



Current status on *M. pneumoniae*: Clinical Features and Management Strategies

Asit Kumar¹, Bragadeeshwaran N², Janhavi. M. S³, Shamina S⁴, Lavanya Subbaroyan Vijayakumar⁵, Suria prabha⁶ and Muthu Prasanna P^{*7*}

¹Department of Environmental Science, Rajdhani College (University of Delhi), Raja Garden, New Delhi- 110015.

²Department of Paediatrics, Velammal Medical College and research institute, Madurai-625009.

³Department of Pathology, Sree Balaji Medical College and Hospital, Chennai.

⁴Department of Biochemistry, RVS College of Arts and Science, Sulur Coimbatore-641402.

⁵ACS Medical college and hospital, Dr.M.G.R. Educational and Research Institute, Maduravoyal, Chennai.

⁶Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences Chettinad School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Chettinad Hospital and Research Institute, Chettinad Academy of Research and Education, Kelambakkam – 603103, Tamil Nadu, India.

^{7*}Department of Pharmaceutical, Biotechnology, Surya college of Pharmacy, India.

Abstract

Background: The COVID-19 pandemic has significantly impacted *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* (MP), leading to a decline in prevalence and delayed resurgence. The rise of macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae* complicates treatment, necessitating alternative antibiotics.

Aim: This review examines the impact of COVID-19 on *M. pneumoniae* (MP) epidemiology, rising macrolide resistance, and evolving treatment challenges. It highlights advanced diagnostics, alternative antibiotics, and future research needs for predictive biomarkers and novel therapies. Continuous surveillance and adaptive strategies are crucial for optimizing MP infection management in a post-pandemic world.

Methods: A comprehensive review of recent literature was conducted, focusing on epidemiological trends, antimicrobial resistance patterns, diagnostic innovations, and treatment strategies for MP infections. Data were extracted from peer-reviewed journals, clinical studies, and global health reports to provide an updated perspective on the evolving landscape of MP infections.

Results: *M. pneumoniae* infections, which declined during COVID-19 due to non-pharmaceutical interventions, have resurged post-pandemic due to macrolide-resistant infections. Rapid molecular diagnostic tools and predictive biomarkers are needed to improve treatment outcomes and optimize infection management in pediatric patients.

Conclusion: Managing MP infections in a post-pandemic world requires continuous surveillance, advanced diagnostics, and adaptive treatment strategies. The increasing prevalence of MRMP underscores the need for alternative therapeutic options and robust antimicrobial stewardship. Future research should focus on predictive factors for treatment response, novel drug development, and the long-term impact of epidemiological shifts on respiratory infections.

Corresponding Author:

Dr. Muthu Prasanna P

Department of Pharmaceutical, Biotechnology, Surya college of Pharmacy, India.

muthuprasanna929@gmail.com | [Orcid id-0000-0001-5907-6649](https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5907-6649)

DOI: 10.61386/imj.v18i2.684

Key words: Clinical features, Diagnostic advances, *M. pneumonia*, Management strategies and treatment protocols

1. Introduction

One of the main bacteria linked to community-acquired pneumonia is *Mycoplasma pneumonia*,

particularly in children and adolescents globally¹. The transmission of *M. pneumoniae* is facilitated in overcrowding, inadequate ventilation, or close personal contact with the infected person, as it spreads through respiratory droplets or direct interaction. The infectious phase begins during the incubation period, lasting from one to three weeks, and continues for several weeks after the symptoms manifest. *M. pneumoniae* infections can occur throughout the year, with seasonal variations depending on the region within China². Elevated temperatures can prolong the survival of *M. pneumoniae* in the environment, potentially increasing the risk of transmission. The bacterium is optimally cultured at temperatures between 35 and 37 degrees Celsius. Particularly in northern China, infections are most common during autumn and winter, while in southern China, they peak during the summer and fall months. *M. pneumoniae* can cause serious complications, including bronchitis, pneumonia, and other severe extrapulmonary conditions, in addition to upper respiratory tract infections. The COVID-19 pandemic resulted in a marked reduction in cases of *M. pneumoniae*-induced community-acquired pneumonia among children and adolescents³, likely due to the enforcement of strict public health measures. Despite this, *M. pneumoniae* continued to be a prevalent co-infection in children diagnosed with SARS-CoV-2⁴.

2. COVID-19's Effect on *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* Infection Patterns

The COVID-19 pandemic has had a significant impact on *M. pneumoniae* infections, particularly when viewed in the context of the changes that occurred after the pandemic. As restrictions related to COVID-19 were lifted, there was an appreciable increase in cases of *M. pneumoniae*, closely associated with the resumption of social interactions and the increased likelihood of respiratory disease transmission⁵. Alterations in healthcare-seeking behavior contributed to this resurgence. During the pandemic, many individuals with respiratory symptoms hesitated to seek medical care due to concerns about contracting or spreading the virus, resulting in a decline in diagnoses of *M. pneumoniae* and other respiratory infections. However, once restrictions were relaxed, a significant rise in cases

was observed, particularly among children, who now show a higher rate of *M. pneumoniae* infections compared to adults⁶. This scenario emphasizes the importance of increased awareness and careful diagnosis of *M. pneumoniae* in patients presenting with respiratory symptoms in the post-COVID-19 era. Non-pharmaceutical interventions (NPIs) played a crucial role in reducing *M. pneumoniae* infections during the pandemic. However, the situation has drastically changed due to the pandemic's overall effect. Before COVID-19, *M. pneumoniae* was known to cause recurrent outbreaks, with an average incidence rate of around 8.61%⁷. The introduction of NPIs in March 2020 led to a dramatic decline in *M. pneumoniae* cases, with the incidence falling to 1.69% in the first year (2020-21)⁸. Interestingly, the resurgence of *M. pneumoniae* was delayed, particularly in Europe and Asia, where it became apparent several years after the initial restrictions were lifted⁹. This delayed resurgence differs from the typical pattern seen in other respiratory infections, which tend to rebound more quickly. The epidemiological trend indicates that the resurgence of *M. pneumoniae* occurred significantly after the lifting of preventive measures. For instance, in 2021 and 2022, notifications for *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* and *Bordetella pertussis* increased, highlighting this pattern. Recent data showed that the incidence of *M. pneumoniae* rose to 4.12% over a six-month period from April to September 2023¹⁰. Countries such as Denmark, Sweden, and Singapore have reported notable detection rates. This resurgence has sparked concerns about whether it could lead to an epidemic or result in more severe symptoms of the disease. Given that the pandemic initially reduced exposure to this pathogen, this development is particularly alarming. The COVID-19 pandemic has significantly influenced the epidemiology of *M. pneumoniae* infections, leading to an unusual and delayed resurgence. This shift highlights the need for ongoing research and surveillance to understand the long-term effects on public health and clinical practices related to *M. pneumoniae* infections. In treating cases resistant to macrolides, alternative therapies such as doxycycline or fluoroquinolones may offer faster symptom resolution compared to standard macrolide treatment¹¹. As the landscape of respiratory infections continues to evolve in the

post-pandemic world, it is essential to update management strategies to address antibiotic resistance. The pandemic has influenced the urgent need for these updated strategies in managing *M. pneumoniae* infections.

