

KUCERS' THE USE OF ANTIBIOTICS

A CLINICAL REVIEW OF ANTIBACTERIAL, ANTIFUNGAL, ANTIPARASITIC AND ANTIVIRAL DRUGS

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63 Josamycin and Rosaramicin

Françoise Van Bambeke

I. DESCRIPTION

Josamycin and rosaramicin (rosamicin, rosamycin), together with spiramycin (see Chapter 182, Spiramycin), share the property of being constructed on a 16-atom macrocycle instead of a 14-atom macrocycle as most macrolides, or a 15-atom macrocycle as in azithromycin. Within this class, a series of molecules have been assessed clinically, with often only limited success. These include natural products, including spiramycin (isolated from *Streptomyces ambofaciens* (Kellow *et al.*, 1955)), josamycin (isolated from *S. narbonensis* var. *josamyceticus* (Nitta *et al.*, 1967)), rosaramicin, formerly called rosamicin (isolated from *Micromonospora rosaria* (Wagman *et al.*, 1972; Waitz *et al.*, 1972)),

midecamycin (Kanazawa and Kuramata, 1976), and semisynthetic compounds such as miocamycin, derived from midecamycin (Omoto *et al.*, 1976; Kawaharajo *et al.*, 1981), and rokitamycin, derived from leucomycin A5 (Sakakibara *et al.*, 1981).

This chapter is limited to the description of josamycin (CAS number 16846-24-5; molecular formula $C_{42}H_{69}NO_{15}$; molecular weight 828.00), and rosaramicin (CAS number 35834-26-5; molecular formula $C_{31}H_{51}NO_9$; molecular weight 581.74). The chemical structures of these two agents are shown in Figure 63.1. Their spectrum of activity is similar to that of other macrolides.

2. ANTIMICROBIAL ACTIVITY

2a. Routine susceptibility

Macrolides are bacteriostatic antibiotics, characterized by a moderately broad spectrum of activity, which includes most Gram-positive but only selected Gram-negative organisms, as well as several bacteria responsible for intracellular infection, such as *Mycobacterium* spp., *Chlamydia* spp., *Chlamydophyla* spp., and or *Legionella* spp. Their activity is markedly reduced in acidic environments. Table 63.1 summarizes the susceptibilities observed for the most relevant target organisms.

Gram-positive bacteria

These drugs are active against bacteria such as *Staphylococcus aureus* (including beta-lactamase-producing strains), coagulase-negative staphylococci, *S. pyogenes*, *S. pneumoniae*, and most strains of *Enterococcus faecalis*. Josamycin is reported to be as active as or less active than erythromycin against *S. aureus* (Shadomy *et al.*, 1976; Strausbaugh *et al.*, 1976b; Westerman *et al.*, 1976). Rosaramicin is more potent than josamycin against *S. aureus* (Shadomy *et al.*, 1976),

