

Clinical guidelines

Diagnosis and treatment manual

for curative programmes
in hospitals and dispensaries

guidance for prescribing

2013 EDITION

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Diagnosis and treatment manual

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Foreword

This diagnostic and treatment manual is designed for use by medical professionals involved in curative care at the dispensary and hospital levels.

We have tried to respond in the simplest and most practical way possible to the questions and problems faced by field medical staff, using the accumulated field experience of Médecins Sans Frontières, the recommendations of reference organizations such as the World Health Organization (WHO) and specialized works in each field.

This edition touches on the curative and, to a lesser extent, the preventive aspects of the main diseases encountered in the field. The list is incomplete, but covers the essential needs.

This manual is used not only in programmes supported by Médecins Sans Frontières, but also in other programmes and in other contexts. It is notably an integral part of the WHO Emergency Health Kit.

Médecins Sans Frontières has also issued French and Spanish editions. Editions in other languages have also been produced in the field.

This manual is a collaborative effort of medical professionals from many disciplines, all with field experience.

Despite all efforts, it is possible that certain errors may have been overlooked in this manual. Please inform the authors of any errors detected. It is important to remember, that if in doubt, it is the responsibility of the prescribing medical professional to ensure that the doses indicated in this manual conform to the manufacturer's specifications.

The authors would be grateful for any comments or criticisms to ensure that this manual continues to evolve and remains adapted to the reality of the field.

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This manual is also available on the internet at www.msf.org. As treatment protocols for certain diseases are constantly changing, medical staff are encouraged to check this website for updates of this edition.

How to use this manual

Organization

There are two easy ways to find information in this manual:

- The *table of contents* at the beginning of the manual with the number and title of each chapter, their subsections and page numbers.
- An *alphabetical index* at the end of the manual with the names of the diseases and symptoms.

Names of drugs

The International Non-proprietary Name (INN) of drugs is used in this manual. A list of current proprietary names can be found at the end of the manual.

Abbreviations used

Units		Administration route	
kg	= kilogram	PO	= per os = oral
g	= gram	IM	= intramuscular
mg	= milligram	IV	= intravenous
µg	= microgram	SC	= subcutaneous
IU	= international unit		
M	= million		
mmol	= millimole		
ml	= millilitre		
dl	= decilitre		

For certain drugs

NSAID = nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug

SMX + TMP = sulfamethoxazole + trimethoprim = cotrimoxazole

Expression of doses

- Doses of the combination sulfamethoxazole + trimethoprim (cotrimoxazole) are expressed as SMX + TMP, for example:
Children: 30 mg SMX + 6 mg TMP/kg/day
Adults: 1600 mg SMX + 320 mg TMP/day
- Doses of the combination amoxicillin + clavulanic acid (co-amoxiclav) are expressed in amoxicillin.
- Doses of certain antimalarial drugs are expressed in base (and not in salts).
- Doses of iron are expressed in elemental iron (and not in ferrous salts).

Table of contents

	Introduction	page 8
1	A few symptoms and syndromes Shock (17) Seizures (23) Fever (26) Pain (29) Anaemia (37) Severe acute malnutrition (40)	page 15
2	Respiratory diseases Rhinitis and rhinopharyngitis [common cold] (49) Acute sinusitis (50) Acute laryngitis (51) Acute pharyngitis (53) Diphtheria (55) Otitis (57) Whooping cough [pertussis] (60) Bronchitis (62) Bronchiolitis (64) Acute pneumonia (66) Staphylococcal pneumonia (73) Asthma (74) Pulmonary tuberculosis (79)	page 47
3	Gastrointestinal disorders Acute diarrhoea (83) Shigellosis (86) Amoebiasis (88) Disorders of the stomach and duodenum (89) Stomatitis (92)	page 81
4	Skin diseases Dermatology (97) Scabies (98) Lice [pediculosis] (101) Superficial fungal infections (103) Bacterial skin infections (105) Cutaneous anthrax (109) Treponematoses (111) Leprosy (113) Herpes simplex and herpes zoster (116) Other skin disorders (117)	page 95
5	Eye diseases Xerophthalmia [vitamin A deficiency] (121) Conjunctivitis (123) Trachoma (126) Other pathologies: onchocerciasis, loiasis, pterygium, cataract (128)	page 119
6	Parasitic diseases <i>Protozoan infections:</i> Malaria (131) Human african trypanosomiasis (139) American trypanosomiasis (142) Leishmaniasis (144) Intestinal protozoan infections [parasitic diarrhoea] (147) <i>Helminthic infections:</i> Flukes (149) Schistosomiasis (150) Cestodes (152) Nematode infections (154) Filariasis (157)	page 129
7	Bacterial diseases Bacterial meningitis (165) Tetanus (170) Typhoid fever (174) Brucellosis (176) Plague (178) Leptospirosis (180) Relapsing fever [borreliosis] (182) Eruptive rickettsioses (185)	page 163

8	Viral diseases	page 187
	Measles (189) Poliomyelitis (192) Rabies (194) Viral hepatitis (198) Dengue fever (201) Viral haemorrhagic fevers (204) HIV infection and AIDS (207)	
9	Genito-urinary diseases	page 221
	<i>Uro-nephrologic diseases:</i> Urolithiasis (223) Acute cystitis (224) Acute pyelonephritis (226) Acute prostatitis (228) <i>Genital infections (GI) (229):</i> Urethral discharge (231) Abnormal vaginal discharge (233) Genital ulcers (236) Lower abdominal pain in women (239) Upper genital tract infections (240) Venereal warts (243) Major genital infections - summary (244) Metrorrhagia (246)	
10	Medical and minor surgical procedures	page 251
	Dressings (253) Treatment of a simple wound (256) Burns (266) Abscesses (274) Pyomyositis (279) Leg ulcers (281) Venomous bites and stings (283) Dental infections (287)	
11	Mental/psychical disorders in adults	page 289
	Anxiety (291) Insomnia (292) Agitation (293) Mental confusion (294) Post-traumatic stress disorder (295) Depression (297) Psychotic disorders (300)	
12	Other conditions	page 303
	Hypertension (305) Heart failure in adults (309) Endemic goitre and iodine deficiency (312)	
	Annexes	page 313
	The interagency emergency health kit/ Annex 2 - WHO (315) Practical advice for writing medical certificates in the event of sexual violence (322) List of the drugs mentioned in this guide, including the INN as well as the most common synonyms and proprietary names (325)	
	Main references	page 328
	Index	page 330

Introduction

Curative care is one component of health programmes. It is important to remember that the other components also need to be developed. These components include programmes focusing on: palliative care (including pain control), psychological support, prevention (including the Expanded Programme of Immunization (EPI), maternal-child health etc.), nutrition, water, hygiene and sanitation.

I - The objectives of curative care programmes

- *At an individual level:* to cure the patient of disease and to minimize or prevent the consequences for the individual and those in close contact (i.e. preventing transmission when possible).
- *At a population level:* to reduce the mortality and the consequences of morbidity of the most prevalent and important diseases in the population.
- *For certain endemic diseases* (tuberculosis, leprosy, trypanosomiasis etc.): curative care can reduce transmission if a large enough proportion of the population is treated. Often, this objective is only achieved through specific control programmes which are not extensively discussed in this manual.

II - Strategy

When defining a strategy for a medical intervention, medical decision makers must take into account the priority diseases: those with the highest frequency and mortality. Priority diseases vary with context (conflict, natural disasters, etc.) and geographical region. Nevertheless, there is a relatively standard epidemiological profile with quantitative variations. An initial assessment, both qualitative (disease distribution) and if possible quantitative (mortality, incidence, prevalence and case fatality), is still necessary. This evaluation identifies the most common diseases (diarrhoea, measles, acute respiratory tract infections, malaria, wounds etc.) and the population groups exposed and at risk (children under 5 years, pregnant women).

These diseases and populations constitute the priority 'targets' of a programme.

For rehabilitation programmes and programmes to support pre-existing health structures, detailed information is sometimes available from the health structures or from the Ministry of Health. The evaluation consists of assessing the information available and filling in any missing data.

In very isolated contexts or when there is population displacement, no information is available and it is always necessary to do a complete assessment.

Once the priority diseases are identified and health policy, means and resources (list of essential drugs, Ministry of Health protocols, staff and level of training, health services, functioning programmes etc.) are known, programmes can be defined and initiated.

This manual and the manual, *Essential drugs – practical guidelines*, are tools to help in the definition and implementation (protocols, training, retraining) of curative programmes.

III - Means to consider and measures to develop

In certain situations (displaced populations, refugees), entire systems must be created. In other situations, an existing system is evaluated and may be supported if necessary.

Infrastructure and health staff

The training and competence level of medical staff (medical auxiliaries, medical assistants, nurses, midwives, doctors etc.) vary by country and health structure (health post, dispensary, health centre, hospital).

Evaluation should identify their technical level while recognising that in some situations, the staff have not always received prior training.

Drugs

Selection of drugs depends on the priorities and needs, but also on other criteria:

- effectiveness, local resistance, adverse effects
- administration route, length of treatment, number of doses per day, expected compliance
- stability, availability, price

The WHO Essential Medicines List is the basic framework, but the choice of drugs has to be adapted to the epidemiological profile, the competence of the staff and the possibility (or lack thereof) to refer very sick patients.

Certain drugs proposed in this manual are not included in the WHO Essential Medicines List.

Treatment protocols

Standard protocols improve diffusion and use of effective treatment. They should:

- give precise instructions (INN of the medication, indications, dosage, route of administration, length of treatment, contra-indications, adverse effects, precautions);
- favour the most effective drug with the least adverse effects;
- be supported by clinical, epidemiological and scientific data and be discussed and agreed upon by the users;
- be practical, simple, understandable and adapted to the field;
- facilitate the training and retraining of medical staff;
- facilitate the organization of health services (e.g. management, pharmacy);
- be evaluated.

The treatment protocols include drug prescription, as well as other measures (curative and preventive), indications for referral to a higher level of care and an indication of which diseases must be reported (cholera, measles etc.).

Formulation depends on the training of the prescribing medical staff: doctors are trained in terms of diseases (pneumonia, malaria etc.) while medical auxiliaries use a symptomatic approach (cough and difficulty in breathing, fever and chills etc.).

Protocols must take into account the cultural context (e.g. to discourage covering a febrile child if that is the cultural practise) and the environment (avoid the classic mistakes, e.g. recommending that water be boiled when fuel or firewood is scarce).

The protocols must take into account drug supply (what is the availability?) and presentation (e.g. are the antimalarials labelled in salts or base?).

Protocols must facilitate compliance. Short treatments with few doses are recommended. Single dose treatment, when indicated, is the best choice. The number of different drugs prescribed must also be limited whenever possible. For similar effectiveness oral or rectal drugs are preferred over injections in order to reduce complications, cost, risk of transmission of hepatitis B, HIV etc.

Diagnostic methods

The methods used depend on the services available and the technical level of the staff. They have a direct influence on the establishment of protocols and the content of the drug list. Usually diagnosis is made on a basis of history taking, clinical examination and basic laboratory tests (as defined by the WHO).

A - History taking

A medical consultation is a special occasion to listen to the patient and to ask relevant questions to determine the cause of the complaint.

During the interview, the history of the current illness, the signs and symptoms, prior illness and any treatment already received are specified.

Only by listening attentively is it possible to put the patient's complaint in a larger context of suffering. For example, during a consultation, physical violence, sexual violence or abuse may come to light, while this type of complaint is rarely expressed spontaneously by the victim. It is the clinician's responsibility to take a global view of the situation that includes: psychological, legal (completing a medical certificate) and social aspects and direct clinical care.

B - Clinical examination

Clinical examination is essential: the diagnosis and treatment depend directly on its quality. It is important to know or to learn a technique of clinical assessment that is both complete and rapid, keeping in mind the need for quality and efficiency. A technique, or a strategy, is even more important in field conditions as the number of patients often stretches the medical possibilities and apart from basic laboratory examinations, the complementary examinations are often nonexistent.

The following examination framework is an example that should be adapted to each case. It emphasises the advantages of a systematic approach.

Context of the examination

- Routine examination: e.g. prenatal consultation or Mother and Child Health (MCH). The emphasis of the examination is predefined by the programme objectives (nutritional state, anaemia, prevention of tetanus etc.).
- As a result of a complaint: the usual situation at a dispensary. The most common complaints are fever, pain, diarrhoea and cough.

A few rules

- A systematic approach reduces omissions and saves time.
- An interpreter may be needed; however, translation does not always accurately reflect the complaints of the patient. Learning the names of the main clinical signs and common diseases in the local language helps overcome this problem. The choice of an interpreter must take into consideration the sex (e.g. a female for gynaecology and obstetrics) and the acceptability by the patient (respecting confidentiality).

The examination

- *Physical examination*: the patient should be undressed if possible.
 - first look at the general condition of the patient in order to judge the severity of illness: nutritional status (weight and, in children, height), hydration, anaemia, temperature.
 - examine each system: use a systematic approach starting with the system related to the patient's complaint.
- *Laboratory examinations*: if necessary and if available
- *Imaging techniques*: x-ray and ultrasonography, if necessary and if available

C - Role of the laboratory

A basic medical laboratory can play an important and irreplaceable role. However, technical constraints (the need for a trained and competent technician), logistical constraints (regular supply of material, reagents, electricity), time constraints (each examination takes a minimum time) and quality constraints (which depends on all the points just mentioned) should not be underestimated.

Two levels of examinations can be defined:

Basic examination

Blood	<i>Haematology</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • haemoglobin (Lovibond) • WBC and differentials <i>Transfusion</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • blood group + rhesus • HIV, hepatitis B and C, syphilis RPR <i>Thick and thin films</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • malaria, some filariases, trypanosomiasis, visceral leishmaniasis, borreliosis <i>Rapid tests</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • malaria • HIV, hepatitis B and C etc.
Sputum	Koch's bacillus
Urine	reagent strip test (glucose, protein)
Genital discharge	gonococcus, trichomonas
Stool	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • examination of wet preparation (eggs, helminths, cysts, protozoa) • scotch-test
CSF	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • look for and identify pathogens (including rapid test for meningitis) • cell count and protein (Pandy test)

More specific examinations are defined in relation to the programme.

A laboratory can be used in three complementary ways:

- *Clinically*: examinations are requested for individuals depending on the clinical picture. The aim is to orient a diagnosis (e.g. leucocytosis in a full blood count) or to determine or eliminate an aetiology (e.g. stool examination for parasites, blood smear, rapid test).
- *Epidemiologically*: the objective is to facilitate diagnosis and treatment. By studying a sample of patients presenting with similar clinical profiles an aetiology can be specified. The validity (sensitivity and specificity) of the particular symptoms or syndrome can also be studied. Through these means appropriate treatment protocols can be introduced for all patients presenting with the same symptoms or syndrome. For example: is the syndrome non-febrile bloody diarrhoea predictive of amoebic dysentery? An investigation of approximately 100 patients will answer this question. If a significant proportion of the samples are positive, an appropriate treatment can be given to all patients presenting with this syndrome. This approach, while practical during some epidemics, should not stop the practitioner from considering differential diagnosis as the sensitivity of a syndrome is rarely 100%
- *Operational research*: laboratory examinations are also used during resistance studies (malaria) and for other operational research.

The combination of **clinical examination** and **complementary examinations** should result in an aetiological diagnosis if possible, if not, a symptomatic or syndromic diagnosis.

Treatment

Prescribe a treatment:

- aetiological (treat the cause)
- symptomatic
- give relevant advice, whether or not the patient was treated or refer.

Recording data and the individual patient record

Record the essential information in a register and on an individual patient record (see the example of a health card, annex 3), an examination card or in a family health booklet. Information should include:

- diagnosis is important positive and negative signs (e.g. bloody diarrhoea without fever)
- laboratory examinations requested and the results
- drugs prescribed (in INN), dosage, duration

Training

Training and retraining of staff should be carried out according to their technical level (this should be evaluated) and is therefore context dependent. This manual and other documents may be useful tools in defining and meeting training objectives.

Public awareness and dissemination of information

For many reasons (lack of information, different cultural perceptions), a significant proportion of seriously ill, but curable patients may not present at health centres for treatment, or may present only when they are in the advanced stages of disease. Public awareness and dissemination of information at all levels, along with the quality of services, contribute to increase the proportion of the population receiving appropriate care.

IV - Organization and management

They are related to the services and resources available.

V - Programme evaluation

Programme evaluation is carried out at different levels:

Functioning

Assessment of activities, trends in case fatality rates, respect of protocols, management of the pharmacy, drug consumption, quality of prescriptions, orders, reports, the register etc.

This information helps in programme management (orders, staffing). The morbidity data collected at the dispensary level and their analysis contribute to epidemiological surveillance. Trends of priority diseases by person, time and place can be monitored (see *Epidemiological reports*, annex 2) and an early warning systems can be put in place.