3. Epidemic Trends of *M. pneumoniae*

M. pneumoniae presents unique challenges in both clinical management and public health, especially during outbreaks. These issues become more significant in the context of widespread infection. Research indicates that this bacterium is responsible for respiratory infections that can lead to outbreaks, although such outbreaks are usually mild and occur infrequently, mostly every three to five years^{12,13}. Recent studies have observed an increase in cases in Europe and Asia, suggesting a possible epidemic of *M. pneumoniae* infections this winter¹⁴. This is reflected in the rising number of cases in these regions. A key symptom of *M. pneumoniae* infection is a persistent dry cough, which can severely impact the patient's quality of life due to its chronic nature¹⁵. The incubation period for *M. pneumoniae* may range from one to four weeks. If outbreaks are not identified promptly, they can extend and become challenging to manage. Therefore, early detection is crucial for effective management, which includes proper antibiotic use and ensuring sufficient diagnostic resources. It is important for healthcare providers to recognize that *M. pneumoniae* does not respond to penicillins, making it essential to be knowledgeable about appropriate antibiotic treatments during outbreaks, especially in community settings where ineffective management could lead to increased morbidity. When suitable samples are available, molecular diagnostic methods are preferred for accurate and swift diagnosis. If molecular testing is not possible or results are inconclusive, serological tests for *M. pneumoniae* antibodies can be used as an alternative diagnostic approach¹⁶. Individuals are likely to encounter multiple infections throughout their lives, with many starting in childhood and persisting into later stages. The recurring nature of *M. pneumoniae* outbreaks and the absence of lifelong immunity highlight the need for ongoing public health strategies and surveillance to monitor and manage outbreaks effectively¹⁷. A comprehensive strategy for managing *M. pneumoniae* outbreaks is essential

to provide timely and effective treatment. This strategy should include early detection, careful antibiotic management, and robust laboratory support.

4. Shifts in Pediatric Infection Rates

Outbreaks of *M. pneumoniae* generally last between one and two years and occur globally at intervals of three to seven years¹⁸. Reports indicate high infection rates in multiple locations across China, with a noticeable increase in September, which correlates with the start of the academic year on September 1st. In the current pandemic context, real-time PCR testing has demonstrated a detection rate of up to 25.4% for *M. pneumoniae* in outpatient settings. This rate can reach 61.1% for patients with respiratory symptoms and 48.4% for those hospitalized, based on data from Beijing. Diagnoses of *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia (MPP) are found in over fifty percent of respiratory cases in hospitals, reflecting a growing concern due to rising diagnoses among younger children and adolescents¹⁹. The understanding of the *M. pneumoniae* outbreak remains incomplete. Over the last thirty years, genotyping techniques such as multiple-locus variable number tandem-repeat analysis (MLVA) and P1 typing have been commonly employed. P1 typing focuses on variations within the P1 gene to differentiate strains, including the use of MPN140 to MPN142. This method identifies two main subtypes, type 1 and type 2. In contrast, MLVA, which was introduced in 2009, has become a more precise method for identifying strain variations by analyzing changes in tandem repeat copy numbers²⁰. This shift, observed between 2006 and 2019, indicates a periodic change in strain distribution. In Japan, the P1 type 1 genotype, dominant in 2011 and 2012²¹, was responsible for over eighty percent of infections. However, type 2 strains increased in prevalence during 2015-2016 and continued to lead after 2017. There was a decline in M4-5-7-2 strains from 85% to 71% over the past five years, while M3-5-6-2 strains rose from 12% to 25%²². The connection between these genotypic shifts and the current *M. pneumoniae* outbreak in China remains unclear.

5. Clinical Features of Recent Epidemics

The disease in question exhibits several key clinical

features, including early onset, progressive hypoxemia, localized lung damage, increased systemic inflammation, and an increased risk of co-infections. These attributes are detailed as the condition advances. Throughout the ongoing outbreak in China, *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia (MPP) has been frequently documented among children aged five and older, with an upward trend in cases over time²³. This outbreak has also revealed a shift towards younger children, particularly those under three years old, in contrast to previous outbreaks²⁴. The infection primarily manifests with fever and cough, with *M. pneumoniae* being the causative pathogen. Initially, MPP is characterized by a dry, persistent cough. As the illness progresses, the cough may become productive, with phlegm that can range from clear to yellow, and occasionally contain blood. The disease typically lasts at least two weeks, and symptoms may resemble those of pertussis or other respiratory infections. Over time, the cough may intensify, and there is a potential for progression to pneumonia, especially if a high fever persists for two to three days. Diagnosis is often confirmed through chest X-rays or CT scans, which may reveal lobar pneumonia or "white lung" abnormalities²⁵. Complications associated with MPP can include pneumothorax, necrotizing pneumonia, atelectasis, and pleural effusion²⁶. The condition is marked by a broad spectrum of symptoms, extended duration, and significant severity. The presence of additional bacterial infections (e.g., *Streptococcus pneumoniae*) or viral infections (e.g., adenoviruses) can further aggravate the illness²⁷.