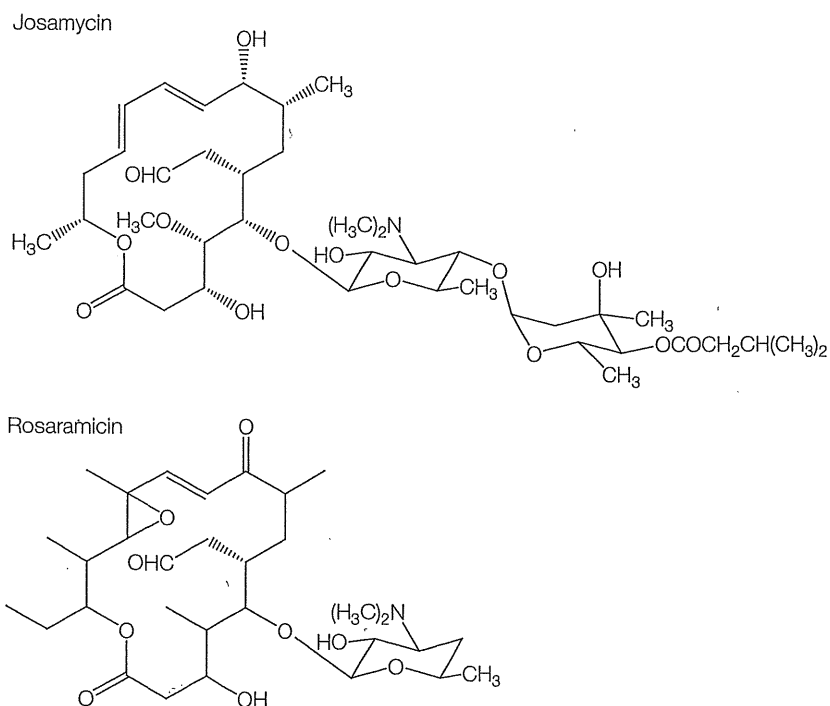


Figure 63.1 Chemical structure of josamycin and rosaramicin. Chemical stability in acid medium is due to absence of a keto group in position 9.

Table 63.1 *In vitro* activity ($\mu\text{g/ml}$) of josamycin against target bacteria.

Bacteria	Clinical isolates				Resistance issues	References
	Country (year(s))	range	MIC ₅₀	MIC ₉₀		
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	< 1997 (Munich Germany)	< 0.06–> 512	I	> 512	HA-MRSA frequently multiresistant High prevalence in many countries; often multiresistant strains	Schmalreck <i>et al.</i> , 1997
<i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i>	2002–2003	0.06–> 256	≤ 0.06	128		Mazzariol <i>et al.</i> , 2007
<i>Streptococcus pyogenes</i>	2000–2001 (Hungary) 2002–2003	0.12–256 ≤ 0.06 –> 256	0.25 ≤ 0.06	0.5 > 256		Gattringer <i>et al.</i> , 2004 Mazzariol <i>et al.</i> , 2007
<i>Haemophilus influenzae</i>	< 1997 (Munich Germany)	< 0.06–> 64	I	> 64		Schmalreck <i>et al.</i> , 1997
<i>Neisseria gonorrhoeae</i>	1978 (Belgium)	0.024–25	0.78	6.25		Gordts <i>et al.</i> , 1982

but less active than erythromycin against group A streptococci and *E. faecalis* (Saroglou and Bisno, 1978; Tofte *et al.*, 1984). *Corynebacterium diphtheriae* and *Bacillus anthracis* are susceptible to rosaramicin.

Of the Gram-positive anaerobes, *Peptococcus*, *Peptostreptococcus*, *Propionibacterium*, and *Eubacterium* spp. are susceptible to josamycin, but *Clostridium* spp. strains may be resistant (Long *et al.*, 1976). Rosaramicin is also active against anaerobes (Sutter and Finegold, 1976). It is much more active than erythromycin against *Peptococcus* spp., but has the same activity against the others, such as *Peptostreptococcus*, *Eubacterium*, *Propionibacterium*, *Actinomyces*, and *Lactobacillus* spp. *Clostridium tetani* and *C. perfringens* are susceptible to spiramycin and rosaramicin.

Gram-negative bacteria

Neisseria meningitidis is generally susceptible to these antibiotics, whereas resistance is reported in *N. gonorrhoeae*. Rosaramicin is more active than penicillin G, erythromycin, and tetracycline against *N. gonorrhoeae*; this activity also encompasses beta-lactamase-producing strains (Sanders and Sanders, 1977).

Bordetella pertussis is susceptible to josamycin. The *in vitro* activity of rosaramicin against *Haemophilus influenzae* is greater than that of chloramphenicol, ampicillin, or erythromycin (Sanders and Sanders, 1977). Rosaramicin is also active on *Haemophilus ducreyi*, with MICs as low as 0.06 mg/l (Feltham *et al.*, 1979). *Campylobacter* spp. are readily inhibited, but some variation in sensitivity between subspecies occurs, which may assist laboratory differentiation (Ahonkhai *et al.*, 1981). For instance, *C. jejuni* was somewhat more susceptible than *C. coli* to both spiramycin and josamycin (Elharrif *et al.*, 1985). *Legionella* spp. were very susceptible to rosaramicin: the mean MIC of 33 strains was only one-fifth of the corresponding MIC of erythromycin (Edelstein *et al.*, 1982). Josamycin has therapeutic efficacy in experimental *Legionella pneumophila* pneumonia in guinea-pigs (Saito *et al.*, 1985).

