.02576-0>.
190. Hall V, Collins MD, Lawson PA, Falsen E, Duerden BI. 2005. *Actinomyces dentalis* sp. nov., from a human dental abscess. *Int J Syst Evol Microbiol* 55:427–431. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/ijs.0.63376-0>.
191. Tanner A, Maiden MF, Macuch PJ, Murray LL, Kent RL. 1998. Microbiota of health, gingivitis, and initial periodontitis. *J Clin Periodontol* 25:85–98. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-051X.1998.tb02414.x>.
192. Gmür R, Wyss C, Xue Y, Thurnheer T, Guggenheim B. 2004. Gingival crevice microbiota from Chinese patients with gingivitis or necrotizing ulcerative gingivitis. *Eur J Oral Sci* 112:33–41. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.0909-8836.2004.00103.x>.
193. Persson GR, Hitti J, Paul K, Hirschi R, Weibel M, Rothen M, Persson RE. 2008. *Tannerella forsythia* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in subgingival bacterial samples from parous women. *J Periodontol* 79:508–516. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1902/jop.2008.070350>.
194. Sixou J-L, Magaud C, Jolivet-Gougeon A, Cormier M, Bonneure-Mallet M. 2003. Evaluation of the mandibular third molar pericoronitis flora and its susceptibility to different antibiotics prescribed in France. *J Clin Microbiol* 41:5794–5797. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.41.12.5794-5797.2003>.
195. Sarkonen N, Könönen E, Eerola E, Könönen M, Jousimies-Somer H, Laine P. 2005. Characterization of *Actinomyces* species isolated from failed dental implant fixtures. *Anaerobe* 11:231–237. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.anaerobe.2005.01.002>.
196. Young MP, Carter DH, Worthington H, Korachi M, Drucker DB. 2001. Microbial analysis of bone collected during implant surgery: a clinical and laboratory study. *Clin Oral Implants Res* 12:95–103. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1034/j.1600-0501.2001.012002095.x>.
197. Ramos CP, Falsen E, Alvarez N, Akervall E, Sjöden B, Collins MD. 1997. *Actinomyces graevenitzii* sp. nov., isolated from human clinical specimens. *Int J Syst Bacteriol* 47:885–888. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/00207713-47-3-885>.
198. Peaper DR, Havill NL, Aniskiewicz M, Callan D, Pop O, Towle D, Boyce JM. 2015. Pseudo-outbreak of *Actinomyces graevenitzii* associated with bronchoscopy. *J Clin Microbiol* 53:113–117. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.02302-14>.
199. Gómez-Garcés JL, Burillo A, Gil Y, Sáez-Nieto JA. 2010. Soft tissue infections caused by *Actinomyces neuii*, a rare pathogen. *J Clin Microbiol* 48:1508–1509. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.02139-09>.
200. Lacoste C, Escande M-C, Jammot P, Nos C. 2009. Breast *Actinomyces neuii* abscess simulating primary malignancy: a case diagnosed by fine-needle aspiration. *Diagn Cytopathol* 37:311–312. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/dc.21044>.
201. Olson JM, Vary JC. 2013. Primary cutaneous *Actinomyces neuii* infection of the breast successfully treated with doxycycline. *Cutis* 92:E3–E4.
202. Funke G, Alvarez N, Pascual C, Falsen E, Akervall E, Sabbe L, Schouls L, Weiss N, Collins MD. 1997. *Actinomyces europaeus* sp. nov., isolated from human clinical specimens. *Int J Syst Bacteriol* 47:687–692. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/00207713-47-3-687>.
203. Silva WA, Pinheiro AM, Jahns B, Bögli-Stuber K, Droz S, Zimmerli S. 2011. Breast abscess due to *Actinomyces europaeus*. *Infection* 39:255–258. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s15010-011-0119-3>.
204. Attar KH, Waghorn D, Lyons M, Cunnick G. 2007. Rare species of *Actinomyces* as causative pathogens in breast abscess. *Breast J* 13:501–505. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1524-4741.2007.00472.x>.