6. Immunocompromised Patients

Pneumonia, a frequently occurring respiratory condition, can be caused by the bacterium *M. pneumoniae*, which is known for its role in respiratory infections²⁸. These patients are more susceptible to atypical pneumonia due to *M. pneumoniae*, which presents differently compared to cases in individuals with normal immune function. Standard diagnostic approaches, like blood cultures and bronchoscopy, may have limited effectiveness in this patient group, highlighting the need for more sensitive diagnostic tools. Non-invasive methods, such as plasma microbial cell-free DNA (mcfDNA) sequencing, have shown

promise in improving diagnostic accuracy²⁹. Studies suggest that mcfDNA sequencing can enhance the detection of *M. pneumoniae*, especially in instances where traditional diagnostics fail. Clinical trials have revealed that plasma mcfDNA sequencing provides additional diagnostic insights for severely immunocompromised patients undergoing bronchoscopy, which standard methods might overlook. This advancement has significantly improved the management of pneumonia in this sensitive population. For treating immunocompromised patients with *M. pneumoniae* infections, macrolide antibiotics like azithromycin or clarithromycin are commonly used³⁰. The choice of treatment is influenced by factors such as the patient's overall health, potential drug interactions, and any co-existing infections. Prompt diagnosis and treatment are crucial to prevent rapid deterioration and complications. Understanding the clinical features of *M. pneumoniae* infection and utilizing advanced diagnostic methods are vital for managing this condition in immunocompromised patients. Further research into the infection's epidemiology, causes, and treatment strategies is essential to enhance patient outcomes³¹.

7. Contribution to Chronic Respiratory Disorders

M. pneumoniae is widely acknowledged for its key role in causing acute respiratory infections, especially in younger populations such as children and adolescents. This recognition is global, with the United States serving as a prominent example. Emerging research suggests that *M. pneumoniae* might also significantly contribute to chronic respiratory diseases³². Studies are underway to investigate this possibility. These chronic conditions encompass various reactive disorders, including asthma and other airway-affecting diseases. Evidence indicates that *M. pneumoniae* can persist in the lower respiratory tract even after acute symptoms have resolved, potentially leading to long-term infections³³. This raises concerns about the prolonged effects of *M. pneumoniae* on respiratory health. Even after antibiotic treatment, *M. pneumoniae* can be detected in respiratory secretions for several months, suggesting a continued presence beyond the acute phase. This persistent presence raises questions about the long-

term impact of the bacteria on respiratory health. The immune response to *M. pneumoniae* is believed to play a significant role in the development of chronic respiratory issues³⁴. Children with elevated levels of antibodies against *M. pneumoniae* often show structural changes in their lungs, indicating a severe immune response³⁵. *M. pneumoniae*'s potential role in chronic asthma and other respiratory conditions is supported by findings of the pathogen in the airways of asthma patients, alongside increased pro-inflammatory cytokines³⁶. Animal studies have demonstrated that *M. pneumoniae* infections can lead to long-lasting inflammation and functional impairments in the lungs³⁷. Mice infected with *M. pneumoniae* have shown significant airway inflammation and obstruction, suggesting that persistent infections could lead to chronic airway hyperreactivity and contribute to asthma. Individuals with chronic respiratory diseases, such as chronic bronchitis and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), are particularly vulnerable to additional respiratory infections. *M. pneumoniae*, an atypical pathogen, may be involved in these infections, though its precise role is not fully established. Research suggests that *M. pneumoniae* may account for a small proportion of acute exacerbations in COPD³⁸. Studies indicate that roughly 80% of COPD exacerbations are due to infections, with atypical bacteria like *M. pneumoniae* contributing to 5-10% of cases³⁹. While *M. pneumoniae* has been identified in studies of chronic bronchitis and COPD, its role is not consistently confirmed. Some studies using culture or PCR methods have not always successfully detected *M. pneumoniae* infections. A study found *M. pneumoniae* in 16% of patients with acute COPD exacerbations, despite a lack of direct confirmation through culture or PCR⁴⁰. This highlights the need for further research to clarify the connection between serological evidence and actual infection and to explore potential co-infections with other pathogens such as *Pseudomonas* spp. This implies the importance of continued research. COPD patients experiencing increasing symptoms often display signs of *M. pneumoniae* infection, including shortness of breath, weight loss, cough, sputum production, and dyspnea. Diagnosing and treating *M. pneumoniae* infections can be challenging, as they may go undetected or be

inadequately treated. Macrolide antibiotics, effective against *M. pneumoniae*, are commonly prescribed for patients with chronic respiratory diseases suspected of having this infection. Clinical judgment is crucial when initiating treatment, considering the overall clinical picture and the possibility of atypical infections.

8. Microbiome's Contribution to *M. pneumoniae* Infections

Investigating the impact of the microbiome on *M. pneumoniae* infections reveals important details about the interactions between pathogens and the lung microbiome⁴¹. Patients suffering from common *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia (CMPP) show a higher concentration of *M. pneumoniae* (MP) and reduced alpha diversity in their lung microbiome compared to individuals without CMPP. This condition is marked by significant lower alpha diversity⁴². Furthermore, those with elevated MP levels are more likely to develop CMPP and experience extended recovery times. An imbalanced microbiota may contribute to more severe disease outcomes⁴³. Dysbiosis, characterized by an imbalance in microbial populations, can lead to prolonged inflammation and negative clinical results⁴⁴. The presence of MP in the airways may induce dysbiosis by altering the microbial landscape, highlighting the significance of understanding the microbiome effects on the pathophysiology of *M. pneumoniae* infections. There exists a strong link between the lung microbiome and the host's immune response⁴⁵. Specific gene expression patterns associated with neutrophil activity and inflammatory pathways have been observed in patients with CMPP⁴⁶. This suggests that the microbiome not only influences pathogen presence, but also interacts with the host's immune system, thereby affecting the severity of infections and overall clinical outcomes⁴⁷. Recognizing the role of the microbiome in these infections could lead to improved treatment approaches⁴⁸. Interventions designed to restore a healthy microbiome might help reduce infection severity and enhance patient outcomes. Such interventions could include the use of probiotics or other treatments that modify the microbiome. Understanding the microbiome's influence on *M. pneumoniae* infections and their clinical

implications could refine current treatment strategies and inform future therapeutic practices. Further research is needed to explore the relationship between changes in airway microorganisms and host immune responses. Prospective studies are crucial to unravel the interactions among the pathogen, lung microbiome, and host response in *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia. A deeper understanding of these dynamics may lead to more effective management strategies.