Josamycin is active against *Bacteroides fragilis* (Strausbaugh *et al.*, 1976a), but *Fusobacterium* spp. often show MICs > 2 mg/l (Long *et al.*, 1976). Rosaramicin is generally more active than erythromycin against Gram-negative anaerobes such as the *Fusobacterium* and *Bacteroides* spp., with *B. fragilis* MICs < 4 mg/l (Sutter and Finegold, 1976).

Other bacteria

Mycoplasmas and *Ureaplasma urealyticum* are susceptible to both josamycin and rosaramicin (Robertson *et al.*, 1981; Chabbert, 1988). In a Greek study involving 369 women with clinical vaginitis, 79% of *U. urealyticum* stains were susceptible (Kechagia *et al.*, 2008). In a Turkish study involving 382 women with abnormal vaginal discharge, susceptibility to josamycin was 94.1% for *M. hominis* and 98.4% for *U. urealyticum* (Karabay *et al.*, 2006). *Chlamydia trachomatis* is susceptible to rosaramicin but *Chlamydia psittaci* is not (Orfila *et al.*, 1988). *Rickettsia rickettsii* and *R. conorii* are also susceptible to josamycin (Raoult *et al.*, 1988).

2b. Emerging resistance and cross-resistance

Resistance to macrolides has become a major issue for most of the bacteria originally described as susceptible, including *Staphylococcus* spp., *Streptococcus* spp., *Bacteroides* spp., *Enterococcus* spp., *Clostridium* spp., *Bacillus* spp., *Lactobacillus* spp., *M. pneumoniae*, *Campylobacter* spp., *Corynebacterium diphtheriae*, and *Propionibacterium*, as well as many members of the Enterobacteriaceae (Leclercq and Courvalin, 1991). The main mechanisms of resistance are similar to those described for erythromycin and include target modification and antibiotic inactivation (see Chapter 59, Erythromycin). Of interest, however, 16-atom macrolides remain active against streptococci harboring the M phenotype (resistance by efflux) (Mazzariol *et al.*, 2007) and testing these agents separately is therefore necessary in these bacteria. Interestingly, 16-membered ring macrolides seem to be more effective inducers than 14-membered ring macrolides in enterococci (Min *et al.*, 2003). *Enterococcus faecium* strains with reduced susceptibility to quinopristin-dalfopristin all showed high-level resistance to josamycin (López *et al.*, 2008).

Resistance of *C. psittaci* is described, but carries a prohibitive physiological cost (Binet and Maurelli, 2007). In Russia, point mutations responsible for josamycin resistance were found in 48% of *M. hominis* strains isolated from patients with bacterial vaginosis (Karamova *et al.*, 2004).

3. MECHANISM OF DRUG ACTION

The mechanism of action is similar to erythromycin and other macrolides (see Chapter 59, Erythromycin).

4. MODE OF DRUG ADMINISTRATION AND DOSAGE

4a. Adults

The usual dosage of josamycin is 2–3 g orally per day, given in two to four divided doses; this may be increased to 4 g daily in severe infections (Wenzel *et al.*, 1976). Rosaramicin has been administered in a dosage of 250 mg orally four times daily (Brunham *et al.*, 1982). Their bioavailability is not affected by food intake.

4b. Newborn infants and children

Dosage is 30–75 mg/kg/day orally for josamycin, given in two to four divided doses. Josamycin propionate is a tasteless derivative used as a suspension in pediatrics.