205. Cato EP, Moore WEC, Nygaard G, Holdeman LV. 1984. *Actinomyces meyeri* sp. nov., specific epithet rev. *Int J Syst Bacteriol* 34:487–489. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/00207713-34-4-487>.
206. Abdulrahman GO, Jr, Gateley CA. 2015. Primary actinomycosis of the breast caused by *Actinomyces turicensis* with associated *Peptoniphilus harei*. *Breast Dis* 35:45–47. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3233/BD-140381>.
207. Funke G, Stubbs S, von Graevenitz A, Collins MD. 1994. Assignment of human-derived CDC group 1 coryneform bacteria and CDC group 1-like coryneform bacteria to the genus *Actinomyces* as *Actinomyces neuii* subsp. *neuii* sp. nov., subsp. nov., and *Actinomyces neuii* subsp. *anitratus*, subsp. nov. *Int J Syst Bacteriol* 44:167–171.
208. Chudackova E, Geigerova L, Hrabak J, Bergerova T, Liska V, Scharfen J, Jr. 2010. Seven isolates of *Actinomyces turicensis* from patients with surgical infections of the anogenital area in a Czech hospital. *J Clin Microbiol* 48:2660–2661. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.00548-10>.
209. Ng LS, Sim JH, Eng LC, Menon S, Tan TY. 2012. Comparison of phenotypic methods and matrix-assisted laser desorption ionisation time-of-flight mass spectrometry for the identification of aerotolerant *Actinomyces* spp. isolated from soft-tissue infections. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 31:1749–1752. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10096-011-1496-3>.
210. Sofianou D, Avgoustinakis E, Dilopoulou A, Pournaras S, Tsiarakidis G, Tsakris A. 2004. Soft-tissue abscess involving *Actinomyces odontolyticus* and two *Prevotella* species in an intravenous drug abuser. *Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis* 27:75–79. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0147-9571\(03\)00052-3](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0147-9571(03)00052-3).
211. Summanen PH, Talan DA, Strong C, McTeague M, Bennion R, Thompson JE, Väisänen ML, Moran G, Winer M, Finegold SM. 1995. Bacteriology of skin and soft-tissue infections: comparison of infections in intravenous drug users and individuals with no history of intravenous drug use. *Clin Infect Dis* 20(Suppl 2):S279–S282. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/clinids/20.Supplement\\_2.S279](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/clinids/20.Supplement_2.S279).
212. Davanos E, Rahman SM, Nogid B. 2008. Treatment of *Eikenella corrodens* and *Actinomyces odontolyticus* foot abscess in a penicillin-allergic patient. *Ann Pharmacother* 42:1706–1710. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1345/aph.1L257>.
213. Zautner AE, Schmitz S, Aepinus C, Schmialek A, Podbielski A. 2009. Subcutaneous fistulae in a patient with femoral hypoplasia due to *Actinomyces europaeus* and *Actinomyces turicensis*. *Infection* 37:289–291. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s15010-008-7392-9>.
214. Funke G, Englert R, Frodl R, Bernard KA, Stenger S. 2010. *Actinomyces hominis* sp. nov., isolated from a wound swab. *Int J Syst Evol Microbiol* 60:1678–1681. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/ijs.0.015818-0>.
215. McElroy JY, Gorens ME, Jackson LN, Stigger D, Becker T, Sheiner E. 2006. *Actinomyces israelii* may produce vulvar lesions suspicious for malignancy. *Infect Dis Obstet Gynecol* 2006:48269. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/IDOG/2006/48269>.
216. Tena D, Losa C, Medina-Pascual MJ, Saez-Nieto JA. 2014. Fournier's

- gangrene caused by *Actinomyces funkei*, *Fusobacterium gonidiaformans* and *Clostridium hathewayi*. *Anaerobe* 27:14–16. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.anaerobe.2014.02.004>.
217. Mann C, Dertinger S, Hartmann G, Schurz R, Simma B. 2002. *Actinomyces neuui* and neonatal sepsis. *Infection* 30:178–180. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s15010-002-2165-3>.