Coverage of need

This depends on the accessibility and on the population's perception of the health care system. The goal is to determine the proportion of sick people who are actually being treated. The evaluation is feasible by surveying representative samples of the population (see below).

Impact on the population

The evaluation is complex. It refers to the objectives of reducing mortality, morbidity, etc. Survey protocols exist but are very difficult to put into practice (large sample size) and the surveys must be repeated to show trends.

CHAPTER 1

A few symptoms and syndromes

Shock	17
Seizures	23
Fever	26
Pain	29
Anaemia	37
Severe acute malnutrition	40

Shock

Acute circulatory failure leading to inadequate tissue perfusion which, if prolonged, results in irreversible organ failure. Mortality is high without early diagnosis and treatment.

Aetiology and pathophysiology

Hypovolaemic shock

Absolute hypovolaemia due to significant intravascular fluid depletion:

- Internal or external haemorrhage: post-traumatic, peri or postoperative, obstetrical (ectopic pregnancy, uterine rupture, etc.), blood loss due to an underlying condition (gastrointestinal ulcer, etc.). A loss of greater than 30% of blood volume in adults will lead to haemorrhagic shock.
- Dehydration: severe diarrhoea and vomiting, intestinal obstruction, diabetic ketoacidosis or hyperosmolar coma, etc.
- Plasma leaks: extensive burns, crushed limbs, etc.

Relative hypovolaemia due to vasodilation without concomitant increase in intravascular volume:

- Anaphylactic reaction: allergic reaction to insect bites or stings; drugs, mainly neuromuscular blockers, antibiotics, acetylsalicylic acid, colloid solutions (dextran, modified gelatin fluid); equine sera; vaccines containing egg protein; food, etc.
- Acute haemolysis: severe malaria, drug poisoning (rare).

Septic shock

By a complex mechanism, often including vasodilation, heart failure and absolute hypovolaemia.

Cardiogenic shock

By decrease of cardiac output:

- Direct injury to the myocardium: infarction, contusion, trauma, poisoning.
- Indirect mechanism: arrhythmia, constrictive pericarditis, haemopericardium, pulmonary embolism, tension pneumothorax, valvular disease, severe anaemia, beri beri, etc.

Clinical features

Signs common to most forms of shock

- Pallor, mottled skin, cold extremities, sweating and thirst.
- Rapid and weak pulse often only detected on major arteries (femoral or carotid).
- Low blood pressure (BP), narrow pulse pressure, BP sometimes undetectable.
- Capillary refill time (CRT) ≥ 3 seconds.
- Cyanosis, dyspnoea, tachypnoea are often present in varying degrees depending on the mechanism.
- Consciousness usually maintained (more rapidly altered in children), but anxiety, confusion, agitation or apathy are common.
- Oliguria or anuria.

Signs specific to the mechanism of shock

Hypovolaemic shock

The common signs of shock listed above are typical of hypovolaemic shock.

Do not underestimate hypovolaemia. Signs of shock may not become evident until a 50% loss of blood volume in adults.

Anaphylactic shock

- Significant and sudden drop in BP
- Tachycardia
- Frequent cutaneous signs: rash, urticaria, angioedema
- Respiratory signs: dyspnoea, bronchospasm

Septic shock

- High fever or hypothermia ($< 36^{\circ}\text{C}$), rigors, confusion
- BP may be initially maintained, but rapidly, same pattern as for hypovolaemic shock.

Cardiogenic shock

- Respiratory signs of left ventricular failure (acute pulmonary oedema) are dominant: tachypnoea, crepitations on auscultation.
- Signs of right ventricular failure: raised jugular venous pressure, hepatojugular reflux, sometimes alone, more often associated with signs of left ventricular failure.

The aetiological diagnosis is oriented by:

- The context: trauma, insect bite, ongoing medical treatment, etc.
- The clinical examination:
 - fever
 - skin pinch consistent with dehydration
 - thoracic pain from a myocardial infarction or pulmonary embolus
 - abdominal pain or rigidity of the abdominal wall from peritonitis, abdominal distension from intestinal obstruction
 - blood in stools, vomiting blood in intestinal haemorrhage
 - subcutaneous crepitations, likely anaerobic infection

Management

Symptomatic and aetiological treatment must take place simultaneously.

In all cases

- Emergency: immediate attention to the patient.
- Warm the patient, lay him flat, elevate legs (except in respiratory distress, acute pulmonary oedema).
- Insert a peripheral IV line using a large calibre catheter (16G in adults). If no IV access, use intraosseous route.
- Oxygen therapy, assisted ventilation in the event of respiratory distress.
- Assisted ventilation and external cardiac compression in the event of cardiac arrest.
- Intensive monitoring: consciousness, pulse, BP, CRT, respiratory rate, hourly urinary output (insert a urinary catheter) and skin mottling.

Management according to the cause

Haemorrhage

- Control bleeding (compression, tourniquet, surgical haemostasis).
- Determine blood group.
- Priority: restore vascular volume as quickly as possible:
Insert 2 peripheral IV lines (catheters 16G in adults)
Ringer Lactate or **0.9% sodium chloride**: replace 3 times the estimated losses
and/or **plasma substitute**: replace 1.5 times the estimated losses
- Transfuse: classically once estimated blood loss represents approximately 30 to 40% of blood volume (25% in children). The blood must be tested (HIV, hepatitis B and C, syphilis, etc.) Refer to the MSF handbook, *Blood transfusion*.

Severe acute dehydration due to bacterial/viral gastroenteritis

- Urgently restore circulating volume using IV bolus therapy:
Ringer Lactate or **0.9% sodium chloride**:
Children < 2 months: 10 ml/kg over 15 minutes. Repeat (up to 3 times) if signs of shock persist.
Children 2-59 months: 20 ml/kg over 15 minutes. Repeat (up to 3 times) if signs of shock persist.
Children ≥ 5 years and adults: 30 ml/kg over 30 minutes. Repeat once if signs of shock persist.
- Then, replace the remaining volume deficit using continuous infusion until signs of dehydration resolve (typically 70 ml/kg over 3 hours).
- Closely monitor the patient; be careful to avoid fluid overload in young children and elderly patients).

Note: in severely malnourished children the IV rate is different than those for healthy children (see *Severe acute malnutrition*, page 40).

Severe anaphylactic reaction

- Determine the causal agent and remove it, e.g. stop ongoing injections or infusions, but if in place, maintain the IV line.
- Administer **epinephrine (adrenaline)** IM, into the antero-lateral thigh, in the event of hypotension, pharyngolaryngeal oedema, or breathing difficulties:
Use *undiluted* solution (1:1000 = 1 mg/ml) and a 1 ml syringe graduated in 0.01 ml:
Children under 6 years: 0.15 ml
Children from 6 to 12 years: 0.3 ml
Children over 12 years and adults: 0.5 ml
In children, if 1 ml syringe is not available, use a *diluted* solution, i.e. add 1 mg epinephrine to 9 ml of 0.9% sodium chloride to obtain a 0.1 mg/ml solution (1:10 000):
Children under 6 years: 1.5 ml
Children from 6 to 12 years: 3 ml

At the same time, administer rapidly **Ringer lactate** or **0.9% sodium chloride**: 1 litre in adults (maximum rate); 20 ml/kg in children, to be repeated if necessary.

If there is no clinical improvement, repeat IM epinephrine every 5 to 15 minutes.

In shock persists after 3 IM injections, administration of IV epinephrine at a constant rate by a syringe pump is necessary:

Use a *diluted* solution, i.e. add 1 mg epinephrine (1:1000) to 9 ml of 0.9% sodium chloride to obtain a 0.1 mg/ml solution (1:10 000):

Children: 0.1 to 1 microgram/kg/minute

Adults: 0.05 to 0.5 microgram/kg/minute

If syringe pump is not available, see box page 22.

- Corticosteroids have no effect in the acute phase. However, they must be given once the patient is stabilized to prevent recurrence in the short term:

hydrocortisone hemisuccinate IV or IM

Children: 1 to 5 mg/kg/24 hours in 2 or 3 injections

Adults: 200 mg every 4 hours

- In patients with bronchospasm, epinephrine is usually effective. If the spasm persists give 10 puffs of inhaled **salbutamol**.

Septic shock

- Vascular fluid replacement with **Ringer Lactate** or **0.9 % sodium chloride** or **plasma substitute**.

- Use of vasoconstrictors:

dopamine IV at a constant rate by syringe pump (see box page 22):

10 to 20 micrograms/kg/minute

or, if not available

epinephrine IV at a constant rate by syringe pump:

Use a *diluted* solution, i.e. add 1 mg epinephrine (1:1000) to 9 ml of 0.9% sodium chloride to obtain a 0.1 mg/ml solution (1:10 000). Start with 0.1 microgram/kg/minute. Increase the dose progressively until a clinical improvement is seen.

If syringe pump is not available, see box page 22.

- Look for the origin of the infection (abscess; ENT, pulmonary, digestive, gynaecological or urological infection etc.). Antibiotic therapy according to the origin of infection:

Origin	Antibiotic therapy	Alternative
Cutaneous staphylococci, streptococci	cloxacillin + gentamicin	
Pulmonary pneumococci , <i>Haemophilus influenzae</i>	ampicillin or ceftriaxone +/- gentamicin	co-amoxiclav or ceftriaxone + ciprofloxacin
Intestinal or biliary enterobacteria, anaerobic bacteria, enterococci	co-amoxiclav + gentamicin	ceftriaxone + gentamicin + metronidazole
Gynaecological streptococci, gonococci, anaerobic bacteria, <i>E. coli</i>	co-amoxiclav + gentamicin	ceftriaxone + gentamicin + metronidazole
Urinary enterobacteria, enterococci	ampicillin + gentamicin	ceftriaxone + ciprofloxacin
Other or undetermined	ampicillin + gentamicin	ceftriaxone + ciprofloxacin

ampicillin IV

Children and adults: 150 to 200 mg/kg/day in 3 injections (every 8 hours)

cloxacillin IV

Children: 100 to 200 mg/kg/day in 4 divided doses (every 6 hours)

Adults: 8 to 12 g/day in 4 divided doses (every 6 hours)

co-amoxiclav (amoxicillin/clavulanic acid) slow IV

Children: 75 to 150 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses (every 8 hours)

Adults: 3 to 6 g/day in 3 divided doses (every 8 hours)

ceftriaxone slow IV¹

Children: 100 mg/kg as a single injection on the first day, then 50 mg/kg once daily

Adults: 2 g once daily

ciprofloxacin PO (by nasogastric tube)

Children: 15 to 30 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses

Adults: 1.5 g/day in 2 divided doses

gentamicin IM

Children and adults: 3 to 6 mg/kg once daily or in 2 divided doses

metronidazole IV

Children: 20 to 30 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses (every 8 hours)

Adults: 1 to 1.5 g/day in 3 divided doses (every 8 hours)

- Corticosteroids: not recommended, the adverse effects outweigh the benefits

Cardiogenic shock

The objective is to restore efficient cardiac output. The treatment of cardiogenic shock depends on its mechanism.

- *Acute left heart failure with pulmonary oedema*

Acute pulmonary oedema (see *Heart failure in adults*, page 309).

In the event of worsening signs with vascular collapse, use a strong inotrope:

dopamine IIV at a constant rate by syringe pump (see box page 22):

3 to 10 micrograms/kg/minute

Once the haemodynamic situation allows (normal BP, reduction in the signs of peripheral circulatory failure), nitrates or morphine may be cautiously introduced.

Digoxin should no longer be used for cardiogenic shock, except in the rare cases when a supraventricular tachycardia has been diagnosed by ECG. Correct hypoxia before using digoxin.

digoxin slow IV

Children: one injection of 0.010 mg/kg (10 micrograms/kg), to be repeated up to 4 times/24 hours if necessary

Adults: one injection of 0.25 to 0.5 mg, then 0.25 mg 3 or 4 times/24 hours if necessary

¹ The solvent of ceftriaxone for IM injection contains lidocaine. Ceftriaxone reconstituted using this solvent must never be administered by IV route. For IV administration, water for injection must always be used.

- **Cardiac tamponade:** restricted cardiac filling as a result of haemopericardium or pericarditis.
Requires immediate pericardial tap after restoration of circulating volume.
- **Tension pneumothorax:** drainage of the pneumothorax.
- **Symptomatic pulmonary embolism:** treat with an anticoagulant in a hospital setting.

Administration of **dopamine** or **epinephrine** at a constant rate requires the following conditions:

- close medical supervision in a hospital setting;
- use of a dedicated vein (no other infusion/injection in this vein), avoid the antecubital fossa if possible;
- use of an electric syringe pump (or infusion pump);
- progressive increase and adaptation of doses according to clinical response;
- intensive monitoring of drug administration, particularly during syringe changes.

Example:

dopamine: 10 micrograms/kg/minute in a patient weighing 60 kg

Hourly dose: $10 \text{ (micrograms)} \times 60 \text{ (kg)} \times 60 \text{ (min)} = 36\,000 \text{ micrograms/hour} = 36 \text{ mg/hour}$

In a 50 ml syringe, dilute one 200 mg-ampoule of dopamine with 0.9% sodium chloride to obtain 50 ml of solution containing 4 mg of dopamine per ml.

For a dose of 36 mg/hour, administer the solution (4 mg/ml) at 9 ml/hour.

If there is no electric syringe pump, dilution in an infusion bag may be considered. However, it is important to consider the risks related to this type of administration (accidental bolus or insufficient dose). The infusion must be constantly monitored to prevent any, even small, change from the prescribed rate of administration.

Example for epinephrine:

- In adults:

Dilute 10 ampoules of 1 mg epinephrine (10 000 micrograms) in 1 litre of 5% glucose or 0.9% sodium chloride to obtain a solution containing 10 micrograms of epinephrine per ml.

Knowing that 1 ml = 20 drops, *in an adult weighting 50 kg:*

- $0.1 \text{ microgram/kg/minute} = 5 \text{ micrograms/minute} = 10 \text{ drops/minute}$
- $1 \text{ microgram/kg/minute} = 50 \text{ micrograms/minute} = 100 \text{ drops/minute, etc.}$

- In children:

Dilute 1 ampoule of 1 mg epinephrine (1000 micrograms) in 100 ml of 5% glucose or 0.9% sodium chloride to obtain a solution containing 10 micrograms of epinephrine per ml.

For administration, use a **paediatric infusion set**; knowing that 1 ml = 60 drops, *in a child weighting 10 kg:*

- $0.1 \text{ microgram/kg/minute} = 1 \text{ microgram/minute} = 6 \text{ drops/minute}$
- $0.2 \text{ microgram/kg/minute} = 2 \text{ micrograms/minute} = 12 \text{ drops/minute, etc.}$

Note: account for all infused volumes when recording ins and outs.

Seizures

- Involuntary movements of cerebral origin (stiffness followed by clonic movements), accompanied by a loss of consciousness, and often urinary incontinence (generalized tonic-clonic seizures).
It is important to distinguish seizures from 'pseudo-seizures' (e.g. in hysteria or tetany) during which consciousness may appear altered but is not lost.
- 2 priorities: stop the seizures and determine the cause. In pregnant women, eclamptic seizures require specific medical and obstetrical care (see page 25).

Initial treatment

During a seizure

- Protect from trauma, maintain airway, place patient in 'recovery position', loosen clothing.
- Most seizures are quickly self-limited. Immediate administration of an anticonvulsant is not systematic. If generalized seizure lasts more than 3 minutes, use diazepam to stop it:

diazepam

Children: 0.5 mg/kg preferably rectally¹ without exceeding 10 mg.

IV administration is possible (0.3 mg/kg over 2 or 3 minutes), only if means of ventilation are available (Ambu bag and mask).

Adults: 10 mg rectally or slowly IV.

In all cases:

- Dilute 10 mg (2 ml) of diazepam in 8 ml of 5% glucose or 0.9% sodium chloride.
- If convulsion continues, repeat dose once after 5 minutes.
- In infants and elderly patients, monitor respiration and blood pressure.
- If convulsion continues after the second dose, treat as status epilepticus.

The patient is no longer seizing

- Look for the cause of the seizure and evaluate the risk of recurrence.
- Keep diazepam and glucose available in case the patient starts seizing again.

Status epilepticus

Several distinct seizures without complete restoration of consciousness in between or an uninterrupted seizure lasting more than 10 minutes.

- Protect from trauma, loosen clothing, maintain airway and administer oxygen as required.
- Insert an IV line.
- Administer by slow IV (over 5 minutes): 5 ml/kg of **10% glucose** in children and 1 ml/kg of **50% glucose** in adults.
- If diazepam (see above) has not stopped the seizure, continue with **phenobarbital** by IV infusion:

Children under 12 years: 20 mg/kg (maximum 1 g) in 100 ml of 0.9% sodium chloride or 5% glucose administered over 20 minutes minimum (never exceed 1 mg/kg/minute). If necessary, a second dose of 10 mg/kg may be administered (as above) 15 to 30 minutes after the first dose.