9. Diagnostic Advances and Challenges

Recent improvements in the diagnosis of *M. pneumoniae* infections have significantly advanced clinical management. Enhanced diagnostic methods now allow for the differentiation between macrolide-sensitive *M. pneumoniae* (MSMP) and macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae* (MRMP)⁴⁹. Advances such as the detection of specific point mutations in the 23S rRNA gene have facilitated the identification of MRMP strains, which are increasingly common and linked to more severe symptoms⁵⁰. Moreover, several laboratory markers, including C-reactive protein (CRP), interleukin-18 (IL-18), and toxins related to community-acquired respiratory distress syndrome (CARDS), have proven useful in distinguishing between refractory *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia (RMPP) and standard *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia (OMPP). Studies have found that individuals with RMPP typically experience a longer fever duration, higher CRP levels, and greater *M. pneumoniae* DNA quantities compared to those with OMPP, who generally have shorter infections.⁵¹ Despite these advancements, challenges persist in the effective and rapid detection of *M. pneumoniae* infections. Traditional culture techniques are often inadequate due to the fragile nature of Mycoplasma species, and serological tests may not always provide definitive results. The rising prevalence of MRMP complicates treatment choices, as conventional macrolide antibiotics may be ineffective, leading to prolonged illness and potential hospitalization⁵². It is crucial to integrate molecular diagnostic technologies, such as polymerase chain reaction (PCR), into clinical practice to ensure timely identification of *M. pneumoniae* and its resistant strains⁵³. However, the availability of these advanced diagnostic tools varies widely across

healthcare settings, posing a challenge for their broad application. Despite significant progress in diagnosing *M. pneumoniae* infections, ongoing efforts are needed to tackle issues related to resistance and improve access to advanced diagnostic methods.

10. Assessing the Reliability of Early Diagnosis

Signs of severe or critical illness from an *M. pneumoniae* infection can include persistent high fever lasting more than 72 hours after treatment begins, symptoms of both infection and toxicity, imaging results showing rapid disease progression with involvement of multiple lung lobes, significant increases in inflammatory markers (with earlier increases suggesting a more severe condition), difficulty in managing hypoxemia and dyspnea despite treatment, pre-existing conditions such as asthma or primary immunodeficiency, and delays in starting treatment with macrolide antibiotics⁵⁴. To prevent the development of severe pneumonia, it is essential to enhance early detection of MPP, especially MRMP infections. Although culturing *M. pneumoniae* is considered a diagnostic gold standard, it is not the most suitable method for rapid clinical diagnosis due to its specific culture conditions and slow growth rate. Therefore, detecting *M. pneumoniae* nucleic acids, along with MP-DNA or MP-RNA, is more effective for early MPP diagnosis due to its high sensitivity and specificity. Emerging diagnostic methods such as loop-mediated isothermal amplification, recombinase-aided amplification, and droplet digital PCR are promising alternatives for detecting *M. pneumoniae* in clinical samples. Immunoglobulin M (IgM) antibodies against *M. pneumoniae* usually appear about four to five days after infection. To perform a thorough analysis, it is important to combine antibody test results with clinical and imaging data, as IgM can be a useful marker for early infection.

11. Managing Treatment: Strategies and Approaches

M. pneumoniae (MP) is a major pathogen linked to a significant number of community-acquired pneumonia (CAP) cases among children⁵⁵. This is a serious issue because MP infections can lead to severe respiratory conditions, sometimes requiring

hospitalization and intensive treatment⁵⁶. The symptoms of MP infections vary widely, from mild upper respiratory issues to severe pneumonia, highlighting the importance of early and accurate diagnosis and prompt treatment. The increasing resistance of *M. pneumoniae* strains to macrolide antibiotics has complicated the management of MP pneumonia⁵⁷. Macrolides have long been the primary treatment choice, but their effectiveness is diminishing due to rising resistance⁵⁸. This has led to more sophisticated treatment approaches, which are tailored to the severity of the disease, the patient's age, and their response to initial treatments. In less severe cases, macrolides might still be effective. However, in regions with high resistance rates or in patients who do not respond to macrolide therapy, alternative antibiotics like fluoroquinolones or tetracyclines might be considered⁵⁹. It is important to note that these alternatives have limitations for use in children due to potential side effects. For more severe cases, especially those with complications such as necrotizing pneumonia or acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS), a combination of second-line antibiotics and corticosteroids might be necessary⁶⁰. Regular monitoring and adjustments to the treatment plan are crucial to achieving the best outcomes and minimizing potential complications.

12. Initial Therapeutic Approach

For treating pneumonia caused by *M. pneumoniae* (MP), the initial therapeutic strategy typically involves the use of macrolide antibiotics⁶¹. Azithromycin and roxithromycin are examples of these antibiotics that are known to be effective against *Mycoplasma* species⁶². The dosage of these

medications is carefully determined based on factors such as the patient's age, weight, and overall health condition. The treatment usually lasts between three to seven days, allowing for adjustments to both the dosage and duration to optimize therapeutic outcomes and minimize side effects. This approach is especially crucial for younger patients who may have varied responses to these antibiotics. In cases where MP pneumonia is more severe, intravenous methylprednisolone may be added to the treatment regimen⁶³. This is particularly beneficial for patients experiencing severe respiratory distress or prolonged symptoms, which can be exacerbated by an intense inflammatory reaction. Methylprednisolone, a type of corticosteroid, helps to manage the excessive immune response, reducing further damage to lung tissues and alleviating respiratory issues⁶⁴. It is generally used when antibiotics alone are insufficient or when severe complications, such as respiratory failure, are present. This medication is typically reserved for such severe situations and is not usually prescribed unless absolutely necessary.

13. Treatment Response Evaluation

In order to effectively treat *M. pneumoniae* (MP) pneumonia, it is essential to evaluate the patient responds to the initial treatment. Macrolides, such as azithromycin, are frequently chosen as the primary treatment due to their effectiveness against this infection⁶⁵. A clinical review should be carried out within three to five days after treatment begins to assess its effectiveness. During this period, it is crucial for healthcare providers to monitor symptoms like fever, cough, and respiratory distress closely. If there is no significant improvement, it could indicate that the MP strain is resistant to macrolides—a problem that is becoming more common⁶⁶. In such cases, it is important to quickly adjust the treatment plan. Alternative antibiotics should be considered, such as fluoroquinolones like ciprofloxacin or tetracyclines like doxycycline. These antibiotics have different mechanisms of action compared to macrolides, making them effective against resistant strains⁶⁷. Factors like patient's age, underlying health conditions, and possible side effects must be taken into account when selecting an alternative antibiotic. Switching to a different antibiotic is critical not only for

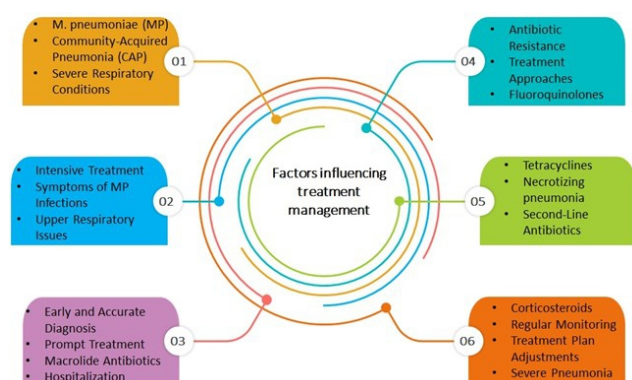


Fig 1: Factors influencing treatment management

treating the infection, but also for preventing complications related to treatment-resistant pneumonia. Although uncommon, refractory MP pneumonia can lead to serious issues such as chronic lung conditions, severe respiratory problems, and extended hospital stays⁶⁸. Therefore, timely reassessment and adjustment of the treatment strategy are necessary to manage MP pneumonia effectively.