  218. Wright JR, Stinson D, Wade A, Haldane D, Heifetz SA. 1994. Necrotizing funisitis associated with *Actinomyces meyeri* infection: a case report. *Pediatr Pathol* 14:927–934. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3109/15513819409037689>.
  219. Pinilla I, Martín-Hervás C, Gil-Garay E. 2006. Primary sternal osteomyelitis caused by *Actinomyces israelii*. *South Med J* 99:96–97. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/01.smj.0000197512.82441.41>.
  220. Vandeveld AG, Jenkins SG, Hardy PR. 1995. Sclerosing osteomyelitis and *Actinomyces naeslundii* infection of surrounding tissues. *Clin Infect Dis* 20:1037–1039. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/clinids/20.4.1037>.
  221. Lee MJ, Ha YE, Park HY, Lee JH, Lee YJ, Sung KS, Kang C-I, Chung DR, Song J-H, Peck KR. 2012. Osteomyelitis of a long bone due to *Fusobacterium nucleatum* and *Actinomyces meyeri* in an immunocompetent adult: a case report and literature review. *BMC Infect Dis* 12:161. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2334-12-161>.
  222. Van Bosterhaut B, Boucquoy P, Janssens M, Wauters G, Delmée M. 2002. Chronic osteomyelitis due to *Actinomyces neuui* subspecies *neuui* and *Dermabacter hominis*. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 21:486–487. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10096-002-0747-8>.
  223. Lecouvet F, Ireng L, Vandercam B, Nzeusseu A, Hamels S, Gala J-L. 2004. The etiologic diagnosis of infectious discitis is improved by amplification-based DNA analysis. *Arthritis Rheum* 50:2985–2994. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/art.20462>.
  224. Renvoise A, Raoult D, Roux V. 2010. *Actinomyces timonensis* sp. nov., isolated from a human clinical osteo-articular sample. *Int J Syst Evol Microbiol* 60:1516–1521. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/ijs.0.012914-0>.
  225. Brunner S, Graf S, Riegel P, Altwegg M. 2000. Catalase-negative *Actinomyces neuui* subsp. *neuui* isolated from an infected mammary prosthesis. *Int J Med Microbiol* 290:285–287. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1438-4221\(00\)80128-9](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1438-4221(00)80128-9).
  226. Hsi RS, Hotaling JM, Spencer ES, Bollyky PL, Walsh TJ. 2011. Isolated infection of a decommissioned penile prosthesis reservoir with *Actinomyces neuui*. *J Sex Med* 8:923–926. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1743-6109.2010.02144.x>.
  227. Grundmann S, Huebner J, Stuplich J, Koch A, Wu K, Geibel-Zehender A, Bode C, Brunner M. 2010. Prosthetic valve endocarditis due to *Actinomyces neuui* successfully treated with antibiotic therapy. *J Clin Microbiol* 48:1008–1011. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.01106-09>.
  228. Rieber H, Schwarz R, Krämer O, Cordier W, Frommelt L. 2009. *Actinomyces neuui* subsp. *neuui* associated with periprosthetic infection in total hip arthroplasty as causative agent. *J Clin Microbiol* 47:4183–4184. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.01249-09>.
  229. Anderson IA, Jarral F, Sethi K, Chumas PD. 2014. Paediatric ventriculoperitoneal shunt infection caused by *Actinomyces neuui*. *BMJ Case Rep* 2014:bcr2014204576. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bcr-2014-204576>.
  230. Watkins RR, Anthony K, Schroder S, Hall GS. 2008. Ventriculoperitoneal shunt infection caused by *Actinomyces neuui* subsp. *neuui*. *J Clin Microbiol* 46:1888–1889. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.02141-07>.
  231. Varughese S, Bargman J. 2014. *Actinomyces neuui* PD peritonitis—resolution of infection without catheter removal. *Perit Dial Int* 34:815–816. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3747/pdi.2013.00146>.