Children over 12 years and adults: 10 mg/kg (max. 1 g) in 100 ml of 0.9% sodium chloride or 5% glucose administered over 20 minutes minimum (never exceed 1 mg/kg/minute). If necessary, a second dose of 5 to 10 mg/kg may be administered (as above) 15 to 30 minutes after the first dose.

¹ For rectal administration, use a syringe without a needle, or better, cut a nasogastric tube, CH8, to a length of 2-3 cm and attach it to the tip of the syringe.

IM route may be an alternative when an IV (or intraosseous) access cannot be obtained.



There is a high risk of respiratory depression and hypotension, especially in children and elderly patients. Never administer phenobarbital by rapid IV injection. Monitor closely respiration and blood pressure. Ensure that respiratory support (Ambu bag via face mask or intubation) and IV solutions for fluid replacement are ready at hand.

Further treatment

– Febrile seizures

Determine the cause of the fever. Give **paracetamol** (see *Fever*, page 26), undress the patient, wrap in damp cloth.

In children under 3 years, there is usually no risk of later complications after simple febrile seizures and no treatment is required after the crisis. For further febrile episodes, give **paracetamol** PO.

– Infectious causes

Severe malaria (page 131), meningitis (page 165), meningo-encephalitis, cerebral toxoplasmosis (pages 217 and 218), cysticercosis (page 153), etc.

– Metabolic causes

Hypoglycaemia: administer glucose by slow IV injection (for administration, see page 23) to all patients who do not regain consciousness, to patients with severe malaria and to newborns and malnourished children. When possible, confirm hypoglycaemia (reagent strip test).

– Iatrogenic causes

Withdrawal of antiepileptic therapy in a patient being treated for epilepsy should be managed over a period of 4-6 months with progressive reduction of the doses. An abrupt stop of treatment may provoke severe recurrent seizures.

– Epilepsy

- A first brief seizure does not need further protective treatment. Only patients with chronic repetitive seizures require further regular protective treatment with an antiepileptic drug, usually over several years.
- Once a diagnosis is made, abstention from treatment may be recommended due to the risks associated with treatment. However, these risks must be balanced with the risks of aggravation of the epilepsy, ensuing seizure-induced cerebral damage and other injury if the patient is not treated.
- It is always preferable to start with monotherapy. The effective dose must be reached progressively and symptoms and drug tolerance evaluated every 15 to 20 days.
- An abrupt interruption of treatment may provoke status epilepticus. The rate of dose reduction varies according to the length of treatment; the longer the treatment period, the longer the reduction period (see *iatrogenic causes*, above). In the same way, a change from one antiepileptic drug to another must be made progressively with an overlap period of a few weeks.
- First line treatments for generalised tonic-clonic seizures in children under 2 years are carbamazepine or phenobarbital, in older children and adults sodium valproate or carbamazepine. For information:

carbamazepine PO

Children: initial dose of 2 mg/kg/day in 1 or 2 divided doses; increase every week until the optimal dose for the individual has been reached (usually 10 to 20 mg/kg/day in 2 to 4 divided doses).

Adults: initial dose of 200 mg/day in 1 or 2 divided doses; increase by 200 mg every week until the optimal dose for the individual has been reached (usually 800 to 1200 mg/day in 2 to 4 divided doses).

sodium valproate PO

Children over 20 kg: initial dose of 400 mg in 2 divided doses irrespective of weight; if necessary, increase the dose progressively until the optimal dose for the individual has been reached (usually 20 to 30 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses).

Adults: initial dose of 600 mg/day in 2 divided doses; increase by 200 mg/day every 3 days until the optimal dose for the individual has been reached (usually 1 to 2 g/day in 2 divided doses).

phenobarbital PO

Children: initial dose of 3 to 4 mg/kg/day at night, increase the dose progressively to 8 mg/kg/day if necessary

Adults: initial dose of 2 mg/kg/day at night (without exceeding 100 mg per day), increase the dose progressively to 6 mg/kg/day if necessary

Special situation: seizures during pregnancy

- **Eclampsia:** seizures during the third trimester of pregnancy, most commonly in the context of pre-eclampsia (hypertension, oedema and proteinuria on reagent-strip test).

- Symptomatic treatment of eclampsia:

Treatment of choice is **magnesium sulfate** by IV infusion: 4 g diluted in 0.9% sodium chloride to be administered over 15 minutes. Then infuse 1 g/hour, continue magnesium sulfate for 24 hours following delivery or the last seizure. If seizure recurs, give another 2 g by slow IV injection (over 15 minutes).

Monitor urine output. Stop the treatment if urinary output is less than 30 ml/hour or 100 ml/4 hours.

- ⚠ Before each injection, verify the concentration written on the ampoules: there is a risk of potentially fatal overdose. Always have calcium gluconate ready to reverse the effects of magnesium sulphate in the event of toxicity.

Monitor patellar tendon reflex every 15 minutes during the infusion. If the patient has malaise, drowsiness, difficulty speaking or loss of patellar reflex: stop the magnesium sulfate and inject 1 g of **calcium gluconate** by slow, direct IV injection (over 5 to 10 minutes).

Only in the absence of magnesium sulfate, use **diazepam**: 10 mg slow IV followed by 40 mg in 500 ml 5% glucose as a continuous infusion over 24 hours. If there is no venous access for the loading dose, give 20 mg rectally. In the event of treatment failure after 10 minutes, give a second dose of 10 mg.

For direct IV or rectal administration dilute diazepam in 5% glucose or 0.9% sodium chloride to make a total volume of 10 ml.

- Oxygen: 4 to 6 litres/minute
 - Nursing, hydration
 - Urgent delivery within 12 hours
 - Treatment of hypertension: see *Hypertension*, page 291
- **Other causes:** during pregnancy, consider that seizures may also be caused by cerebral malaria or meningitis (the incidence of these diseases is increased in pregnant women, see *Malaria*, page 131 and *Bacterial meningitis*, page 165).

Fever

Fever is defined as a temperature higher than 37.5°C axillary and 38°C if measured rectally. It is accepted that axillary temperature underestimates the core body temperature by 0.5°C, but this is very approximate. Use an electronic thermometer when available¹.

Fever is often linked, but not exclusively, with infection. All clinical examinations should include checking for fever.

In a febrile patient, first look for signs of serious illness, then try to establish a diagnosis.

Signs of serious illness

- Signs of sepsis with signs of shock: circulatory failure, respiratory distress, purpura, confusion, coma.
- Signs of a systemic illness: meningeal syndrome, seizures, heart murmur on auscultation, abdominal pain, rash, etc.
- Patient's underlying condition: malnutrition, immune suppression, splenectomy, chronic disease, the very young and the very old, bedridden patients.

Aetiology

Many different diseases, infectious or noninfectious, acute or chronic, benign or malignant, may be accompanied by fever. Among the infectious diseases requiring immediate treatment, look for:

- purpura fulminans
- bacterial meningitis
- severe malaria
- severe bacterial skin infections
- acute pyelonephritis with urinary retention
- peritonitis or gastrointestinal infection
- pneumonia with signs of respiratory distress
- subglottic or epiglottic laryngitis
- endocarditis
- septicaemia

In the absence of signs of serious illness and obvious diagnosis, patients may return home with an antipyretic and should be educated to prevent dehydration (plenty of fluids) and to recognize symptoms that need medical attention. Patients should return for a new consultation if there is no improvement within 48 hours of the initial consultation or before if their condition deteriorates.

In case of doubt (e.g. about the evolution, the quality of surveillance) and depending on the context (geographical distance, problems of transport), it may be better to keep patients 12 to 24 hours for observation.

Complications

- Convulsions
- Dehydration
- Confusion, delirium
- Shock

It is important, particularly in children, to look for signs of these complications, to treat them, and most importantly to prevent them.

¹ Temperature should be measured over a period of 5 minutes when using a mercury thermometer.

Symptomatic treatment

– Undress the patient.

– Antipyretics:

paracetamol PO

Children: 60 mg/kg/day in 3 or 4 divided doses

Adults: 3 to 4 g/day in 3 or 4 divided doses

or

acetylsalicylic acid (A.A.S) PO (to be avoided in children under 16 years)

Adults: 1 to 3 g/day in 3 or 4 divided doses

or

ibuprofen PO

Children over 3 months: 30 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses

Adults: 1200 to 1800 mg/day in 3 to 4 divided doses

Age	2 months		1 year	5 years	15 years	adult
Weight	4 kg		8 kg	15 kg	35 kg	
Paracetamol						
120 mg/5 ml oral solution	2 ml x 3	3 to 6 ml x 3	–	–	–	
100 mg tablet	1/2 tab x 3	3/4 to 1 1/2 tab x 3	1 1/2 to 3 tab x 3	–	–	
500 mg tablet			1/4 to 1/2 tab x 3	1/2 to 1 1/2 tab x 3	2 tab x 3	
A.A.S.	Avoid					
300 mg tablet						2 tab x 3
500 mg tablet						1 tab x 3

Age	3 months		6 years	15 years	adult
Weight	5 kg		20 kg	35 kg	
Ibuprofen					
100 mg/5 ml oral solution	Do not administer	Use the graduated pipette (in kg): one pipette filled up to the graduation corresponding to the child's weight x 3		–	–
200 mg tablet		–		1 to 2 tab x 3	2 tab x 3
400 mg tablet		–		–	1 tab x 3

- Properly hydrate the patient.
- Continue to feed, even if a child has little appetite. The mother must be persuaded of the importance of feeding/breastfeeding.
- In the event of a febrile seizure: see page 24.
- Treatment of the cause: according to the aetiology of the fever.

Notes:

- Paracetamol is the drug of choice for pregnant and breast-feeding women.
- Acetylsalicylic acid is not recommended during the first 5 months of pregnancy, contra-indicated from the beginning of the 6th month, and to be avoided in breastfeeding-women.
- Ibuprofen is not recommended during the first 5 months of pregnancy and contra-indicated from the beginning of the 6th month. It can be administered to breast-feeding women as short-term treatment.

Pain

Pain results from a variety of pathological processes. It is expressed differently by each patient depending on cultural background, age, etc. It is a highly subjective experience meaning that only the individual is able to assess his/her level of pain. Regular assessment of the intensity of pain is indispensable in establishing effective treatment.

Clinical features

– Pain assessment

- Intensity: use a simple verbal scale in children over 5 years and adults, and NFCS or FLACC scales in children less than 5 years (see pain rating scales on following page).
- Pattern: sudden, intermittent, chronic; at rest, at night, on movement, during care procedures, etc.
- Character: burning, cramping, spasmodic, radiating, etc.
- Aggravating or relieving factors, etc.

– Clinical examination

- Of the organ or area where the pain is located.
- Specific signs of underlying disease (e.g. bone or osteoarticular pain may be caused by a vitamin C deficiency) and review of all systems.
- Associated signs (fever, weight loss, etc.)

– Synthesis

The synthesis of information gathered during history taking and clinical examination allows aetiological diagnosis and orients treatment. It is important to distinguish:

- *Nociceptive* pain: it presents most often as acute pain and the cause-effect relationship is usually obvious (e.g. acute post-operative pain, burns, trauma, renal colic, etc.). The pain may be present in different forms, but neurological exam is normal. Treatment is relatively well standardized.
- *Neuropathic* pain, due to a nerve lesion (section, stretching, ischaemia): most often chronic pain. On a background of constant, more or less localized pain, such as paraesthesia or burning, there are recurrent acute attacks such as electric shock-like pain, frequently associated with disordered sensation (anaesthesia, hypo or hyperaesthesia). This type of pain is linked to viral infections directly affecting the CNS (herpes simplex, herpes zoster), neural compression by tumors, post-amputation pain, paraplegia, etc.
- *Mixed* pain (cancer, HIV) for which management requires a broader approach.

Pain evaluation scales

Self-evaluation scale - Children over 5 years and adults

Simple verbal scale (SVS)

Intensity of pain	No pain	Mild pain	Moderate pain	Severe pain
Scoring	0	1	2	3
Write down	0	+	++	+++

Observational evaluation scale - Children 2 months-5 years

FLACC scale (Face Limb Activity Cry Consolability)

Items	Scoring		
	0	1	2
Face	No particular expression or smile	Occasional grimace or frown, withdrawn, disinterested	Frequent to constant frown, clenched jaw, quivering chin
Legs	Normal position or relaxed	Uneasy, restless, tense	Kicking, or legs drawn up
Activity	Lying quietly, normal position, moves easily	Squirming, shifting back and forth, tense	Arched, rigid or jerking
Cry	No cry (awake or asleep)	Moans or whimpers, occasional complaint	Crying steadily, screams or sobs, frequent complaints
Consolability	Content, relaxed	Reassured by occasional touching, hugging or being talked to, distractible	Difficult to console or comfort

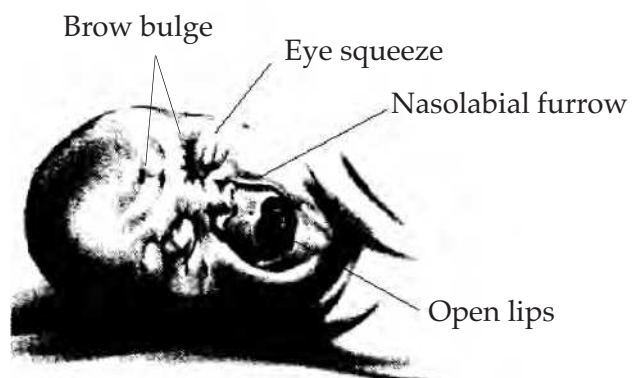
Each category is scored from 0 to 2, giving a final score between 0 and 10.

0 to 3: mild pain, 4 to 7: moderate pain, 7 to 10: severe pain

Observational evaluation scale - Children under 2 months

NFCS scale (Neonatal Facial Coding System)

Items	Scoring	
	0	1
Brow bulge	no	yes
Eye squeeze	no	yes
Nasolabial furrow	no	yes
Open lips	no	yes



A score of 2 or more signifies significant pain, requiring analgesic treatment.

Treatment

Treatment depends on the type and intensity of the pain. It may be both aetiological and symptomatic if a treatable cause is identified. Treatment is symptomatic only in other cases (no cause found, non-curable disease).

Nociceptive pain

The WHO classifies analgesics used for this type of pain on a three-step ladder:

- **Step 1:** non-opioid analgesics such as paracetamol and nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs).
- **Step 2:** weak opioid analgesics such as codeine and tramadol. Their combination with one or two Step 1 analgesics is recommended.
- **Step 3:** strong opioid analgesics, first and foremost morphine. Their combination with one or two Step 1 analgesics is recommended.

The treatment of pain is based on a few fundamental concepts:

- Pain can only be treated correctly if it is correctly evaluated. The only person who can evaluate the intensity of pain is the patient himself. The use of pain assessment scales is invaluable.
- The pain evaluation observations should be recorded in the patient chart in the same fashion as other vital signs.
- Treatment of pain should be as prompt as possible.
- It is recommended to administer analgesics in advance when appropriate (e.g. before painful care procedures).
- Analgesics should be prescribed and administered at fixed time intervals (not on demand).
- Oral forms should be used whenever possible.
- The combination of different analgesic drugs (multimodal analgesia) is advantageous.
- Start with an analgesic from the level presumed most effective: e.g., in the event of a fractured femur, start with a Step 3 analgesic.
- The treatment and dose chosen are guided by the assessment of pain intensity, but also by the patient's response which may vary significantly from one person to another.