14. Overcoming Refractory Cases

Even after a full week of therapy with suitable antibiotics, such as macrolides or fluoroquinolones, managing refractory *M. pneumoniae* (MP) pneumonia poses a significant challenge in clinical settings⁶⁹. This issue remains even with proper medication administration. A key feature of this pneumonia type is that its symptoms may not improve or may even worsen. Given this context, it's clear that a strategic approach beyond conventional treatments is essential. If the standard methods are ineffective, clinicians might need to consider integrating immunomodulatory drugs, like corticosteroids, into the treatment plan. This approach is based on the premise that refractory MP pneumonia may result from an exaggerated immune response rather than persistent bacterial infection alone⁷⁰. Research indicates that corticosteroids can facilitate recovery and reduce tissue damage by decreasing inflammation. In cases of severe illness, additional immunomodulatory therapies, such as intravenous immunoglobulin (IVIG) and targeted biologics, might be explored⁷¹. The choice to use these therapies should be guided by the severity of the patient's condition and clinical expertise.

15. Long-term Implications

Following the treatment of acute *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*, it is crucial to approach follow-up care with great caution. This careful approach is necessary to detect and manage any potential long-term effects. Bronchiolitis obliterans, a form of chronic obstructive lung disease, particularly affects children and stems from inflammation and scarring of the small airways⁷². If an infection is inadequately addressed, it can result in this severe condition, leading to significant respiratory issues and ongoing discomfort. It is vital to identify individuals who may be at risk for these

complications as part of continued therapy. Key risk factors include the severity of the initial illness, delays in receiving appropriate treatment, and pre-existing respiratory or immune system weaknesses⁷³. Early diagnosis of bronchiolitis obliterans can be achieved through preventive strategies and timely interventions, such as regular pulmonary function tests and imaging. This timely intervention helps to avoid irreversible damage to the lungs. Additionally, providing education to patients and their families about symptoms indicative of potential future problems is a critical component of ongoing care, ensuring that any emerging issues are addressed promptly.

16. Emerging Directions and Unexplored Research Areas

Current research is increasingly targeting two critical aspects: first, the identification of predictors that affect how patients respond to treatments for *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia (MP pneumonia), and second, the creation of more effective management strategies⁷⁴. These areas are gaining significant attention. This research includes examining various biomarkers, such as cytokines, to determine their potential in reflecting disease severity and treatment effectiveness⁷⁵. The goal is to help physicians gain a clearer understanding of the disease mechanisms, improve the ability to anticipate disease progression, and enhance treatment accuracy. The effective management of mild to moderate MP pneumonia, a multifaceted approach is essential, incorporating several important components. Accurate and early diagnosis is crucial before initiating the right antibiotic treatment. *M. pneumoniae*, a frequent cause of atypical pneumonia, often requires specific antibiotics tailored to the patient's age and clinical state. Examples of such antibiotics include fluoroquinolones, tetracyclines, and macrolides. During the therapeutic phase, ongoing monitoring is indispensable. This involves regularly assessing the patient's response to treatment, identifying any potential side effects or complications, and adjusting the treatment strategy as needed. Since MP pneumonia is a changing condition and our understanding of its pathophysiology is continually improving, it is necessary to regularly update treatment approaches based on the latest research

and clinical findings⁷⁶. Additional research into predictive indicators and biomarkers is crucial for optimizing treatment outcomes for MP pneumonia. Developing a flexible and comprehensive management plan will be key to enhancing treatment protocols, improving patient care, and increasing the overall effectiveness of therapies for this challenging respiratory condition⁷⁷.

17. Conclusion

In conclusion, while advancements in diagnosing and managing *M. pneumoniae* infections are notable, significant challenges remain. A key issue is the rise in macrolide-resistant strains of *M. pneumoniae*, which calls for a reassessment of current treatment protocols, especially for vulnerable pediatric populations. Rapid molecular diagnostic techniques are essential for the prompt and accurate identification of these resistant strains, facilitating effective clinical management and tailored treatments. The COVID-19 pandemic has also affected the epidemiology of these infections, highlighting the need for updated public health strategies and enhanced surveillance. The pandemic has shifted the focus of infectious disease management and emphasized the importance of adapting responses to new epidemiological trends. Future research should prioritize the development of predictive factors to better anticipate treatment responses, allowing for more personalized and effective interventions. There is a critical need to explore and validate new therapeutic options to address the challenges posed by resistant strains and improve treatment efficacy. Continuous innovation in both diagnostic and therapeutic approaches will be crucial for effectively managing *M. pneumoniae* infections and improving patient outcomes.