4c. Altered dosages

Impaired hepatic function

Because of extensive hepatic metabolism, dosage adjustment is suggested for josamycin in patients with hepatic insufficiency (Periti *et al.*, 1989), but no specific guidelines have been provided.

The elderly

A significant increase in the elimination half-life of josamycin has been reported in elderly subjects, so that the administration of lower doses at longer intervals has been suggested (Periti *et al.*, 1989).

5. PHARMACOKINETICS AND PHARMACODYNAMICS

The main pharmacokinetic properties of 16-atom macrolides are summarized in Table 63.2.

5a. Bioavailability

A peak of 0.65 mg/l is reached 1 hour after the administration of 500 mg josamycin (Periti *et al.*, 1989), the absorption is nearly complete by the oral route (Strausbaugh *et al.*, 1976a; Privitera *et al.*, 1984). The absorption of josamycin base is delayed by food.

Peak serum levels of 0.3–0.5 mg/l were obtained 1.5–2 hours after oral administration of 0.5 g of rosaramicin. Oral bioavailability was 32–39% (Lin *et al.*, 1984).

5b. Drug distribution

Josamycin penetrates well into saliva, sweat, and tears (Strausbaugh *et al.*, 1976a). The drug is concentrated up to 20-fold in phagocytic cells compared with serum (Labro and Babin-Chevaye, 1989).

Rosaramicin is concentrated in human prostatic tissue and, therefore, it has been suggested that it may be useful for the treatment of bacterial prostatitis (Baumueller *et al.*, 1977). After a single 250-mg dose was given to ten lactating mothers, only 0.0025% of the dose was recoverable from breast milk over the first 10 hours. Drug-induced toxicity in an infant via breast milk is, therefore, unlikely (Stoehr *et al.*, 1985).

5c. Clinically important pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic features

Cure rates for macrolides mainly depend on the AUC/MIC ratio (Andes *et al.*, 2004), based on their time-dependent effect coupled

with a postantibiotic effect, both in *in vitro* and in animal models (Rolin and Bouanchaud, 1989; Novelli *et al.*, 2002). No specific studies using pharmacodynamic models have examined these molecules in details.

5d. Excretion

Josamycin is metabolized in the liver and excreted in the bile in an inactive form. Less than 20% of the drug is excreted in the urine in the active form. Rosaramicin is also eliminated in the bile (87% of the dose), as both active and metabolized drug. Unchanged rosaramicin accounts for only 7–9% of the drug excreted in urine (Lin *et al.*, 1984).

5e. Drug interactions

Drug interactions with macrolides can be a significant problem, and seriously limits their use in some at-risk patients. The main mechanism involved in these interactions is the ability of macrolides to bind to cytochrome P450 (group 3A4), thereby impairing the subsequent metabolism of other substrates of the same cytochrome (Periti *et al.*, 1992). The elimination of these co-administered drugs is therefore reduced, causing a potential risk of toxicity (Periti *et al.*, 1992; von Rosensteil and Adam, 1995). Spiramycin and josamycin have not been implicated as causing significant drug interactions by interfering with other drug hepatic metabolism (Pessayre, 1983; Descotes *et al.*, 1985; Ludden, 1985). Their use is, however, contraindicated when interaction with other drugs may have a life-threatening risk (see Table 63.3). A case of digoxin intoxication has been described due to co-administration of josamycin (Cambonie *et al.*, 2006).

Table 63.2 Pharmacokinetic parameters of josamycin and rosaramicin.

Pharmacokinetic parameter	Josamycin (0.5 g p.o.)	Rosaramicin (0.5 g p.o.)
C_{max} (mg/l)	0.65	0.5
T_{max} (h)	1	1.8
$t_{1/2}$ (h)	2	0.6
Bioavailability (%)	> 90	39
Protein binding (%)	15	NA
AUC _{0–24h} (mg · h/l)	8.5	NA

NA: data not available.

From Lin *et al.* (1984), Frydman *et al.* (1988), Periti *et al.* (1989), and Carbon and Rubinstein (1999).