  232. Hedke J, Skripitz R, Ellenrieder M, Frickmann H, Köller T, Podbielski A, Mittelmeier W. 2012. Low-grade infection after a total knee arthroplasty caused by *Actinomyces naeslundii*. *J Med Microbiol* 61:1162–1164. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/jmm.0.030395-0>.
  233. Wüst J, Steiger U, Vuong H, Zbinden R. 2000. Infection of a hip prosthesis by *Actinomyces naeslundii*. *J Clin Microbiol* 38:929–930.
  234. Zaman R, Abbas M, Burd E. 2002. Late prosthetic hip joint infection with *Actinomyces israelii* in an intravenous drug user: case report and literature review. *J Clin Microbiol* 40:4391–4392. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.40.11.4391-4392.2002>.
  235. Siu YP, Tong MK, Lee MK, Leung KT, Kwan TH. 2004. Exit-site infection caused by *Actinomyces odontolyticus* in a CAPD patient. *Perit Dial Int* 24:602–603.
  236. Branquinho DF, Andrade DR, Almeida N, Sofia C. 2014. Mediastinitis by *Actinomyces meyeri* after oesophageal stent placement. *BMJ Case Rep* 2014:bcr2014204499. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bcr-2014-204499>.
  237. Cohen E, Bishara J, Medalion B, Sagie A, Garty M. 2007. Infective endocarditis due to *Actinomyces neuui*. *Scand J Infect Dis* 39:180–183. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00365540600802007>.
  238. Westling K, Lidman C, Thalme A. 2002. Tricuspid valve endocarditis caused by a new species of actinomycetes: *Actinomyces funkei*. *Scand J Infect Dis* 34:206–207. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00365540110077425>.
  239. Adalja AA, Vergis EN. 2010. *Actinomyces israelii* endocarditis misidentified as “diphtheroids.” *Anaerobe* 16:472–473. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.anaerobe.2010.05.003>.
  240. Lam S, Samraj J, Rahman S, Hilton E. 1993. Primary actinomycotic endocarditis: case report and review. *Clin Infect Dis* 16:481–485. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/clind/16.4.481>.
  241. Julian KG, de Flesco L, Clarke LE, Parent LJ. 2005. *Actinomyces viscosus* endocarditis requiring aortic valve replacement. *J Infect* 50:359–362. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jinf.2004.04.006>.
  242. Mardis JS, Many WJ. 2001. Endocarditis due to *Actinomyces viscosus*. *South Med J* 94:240–243.
  243. Moffatt S, Ahmen AR, Forward K. 1996. First reported case of bacterial endocarditis attributable to *Actinomyces meyeri*. *Can J Infect Dis* 7:71–73.
  244. Lawson PA, Nikolaitchouk N, Falsen E, Westling K, Collins MD. 2001. *Actinomyces funkei* sp. nov., isolated from human clinical specimens. *Int J Syst Evol Microbiol* 51:853–855. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/00207713-51-3-853>.
  245. Hwang SS, Park SD, Jang IH, Uh Y, Yoon KJ, Kim HY. 2011. *Actinomyces graevenitzii* bacteremia in a patient with alcoholic liver cirrhosis. *Anaerobe* 17:87–89. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.anaerobe.2011.03.002>.
  246. Renvoise A, Raoult D, Roux V. 2009. *Actinomyces massiliensis* sp. nov., isolated from a patient blood culture. *Int J Syst Evol Microbiol* 59:540–544. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/ijs.0.001503-0>.
  247. Topic MB, Desnica B, Vickovic N, Skuhala T, Bayer K, Bukovski S. 2014. The polymicrobial *Actinomyces naeslundii* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* sepsis in a patient with ulcerative colitis 2 months after colonoscopy. *Wien Klin Wochenschr* 126:130–132. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00508-013-0471-7>.
  248. Bahrani-Mougeot FK, Paster BJ, Coleman S, Ashar J, Barbuto S, Lockhart PB. 2008. Diverse and novel oral bacterial species in blood following dental procedures. *J Clin Microbiol* 46:2129–2132. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.02004-07>.