18. References

1. Lieberman D, Schlaeffer F, Lieberman D, Horowitz S, Horovitz O, Porath A. *M. pneumoniae* community-acquired pneumonia: a review of 101 hospitalized adult patients. *Respiration*. 1996 Jan 21;63(5):261-6.
2. Xue G, Li M, Wang N, Zhao J, Wang B, Ren Z, Yan C, Wu C, Liu Y, Sun H, Xu M. Comparison of the molecular characteristics of *M. pneumoniae* from children across different regions of China. *PLoS One*. 2018 Aug 23;13(8):e0198557.
3. Sauteur PM, Beeton ML, Uldum SA, Bossuyt N, Vermeulen M, Loens K, Pereyre S, Bébér C, Keše D, Day J, Afshar B. *M. pneumoniae* detections before and during the COVID-19 pandemic: results of a global survey, 2017 to 2021. *Eurosurveillance*. 2022 May 12;27(19):2100746.
4. Chaudhry R, Sreenath K, Vinayaraj EV, Sahoo B, Vishnu Narayanan MR, Kiran KS, Batra P, Rathor N, Singh S, Mohan A, Bhatnagar S. *M. pneumoniae* co-infection with SARS-CoV-2: A case report. *Access microbiology*. 2021 Mar;3(3):000212.
5. Loens K, Goossens H, Ieven M. Acute respiratory infection due to *M. pneumoniae*: current status of diagnostic methods. *European journal of clinical microbiology & infectious diseases*. 2010 Sep;29:1055-69.
6. Li X, Li T, Chen N, Kang P, Yang J. Changes of *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* prevalence in children before and after COVID-19 pandemic in Henan, China. *The Journal of Infection*. 2023 Mar;86(3):256.
7. Klement E, Talkington DF, Wasserzug O, Kayouf R, Davidovitch N, Dumke R, Bar-Zeev Y, Ron M, Boxman J, Thacker WL, Wolf D. Identification of risk factors for infection in an outbreak of *M. pneumoniae* respiratory tract disease. *Clinical infectious diseases*. 2006 Nov 15;43(10):1239-45.
8. Kenri T, Yamazaki T, Ohya H, Jinnai M, Oda Y, Asai S, Sato R, Ishiguro N, Oishi T, Horino A, Fujii H. Genotyping of *M. pneumoniae* strains isolated in Japan during 2019 and 2020: spread of p1 gene type 2c and 2j variant strains. *Frontiers in Microbiology*. 2023 Jun 19;14:1202357.
9. Sauteur PM, Beeton ML, Pereyre S, Bébér C, Gardette M, Hénin N, Wagner N, Fischer A, Vitale A, Lemaire B, Greub G. *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*: delayed re-emergence after COVID-19 pandemic restrictions. *The Lancet Microbe*. 2024 Feb 1;5(2):e100-1.
10. Oishi T, Ouchi K. Recent trends in the epidemiology, diagnosis, and treatment of macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae*. *Journal of Clinical Medicine*. 2022 Mar 24;11(7):1782.

11. Lee H, Yun KW, Lee HJ, Choi EH. Antimicrobial therapy of macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia in children. Expert review of anti-infective therapy. 2018 Jan 2;16(1):23-34.
12. Yin Y, Lu Q, Yan X. Epidemiology of *M. pneumoniae* infections. Zhonghua er ke za zhi= Chinese Journal of Pediatrics. 2016 Feb 1;54(2):91-3.
13. Dutta S, Thakare YR, Kshirsagar A, Sarkar D. A Review on Host Genetic Susceptibility to SARS CoV-2 Related Pneumonia.(2021). Int J Pharm Sci. 2021;12(2):b42-49.
14. Wang X, Li M, Luo M, Luo Q, Kang L, Xie H, Wang Y, Yu X, Li A, Dong M, Huang F. *M. pneumoniae* triggers pneumonia epidemic in autumn and winter in Beijing: a multicentre, population-based epidemiological study between 2015 and 2020. Emerging microbes & infections. 2022 Dec 31;11(1):1508-17.
15. Wang K, Chalker V, Bermingham A, Harrison T, Mant D, Harnden A. *M. pneumoniae* and respiratory virus infections in children with persistent cough in England: a retrospective analysis. The Pediatric infectious disease journal. 2011 Dec 1;30(12):1047-51.
16. Abele-Horn M, Busch U, Nitschko H, Jacobs E, Bax R, Pfaff F, Schaffer B, Heesemann J. Molecular approaches to diagnosis of pulmonary diseases due to *M. pneumoniae*. Journal of clinical microbiology. 1998 Feb 1;36(2):548-51.
17. Yamazaki T, Kenri T. Epidemiology of *M. pneumoniae* infections in Japan and therapeutic strategies for macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae*. Frontiers in microbiology. 2016 May 23;7:693.
18. Song Z, Jia G, Luo G, Han C, Zhang B, Wang X. Global research trends of *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia in children: A bibliometric analysis. Frontiers in Pediatrics. 2023 Nov 24;11:1306234.
19. Yan C, Xue GH, Zhao HQ, Feng YL, Cui JH, Yuan J. Current status of *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* infection in China. World Journal of Pediatrics. 2024 Jan;20(1):1-4.
20. Sun H, Xue G, Yan C, Li S, Cao L, Yuan Y, Zhao H, Feng Y, Wang L, Fan Z. Multiple-locus variable-number tandem-repeat analysis of *M. pneumoniae* clinical specimens and proposal for amendment of MLVA nomenclature. PloS one. 2013 May 30;8(5):e64607.
21. Dorigo-Zetsma JW, Dankert J, Zaat SA. Genotyping of *M. pneumoniae* clinical isolates reveals eight P1 subtypes within two genomic groups. Journal of clinical microbiology. 2000 Mar 1;38(3):965-70.
22. Atkinson TP, Balish MF, Waites KB. Epidemiology, clinical manifestations, pathogenesis and laboratory detection of *M. pneumoniae* infections. FEMS microbiology reviews. 2008 Oct 10;32(6):956-73.
23. Zhang WZ, Zhang SJ, Wang QY, Li YD, Jing HB, Hu GY, Wu D. Outbreak of macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae* in a primary school in Beijing, China in 2018. BMC Infectious Diseases. 2019 Dec;19:1-7.
24. Youn YS, Lee KY. *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia in children. Korean journal of pediatrics. 2012 Feb;55(2):42.
25. Wang J, Xia C, Sharma A, Gaba GS, Shabaz M. Chest CT findings and differential diagnosis of *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia and *M. pneumoniae* combined with streptococcal pneumonia in children. Journal of Healthcare Engineering. 2021;2021(1):8085530.
26. Sadot E, Lee EY. Pleural effusion and pneumothorax. Imaging in Pediatric Pulmonology. 2020:237-52.
27. Håkansson A, Kidd A, Wadell G, Sabharwal H, Svanborg C. Adenovirus infection enhances in vitro adherence of *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. Infection and immunity. 1994 Jul;62(7):2707-14.
28. Lee KY. Pediatric respiratory infections by *M. pneumoniae*. Expert review of anti-infective therapy. 2008 Aug 1;6(4):509-21.
29. Petri F, Mahmoud O, Ranganath N, El Zein S, Abu Saleh O, Berbari EF, Fida M. Plasma Microbial Cell-free DNA Next-generation Sequencing can be a Useful Diagnostic Tool in Patients with Osteoarticular Infections. In Open Forum Infectious Diseases 2024 Jun 18 (p. ofae328). Oxford University Press.
30. Ishiguro N, Koseki N, Kaiho M, Ariga T, Kikuta H, Togashi T, Oba K, Morita K, Nagano N, Nakanishi M, Hara K. Therapeutic efficacy of azithromycin, clarithromycin, minocycline and