Treatment of acute pain

Mild pain	Paracetamol + /- NSAID
Moderate pain	Paracetamol + /- NSAID + tramadol or codeine
Severe pain	Paracetamol + /- NSAID + morphine

	Analgesics	Children	Adults (except pregnant/ breast-feeding women)	Remarks
Level 1	paracetamol PO	15 mg/kg every 6 hours or 10 mg/kg every 4 hours	500 mg to 1 g every 4 to 6 hours (max. 4 g/day)	The efficacy of IV paracetamol is not superior to the efficacy of oral paracetamol; the IV route is restricted to situations where oral administration is impossible.
	paracetamol IV	< 10 kg: 7.5 mg/kg every 6 hours (max. 30 mg/kg/day) > 10 kg: 15 mg/kg every 6 hours (max. 60 mg/kg/day)	≤ 50 kg: 15 mg/kg every 6 hours (max. 60 mg/kg/day) > 50 kg: 1 g every 6 hours (max. 4 g/day)	
	acetylsalicylic acid (aspirin) PO	–	300 mg to 1 g every 4 to 6 hours (max. 3 to 4 g/day)	Avoid in children less than 16 years.
	diclofenac IM	–	75 mg once daily	Treatment must be as short as possible. Respect contra-indications.
	ibuprofen PO	> 3 months: 30 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses	1200 to 1800 mg/day in 3 to 4 divided doses	
Level 2	codeine PO	6 months-12 years: 0.5 to 1 mg/kg every 4 to 6 hours > 12 years: 30 to 60 mg every 4 to 6 hours (max. 240 mg/day)	30 to 60 mg every 4 to 6 hours (max. 240 mg/day)	Add a laxative if treatment > 48 hours.
	tramadol PO	> 6 months: 2 mg/kg every 6 hours	50 to 100 mg every 4 to 6 hours (max. 400 mg/day)	25 to 50 mg every 12 hours in elderly patients and in patients with severe renal or hepatic impairment.
	tramadol SC, IM, slow IV or infusion	> 6 months: 2 mg/kg every 6 hours	50 to 100 mg every 4 to 6 hours (max. 600 mg/day)	

	Analgesics	Children	Adults (except pregnant/ breast-feeding women)	Remarks
Level 3	morphine PO, immediate release (MIR)	> 6 months: 1 mg/kg/day in 6 divided doses at 4 hour-intervals, to be adjusted in relation to pain intensity	60 mg/day in 6 divided doses at 4 hour-intervals, to be adjusted in relation to pain intensity	- Reduce the dose (30 mg/day) in elderly patients and patients with renal or hepatic impairment. - Add a laxative if treatment > 48 hours.
	morphine PO, slow release (MSR)	The effective daily dose is determined during the initial treatment with immediate release morphine (MIR). If treatment is initiated directly with MSR: > 6 months: 1 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses at 12 hour-intervals, to be adjusted in relation to pain intensity	The effective daily dose is determined during the initial treatment with immediate release morphine (MIR). If treatment is initiated directly with MSR: 60 mg/day in 2 divided doses at 12 hour-intervals, to be adjusted in relation to pain intensity	- Do not initiate treatment with the sustained release morphine in elderly patients or those with renal or hepatic impairment. Begin treatment with the immediate release morphine (MIR). - Add a laxative if treatment > 48 hours.
	morphine SC, IM	> 6 months: 0.1 to 0.2 mg/kg every 4 hours	0.1 to 0.2 mg/kg every 4 hours	- In elderly patients and in patients with severe renal or hepatic impairment: reduce doses by half and administer less frequently, according to clinical response. - Add a laxative if treatment > 48 hours.
	morphine IV	> 6 months: 0.1 mg/kg administered in fractionated doses (0.05 mg/kg every 10 minutes), to be repeated every 4 hours if necessary	0.1 mg/kg administered in fractionated doses (0.05 mg/kg every 10 minutes), to be repeated every 4 hours if necessary	

Notes on the use of morphine and derivatives:

- Morphine is an effective treatment for many types of severe pain. Its analgesic effect is dose-dependent. Its adverse effects have often been exaggerated and should not be an obstacle to its use.
- The most serious adverse effect of morphine is respiratory depression, which may be fatal. This adverse effect results from overdose. It is, therefore, important to increase doses gradually. Respiratory depression is preceded by drowsiness, which is a warning to monitor respiratory rate (RR).

The RR should remain equal to or greater than the thresholds indicated below:

Neonate	RR \geq 35 respirations/min
Children 1 to 12 months	RR \geq 25 respirations/min
Children 1 to 2 years	RR \geq 20 respirations/min
Children 2 to 5 years	RR \geq 15 respirations/min
Children > 5 years and adults	RR \geq 10 respirations/min

Respiratory depression must be identified and treated quickly: verbal and physical stimulation of the patient; administration of oxygen; respiratory support (bag and mask) if necessary. If no improvement, administer naloxone (antagonist of morphine) in bolus of 1 to 3 micrograms/kg as necessary until RR normalises and the excessive drowsiness resolves.

- Morphine and codeine always cause constipation. A laxative should be prescribed if the opioid treatment continues more than 48 hours. **Lactulose** PO is the drug of choice: children < 1 year: 5 ml/day; children 1-6 years: 5 to 10 ml/day; children 7-14 years: 10 to 15 ml/day; adults: 15 to 45 ml/day).

If the patient's stools are soft, a stimulant laxative (**bisacodyl** PO: children > 3 years: 5 to 10 mg/day; adults: 10 to 15 mg/day) is preferred.

- Nausea and vomiting are common at the beginning of treatment.

Adults:

haloperidol PO (2 mg/ml oral solution): 1 to 2 mg to be repeated up to 6 times daily or **metoclopramide** PO: 15 to 30 mg/day in 3 divided doses with an interval of at least 6 hours between each dose

Do not combine haloperidol and metoclopramide.

Children:

ondansetron PO: 0.15 mg/kg to be repeated up to 3 times daily. Do not exceed 4 mg/dose.

Do not use metoclopramide in children.

- For chronic pain in late stage disease (cancer, AIDS etc.), morphine PO is the drug of choice. It may be necessary to increase doses over time according to pain assessment. Do not hesitate to give sufficient and effective doses.
- Morphine, tramadol and codeine have similar modes of action and should not be combined.

- Buprenorphine, nalbuphine and pentazocine must not be combined with morphine, pethidine, tramadol or codeine because they have competitive action.

Treatment of nociceptive pain in pregnant and breast-feeding women

Analgesics		Pregnancy		Breast-feeding
		1 st and 2 nd trimester	3 rd trimester and term	
Level 1	paracetamol	1 st choice	1 st choice	1 st choice
	aspirin	avoid	contra-indicated	avoid
	ibuprofen	avoid	contra-indicated	possible
Level 2	codeine	possible	The newborn infant may develop withdrawal symptoms, respiratory depression and drowsiness in the event of prolonged administration of large doses at the end of the 3 rd trimester. Closely monitor the newborn infant.	Use with caution, for a short period (2-3 days), at the lowest effective dose. Monitor the mother and the child: in the event of excessive drowsiness, stop treatment.
	tramadol	possible	The child may develop drowsiness when the mother receives tramadol at the end of the 3 rd trimester and during breast-feeding. Administer with caution, for a short period, at the lowest effective dose, and monitor the child.	
Level 3	morphine	possible	The child may develop withdrawal symptoms, respiratory depression and drowsiness when the mother receives morphine at the end of the 3 rd trimester and during breast-feeding. Administer with caution, for a short period, at the lowest effective dose, and monitor the child.	

Neuropathic pain

Commonly used analgesics are often ineffective in treating this type of pain.

Treatment of neuropathic pain is based on a combination of two centrally acting drugs:

amitriptyline PO

Adults: start with a dose of 10 to 25 mg/day at night and increase progressively to reach an effective dose, without exceeding 150 mg/day. Reduce the dose by 1/2 in elderly patients.

carbamazepine PO

Adults: start with a dose of 200 mg once daily at night for one week, then 400 mg/day in 2 divided doses (morning and night) for one week, then 600 mg/day in 3 divided doses. Given its teratogenic risk, carbamazepine should only be used in women of childbearing age when covered by non-hormonal contraception (copper intrauterine device).

Mixed pain

In mixed pain with a significant component of nociceptive pain, such as in cancer or AIDS, morphine is combined with antidepressants and antiepileptics.

Chronic pain

In contrast to acute pain, medical treatment alone is not always sufficient in controlling chronic pain. A multidisciplinary approach including medical treatment, physiotherapy, psychotherapy and nursing is often necessary to allow good pain relief and encourage patient self-management.

Co-analgesics

The combination of certain drugs may be useful or even essential in the treatment of pain: antispasmodics, muscle relaxants, anxiolytics, corticosteroids, local anaesthesia, etc.

Anaemia

- Anaemia is defined as a haemoglobin level below reference values¹. It is a frequent symptom in tropical settings where 10 to 20 % of the population present with Hb levels less than 10 g/dl.
- Anaemia is caused by:
 - *decreased production of red blood cells*: nutritional iron and/or folic acid deficiency, depressed bone marrow function, some infections (HIV, visceral leishmaniasis etc.);
 - *loss of red blood cells*: acute or chronic haemorrhage (ancylostomiasis etc.)
 - *increased destruction of red blood cells (haemolysis)*: malaria; infections or the intolerance of certain drugs by patients with G6PD deficiency (primaquine, dapson, cotrimoxazole, nalidixic acid, nitrofurantoin derivatives etc.); haemoglobinopathies (sickle cell disease, thalassaemias); certain bacterial and viral infections (HIV).
- In tropical settings, the causes are often interlinked, the two most common causes are nutritional deficiencies and malaria. The groups most at risk are children and young women, particularly during pregnancy.
- Anaemia in itself is not an indication for transfusion. Most anaemias are well tolerated and can be corrected with simple aetiological treatment.

Clinical features

- Common signs of anaemia: pallor of the conjunctivae, mucous membranes, palms of hands and soles of feet; fatigue, dizziness, oedema in the lower limbs, dyspnoea, tachycardia, heart murmur.
- Signs that anaemia may be immediately life threatening: sweating, thirst, cold extremities, tachycardia, respiratory distress and shock.
- Look for signs of a specific pathology: cheilosis, nutritional deficiency glossitis, haemolytic jaundice, signs of malaria (see page 131) etc.

Laboratory

- Haemoglobin level (or if haemoglobin is not available, haematocrit)
- Thick and thin blood films or rapid test if malaria is suspected

¹ Normal values: > 13 g/dl in men; > 12 g/dl in women; > 11 g/dl in pregnant women; > 13.5 g/dl in newborns; > 9.5 g/dl in infants from 2 to 6 months; > 11 g/dl in children from 6 months to 6 years; > 11.5 g/dl in children from 6 to 12 years.

Treatment

Iron deficiency anaemia

- **elemental iron** PO² for 3 months
Children under 2 years: 30 mg once daily = 1/2 tab/day
Children from 2 to 12 years: 60 mg once daily = 1 tab/day
Adults: 120 to 180 mg/day in 2 or 3 divided doses = 2 to 3 tab/day
or preferably, give a combination of **elemental iron** (65 mg) + **folic acid** (400 µg) PO².
- Combine with an anthelmintic
albendazole PO (except during the first trimester of pregnancy)
Children > 6 months and adults: 400 mg as a single dose
(Children > 6 months but < 10 kg: 200 mg as a single dose)
or
mebendazole PO (except during the first trimester of pregnancy)
Children > 6 months and adults: 200 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 3 days
(Children > 6 months but < 10 kg: 100 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 3 days)

Folic acid deficiency anaemia (rarely isolated)

- **folic acid** PO
Children under 1 year: 0.5 mg/kg once daily for 4 months
Children over 1 year and adults: 5 mg once daily for 4 months

Haemolytic anaemia

- Malaria: iron is ineffective except in patients with an associated iron deficiency. For the treatment of malaria, see page 131.
- G6PD deficiency: no specific treatment; early treatment of infections; stop any drugs suspected to be causing a reaction.

Immediately life threatening anaemia

- Oxygen, particularly for children.
- Transfusion after determination of blood group and type and screening for HIV, hepatitis B and C, syphilis, malaria in endemic areas. To determine the blood volume required and the rate of transfusion, see next page.

Note: the prevalence of HIV infection makes screening of donors vital. If there is no possibility of screening, it is up to the physician to weigh the transfusion risk with the life or death risk of not transfusing the patient. All transfusions that are not strictly indicated are strictly contra-indicated.

² Doses are calculated in elemental iron.

Tablets of 200 mg ferrous sulphate such as those of ferrous sulphate + folic acid contain 65 mg of elemental iron.
300 mg tablets of ferrous gluconate contain 35 mg of elemental iron.

Adults	
Determine the <i>volume</i> of whole blood to be transfused: $V = (\text{haemoglobin required} - \text{patient's haemoglobin}) \times 6 \times \text{patient's weight}$	Example: haemoglobin required = 7 g/dl patient's haemoglobin = 4 g/dl patient's weight = 60 kg Volume in ml = $(7 - 4) \times 6 \times 60 = 1080$ ml
Determine the <i>transfusion rate</i> : (1 ml of whole blood = 15 drops)	Example: 1080 ml to be administered over 3 hours $1080 \text{ (ml)} \div 180 \text{ (minutes)} = 6 \text{ ml/minute}$ $6 \text{ (ml)} \times 15 \text{ (drops)} = 90 \text{ drops/minute}$
Children	
Newborns and children under 1 year: 15 ml/kg over 3 to 4 hours Children over 1 year: 20 ml/kg over 3 to 4 hours Malnourished children: 10 ml/kg over 3 hours	Example: a malnourished child weighing 25 kg $10 \text{ (ml)} \times 25 \text{ (kg)} = 250 \text{ ml over 3 hours}$ $250 \text{ (ml)} \div 180 \text{ (minutes)} = 1.4 \text{ ml/minute}$ $1.4 \text{ (ml)} \times 15 \text{ (drops)} = 21 \text{ drops/minute}$

Monitor vital signs (pulse, blood pressure, respiratory rate, temperature) and watch for clinical signs of transfusion reactions.

In some cases, particularly in children suffering from severe malaria, anaemia may cause heart failure which may be decompensated by transfusion. If signs of hypervolaemia are seen: **furosemide** slow, direct IV: 1 mg/kg without exceeding 20 mg/kg.

- If present, treat any pulmonary or parasitic infection (malaria).

Prevention

- Iron or folic acid deficiency:
 - drug supplements in pregnant woman:
 - elemental iron** (65 mg) + **folic acid** (400 µg) PO: 60 mg once daily = 1 tab/day
 - Nutritional supplements if the basic diet is insufficient
- For patients with sickle cell disease: long term treatment with **folic acid** PO: 5 mg/day.
- Early treatment of malaria, helminthic infections etc.

Severe acute malnutrition

Severe acute malnutrition is caused by a significant imbalance between nutritional intake and individual needs. It is most often caused by both quantitative (number of kilocalories/day) and qualitative (vitamins and minerals, etc.) deficiencies.

Children over 6 months of age

The two principal forms of severe malnutrition are:

- *Marasmus*: significant loss of muscle mass and subcutaneous fat, resulting in a skeletal appearance.
- *Kwashiorkor*: bilateral oedema of the lower limbs/oedema of the face, often associated with cutaneous signs (shiny or cracked skin, burn-like appearance; discoloured and brittle hair).

The two forms may be associated (marasmic-kwashiorkor).

In addition to these characteristic signs, severe acute malnutrition is accompanied by significant physiopathological disorders (metabolic disturbances, anaemia, compromised immunity, leading to susceptibility to infections often difficult to diagnose, etc.).

Complications are frequent and potentially life-threatening.

Mortality rates may be elevated in the absence of specific medical management.

Admission and discharge criteria for treatment programmes for severe acute malnutrition are both anthropometric and clinical:

- Mid-upper arm circumference (MUAC) is the circumference, measured in mid-position, of the relaxed left upper arm, taken in children of 6 to 59 months (65 to 110 cm in height). MUAC measures the degree of muscle wasting. A MUAC of < 115 mm indicates severe malnutrition and significant mortality risk.
- Weight for height (W/H) index assesses the degree of weight loss by comparing the weight of the malnourished child with non-malnourished children of the same height. Severe malnutrition is defined as a W/H index of < – 3Z with reference to the new WHO child growth standards¹.
- The presence of bilateral oedema of the lower limbs (when other causes of oedema have been ruled out) indicates severe malnutrition, regardless of the MUAC and W/H.

¹ Some national programmes define anthropometric admission and discharge criteria with reference to NCHS growth standards, with thresholds expressed in percentage of the median.

Usual admission criteria are: MUAC < 115 mm (MUAC is not used as an admission criterion in children older than 59 months or taller than 110 cm) or W/H < - 3Z² or presence of bilateral oedema of the lower limbs.

Usual discharge (cure) criteria are: W/H > - 2Z² and absence of bilateral oedema (2 consecutive assessments, one week apart) and absence of acute medical problems.

Medical management (hospitalisation or ambulatory care) is based on the presence or absence of associated serious complications:

- Children exhibiting anorexia, or significant medical complications, such as severe anaemia, severe dehydration or severe infection (complicated acute malnutrition) should be hospitalised³.
- Children without significant medical complications (uncomplicated acute malnutrition) may undergo treatment on an ambulatory basis, with weekly medical follow-up.

Treatment

1) Nutritional treatment

Nutritional treatment is based on the use of therapeutic foods enriched with vitamins and minerals:

- Therapeutic milks (for use exclusively in hospitalised patients):
 - F-75 therapeutic milk, low in protein, sodium and calories (0.9 g of protein and 75 kcal per 100 ml) is used in the initial phase of treatment for patients suffering from complicated acute malnutrition. It is used to cover basic needs while complications are being treated. It is given in 8 daily meals.
 - F-100 therapeutic milk, in which the concentration of protein and calories is higher (2.9 g of protein and 100 kcal per 100 ml), replaces F-75 after several days, once the patient is stabilised (return of appetite, clinical improvement; disappearance or reduction of oedema). The objective is to facilitate rapid weight gain. It can be given with, or be replaced by, RUTF.
- RUTF (ready-to-use therapeutic food), i.e. foods which are ready for consumption (for example, peanut paste enriched with milk solids, such as Plumpy'nut®), are used in children treated in both hospital or ambulatory settings. The nutritional composition of RUTF is similar to F-100, but the iron content is higher. It is designed to promote rapid weight gain (approximately 500 kcal per 100 g). RUTF are the only therapeutic foods which can be used in ambulatory treatment.