  249. Reinhard M, Prag J, Kemp M, Andresen K, Klemmensen B, Højlyng N, Sørensen SH, Christensen JJ. 2005. Ten cases of *Actinobaculum schaalii* infection: clinical relevance, bacterial identification, and antibiotic susceptibility. *J Clin Microbiol* 43:5305–5308. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.43.10.5305-5308.2005>.
  250. Fendukly F, Osterman B. 2005. Isolation of *Actinobaculum schaalii* and *Actinobaculum urinale* from a patient with chronic renal failure. *J Clin Microbiol* 43:3567–3569. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.43.7.3567-3569.2005>.
  251. Haller P, Bruderer T, Schaeren S, Laifer G, Frei R, Battagay M, Flückiger U, Bassetti S. 2007. Vertebral osteomyelitis caused by *Actinobaculum schaalii*: a difficult-to-diagnose and potentially invasive uropathogen. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 26:667–670. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10096-007-0345-x>.
  252. Sturm PDJ, Van Eijk J, Veltman S, Meuleman E, Schülin T. 2006. Urosepsis with *Actinobaculum schaalii* and *Aerococcus urinae*. *J Clin Microbiol* 44:652–654. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.44.2.652-654.2006>.
  253. Pajkrt D, Simoons-Smit AM, Savelkoul PHM, van den Hoek J, Hack WW, van Furth AM. 2003. Pyelonephritis caused by *Actinobaculum schaalii* in a child with pyeloureteral junction obstruction. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 22:438–440. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10096-003-0933-3>.
  254. Waghorn DJ. 2004. *Actinobaculum massiliae*: a new cause of superficial skin infection. *J Infect* 48:276–277. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jinf.2003.08.003>.
  255. Bank S, Jensen A, Hansen TM, Soby KM, Prag J. 2010. *Actinobaculum schaalii*, a common uropathogen in elderly patients, Denmark. *Emerg Infect Dis* 16:76–80. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3201/eid1601.090761>.
  256. Nielsen HL, Soby KM, Christensen JJ, Prag J. 2010. *Actinobaculum schaalii*: a common cause of urinary tract infection in the elderly population. Bacteriological and clinical characteristics *Scand J Infect Dis* 42:43–47. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3109/00365540903289662>.
  257. Tschudin-Sutter S, Frei R, Weisser M, Goldenberger D, Widmer AF. 2011. *Actinobaculum schaalii*—invasive pathogen or innocent bystander?

- A retrospective observational study. *BMC Infect Dis* 11:289. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2334-11-289>.
258. Andersen LB, Bank S, Hertz B, Søby KM, Prag J. 2012. Actinobaculum schaalii, a cause of urinary tract infections in children? *Acta Paediatr* 101:e232–e234. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1651-2227.2011.02586.x>.
  259. Zimmermann P, Berlinger L, Liniger B, Grunt S, Agyeman P, Ritz N. 2012. *Actinobaculum schaalii* an emerging pediatric pathogen? *BMC Infect Dis* 12:201. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2334-12-201>.
  260. Lotte R, Durand M, Mbeutcha A, Ambrosetti D, Pulcini C, Degand N, Loeffler J, Ruimy R, Amiel J. 2014. A rare case of histopathological bladder necrosis associated with *Actinobaculum schaalii*: the incremental value of an accurate microbiological diagnosis using 16S rDNA sequencing. *Anaerobe* 26:46–48. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.anaerobe.2014.01.005>.
  261. Salvado M, Plasencia V, Segura C, Gomez J, Medina MJ, Saez-Nieto JA, Castellanos S, Horcajada JP. 2013. Infection due to *Actinobaculum* spp: report of 12 patients in Spain. *J Infect* 66:107–109. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jinf.2012.06.013>.
  262. Sandlund J, Glimaker M, Svahn A, Brauner A. 2014. Bacteraemia caused by *Actinobaculum schaalii*: an overlooked pathogen? *Scand J Infect Dis* 46:605–608. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3109/00365548.2014.913306>.