Table 63.3 Drug interactions with the 16-atom macrolides, josamycin and rosaramicin.

Macrolide	Totally contraindicated drugs	Drugs to use with caution (requiring dose reduction and/or therapeutic monitoring)
Josamycin	Astemizole Cisapride Ergotamine Terfenadine	Benzodiazepines Bromocriptine Carbamazepine Cyclosporin Theophylline

From Periti *et al.* (1992), Amsden (1995), and Zhanel *et al.* (2001).

6. TOXICITY

Hepatic transaminase elevation may occur with josamycin therapy (Fraschini, 1990; Straneo and Scarpazza, 1990), and was reported with rosaramicin in a small series of patients (Robson *et al.*, 1983). With josamycin, skin rashes have been reported (Privitera *et al.*, 1984).

7. CLINICAL USES OF THE DRUG

Neither josamycin nor rosaramicin are not commonly used and in many regions their availability is limited. Nevertheless, they have some limited clinical utility for the following clinical conditions.

7a. Respiratory tract infections

Macrolides were long considered as an alternative to beta-lactams for the treatment of respiratory tract infections, but increasing rates of resistance among common respiratory pathogens have reduced their utility in many regions (Brunton and Iannini, 2005; Lode, 2007). The published experience with josamycin and rosaramicin is limited.

Josamycin 500 mg three times a day was less effective than brodimoprim in the treatment of otitis media (de Campora *et al.*, 1993). In a study comparing 5 days' treatment of josamycin with penicillin G for 10 days for the treatment of acute group A beta-hemolytic streptococcal tonsillitis, the two regimens resulted in equal clinical outcome (Portier *et al.*, 2001).

Josamycin has reportedly proved effective for the treatment of respiratory tract infections occurring in pediatric practice (Privitera *et al.*, 1984).

Josamycin has been reported as being as effective as clarithromycin for the treatment of bacterial pneumonia and acute exacerbations of chronic bronchitis (Fraschini, 1990; Straneo and Scarpazza, 1990), and a 5-day treatment with josamycin was satisfactory for nonsevere community-acquired pneumonia (Mensa *et al.*, 1993). In one controlled study, josamycin and erythromycin, both given in an oral dose of 2.0 g daily in four divided doses, were equally effective in adults with mycoplasma pneumonia (Wenzel *et al.*, 1976). However,

Although not reported extensively, side-effects similar to other macrolides do occur (see Chapter 59, Erythromycin, and Chapter 62, Azithromycin).

josamycin was less efficient than ciprofloxacin in the treatment of recurrent exacerbated bronchitis (Canton *et al.*, 1989).

7b. Sexually transmitted diseases

Rosaramicin (1 g daily for 7 days) was as effective as erythromycin stearate (2 g daily for 7 days) or as tetracycline (2 g daily for 7 days) in women with *C. trachomatis* cervicitis (Brunham *et al.*, 1982; Robson *et al.*, 1983). Nongonococcal urethritis in men was treated in two controlled trials with either rosaramicin or tetracycline, each given in a dosage of 1 g per day for 7 days, with equivalent success (Juvakoski *et al.*, 1981; Darne *et al.*, 1982). A comparative study of erythromycin base 500 mg and rosaramicin 250 mg, each four times daily for 10 days, in the treatment of genital ulcers due to *Haemophilus ducreyi* in Kenyan men resulted in similar healing times (5 days to 2 weeks), with no treatment failures in either group (Plummer *et al.*, 1983).

7c. Other uses

A 5-day josamycin regimen was as effective as 1-day doxycycline treatment for Mediterranean spotted fever, the tick-borne rickettsiosis caused by *Rickettsia conorii* (Bella *et al.*, 1990). Josamycin has also been investigated as a component of quadruple therapy for *H. pylori* with good success rates (Liu *et al.*, 2000). Josamycin and erythromycin were equally effective in reducing the carrier rates of *S. aureus* (Wilson *et al.*, 1977).

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