² Some national programmes define anthropometric admission and discharge criteria with reference to NCHS growth standards, with thresholds expressed in percentage of the median.

³ As a rule, any malnourished child presenting with medical complications should initially be hospitalised, even if s/he suffers from moderate, rather than severe, malnutrition (W/H > - 3Z).

Furthermore, it is important to give drinking water, in addition to meals, especially if the ambient temperature is high or the child has a fever.

Breastfeeding should continue in children of the appropriate age.

2) Routine medical treatment

In the absence of specific medical complications, the following routine treatments should be implemented in both ambulatory and hospital settings:

– *Infections*

- Measles vaccination on admission.
- Broad spectrum antibiotic therapy starting on Day 1 (**amoxicillin** PO: 70 to 100 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses for 5 days)⁴.
- In endemic malaria areas: rapid test on D1, with treatment in accordance with results. If testing is not available, give malaria treatment (page 131).
- Treatment for intestinal worms on D8:
albendazole PO
Children > 6 months: 400 mg as a single dose (200 mg in children > 6 months but < 10 kg)

– *Micronutrient deficiencies*

Therapeutic foods correct most of these deficiencies.

3) Management of common complications

– *Diarrhoea and dehydration*

Diarrhoea is common in malnourished children. Therapeutic foods facilitate the recovery of gastrointestinal mucosa and restore the production of gastric acid, digestive enzymes and bile. Amoxicillin, administered as part of routine treatment, is effective in reducing bacterial load. Diarrhoea generally resolves without any additional treatment.

Watery diarrhoea is sometimes related to another pathology (otitis, pneumonia, malaria, etc.), which should be considered.

If an aetiological treatment is necessary, see page 83.

If a child has a significant diarrhoea (very frequent or abundant stools) but is not dehydrated, administer specific oral rehydration solution (ReSoMal, see below), after each watery stool, to avoid dehydration, according to the WHO treatment Plan A (page 316). However, if the child has no profuse diarrhoea, give plain water (not ReSoMal) after each loose stool.

Dehydration is more difficult to assess in malnourished than healthy children (e.g., delay in return of skin pinch and sunken eyes are present even without dehydration in children with marasmus.).

⁴ If specific signs of infection are present, the choice of treatment should be directed by the suspected focus.

⁵ Complete curative treatment with vitamin A is reserved for patients presenting with clinically detectable ocular lesions (see *Vitamin A deficiency*, page 121).

The diagnosis is made on the basis of a history of watery diarrhoea of recent onset accompanied by weight loss, corresponding to fluid losses since the onset of diarrhoea. Chronic and persistent diarrhoea does not require rapid rehydration.

In the event of dehydration:

- *In there is no hypovolaemic shock*, rehydration is made by the oral route (if necessary using a nasogastric tube), with specific oral rehydration solution (ReSoMal)⁶, containing less sodium and more potassium than standard solutions.

ReSoMal is administered under medical supervision (clinical evaluation and weight every hour). The dose is 20 ml/kg/hour for the first 2 hours, then 10 ml/kg/hour until the weight loss (known or estimated) has been corrected. Give ReSoMal after each watery stool according to the WHO treatment Plan A (page 316).

In practice, it is useful to determine the target weight before starting rehydration. The target weight is the weight before the onset of diarrhoea. If the child is improving and showing no signs of fluid overload, rehydration is continued until the previous weight is attained.

If the weight loss cannot be measured (e.g. in newly admitted child), it can be estimated at 2 to 5% of the child's current weight. The target weight should not exceed 5% of the current weight (e.g., if the child weighs 5 kg before starting rehydration, the target weight should not exceed 5.250 kg). Regardless of the target weight, rehydration should be stopped if signs of fluid overload appear.

- *In case of hypovolaemic shock* (weak and rapid or absent radial pulse, cold extremities, CRT \geq 3 seconds, whether or not consciousness is altered) in a child with diarrhoea or dehydration:
 - Place an IV line and administer 10 ml/kg of **0.9% sodium chloride** over 30 minutes, under close medical supervision.

Simultaneously:

- Start broad spectrum antibiotic therapy:
 - ceftriaxone** IV 100 mg/kg/day + **cloxacillin** IV 200 mg/kg/day
- Administer oxygen (2 litres minimum).
- Check blood glucose level or administer 5 ml/kg of 10% glucose by slow IV injection.

Every 5 minutes, evaluate clinical response (recovery of consciousness, strong pulse, CTR < 3 seconds) and check for signs of over-hydration.

- If the clinical condition has improved after 30 minutes, switch to the oral route with **ReSoMal**: 5 ml/kg every 30 minutes for 2 hours.

⁶ Except for cholera, in which case standard oral rehydration solutions are used.

- If the clinical condition has not improved, administer again 10 ml/kg of **0.9% sodium chloride** over 30 minutes then, when the clinical condition has improved, switch to the oral route as above.

When switching to the oral route, stop the infusion but leave the catheter (capped) in place to keep a venous access, for IV antibiotic therapy.

– *Bacterial infections*

Lower respiratory infections, otitis, skin and urinary infections are common, but sometimes difficult to identify (absence of fever and specific symptoms).

Infection should be suspected in a drowsy or apathetic child.

Severe infection should be suspected in the event of shock, hypothermia or hypoglycaemia. Since the infectious focus may be difficult to determine, a broad spectrum antibiotic therapy (cloxacilline + ceftriaxone) is recommended.

– *Hypothermia and hypoglycaemia*

Hypothermia (rectal temperature < 35.5°C or axillary < 35°C) is a frequent cause of death in the first days of hospitalisation.

Prevention measures include keeping the child close to the mother's body (kangaroo method) and provision of blankets.

In case of hypothermia, warm the child as above, monitor the temperature, treat hypoglycaemia. Severe infection should be suspected in the event of hypothermia (see above).

In hypoglycaemia, suspected or confirmed (test strip), administer glucose PO if the child is able to drink (50 ml of sugar water [50 ml water + a teaspoon of sugar] or 50 ml of milk); if the child is unconscious, 5 ml/kg of 10% glucose slow IV, to be repeated once if necessary. Treat possible underlying infection.

– *Oral candidiasis*

Look routinely for oral candidiasis as it interferes with feeding, see treatment page 92.

If the child fails to recover despite appropriate nutritional and medical treatment, consider another pathology: tuberculosis, HIV infection, etc.

Adolescents and adults

Clinical examination of the patient (sudden weight loss, loss of mobility from muscle wasting, cachexia, bilateral lower limb oedema in the absence of other causes of oedema) is indispensable for the diagnosis and adapted medical, nutritional and even social care of the patient.

Admission and discharge criteria, as a rough guide, are:

– Admission criteria:

Adolescents: W/H according to NCHS-CDC-WHO 1982 reference table or bilateral lower limb oedema (Grade 3 or more, having excluded other causes of oedema).

Adults: MUAC < 160 mm or bilateral lower limb oedema or MUAC < 185 mm in poor general condition (for example, inability to stand, evident dehydration).

As in children, any malnourished patient presenting with significant complications should initially be hospitalised, regardless of the anthropometric criteria above.

– Discharge criteria:

Adolescents: as in children.

Adults: weight gain of 10-15% over admission weight and oedema below Grade 2 and good general condition.

Nutritional treatment follows the same principles as in children, but the calorie intake in relation to body weight is lower.

Routine treatment is similar to that in children, with the following exceptions:

– Measles vaccine is only administered to adolescents (up to age 15).

– Antibiotics are not routinely given, but infections should be considered, and treated or excluded, in the assessment of the patient.

Respiratory diseases

Rhinitis and rhinopharyngitis (common cold)	49
Acute sinusitis	50
Acute laryngitis	51
Acute pharyngitis	53
Diphtheria	55
Otitis	57
Whooping cough (pertussis)	60
Bronchitis	62
Bronchiolitis	64
Acute pneumonia	66
Staphylococcal pneumonia	73
Asthma	74
Pulmonary tuberculosis	79

Rhinitis and rhinopharyngitis (common cold)

Rhinitis (inflammation of the nasal mucosa) and rhinopharyngitis (inflammation of the nasal and pharyngeal mucosa) are generally benign, self-limited and most often of viral origin. However, they may be an early sign of another infection (e.g. measles or influenza) or may be complicated by a bacterial infection (e.g. otitis media or sinusitis).

Clinical features

- Nasal discharge or obstruction, which may be accompanied by sore throat, fever, cough, lacrimation, and diarrhoea in infants. Purulent nasal discharge is not indicative of a secondary bacterial infection.
- In children under 5 years, routinely check the tympanic membranes to look for an associated otitis media.

Treatment

- Antibiotic treatment is not recommended: it does not promote recovery nor prevent complications.
- Treatment is symptomatic:
 - Clear the nose with 0.9% sodium chloride¹.
 - Fever, throat soreness: paracetamol PO for 2 to 3 days (see page 26).

¹ For a child: place him on his back, head turned to the side, and instil 0.9% sodium chloride into each nostril.

Acute sinusitis

Acute sinusitis is an infection of the sinus mucosa with purulent discharge of nasal (rhinitis, allergies, obstruction) or dental origin. It may develop into chronic sinusitis, particularly in older children and adults.

Clinical features

- Facial pain or ache and purulent nasal discharge

Older children and adults

- Peri-orbital pain in frontal sinusitis; facial pain in maxillary and/or ethmoidal sinusitis.
- Purulent nasal discharge from the side with pain, nasal obstruction and moderate fever.
- On examination
 - pain on pressure over the forehead, under the upper border of the orbit or cheek,
 - purulent secretions in the meatus and inflammation of the mucosa.

The most common causes are *Haemophilus influenzae* in children under 5 years and pneumococci in patients over 5 years.

Type specific to infants and small children

- Acute ethmoiditis: high fever, inflammation and swelling of the lower eyelids and the bridge of the nose, purulent nasal discharge.
- Risk of infection spreading to the neighbouring bony structures, orbits and the meninges.

The most common causes are *Haemophilus influenzae*, pneumococci and staphylococci.

Treatment

- Nasal irrigation with 0.9% sodium chloride or Ringer Lactate 4 to 6 times/day to clear the airway.
- Pain and fever: give paracetamol PO (see page 26).
- Antibiotic treatment, depending on the severity of infection:
 - amoxicillin** PO: 80 mg/kg/day in 2 or 3 divided doses for 7 to 10 days
 - For patients allergic to penicillin:
 - erythromycin** PO: 30 to 50 mg/kg/day in 2 to 3 divided doses for 7 to 10 days
- For sinusitis secondary to dental infection: dental extraction while under antibiotic treatment.
- In infants with ethmoiditis, strong antibiotic treatment is necessary:
 - ceftriaxone** IM: 100 mg/kg/day in 2 injections for 10 days
 - or, failing that,
 - ampicillin** IV: 200 mg/kg/day in 3 or 4 injections until improvement is seen, then change to oral treatment with **amoxicillin** PO: 100 mg/kg/day in 2 or 3 divided doses to complete 10 days of treatment

Acute laryngitis

2

Laryngitis is an acute infection of the laryngeal mucosa of viral or sometimes bacterial origin.

Clinical features common to all laryngitis

- Inspiratory dyspnoea with cough and hoarse voice. Chest indrawing and stridor may be present.
- Signs of serious illness: sweating, tachycardia, cyanosis, altered level of consciousness.

Examine children in a sitting position. Do not lay children down: there is a risk of respiratory airway obstruction.

Aetiology and treatment

Children over 6 months

1st case: rapid onset dyspnoea (over a few hours)

- **Acute epiglottitis** due to *Haemophilus influenzae*: sudden onset, severe dyspnoea, chest indrawing, high fever, cervical lymphadenopathy. The child is sitting, breathing through the mouth, drooling clear saliva which he cannot swallow due to dysphagia. The overall condition may deteriorate very quickly.
 - Avoid examining the larynx (risk of respiratory arrest), do not lay the child down, keep him in a sitting position.
 - Have the child breathe in a humid environment (next to a bowl of water or a wet towel).
 - Antibiotic treatment:
 - ceftriaxone** IM: 100 mg/kg/day in 2 injections for 5 days
 - or, failing that,
 - ampicillin** IV: 200 mg/kg/day in 3 or 4 injections, change as soon as possible to oral treatment with **amoxicillin** PO: 100 mg/kg/day in 2 or 3 divided doses to complete 5 days of treatment
 - or
 - chloramphenicol** IV: 100 mg/kg/day in 3 injections, change as soon as possible to oral treatment, at the same dosages to complete 5 days of treatment
 - If a patient has severe respiratory distress: intubation in a specialised setting, or failing that, tracheotomy.
- **Spasmodic laryngitis** in a child with rhinitis or measles: sudden, nocturnal onset with coughing fits followed by periods of suffocation and inspiratory dyspnoea. The child may develop stridor. The voice remains hoarse after the attack. The child remains afebrile.
 - Monitor the child, try to keep him calm. Have him breathe in a humid environment (near a bowl of water or wet towel).

- Nasal irrigation with 0.9% sodium chloride or Ringer Lactate, 4 to 6 times/day to clear the airway.
- An antihistamine may be given for 3 days (promethazine PO or chlorphenamine PO, see page 117).
- In children with severe dyspnoea:
dexamethasone IM: 0.1 to 0.2 mg/kg as a single dose
or **hydrocortisone** IM: 1 mg/kg as a single dose

2nd case: progressive onset dyspnoea (over more than 24 hours)

- **Viral subglottitis:** the onset is frequently nocturnal, the dyspnoea is typical, the cry and cough have a raucous sound, but expiration is unobstructed.
 - Monitor the child, try to keep him calm. Have him breathe in a humid environment (near a bowl of water or wet towel).
 - **dexamethasone** IM: 0.1 to 0.2 mg/kg or **hydrocortisone** IM: 1 mg/kg, to be repeated after 30 minutes if necessary
 - Antibiotics are not useful, except in cases of secondary infection (amoxicillin or cotrimoxazole).
 - In case of deterioration: intubation if possible, or, failing that, tracheotomy.

Note: exclude diphtheria (see *Diphtheria*, page 55) and retropharyngeal abscess.

Adults

- Usually viral: treatment is symptomatic (paracetamol or acetylsalicylic acid PO).
- Very rarely, epiglottitis due to *Haemophilus influenzae*, diphtheria or retropharyngeal abscess: same clinical signs and treatment as for children.
- Also consider laryngeal tuberculosis in a patient with tuberculosis, or cancer of the larynx, particularly if the patient smokes.

Acute pharyngitis

Acute inflammation of the tonsils and pharynx. The majority of cases are of viral origin and do not require antibiotic treatment.

Group A streptococcus is the main bacterial cause, and mainly affects children age 3 to 14 years. Acute rheumatic fever, a serious late complication of streptococcal pharyngitis, is common in developing countries, and can be prevented with antibiotic therapy.

One of the main objectives in assessing acute pharyngitis is to identify patients requiring antibiotic treatment.

Clinical features

- Features common to all types of pharyngitis:
Throat pain and dysphagia (difficulty swallowing), with or without fever.

- Specific features, depending on the cause:

Common forms:

- *Erythematous* (red throat) or *exudative* (red throat and whitish exudate) *pharyngitis*:
Since this appearance is common to both viral and streptococcal pharyngitis, other criteria should be considered to distinguish between them:

In children under 3 years, streptococcal pharyngitis is rare and pharyngitis is almost exclusively viral.

In children from 3 to 14 years, the presence of at least 3 of the 4 following features [absence of cough, fever above 38°C, at least one enlarged and tender anterior cervical lymph node, presence of an exudate] favours streptococcal pharyngitis. Conversely, presence of cough, runny nose, conjunctivitis or enlarged posterior cervical lymph nodes favours viral pharyngitis.

In patients over 14 years, the probability of streptococcal pharyngitis is low. Infectious mononucleosis (IM) due to the Epstein-Barr virus should be suspected in adolescents and young adults with extreme fatigue, generalized adenopathy and often splenomegaly.

Erythematous or exudative pharyngitis may also be associated with gonococcal or primary HIV infection. In these cases, the diagnosis is mainly prompted by the patient's history.

- *Pseudomembranous pharyngitis* (red tonsils/pharynx covered with an adherent grayish white false membrane): see *diphtheria*, page 55.

Less common forms:

- *Vesicular pharyngitis* (clusters of tiny blisters on the tonsils): always viral (coxsackie virus or primary herpetic infection).
- *Ulceronecrotic pharyngitis*: hard and painless syphilitic chancre of the tonsil; tonsillar ulcer soft on palpation in a patient with poor oral hygiene and malodorous breath (Vincent tonsillitis).

- Local complications:

Peritonsillar abscess: fever, intense pain, hoarse voice, trismus (limitation of mouth opening), unilateral deviation of the uvula.