  263. Tena D, Fernández C, Lago MR, Arias M, Medina MJ, Sáez-Nieto JA. 2014. Skin and soft-tissue infections caused by *Actinobaculum schaalii*: report of two cases and literature review. *Anaerobe* 28:95–97. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.anaerobe.2014.05.009>.
  264. van Aarle S, Arents NLA, de Laet K. 2013. *Actinobaculum schaalii* causing epididymitis in an elderly patient. *J Med Microbiol* 62:1092–1093. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/jmm.0.048611-0>.
  265. Vanden Bempt I, Van Trappen S, Cleenwerck I, De Vos P, Camps K, Celens A, Van De Vyvere M. 2011. *Actinobaculum schaalii* causing Fournier's gangrene. *J Clin Microbiol* 49:2369–2371. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.00272-11>.
  266. Gomez E, Gustafson DR, Rosenblatt JE, Patel R. 2011. *Actinobaculum* bacteremia: a report of 12 cases. *J Clin Microbiol* 49:4311–4313. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.00798-11>.
  267. Chu YW, Wong CH, Chu MY, Cheung CPF, Cheung TKM, Tse C, Luk WK, Lo JYC. 2009. *Varibaculum cambriense* infections in Hong Kong, China, 2006. *Emerg Infect Dis* 15:1137–1139. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3201/eid1507.081291>.
  268. Brazier JS, Hall V. 1993. *Propionibacterium propionicum* and infections of the lacrimal apparatus. *Clin Infect Dis* 17:892–893. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/clinids/17.5.892>.
  269. Chávez de Paz LE, Molander A, Dahlén G. 2004. Gram-positive rods prevailing in teeth with apical periodontitis undergoing root canal treatment. *Int Endod J* 37:579–587. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2591.2004.00845.x>.
  270. Siqueira JF, Rôças IN. 2004. Polymerase chain reaction-based analysis of microorganisms associated with failed endodontic treatment. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 97:85–94. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1079-2104\(03\)00353-6](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1079-2104(03)00353-6).
  271. Pasic S, Savic D, Milovic I, Vasiljevic Z, Djuricic S. 2004. *Propionibacterium propionicum* infection in chronic granulomatous disease. *Clin Infect Dis* 38:459. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/381030>.
  272. Chau AMT, Xu LL, Fairhall JM, Chaganti J, McMullan BJ. 2012. Brain abscess due to *Propionibacterium propionicum* in Eisenmenger syndrome. *Med J Aust* 196:525–526. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5694/mja11.10768>.
  273. Riley TV, Ott AK. 1981. Brain abscess due to *Arachnia propionica*. *BMJ* 282:1035. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmj.282.6269.1035>.
  274. Wunderink HF, Lashley EELO, van Poelgeest MIE, Gaarenstroom KN, Claas ECJ, Kuijper EJ. 2011. Pelvic actinomycosis-like disease due to *Propionibacterium propionicum* after hysteroscopic removal of an intra-uterine device. *J Clin Microbiol* 49:466–468. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.01772-10>.
  275. Yonetani S, Ohnishi H, Araki K, Hiroi M, Takagi Y, Ichimura S, Watanabe T. 2014. A psoas abscess caused by *Propionibacterium propionicum*. *J Infect Chemother* 20:650–652. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jiac.2014.06.013>.
  276. Figdor D, Sjogren U, Sorlin S, Sundqvist G, Nair PN. 1992. Pathogenicity of *Actinomyces israelii* and *Arachnia propionica*: experimental infection in guinea pigs and phagocytosis and intracellular killing by human polymorphonuclear leukocytes in vitro. *Oral Microbiol Immunol* 7:129–136. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1399-302X.1992.tb00525.x>.
  277. Brook I. 1994. The role of encapsulated anaerobic bacteria in synergistic infections. *FEMS Microbiol Rev* 13:65–74. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6976.1994.tb00035.x>.
  278. Wade WG. 2013. The oral microbiome in health and disease. *Pharmacol Res* 69:137–143. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.phrs.2012.11.006>.