- tosufloxacin against macrolide-resistant and macrolide-sensitive *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia in pediatric patients. *PloS one*. 2017 Mar 13;12(3):e0173635.
31. McIntosh JC, Gutierrez HH. Mycoplasmal infections: epidemiology, immunology, diagnostic techniques, and therapeutic strategies. *Immunology and allergy clinics of North America*. 1993 Feb 1;13(1):43-57.
 32. Waites KB, Xiao L, Liu Y, Balish MF, Atkinson TP. *M. pneumoniae* from the respiratory tract and beyond. *Clinical microbiology reviews*. 2017 Jul;30(3):747-809.
 33. Loeb M, McGeer A, McArthur M, Walter S, Simor AE. Risk factors for pneumonia and other lower respiratory tract infections in elderly residents of long-term care facilities. *Archives of internal medicine*. 1999 Sep 27;159(17):2058-64.
 34. Zhu Y, Luo Y, Li L, Jiang X, Du Y, Wang J, Li H, Gu H, Li D, Tang H, Qin H. Immune response plays a role in *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia. *Frontiers in Immunology*. 2023 May 26;14:1189647.
 35. Safari D, Dekker HA, Joosten JA, Michalik D, de Souza AC, Adamo R, Lahmann M, Sundgren A, Oscarson S, Kamerling JP, Snippe H. Identification of the smallest structure capable of evoking opsonophagocytic antibodies against *Streptococcus pneumoniae* type 14. *Infection and immunity*. 2008 Oct;76(10):4615-23.
 36. Garth J, Barnes JW, Krick S. Targeting cytokines as evolving treatment strategies in chronic inflammatory airway diseases. *International journal of molecular sciences*. 2018 Oct 30;19(11):3402.
 37. McDonald DM, Schoeb TR, Lindsey JR. *Mycoplasma pulmonis* infections cause long-lasting potentiation of neurogenic inflammation in the respiratory tract of the rat. *The Journal of clinical investigation*. 1991 Mar 1;87(3):787-99.
 38. Lieberman D, Lieberman D, Ben-Yaakov M, Shmarkov O, Gelfer Y, Varshavsky R, Ohana B, Lazarovich Z, Boldur I. Serological evidence of *M. pneumoniae* infection in acute exacerbation of COPD. *Diagnostic microbiology and infectious disease*. 2002 Sep 1;44(1):1-6.
 39. Diederens BM, Van der Valk PD, Kluytmans JA, Peeters MF, Hendrix R. The role of atypical respiratory pathogens in exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *European Respiratory Journal*. 2007 Aug 1;30(2):240-4.
 40. Sharma P, Bhatt RK. User awareness about marketing of library products and services: A study of University College of Medical Sciences and Vallabhbhai Patel Chest Institute, University of Delhi, Delhi. *Library Herald*. 2023;61(3):66-88.
 41. Wu BG, Segal LN. The lung microbiome and its role in pneumonia. *Clinics in chest medicine*. 2018 Dec 1;39(4):677-89.
 42. Wang H, Dai W, Qiu C, Li S, Wang W, Xu J, Li Z, Wang H, Li Y, Yang Z, Feng X. *M. pneumoniae* and *Streptococcus pneumoniae* caused different microbial structure and correlation network in lung microbiota. *Journal of Thoracic Disease*. 2016 Jun;8(6):1316.
 43. Dai W, Wang H, Zhou Q, Feng X, Lu Z, Li D, Yang Z, Liu Y, Li Y, Xie G, Shen K. The concordance between upper and lower respiratory microbiota in children with *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia. *Emerging microbes & infections*. 2018 Dec 1;7(1):1-8.
 44. Nibali L, Henderson B, Tariq Sadiq S, Donos N. Genetic dysbiosis: the role of microbial insults in chronic inflammatory diseases. *Journal of oral microbiology*. 2014 Jan 1;6(1):22962.
 45. Paudel KR, Dharwal V, Patel VK, Galvao I, Wadhwa R, Malyla V, Shen SS, Budden KF, Hansbro NG, Vaughan A, Yang IA. Role of lung microbiome in innate immune response associated with chronic lung diseases. *Frontiers in medicine*. 2020 Sep 18;7:554.
 46. Zhang X, Kluger Y, Nakayama Y, Poddar R, Whitney C, DeTora A, Weissman SM, Newburger PE. Gene expression in mature neutrophils: early responses to inflammatory stimuli. *Journal of Leukocyte Biology*. 2004 Feb;75(2):358-72.
 47. Wiertsema SP, van Bergenhenegouwen J, Garssen J, Knippels LM. The interplay between the gut microbiome and the immune system in the context of infectious diseases throughout life and the role of nutrition in optimizing treatment strategies. *Nutrients*. 2021 Mar;13(3):886.
 48. Waites KB. What's new in diagnostic testing and