Treatment

- Treat fever and pain in all cases (paracetamol PO, page 26)
- Viral pharyngitis is usually a self-limited illness. Spontaneous resolution typically occurs within a few days (or weeks, for IM): no antibiotic therapy.
- Choice of antibiotic treatment for streptococcal pharyngitis:
 - If single-use injection equipment is available, benzathine benzylpenicillin is the drug of choice as streptococcus A resistance to penicillin remains rare; it is the only antibiotic proven effective in reducing the incidence of rheumatic fever; and the treatment is administered as a single dose.
benzathine benzylpenicillin IM
Children under 6 years: 600 000 IU as a single dose
Children over 6 years and adults: 1.2 MIU as a single dose
 - Penicillin V is the oral reference treatment, but poor adherence is predictable due to the length of treatment.
phenoxymethylpenicilin (penicillin V) PO for 10 days
Children under 1 year: 250 mg/day in 2 divided doses
Children from 1 to 5 years: 500 mg/day in 2 divided doses
Children from 6 to 12 years: 1 g/day in 2 divided doses
Adults: 2 g/day in 2 divided doses
 - Amoxicillin is an alternative and the treatment has the advantage of being relatively short. However, it can cause adverse skin reactions in patients with undiagnosed IM and thus should be avoided when IM has not been excluded.
amoxicillin PO for 6 days
Children: 50 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses
Adults: 2 g/day in 2 divided doses
 - Resistance to macrolides is frequent, erythromycin and azithromycin should be reserved for penicillin allergic patients. Poor adherence with erythromycin is predictable due to the length of treatment. Azithromycin treatment has the advantage of being short.
erythromycin PO for 10 days
Children: 30 to 50 mg/kg/day in 2 to 3 divided doses
Adults: 2 to 3 g/day in 2 to 3 divided doses
or
azithromycin PO for 3 days
Children: 20 mg/kg once daily
Adults: 500 mg once daily
- Gonococcal or syphilitic pharyngitis: same treatment as for genital gonorrhoea and syphilis
- Diphtherial pharyngitis: see *diphtheria*, page 55
- Vincent tonsillitis: penicillin V or erythromycin as above
- Peritonsillar abscess: refer for surgical drainage

Diphtheria

Diphtheria is a bacterial infection due to *Corynebacterium diphtheriae*, characterized by local proliferation (most commonly ENT) of the bacteria, and systemic diffusion of the diphtheria toxin through the body.

Transmission is by direct contact with an infected person.

Clinical features

- Incubation period: 3 to 5 days
- Local signs:
 - febrile tonsillitis with pseudomembranes (grey, tough and very sticky false membranes) sometimes accompanied by signs of serious illness: high fever (greater than 39°C), oliguria, cervical oedema, enlarged cervical lymph glands and signs of haemorrhage (cervical or thoracic purpura, gingival bleeding, epistaxis).
 - laryngitis, most commonly secondary to the tonsillitis. Risk of death by asphyxiation.
 - other local signs: rhinitis (often unilateral); secondary infection of a skin lesion with *C. diphtheriae*.
- General signs due to the toxin:
 - myocarditis: clinically detectable arrhythmias or cardiac conduction defects in 25% of patients. These are more serious when appear early (from the 5th day).
 - neuropathies may occur 1 to 3 months after the onset of the disease: paralysis of the soft palate, respiratory muscles, limbs and accommodation.
 - more rarely: pneumonia, renal failure with oligo-anuria and haematuria.

Laboratory

Confirmation is made by isolating the toxic strain of *C. diphtheriae* from a throat swab.

Treatment (at hospital level)

- Strict isolation.
- Treatment with antitoxin serum: do not wait for bacteriological confirmation.
For **diphtheria antitoxin** derived from horse serum, administer according to the Besredka method¹.
Doses are given as a function of the severity of illness, and the delay in treatment:

	Dose in units	Administration route
Laryngitis or pharyngitis	20 000 to 40 000	Depends on the volume to be administered: IM or for volumes greater than 20 000 units IV infusion in 200 ml 0.9% NaCl, over one hour
Rhinopharyngitis	40 000 to 60 000	
Serious forms or if treatment is started more than 48 hours after onset of symptoms	80 000 and up to 100 000	

¹ Besredka method: inject 0.1 ml SC and wait 15 minutes. If there is no allergic reaction (no erythema at the injection site or a flat erythema of less than 0.5 in diameter, inject a further 0.25 ml SC. If there is no reaction after 15 minutes, inject the rest of the product IM or IV depending on the volume to be administered.

- Antibiotic treatment:
benzathine benzylpenicillin IM
Children under 6 years: 600 000 IU as a single dose
Children over 6 years and adults: 1.2 MIU as a single dose
or
procaine benzylpenicillin IM
Children: 50 000 IU/kg once daily for 7 days
Adults: 1.2 MIU once daily for 7 days
For penicillin-allergic patients:
erythromycin PO
Children: 50 mg/kg/day in 2 to 3 divided doses for 7 days
Adults: 2 to 3 g/day in 2 to 3 divided doses for 7 days
- Urgent intervention to secure an airway (intubation, tracheotomy) may be necessary in the event of laryngeal obstruction or cardiac or neurologic complications.

Management of close contacts

- Nose and throat cultures.
- Daily clinical monitoring (throat examination and temperature) for 7 days.
- Quarantine
- Antibiotic treatment: see above.
- Verify vaccination status:
 - less than 3 injections: complete with DTP, DT or Td depending on age,
 - 3 injections: if the last injection was given more than one year before, give a booster dose.

The same precautions should be taken for contacts of healthy carriers.

Prevention

There are 3 combined vaccines:

DTP: diphtheria-tetanus-pertussis

DT: diphtheria (30 IU) and tetanus, for those under 7 years of age

Td: diphtheria (3 IU) and tetanus, for those over 7 years of age

- In the event of an epidemic, mass vaccination:
Update routine vaccinations with DTP for children under 3 years of age; DT for children from 3 to 6 years of age; Td for children over 7 years of age and adults.
- Routine vaccination (EPI). The recommendations vary according to the country. For information:
DTP: 3 doses at one month intervals before the age of 1 year, DTP booster one year later, and DT at 6 years of age followed by 3 more boosters at 10 year intervals.

Note: the disease does not give immunity. Update the vaccination of the patients once they have recovered. Vaccination does not prevent individuals from becoming carriers.

Otitis

Acute otitis externa

Diffuse inflammation of the external ear canal, due to bacterial or fungal infection. Common precipitants of otitis externa are maceration, trauma of the ear canal or presence of a foreign body or dermatologic diseases (such as eczema, psoriasis).

Clinical features

- Ear canal pruritus or ear pain, often severe and exacerbated by motion of the pinna; feeling of fullness in the ear; clear or purulent ear discharge or no discharge
- Otoscopy:
 - diffuse erythema and edema, or infected eczema, of the ear canal
 - look for a foreign body
 - if visible, the tympanic membrane is normal (swelling, pain or secretions very often prevent adequate visualization of the tympanic membrane)

Treatment

- Remove a foreign body, if present.
- Treatment of pain: paracetamol and / or ibuprofen PO (page 29).
- Local treatment (usually 5 to 7 days):

Remove skin debris and secretions from the auditory canal by gentle dry mopping (use a dry cotton bud or a small piece of dry cotton wool). In addition, 0.5% gentian violet can be applied once a day, using a cotton bud.

Consider ear irrigation (0.9% sodium chloride, using a syringe) only if the tympanic membrane can be fully visualised and is intact (no perforation). Otherwise, ear irrigation is contra-indicated.

Acute otitis media (AOM)

Acute inflammation of the middle ear, due to viral or bacterial infection, very common in children under 3 years, but uncommon in adults.

The principal causative organisms of bacterial otitis media are *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, *Haemophilus influenzae*, *Moraxella catarrhalis* and in older children, *Streptococcus pyogenes*.

Clinical features

- Rapid onset of ear pain (in infants: crying, irritability, sleeplessness, reluctance to nurse) and ear discharge (otorrhoea) or fever.
- Other signs such as rhinorrhoea, cough, diarrhoea or vomiting are frequently associated, and may confuse the diagnosis, hence the necessity of examining the tympanic membranes.

- Otoscopy: bright red tympanic membrane (or yellowish if rupture is imminent) and presence of pus, either externalised (drainage in ear canal if the tympanic membrane is ruptured) or internalised (opaque or bulging tympanic membrane). The combination of these signs with ear pain or fever confirms the diagnosis of AOM.

Note:

The following otoscopic findings are not sufficient to make the diagnosis of AOM:

- A red tympanic membrane alone, with no evidence of bulging or perforation, is suggestive of viral otitis in a context of upper respiratory tract infection, or may be due to prolonged crying in children or high fever.
 - The presence of air bubbles or fluid behind an intact tympanic membrane, in the absence of signs and symptoms of acute infection, is suggestive of otitis media with effusion (OME).
- Complications, particularly in high-risk children (malnutrition, immunodeficiency, ear malformation) include chronic suppurative otitis media, and rarely, mastoiditis, brain abscess or meningitis.

Treatment

- In all cases:
 - Treatment of pain and fever: paracetamol PO, page 26.
 - Ear irrigation is contra-indicated if the tympanic membrane is ruptured, or when the tympanic membrane cannot be fully visualised. Ear drops are not indicated.
- Indications for antibiotic therapy:
 - Antibiotics are prescribed in children less than 2 years, children whose assessment suggests severe infection (vomiting, fever > 39°C, severe pain) and children at risk of unfavourable outcome (malnutrition, immunodeficiency, ear malformation).
 - For other children:
 - 1) If the child can be re-examined within 48 to 72 hours: it is preferable to delay antibiotic prescription. Spontaneous resolution is probable and a short symptomatic treatment of fever and pain may be sufficient. Antibiotics are prescribed if there is no improvement or worsening of symptoms after 48 to 72 hours.
 - 2) If the child cannot be re-examined: antibiotics are prescribed.
 - For children treated with antibiotics: advise the mother to bring the child back if fever and pain persist after 48 hours.
- Choice of antibiotic therapy:
 - Amoxicillin is the first-line treatment:
amoxicillin PO:
Children: 80 to 100 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses for 5 days
Adults: 1500 mg/day in 3 divided doses for 5 days
 - Amoxicillin/clavulanic acid is used as second-line treatment, in the case of treatment failure. Treatment failure is defined as persistence of fever and/or ear pain after 48 hours of antibiotic treatment.
amoxicillin/clavulanic acid (co-amoxiclav) PO for 5 days
The dose is expressed in amoxicillin:
Children < 40 kg: 45 to 50 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses (if using ratio 8:1 or 7:1) or in 3 divided doses (if using ratio 4:1)
Note: the dose of clavulanic acid should not exceed 12.5 mg/kg/day or 375 mg/day.

Children ≥ 40 kg and adults: 1500 to 2000 mg/day depending on the formulation available:

Ratio 8:1: 2000 mg/day = 2 tablets of 500/62.5 mg 2 times per day

Ratio 7:1: 1750 mg/day = 1 tablet of 875/125 mg 2 times per day

Ratio 4:1: 1500 mg/day = 1 tablet of 500/125 mg 3 times per day

Note: the dose of clavulanic acid should not exceed 375 mg/day.

Persistence of a ear drainage alone, without fever and pain, in a child who has otherwise improved (reduction in systemic symptoms and local inflammation) does not warrant a change in antibiotic therapy. Clean ear canal by gentle dry mopping until no more drainage is obtained.

- Azithromycin or erythromycin should be reserved for very rare penicillin-allergic patients, as treatment failure (resistance to macrolides) is frequent.

azithromycin PO

Children over 6 months: 10 mg/kg once daily for 3 days

erythromycin PO

30 to 50 mg/kg/day in 2 to 3 divided doses for 10 days

Chronic suppurative otitis media (CSOM)

Chronic bacterial infection of the middle ear with persistent purulent discharge through a perforated tympanic membrane.

The principal causative organisms are *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Proteus spp*, staphylococcus, other Gram negatives and anaerobes.

Clinical features

- Purulent discharge for more than 2 weeks, often associated with hearing loss or even deafness; absence of pain and fever
- Otoscopy: perforation of the tympanic membrane and purulent exudate
- Complications:
 - Consider a superinfection (AOM) in the case of new onset of fever with ear pain, and treat accordingly.
 - Consider mastoiditis in the case of new onset of high fever, severe ear pain and/or tender swelling behind the ear, in a patient who appears significantly unwell.
 - Consider brain abscess or meningitis in the case of impaired consciousness, neck stiffness and focal neurological signs (e.g. facial nerve paralysis).

Treatment

- Remove secretions from the auditory canal by gentle dry mopping (use a dry cotton bud or a small piece of dry cotton wool) then apply **ciprofloxacin** (ear drops): 2 drops twice daily, until no more drainage is obtained (max. 4 weeks).
- Complications:
 - Chronic mastoiditis is a medical emergency that requires prompt hospitalisation, prolonged antibiotic treatment that covers the causative organisms of CSOM (**ceftriaxone** IM 10 days + **ciprofloxacin** PO for 14 days), atraumatic cleaning of the ear canal; surgical treatment may be required. Before transfer to hospital, if the patient needs to be transferred, administer the first dose of antibiotics.
 - Meningitis: see page 165.

Whooping cough (pertussis)

Whooping cough is a highly contagious bacterial infection of the lower respiratory tract, of prolonged duration, due to *Bordetella pertussis*.

B. pertussis is transmitted through inhalation of droplets spread by infected individuals (coughing, sneezing).

The majority of cases arise in non-vaccinated or incompletely vaccinated individuals. Whooping cough affects all age groups. Signs and symptoms are usually minor in adolescents and adults. As a result the infection may be ignored, thus contributing to the spread of *B. pertussis* and infection in infants and young children, in whom the illness is severe.

Clinical features

After an incubation period of 7 to 10 days, the illness evolves in 3 phases:

- Catarrhal phase (1 to 2 weeks): coryza and cough. At this stage, the illness is indistinguishable from a minor upper respiratory infection.
- Paroxysmal phase (1 to 6 weeks):
 - Typical presentation: cough of at least 2 weeks duration, occurring in characteristic bouts (paroxysms), followed by a laboured inspiration causing a distinctive sound (whoop), or vomiting. Fever is absent or moderate, and the clinical exam is normal between coughing bouts; however, the patient becomes more and more fatigued.
 - Atypical presentations:
 - Infants under 6 months: paroxysms are poorly tolerated, with apnoea, cyanosis; coughing bouts and whoop may be absent.
 - Adults: prolonged cough, often without other symptoms.
 - Complications:
 - Major: in infants, secondary bacterial pneumonia (new-onset fever is an indicator); malnutrition and dehydration triggered by poor feeding due to cough and vomiting; rarely, seizures, encephalopathy; sudden death.
 - Minor: subconjunctival haemorrhage, petechiae, hernias, rectal prolapse
- Convalescent phase: symptoms gradually resolve over weeks or months.

Management and treatment

Suspect cases

- Routinely hospitalise infants less than 3 months, as well as children with severe cases. Infants under 3 months must be monitored 24 hours per day due to the risk of apnoea.
- When children are treated as outpatients, educate the parents about signs that should lead to re-consultation (fever, deterioration in general condition, dehydration, malnutrition, apnoea, cyanosis).
- Respiratory isolation (until the patient has received 5 days of antibiotic treatment):
 - at home: avoid contact with non-vaccinated or incompletely vaccinated infants;
 - in congregate settings: exclusion of suspect cases;
 - in hospital: single room or grouping together of cases away from other patients (cohorting).

- Hydration and nutrition: ensure children < 5 years are well hydrated; breastfeeding should continue. Advise mothers to feed the child frequently in small quantities after coughing bouts and the vomiting which follows. Monitor the weight of the child during the course of the illness, and consider food supplements for several weeks after recovery.
- Antibiotic therapy:
Antibiotic treatment is indicated in the first 3 weeks after onset of cough. Infectivity is virtually nil after 5 days of antibiotic treatment.

	Antibiotic	Children	Adults
First line	azithromycin PO once daily, for 5 days	0-5 months: 10 mg/kg/day ≥ 6 months: D1 10 mg/kg (max 500 mg) D2-D5 5 mg/kg/d (max 250 mg/d)	D1 500 mg D2-D5 250 mg/day
Alternative	erythromycin PO in 3 divided doses, for 7 days	50 mg/kg/day (avoid in infant < 1 month of age)	1 g/day
	cotrimoxazole PO in 2 divided doses, for 14 days	40 mg/kg/day SMX + 8 mg/kg/day TMP (avoid in infant < 1 month of age, and last month of pregnancy)	1600 mg/day SMX + 320 mg/day TMP

- For hospitalised children:
 - Place the child in a semi-reclining position ($\pm 30^\circ$).
 - Oro-pharyngeal suction if needed.

Post-exposure prophylaxis

- Antibiotic prophylaxis (same treatment as for suspect cases) is recommended for unvaccinated or incompletely vaccinated infants of less than 6 months, who have had contact with a suspect case.
- Isolation of contacts is not necessary.

Note: pertussis vaccination should be updated in all cases (suspects and contacts). If the primary series has been interrupted, it should be completed, rather than restarted from the beginning.