  279. Gibbons RJ, Hay DI. 1988. Human salivary acidic proline-rich proteins and statherin promote the attachment of *Actinomyces viscosus* LY7 to apatitic surfaces. *Infect Immun* 56:439–445.
  280. Li T, Khah MK, Slavnic S, Johansson I, Stromberg N. 2001. Different type 1 fimbrial genes and tropisms of commensal and potentially pathogenic *Actinomyces* spp. with different salivary acidic proline-rich protein and statherin ligand specificities. *Infect Immun* 69:7224–7233. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/IAI.69.12.7224-7233.2001>.
  281. Shen S, Samaranyake LP, Yip HK. 2005. Coaggregation profiles of the microflora from root surface caries lesions. *Arch Oral Biol* 50:23–32. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.archoralbio.2004.07.002>.
  282. Kolenbrander PE. 2000. Oral microbial communities: biofilms, interactions, and genetic systems. *Annu Rev Microbiol* 54:413–437. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.micro.54.1.413>.
  283. Takahashi N, Nyvad B. 2011. The role of bacteria in the caries process: ecological perspectives. *J Dent Res* 90:294–303. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0022034510379602>.
  284. Norskov-Lauritsen N. 2014. Classification, identification, and clinical significance of *Haemophilus* and *Aggregatibacter* species with host specificity for humans. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 27:214–240. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/CMR.00103-13>.
  285. Engelhardt K, Kampfl A, Spiegel M, Pfausler B, Hausdorfer H, Schmutzhard E. 2002. Brain abscess due to *Capnocytophaga* species, *Actinomyces* species, and *Streptococcus intermedius* in a patient with cyanotic congenital heart disease. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 21:236–237. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10096-002-0696-2>.
  286. Simpson AJ, Das SS, Mitchelmore IJ. 1996. Polymicrobial brain abscess involving *Haemophilus paraprofitus* and *Actinomyces odontolyticus*. *Postgrad Med J* 72:297–298. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/pgmj.72.847.297>.
  287. Martinello RA, Cooney EL. 2003. Cerebellar brain abscess associated with tongue piercing. *Clin Infect Dis* 36:e32–e34. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/345755>.
  288. Wüst J, Stubbs S, Weiss N, Funke G, Collins MD. 1995. Assignment of *Actinomyces pyogenes*-like (CDC coryneform group E) bacteria to the genus *Actinomyces* as *Actinomyces radingae* sp. nov. and *Actinomyces turicensis* sp. nov. *Lett Appl Microbiol* 20:76–81. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1472-765X.1995.tb01290.x>.
  289. Santala A-M, Sarkonen N, Hall V, Carlson P, Jousimies-Somer H, Könönen E. 2004. Evaluation of four commercial test systems for identification of *Actinomyces* and some closely related species. *J Clin Microbiol* 42:418–420. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JCM.42.1.418-420.2004>.
  290. Kolbert CP, Persing DH. 1999. Ribosomal DNA sequencing as a tool for identification of bacterial pathogens. *Curr Opin Microbiol* 2:299–305. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1369-5274\(99\)80052-6](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1369-5274(99)80052-6).
  291. Lane DJ. 1991. 16S/23S rRNA sequencing, p 115–175. In Stackebrandt E, Goodfellow M (ed), *Nucleic acid techniques in bacterial systematics*. John Wiley & Sons, Chichester, United Kingdom.
  292. Cole JR, Wang Q, Fish JA, Chai B, McGarrell DM, Sun Y, Brown CT, Porras-Alfaro A, Kuske CR, Tiedje JM. 2014. Ribosomal Database Project: data and tools for high throughput rRNA analysis. *Nucleic Acids Res* 42:D633–D642. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkt1244>.
  293. Corander J, Connor TR, O'Dwyer CA, Kroll JS, Hanage WP. 2012. Population structure in the *Neisseria*, and the biological significance of fuzzy species. *J R Soc Interface* 9:1208–1215. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1098/rsif.2011.0601>.