- treatment approaches for *M. pneumoniae* infections in children?. Hot Topics in Infection and Immunity in Children VIII. 2011 Sep 22;47-57.
49. Han HY, Park KC, Yang EA, Lee KY. Macrolide-resistant and macrolide-sensitive *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia in children treated using early corticosteroids. Journal of Clinical Medicine. 2021 Mar 22;10(6):1309.
 50. Morozumi M, Hasegawa K, Kobayashi R, Inoue N, Iwata S, Kuroki H, Kawamura N, Nakayama E, Tajima T, Shimizu K, Ubukata K. Emergence of macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae* with a 23S rRNA gene mutation. Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy. 2005 Jun;49(6):2302-6.
 51. Wang M, Wang Y, Yan Y, Zhu C, Huang LI, Shao X, Xu J, Zhu H, Sun X, Ji W, Chen Z. Clinical and laboratory profiles of refractory *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia in children. International Journal of Infectious Diseases. 2014 Dec 1;29:18-23.
 52. Tashiro M, Fushimi K, Kawano K, Takazono T, Saijo T, Yamamoto K, Kurihara S, Imamura Y, Miyazaki T, Yanagihara K, Mukae H. Comparison of efficacy of antimicrobial agents among hospitalized patients with *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia in Japan during large epidemics of macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae* infections: a nationwide observational study. Clinical Infectious Diseases. 2017 Nov 13;65(11):1837-42.
 53. Ishiguro N, Sato R, Mori T, Tanaka H, Narita M, Nagano T, Owaku M, Miyajima K, Manabe A. Point-of-care molecular diagnosis of *M. pneumoniae* including macrolide sensitivity using quenching probe polymerase chain reaction. PloS one. 2021 Oct 14;16(10):e0258694.
 54. Miyashita N, Obase Y, Ouchi K, Kawasaki K, Kawai Y, Kobashi Y, Oka M. Clinical features of severe *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia in adults admitted to an intensive care unit. Journal of medical microbiology. 2007 Dec;56(12):1625-9.
 55. Leung AK, Wong AH, Hon KL. Community-acquired pneumonia in children. Recent patents on inflammation & allergy drug discovery. 2018 Oct 1;12(2):136-44.
 56. Lee KL, Lee CM, Yang TL, Yen TY, Chang LY, Chen JM, Lee PI, Huang LM, Lu CY. Severe *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia requiring intensive care in children, 2010–2019. Journal of the Formosan Medical Association. 2021 Jan 1;120(1):281-91.
 57. Pereyre S, Guyot C, Renaudin H, Charron A, Bébéar C, Bebear CM. In vitro selection and characterization of resistance to macrolides and related antibiotics in *M. pneumoniae*. Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy. 2004 Feb;48(2):460-5.
 58. Jacobs MR, Johnson CE. Macrolide resistance: an increasing concern for treatment failure in children. The Pediatric infectious disease journal. 2003 Aug 1;22(8):S131-8.
 59. Hain E, Adejumo H, Anger B, Orenstein J, Blaney L. Advances in antimicrobial activity analysis of fluoroquinolone, macrolide, sulfonamide, and tetracycline antibiotics for environmental applications through improved bacteria selection. Journal of Hazardous Materials. 2021 Aug 5;415:125686.
 60. Jung C, Gillmann HJ, Stueber T, Hinken L. Spontaneous massive hemothorax as a complication of necrotizing pneumonia in a patient with severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 induced acute respiratory distress syndrome: a case report. Journal of Medical Case Reports. 2021 Dec;15:1-9.
 61. Kawai Y, Miyashita N, Yamaguchi T, Saitoh A, Kondoh E, Fujimoto H, Teranishi H, Inoue M, Wakabayashi T, Akaike H, Ogita S. Clinical efficacy of macrolide antibiotics against genetically determined macrolide-resistant *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia in paediatric patients. Respiriology. 2012 Feb;17(2):354-62.
 62. Laurent K. Efficacy, safety and tolerability of azithromycin versus roxithromycin in the treatment of acute lower respiratory tract infections. Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy. 1996 Jun 1;37(suppl_C):115-24.
 63. Meduri GU, Shih MC, Bridges L, Martin TJ, El-Solh A, Seam N, Davis-Karim A, Umberger R, Anzueto A, Sriram P, Lan C. Low-dose methylprednisolone treatment in critically ill patients with severe community-acquired pneumonia. Intensive care medicine. 2022 Aug;48(8):1009-23.

64. Leite-Junior JH, Garcia CS, Souza-Fernandes AB, Silva PL, Ornellas DS, Lorangeira AP, Castro-Faria-Neto HC, Morales MM, Negri EM, Capelozzi VL, Zin WA. Methylprednisolone improves lung mechanics and reduces the inflammatory response in pulmonary but not in extrapulmonary mild acute lung injury in mice. *Critical care medicine*. 2008 Sep 1;36(9):2621-8.
65. Sánchez F, Mensa J, Martínez JA, García E, Marco F, González J, Marcos MA, Soriano A, Torres A. Is azithromycin the first-choice macrolide for treatment of community-acquired pneumonia?. *Clinical infectious diseases*. 2003 May 15;36(10):1239-45.
66. Zhou Y, Zhang Y, Sheng Y, Zhang L, Shen Z, Chen Z. More complications occur in macrolide-resistant than in macrolide-sensitive *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy*. 2014 Feb;58(2):1034-8.
67. Gaynor M, Mankin AS. Macrolide antibiotics: binding site, mechanism of action, resistance. *Current topics in medicinal chemistry*. 2003 May 1;3(9):949-60.
68. Medina-Ramon M, Zanobetti A, Schwartz J. The effect of ozone and PM10 on hospital admissions for pneumonia and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: a national multicity study. *American journal of epidemiology*. 2006 Mar 15;163(6):579-88.
69. Ahn JG, Cho HK, Li D, Choi M, Lee J, Eun BW, Jo DS, Park SE, Choi EH, Yang HJ, Kim KH. Efficacy of tetracyclines and fluoroquinolones for the treatment of macrolide-refractory *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia in children: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC infectious diseases*. 2021 Dec;21:1-0.
70. Micheva-Viteva S, Hong-Geller E. What Can Go Wrong When Applying Immune Modulation Therapies to Target Persistent Bacterial Infections. *Journal of cellular immunology*. 2020;2(1):1.
71. João C, Negi VS, Kazatchkine MD, Bayry J, Kaveri SV. Passive serum therapy to immunomodulation by IVIG: a fascinating journey of antibodies. *The Journal of Immunology*. 2018 Mar 15;200(6):1957-63.
72. Hadjiliadis D, Chaparro C, Gutierrez C, Steele MP, Singer LG, Davis RD, Waddell TK, Hutcheon MA, Palmer SM, Keshavjee S. Impact of lung transplant operation on bronchiolitis obliterans syndrome in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *American journal of transplantation*. 2006 Jan 1;6(1):183-9.
73. Beishuizen SJ, Geerlings SE. Immune reconstitution inflammatory syndrome: immunopathogenesis, risk factors, diagnosis, treatment and prevention. *Neth J Med*. 2009 Nov 1;67(10):327-31.
74. Zhang Y, Zhou Y, Li S, Yang D, Wu X, Chen Z. The clinical characteristics and predictors of refractory *M. pneumoniae* pneumonia in children. *PloS one*. 2016 May 26;11(5):e0156465.
75. Bozza FA, Bozza PT, Castro Faria Neto HC. Beyond sepsis pathophysiology with cytokines: what is their value as biomarkers for disease severity? *Memorias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz*. 2005; 100:217-21.
76. Denny FW, Clyde WA, Glezen WP. *M. pneumoniae* disease: clinical spectrum, pathophysiology, epidemiology, and control. *The Journal of infectious diseases*. 1971 Jan 1;123(1):74-92.
77. Kollef MH, Shapiro SD, Clinkscale D, Cracchiolo L, Clayton D, Wilner R, Hossin L. The effect of respiratory therapist-initiated treatment protocols on patient outcomes and resource utilization. *Chest*. 2000 Feb 1;117(2):467-75.