Prevention

Routine vaccination with polyvalent vaccines containing pertussis antigens (e.g. DTP, or DTP + Hep B, or DTP + Hib + Hep B) from the age of 6 weeks or according to national protocol.

Neither vaccination nor natural disease confers lasting immunity. Booster doses are necessary to reinforce immunity and reduce the risk of developing disease and transmitting it to young children.

Bronchitis

Acute bronchitis

An acute inflammation of the bronchial mucosa, most commonly of viral origin. In older children it can be caused by *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*. In children over 2 years of age with repetitive acute bronchitis or 'wheezing' bronchitis, consider asthma (see *Asthma*, page 74). In children under 2 years of age, consider bronchiolitis (see *Bronchiolitis*, page 64).

Clinical features

Often begins with a rhinopharyngitis that descends progressively: pharyngitis, laryngitis, tracheitis.

- Heavy cough, dry at the beginning then becoming productive
- Low-grade fever
- No tachypnoea, no dyspnoea
- On pulmonary auscultation: bronchial wheezing

Treatment

- Fever: paracetamol PO (see *Fever*, page 26).
- Keep the patient hydrated, humidify air (with a bowl of water or a wet towel).
- Children: nasal irrigation with 0.9% sodium chloride or Ringer Lactate, 4 to 6 times/day to clear the airway.
- Antibiotic treatment is not useful for patients in good overall condition with rhinopharyngitis or influenza.
- Antibiotic treatment is indicated only if:
 - the patient is in poor general condition: malnutrition, measles, rickets, severe anaemia, cardiac disease, elderly patient etc.
 - if the patient has dyspnoea, fever greater than 38.5°C and purulent excretions: a secondary infection with *Haemophilus influenzae* or with pneumococcus is probable.

amoxicillin PO

Children: 100 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses for 5 days

Adults: 3 g/day in 3 divided doses for 5 days

or

chloramphenicol PO

Adults: 3 g/day in 3 divided doses for 5 days

Chronic bronchitis

A chronic inflammation of the bronchial mucosa due to irritation (tobacco, pollution), allergy (asthma) or infection (repetitive acute bronchitis). It may develop into chronic obstructive pulmonary disease.

Clinical features

- Productive cough for 3 consecutive months per year for 2 successive years.
- No dyspnoea at onset. Dyspnoea develops after several years, first on exertion, then becoming persistent.
- On pulmonary auscultation: bronchial wheeze (always exclude tuberculosis).

A patient with an acute exacerbation of chronic bronchitis presents with:

- Onset or increase of dyspnoea
- Increased volume of sputum
- Purulent sputum

Treatment

- Antibiotic treatment is not useful in treating simple chronic bronchitis.
- Antibiotic treatment may be useful, for patients in a poor general condition only, for acute exacerbations of chronic bronchitis (see *Acute bronchitis*, previous page).
- Discourage smoking and other irritating factors.

Bronchiolitis

Bronchiolitis is an epidemic and seasonal viral infection of the lower respiratory tract in children less than 2 years of age, characterised by bronchiolar obstruction.

Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) is responsible for 70% of cases of bronchiolitis. Transmission of RSV is direct, through inhalation of droplets (coughing, sneezing), and indirect, through contact with hands or materials contaminated by infected secretions.

In the majority of cases, bronchiolitis is benign, resolves spontaneously (relapses are possible), and can be treated on an outpatient basis.

Severe cases may occur, which put the child at risk due to exhaustion or secondary bacterial infection. Hospitalisation is necessary when signs/criteria of severity are present (10 to 20% of cases).

Clinical features

- Tachypnoea, dyspnoea, wheezing, cough; profuse, frothy, obstructive secretions.
- On auscultation: prolonged expiration with diffuse, bilateral wheezes; sometimes diffuse fine, end-inspiratory crackles.

Rhinopharyngitis, with dry cough, precedes these features by 24 to 72 hours; fever is absent or moderate.

- Signs of severity:
 - Significant deterioration in general condition, toxic appearance (pallor, greyish colouration)
 - Apnoea, cyanosis (check lips, buccal mucosa, fingernails)
 - Respiratory distress (nasal flaring, sternal and chest wall indrawing)
 - Anxiety and agitation (hypoxia), altered level of consciousness
 - Respiratory rate $> 60/\text{min}$
 - Decreased respiratory distress and slow respirations ($< 30/\text{min}$ below the age of 1 year and $< 20/\text{min}$ below the age of 3 years, exhaustion). Exercise caution in interpreting these signs as indicators of clinical improvement.
 - Sweats, tachycardia at rest and in the absence of fever
 - Silence on auscultation (severe bronchospasm)
 - Difficulty drinking or sucking (reduced tolerance for exertion)

Treatment

Treatment is symptomatic. Obstructive signs and symptoms last for about 10 days; cough may persist for 2 weeks longer.

Hospitalise children with one of the following criteria:

- Presence of any sign of severity
- Pre-existing pathology (cardiac or pulmonary disease, malnutrition, HIV, etc.)

Consider hospitalisation on a case-by-case basis in the following situations:

- Associated acute pathology (viral gastro-enteritis, bacterial infection, etc.)
- Age less than 3 months

In all other cases, the child may be treated at home, provided the parents are taught how to carry out treatment, and what signs of severity should lead to re-consultation.

Outpatient treatment

- Nasal irrigation with 0.9% NaCl before each feeding (demonstrate the technique to the mother)¹.
- Small, frequent feedings to reduce vomiting triggered by bouts of coughing.
- Increased fluids if fever and/or significant secretions are present.
- Treat fever (see page 26).
- Handle the patient the patient as little as possible and avoid unnecessary procedures.

Hospitalisation

- In all cases:
 - Place the infant in a semi-reclining position ($\pm 30^\circ$).
 - Nasal irrigation, small, frequent feeds, treatment of fever: as for outpatient treatment.
 - Gentle oro-pharyngeal suction if needed.
 - Monitor fluid intake: normal requirements are 80 to 100 ml/kg/day + 20 to 25 ml/kg/day with high fever or very profuse secretions.
- According to symptoms:
 - Humidified nasal oxygen (1 to 2 litres/min).
 - When there is vomiting or significant fatigue when sucking, fluid requirements may be administered by nasogastric tube (small volumes on a frequent basis) or the IV route, for the shortest possible time. Avoid breastfeeding or oral feeds in children with severe tachypnoea, but do not prolong NG feeds (respiratory compromise) or IV infusions any longer than necessary.
 - Bronchodilator therapy: this therapy may be considered after a trial treatment has been given (**salbutamol** inhaler, 100 micrograms/puff: 2 to 3 puffs with spacer, repeated twice at an interval of 30 minutes). If inhaled salbutamol appears effective in relieving symptoms, the treatment is continued (2 to 3 puffs every 6 hours in the acute phase, then gradual reduction as recovery takes place). If the trial is ineffective, the treatment is discontinued.
 - Antibiotics are not indicated unless there is concern about complications such as secondary bacterial pneumonia.

Prevention and control

The risk of transmission of the virus is increased in hospital settings:

- Children with bronchiolitis should be grouped together, away from other children (cohorting).
- As infection is most commonly transmitted by the hands, the most important prevention measure is hand-washing after any contact with patients, and objects or surfaces in contact with patients on which the virus may survive for several hours.
- In addition, staff should wear gowns, gloves and surgical masks when in contact with patients.

² Lie the child on his back, head turned to the side and instil 0.9% NaCl into the nose, one nostril at a time.

Acute pneumonia

Acute pneumonia is a viral, bacterial (pneumococcus, *Haemophilus influenzae*, staphylococcus, atypical bacteria) or parasitic (pneumocystosis) infection of the pulmonary alveoli.

Pneumonia in children under 5 years of age

The most common causes are viruses, pneumococcus and *Haemophilus influenzae*.

Clinical examination must be done on a calm child in order to correctly count the respiratory rate and look for signs of serious illness.

Clinical features

Pneumonia should be suspected in a child who presents with *cough* or *difficulty breathing*.

Fever is often high ($> 39^{\circ}\text{C}$), but the child may present with low-grade fever or may have no fever (often a sign of serious illness).

The respiratory rate (RR) should be measured over 1 minute. A child has tachypnoea (increased respiratory rate) if:

- RR ≥ 60 breaths/minute in children under 2 months
- RR ≥ 50 breaths/minute in children from 2 to 11 months
- RR ≥ 40 breaths/minute in children from 12 months to 5 years

On pulmonary auscultation: dullness with diminished vesicular breath sounds, crepitations and sometimes bronchial breathing or normal pulmonary auscultation.

Signs of serious illness (severe pneumonia) include:

- Chest indrawing: the inferior thoracic wall depresses on inspiration as the superior abdomen expands
- Cyanosis (lips, oral mucosa, fingernails) or O_2 saturation $< 90\%$
- Nasal flaring
- Altered consciousness (child is abnormally sleepy or difficult to wake)
- Stridor (hoarse noise on inspiration)
- Grunting (a short repetitive noise produced by a partial closure of the vocal cords) on expiration
- Refusal to drink or feed
- Children under 2 months
- Severe malnutrition

Notes:

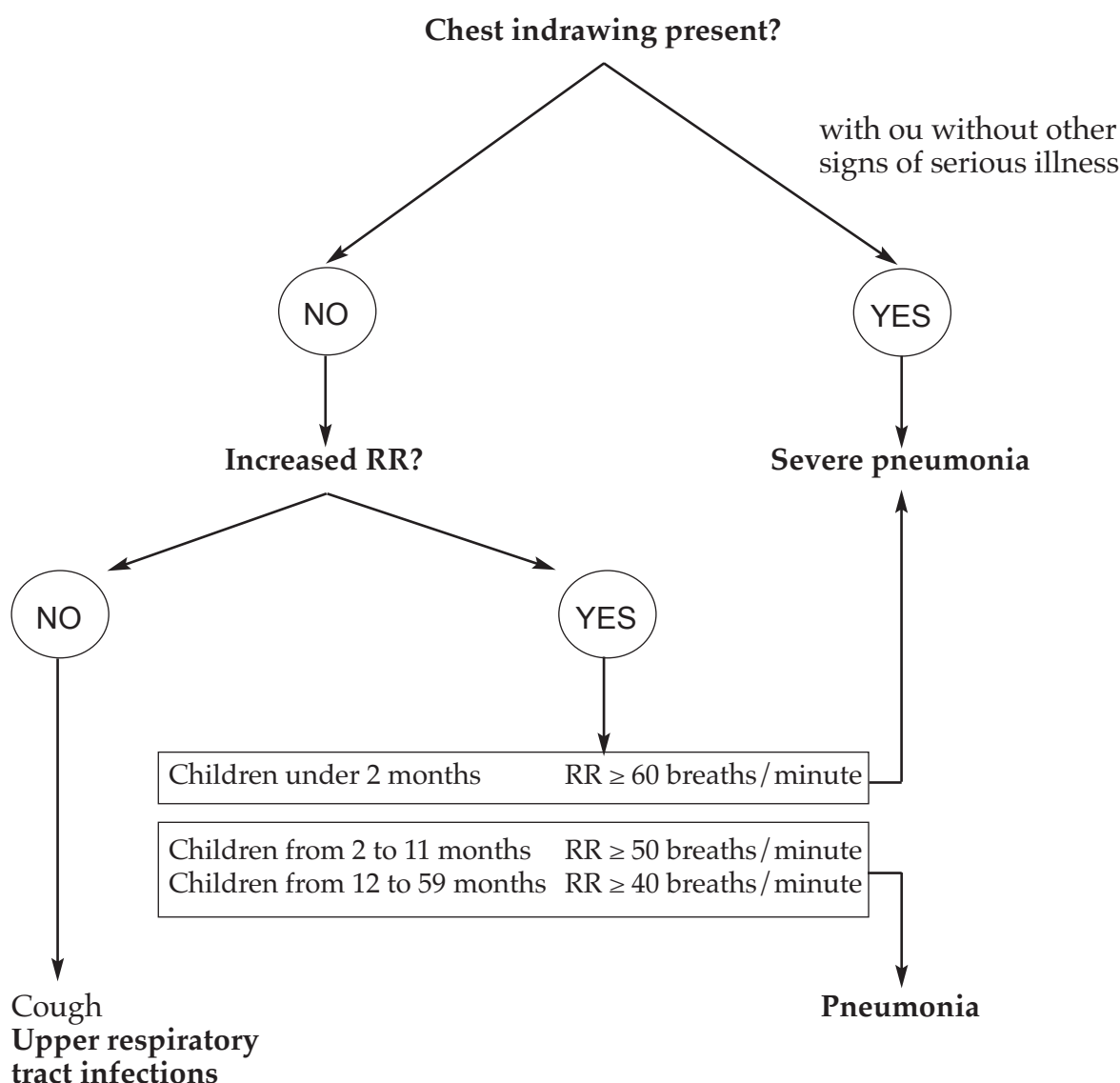
- In malnourished children, the RR thresholds should be decreased by 5 breaths/minute from those listed above.
- Chest indrawing is significant if it is clearly visible and present at all times. If it is observed when a child is upset or feeding and is not visible when the child is resting, there is no chest indrawing.
- In children under 2 months of age, moderate chest indrawing is normal as the thoracic wall is flexible.

- If only the soft tissues between the ribs or above the clavicles depress, there is no chest indrawing.

Consider also:

- Malaria in endemic areas, as it may also cause cough and tachypnoea.
- Staphylococcal pneumonia (see page 73) in patients with empyema or painful abdominal swelling and diarrhoea.
- Pneumocystosis in patients with confirmed or suspected HIV infection (page 215).
- Tuberculosis:
 - in a child with cough, fever and poor weight gain and a history of close contact with a tuberculous patient¹. For the diagnosis, refer to the MSF handbook, *Tuberculosis*.
 - in the event of pneumonia complicated with empyema (pus in the pleural space).

Diagnosis of pneumonia in children under 5 presenting with cough or difficulty breathing:



¹ Contact is defined as living in the same household, or in close and regular contact with any known or suspected TB case within the last 12 months.

Treatment

Severe pneumonia (inpatient treatment)

Infants under 2 months of age

The first line treatment is the combination **ampicillin** IV for 10 days + **gentamicin** IM for 7 to 10 days:

Children < 7 days	≤ 2 kg	ampicillin 100 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses + gentamicin 3 mg/kg once daily
	> 2 kg	ampicillin 150 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses + gentamicin 5 mg/kg once daily
Children ≥ 7 days	≤ 2 kg	ampicillin 150 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses + gentamicin 5 mg/kg once daily
	> 2 kg	ampicillin 200 mg/kg/day in 4 divided doses + gentamicin 5 mg/kg once daily

For ampicillin, IV route is preferred but IM route may be an alternative.

benzylpenicillin procain IM, 50 000 IU/kg once daily (50 mg/kg once daily) for 10 days (combined with gentamicin IM as above), may be an alternative to ampicillin in contexts where ampicillin cannot be properly administered. However ampicillin remains the drug of choice.

Benzylpenicillin procain must NEVER be administered by IV route.

If penicillins are not available, alternatives may be **cefotaxime** slow IV (over at least 3 minutes) or infusion (over at least 20 minutes) or IM: 150 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses for 10 days, or, as a last resort: **ceftriaxone** slow IV² (over at least 3 minutes) or infusion (over 30 minutes; 60 minutes in neonates) or IM: 50 mg/kg once daily for 10 days.

If the child's condition does not improve³ after 48 hours of well administered treatment, add **cloxacillin** IV* for 10 to 14 days

Children < 7 days	≤ 2 kg	cloxacillin 50 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses
	> 2 kg	cloxacillin 75 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses
Children ≥ 7 days	≤ 2 kg	cloxacillin 75 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses
	> 2 kg	cloxacillin 100 mg/kg/day in 4 divided doses

* Each dose is to be administered in 100 ml of 0.9% sodium chloride.

Children from 2 months to 5 years of age

The first line treatment is:

ceftriaxone IM or slow IV² (over at least 3 minutes): 50 mg/kg once daily

or, if not available:

ampicillin IV or IM: 200 mg/kg/day in 3 to 4 divided doses + **gentamicin** IM: 7.5 mg/kg once daily

² The solvent of ceftriaxone for IM injection contains lidocaine. Ceftriaxone reconstituted using this solvent must never be administered by IV route. For IV administration, water for injection must always be used.

³ Improvement criteria include: fever reduction, diminished respiratory distress, improved O₂ saturation, improved appetite and/or activity.

The treatment is administered by parenteral route for at least 3 days then, if the clinical condition has improved⁴ and oral treatment can be tolerated, switch to the oral route with **amoxicillin** PO: 100 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses, to complete 10 days of treatment.