  294. Seng P, Drancourt M, Gouriet F, La Scola B, Fournier PE, Rolain JM, Raoult D. 2009. Ongoing revolution in bacteriology: routine identification of bacteria by matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry. *Clin Infect Dis* 49:543–551. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/600885>.
  295. De Vreese K, Verhaegen J. 2013. Identification of coryneform *Actinomyces neuii* by MALDI-TOF MS: 5 case reports and review of literature. *Acta Clin Belg* 68:210–214. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2143/ACB.3224>.
  296. Schuetz AN. 2014. Antimicrobial resistance and susceptibility testing of anaerobic bacteria. *Clin Infect Dis* 59:698–705. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciu395>.
  297. Marchand-Austin A, Rawte P, Toye B, Jamieson FB, Farrell DJ, Patel SN. 2014. Antimicrobial susceptibility of clinical isolates of anaerobic

- bacteria in Ontario, 2010–2011. *Anaerobe* 28:120–125. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.anaerobe.2014.05.015>.
298. Smith AJ, Hall V, Thakker B, Gemmell CG. 2005. Antimicrobial susceptibility testing of *Actinomyces* species with 12 antimicrobial agents. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 56:407–409. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/jac/dki206>.
299. Goldstein EJ, Citron DM, Merriam CV, Warren YA, Tyrrell KL, Fernandez HT. 2006. Comparative *in vitro* susceptibilities of 396 unusual anaerobic strains to tigecycline and eight other antimicrobial agents. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 50:3507–3513. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00499-06>.
300. Goldstein EJC, Citron DM, Merriam CV, Warren YA, Tyrrell KL, Fernandez HT, Bryskier A. 2005. Comparative *in vitro* activities of XRP 2868, pristinamycin, quinupristin-dalfopristin, vancomycin, daptomycin, linezolid, clarithromycin, telithromycin, clindamycin, and ampicillin against anaerobic gram-positive species, actinomycetes, and lactobacilli. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 49:408–413. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AAC.49.1.408-413.2005>.
301. Tyrrell KL, Citron DM, Warren YA, Goldstein EJC. 2012. *In vitro* activity of TD-1792, a multivalent glycopeptide-cephalosporin antibiotic, against 377 strains of anaerobic bacteria and 34 strains of *Corynebacterium* species. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 56:2194–2197. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AAC.06274-11>.

**Eija Könönen**, D.D.S., Ph.D., has been Professor and Chair of Periodontology at the University of Turku, Turku, Finland, since 2007. She completed her undergraduate and specialist (periodontology) education and received her Ph.D. (oral microbiology) at the University of Helsinki, where she is an Adjunct Professor of Oral Microbiology. Before her current position within Periodontology, she worked with anaerobic bacteria at the National Public Health Institute (now the National Institute for Health and Welfare), Helsinki, Finland, for nearly 20 years, first as a Ph.D. student and then as a postdoctoral student, Senior investigator, and Head of the Anaerobe Reference Laboratory. She is still active within anaerobic bacteriology, for instance, in writing book chapters for international manuals/textbooks (e.g., *Manual of Clinical Microbiology* and *Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases*). She has over 100 scientific articles in international peer-review journals; most publications deal with anaerobic bacteria.



**William G. Wade**, Ph.D., is Professor of Oral Microbiology at Barts and The London School of Medicine and Dentistry, Queen Mary University of London, and an Honorary Senior Research Investigator at the Forsyth Institute, Cambridge, MA. He qualified in Microbiology in 1978 at the University of East Anglia. He pursued a Ph.D. in Oral Microbiology at Cardiff Dental School and was appointed to a Lectureship there in 1987. He then moved in 1993 to the University of Bristol to take up a Senior Lectureship in Oral Microbiology, and in 1996, he was appointed Professor of Oral Microbiology at King's College London. His current interests include the molecular characterization of the oral microbiome in health and disease, the cultivation of “noncultivable” bacteria, and the development and evaluation of antimicrobials and probiotics for the prevention and treatment of oral diseases.