If the child's condition deteriorates or does not improve⁴ after 48 hours of correct administration, add **cloxacillin** IV: 100 mg/kg/day in 4 divided doses. After clinical improvement and 3 days with no fever, switch to the oral route with **amoxicillin/clavulanic acid (co-amoxiclav)** PO to complete 10 to 14 days of treatment: The dose is expressed in amoxicillin: 100 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses (if using formulations in a ratio of 8:1 or 7:1)⁵

Note: the dose of clavulanic acid should not exceed 12.5 mg/kg/day or 375 mg/day.

If the child's condition does not improve after 48 hours with ceftriaxone + cloxacillin, consider tuberculosis. For the diagnosis, refer to the MSF handbook, *Tuberculosis*.

If tuberculosis is unlikely, continue with ceftriaxone + cloxacillin and add azithromycin (see *Atypical pneumonia*, page 72).

Notes:

- For malnourished children, refer to specific protocol.
- In the event of moderate-large empyema, assess if drainage is required. Administer antibiotics active against pneumococci and staphylococci (see page 73).

Adjuvant therapy

- Fever: paracetamol PO (see *Fever*, page 26).
- Infants: keep warm.
- Install on an incline (head elevated) or in semi-sitting position.
- Clear the airway (nasal irrigation with 0.9% sodium chloride if needed).
- Oxygen at the flow rate required to maintain $\text{SpO}_2 \geq 90\%$ or, if pulse oxymeter is not available, minimum 1 litre/minute.
- Maintain adequate hydration and nutrition:
 - In children with severe respiratory difficulty: place an IV line and give 70% of normal maintenance fluids. Resume oral feeding as soon as possible (no severe respiratory difficulty, ability to eat normally).
Use a nasogastric tube only if an IV line cannot be established: children under 12 months: 5 ml/kg/hour; children over 12 months: 3 to 4 ml/kg/hour; alternate milk and water. Resume normal oral feeding as soon as possible.
 - In the absence of severe respiratory difficulty: breastfeed on demand; milk/food and water by spoon on demand.
 - ORS when required (see dehydration, pages 315 to 320).

Pneumonia with no signs of serious illness

Infant under 2 months of age

Admit the child for inpatient care and treat for severe pneumonia (page 68).

⁴ Improvement criteria include: fever reduction, diminished respiratory distress, improved O_2 saturation, improved appetite and/or activity.

⁵ If the only formulations of co-amoxiclav available are those with a 4:1 ratio, the dose is: 50 mg/kg/day.

Children from 2 months to 5 years of age (*outpatients, except young infants*)

amoxicillin PO: 100 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses for 5 days

Follow-up in 48 to 72 hours or sooner if the child's condition deteriorates:

- if the condition is improving⁶: continue with the same antibiotic to complete treatment.
- if there is no improvement after 3 days of correct administration: add azithromycin (see *Atypical pneumonia*, page 72).
- if the condition is deteriorating: hospitalise and treat as severe pneumonia.

Pneumonia in children over 5 years and adults

The most common causes are viruses, pneumococcus, and *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*.

Clinical features

- Cough, with or without purulent sputum, fever, thoracic pain, tachypnoea
- On pulmonary auscultation: decreased vesicular breath sounds, dullness, localised foci of crepitations, sometimes bronchial wheeze.

Sudden onset with high fever (higher than 39°C), thoracic pain and oral herpes are suggestive of pneumococcal infection. Symptoms may be confusing, particularly in children with abdominal pain, meningeal syndrome, etc.

Signs of serious illness (severe pneumonia) include:

- cyanosis (lips, oral mucosa, fingernails)
- nasal flaring
- intercostal or subclavial indrawing
- RR > 30 breaths/minute
- heart rate > 125 beats/minute
- altered level of consciousness (drowsiness, confusion)

Patients at risk include the elderly, patients suffering from heart failure, sickle cell disease or severe chronic bronchitis; immunocompromised patients (severe malnutrition, HIV infection with CD4 < 200).

Treatment

Severe pneumonia (inpatient treatment)

benzylpenicillin procaine IM

Children: 50 000 IU/kg once daily

Adults: 1.5 MIU once daily

Benzylpenicillin procaine must NEVER be administered by IV route.

The treatment is given by parenteral route for at least 3 days then, if the clinical condition has improved⁶ and oral treatment can be tolerated, switch to the oral route with **amoxicillin** PO to complete 7 to 10 days of treatment:

Children: 100 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses

Adults: 3 g/day in 3 divided doses

⁶ Improvement criteria include: fever reduction, diminished respiratory distress, improved O₂ saturation, improved appetite and/or activity.

or

ceftriaxone IM or slow IV⁷ (over at least 3 minutes)

Children: 50 mg/kg once daily

Adults: 1 g once daily

The treatment is given by parenteral route for at least 3 days then, if the clinical condition has improved⁸ and oral treatment can be tolerated, switch to the oral route with amoxicillin PO as above, to complete 7 to 10 days of treatment.

or

ampicillin IV or IM

Children: 100 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses

Adults: 3 g/day in 3 divided doses

The treatment is given by parenteral route for at least 3 days then, if the clinical condition has improved⁸ and oral treatment can be tolerated, switch to the oral route with amoxicillin PO as above, to complete 7 to 10 days of treatment.

If the clinical condition deteriorates or does not improve after 48 hours of correct administration, administer ceftriaxone as above + **cloxacillin** IV:

Children: 100 mg/kg/day in 4 divided doses

Adults: 8 g/day in 4 divided doses

After clinical improvement and 3 days with no fever, switch to the oral route with **amoxicillin/clavulanic acid (co-amoxiclav)** PO to complete 10 to 14 days of treatment:

The dose is expressed in amoxicillin:

Children: 100 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses (if using formulations in a ratio of 8:1 or 7:1)⁹

Note: the dose of clavulanic acid should not exceed 12.5 mg/kg/day or 375 mg/day.

Adults: 2.5 to 3 g/day in 3 divided doses. Depending on the formulation of co-amoxiclav available:

Ratio 8:1: 3000 mg/day = 2 tablets of 500/62.5 mg 3 times per day

Ratio 7:1: 2625 mg/day = 1 tablet of 875/125 mg 3 times per day

Note: the dose of clavulanic acid should not exceed 375 mg/day.

If the clinical condition does not improve after 48 hours with ceftriaxone + cloxacillin, consider tuberculosis. For the diagnosis, refer to the MSF handbook, *Tuberculosis*.

If tuberculosis is unlikely, continue with ceftriaxone + cloxacillin and add azithromycin (see *Atypical pneumonia*, page 72).

Adjuvant therapy

- Fever: paracetamol PO (see *Fever*, page 26).
- Clear the airway (nasal irrigation with 0.9% sodium chloride if needed).
- Oxygen at the flow rate required to maintain $\text{SpO}_2 \geq 90\%$ or, if pulse oxymeter is not available, minimum 1 litre/minute.
- Maintain adequate hydration and nutrition.

⁷ The solvent of ceftriaxone for IM injection contains lidocaine. Ceftriaxone reconstituted using this solvent must never be administered by IV route. For IV administration, water for injection must always be used.

⁸ Improvement criteria include: fever reduction, diminished respiratory distress, improved O_2 saturation, improved appetite and/or activity.

⁹ If the only formulations of co-amoxiclav available are those with a 4:1 ratio, the dose is: 50 mg/kg/day.

Pneumonia without signs of serious illness (outpatient treatment)

amoxicillin PO

Children: 100 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses for 5 days

Adults: 3 g/day in 3 divided doses for 5 days

Follow-up in 48 to 72 hours or sooner if the patient's condition deteriorates:

- if the patient is improving¹⁰: continue with the same antibiotic to complete treatment;
- if the condition is deteriorating: hospitalise and treat as severe pneumonia;
- If there is no improvement after 3 days of correct administration: add azithromycin (see *Atypical pneumonia* below).

Persistent pneumonia

In patients not responding to therapy, consider atypical pneumonia, tuberculosis, pneumocystosis (see page 215).

Bacteria responsible for atypical pneumonia are mainly *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* and *Chlamydophila pneumoniae*. If suspected, one of the following antibiotics may be used:

First choice, **azithromycin** PO

Children: 10 mg/kg on D1 (max. 500 mg) then, 5 mg/kg once daily from D2 to D5

Adults: 500 mg on D1 then, 250 mg once daily from D2 to D5

If not available,

erythromycin PO

Children: 30 to 40 mg/kg/day in 4 divided doses for 10 to 14 days

Adults: 2 g/day in 4 divided doses for 10 to 14 days

or

doxycycline PO (except in children under 8 years and pregnant or lactating women)

Children: 4 mg/kg/day (max. 200 mg/day) in 2 divided doses for 10 to 14 days

Adults: 200 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 10 to 14 days

¹⁰ Improvement criteria include: fever reduction, diminished respiratory distress, improved O₂ saturation, improved appetite and/or activity.

Staphylococcal pneumonia

Pneumonia due to *Staphylococcus aureus* affecting young children, often those in a poor general condition (malnutrition, skin lesions, etc.). Staphylococcal pneumonia is a classic complication of measles.

Clinical features

- General signs: change in overall condition, pallor, high fever or hypothermia, frequently signs of shock; presence of skin lesions (point of bacterial entry), however, skin lesions may be absent.
- Gastrointestinal signs: nausea, vomiting, diarrhoea, painful abdominal distention.
- Respiratory signs: dry cough, tachypnoea, signs of distress (nasal flaring, chest indrawing). Pulmonary auscultation is often normal; sometimes dullness indicating pleural effusion.

If possible, take a chest X-ray: the presence of bullae confirms the diagnosis. Pleural effusion, often unilateral, may also be seen.

Treatment

Treatment is urgent as patients deteriorate quickly: hospitalise.

- Antibiotic treatment: if staphylococcal aetiology cannot be confirmed or while waiting for confirmation, a broad spectrum antibiotic therapy is recommended:
ceftriaxone IM or slow IV¹ (at least 3 minutes): 50 mg/kg once daily
 + **cloxacillin** IV: 100 mg/kg/day in 4 divided doses

These doses are doubled in children with HIV-infection or malnutrition or measles.

After clinical improvement², 3 days with no fever, and drain removal if any, switch to the oral route with **amoxicillin/clavulanic acid** PO to complete 10 to 14 days:

The dose is expressed in amoxicillin:

100 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses (if using formulations in a ratio of 8:1 or 7:1)³

Note: the dose of clavulanic acid should not exceed 12.5 mg/kg/day or 375 mg/day.

In the event of large empyema: same treatment but switch to the oral route after 7 days with no fever and treat for 3 weeks.

Clindamycin IV may be an alternative to cloxacillin: 30 mg/kg/day in 3 divided injections then switch to clindamycin PO at the same dose, according to the criteria above.

- Fever: paracetamol PO (see page 26).
- Hydration by oral route or infusion or nasogastric tube depending on clinical condition (see page 69).
- Oxygen at the flow rate required to maintain $SpO_2 \geq 90\%$ or, if pulse oxymeter is not available, minimum 1 litre/minute.
- Local disinfection of skin lesions.
- If there is significant pleural effusion: pleural tap with drainage (for pyopneumothorax; insert 2 drains, one anterior and one posterior) or without drainage (for suppurative pleurisy, make repetitive taps with an IV catheter).

Clinical evolution

- There is a serious risk of decompensation from pneumothorax or suppurative pleurisy or pyopneumothorax.
- On a paediatric ward, adequate equipment for urgent pleural drainage should always be available.

¹ The solvent of ceftriaxone for IM injection contains lidocaine. Ceftriaxone reconstituted using this solvent must never be administered by IV route. For IV administration, water for injection must always be used.

² Improvement criteria include: fever reduction, diminished respiratory distress, improved O_2 saturation, improved appetite and/or activity.

³ If the only formulations of co-amoxiclav available are those with a 4:1 ratio, the dose is: 50 mg/kg/day.

Asthma

Asthma is a chronic inflammatory disorder of the airways associated with airway hyper-responsiveness that leads to recurrent episodes of wheezing, breathlessness, chest tightness and coughing. These episodes are usually associated with airflow obstruction within the lung, often reversible, either spontaneously or with treatment.

Factors that precipitate/aggravate asthma include: allergens, infection, exercise, drugs (aspirin), tobacco, etc.

In young children, most initial episodes of asthma-like symptoms are associated with a respiratory tract infection, with no symptoms between infections. Wheezing episodes usually become less frequent with time; most of these children do not develop asthma.

Asthma attack (acute asthma)

Asthma attack is a substantial worsening of asthma symptoms. The severity and duration of attacks are variable and unpredictable.

Assessment of the severity of asthma attack

The severity of the asthma attack must be rapidly evaluated by the following clinical criteria. Not all signs are necessarily present.

Assessment of severity in children under 2 years and adults

MILD TO MODERATE ATTACK	SEVERE ATTACK	LIFE THREATENING ATTACK
Able to talk in sentences Respiratory rate (RR) Children 2-5 years $\leq 40/\text{min}$ Children > 5 years $\leq 30/\text{min}$ Pulse Children 2-5 years $\leq 140/\text{min}$ Children > 5 years $\leq 125/\text{min}$ and No criteria of severity	Cannot complete sentences in one breath or Too breathless to talk or feed RR Children 2-5 years $> 40/\text{min}$ Children > 5 years $> 30/\text{min}$ Adults $\geq 25/\text{min}$ Pulse Children 2-5 years $> 140/\text{min}$ Children > 5 years $> 125/\text{min}$ Adults $\geq 110/\text{min}$ O₂ saturation $\geq 92\%$	Altered level of consciousness (drowsiness, confusion, coma) Exhaustion Silent chest Paradoxical thoracoabdominal movement Cyanosis Collapse Bradycardia in children or arrhythmia/hypotension in adults O₂ saturation $< 92\%$

Treatment

Treatment and follow-up depend on the severity of the attack and the patient's response:

Mild to moderate attack

- Reassure the patient; place him in a 1/2 sitting position.
- Administer:
 - **salbutamol** (aerosol): 2 to 4 puffs every 20 to 30 minutes, up to 10 puffs if necessary during the first hour. In children, use a spacer¹ to ease administration (use face mask in children under 3 years). Single puffs should be given one at a time, let the child breathe 4 to 5 times from the spacer before repeating the procedure.
 - **prednisolone** PO: one dose of 1 to 2 mg/kg
- If the attack is completely resolved: observe the patient for 1 hour (4 hours if he lives far from the health centre) then give outpatient treatment: salbutamol for 24 to 48 hours (2 to 4 puffs every 4 to 6 hours depending on clinical evolution) and prednisolone PO (1 to 2 mg/kg once daily) to complete 3 days of treatment.
- If the attack is only partially resolved: continue with 2 to 4 puffs of salbutamol every 3 to 4 hours if the attack is mild; 6 puffs every 1 to 2 hours if the attack is moderate, until symptoms subside, then when the attack is completely resolved, proceed as above.
- If symptoms worsen or do not improve, treat as *severe attack*.

Severe attack

- Hospitalise the patient; place him in a 1/2 sitting position.
- Administer:
 - **oxygen** continuously, at least 5 litres/minute or maintain the O₂ saturation between 94 and 98%.
 - **salbutamol** (aerosol): 2 to 4 puffs every 20 to 30 minutes, up to 10 puffs if necessary in children under 5 years, up to 20 puffs in children over 5 years and adults. Use a spacer to increase effectiveness, irrespective of age.
or salbutamol (solution for nebulisation), see following page.
 - **prednisolone** PO: one dose of 1 to 2 mg/kg
- In the case of vomiting, use **hydrocortisone** IV every 6 hours (children: 5 mg/kg/injection, adults: 100 mg/injection) until the patient can tolerate oral prednisolone.
- If the attack is completely resolved, observe the patient for at least 4 hours. Continue the treatment with salbutamol for 24 to 48 hours (2 to 4 puffs every 4 hours) and prednisolone PO (1 to 2 mg/kg once daily) to complete 3 days of treatment.
Reassess after 10 days: consider long-term treatment if the asthma attacks have been occurring for several months. If the patient is already receiving long-term treatment, reassess the severity of the asthma (see table, page 77) and review compliance and correct use of medication and adjust treatment if necessary.
- If symptoms worsen or do not improve, see *life-threatening attack*.

¹ If a conventional spacer is not available, use a 500 ml plastic bottle: insert the mouthpiece of the inhaler into a hole made in the bottom of the bottle (the seal should be as tight as possible). The child breathes from the mouth of the bottle in the same way as he would with a spacer. The use of a plastic cup instead of a spacer is not recommended (ineffective).

Life-threatening attack (intensive care)

- Insert an IV line.
- Administer:
 - **oxygen** continuously, at least 5 litres/minute or maintain the O₂ saturation between 94 and 98%.
 - **salbutamol** (solution for nebulisation):
Children under 5 years or 15 kg: 2.5 mg/nebulisation, to be repeated every 20 to 30 minutes if necessary until clinical improvement is achieved; switch to salbutamol aerosol (using a spacer) as soon as possible.
Children over 5 years and adults: 2.5 to 5 mg/nebulisation, to be repeated every 20 to 30 minutes if necessary until clinical improvement is achieved; switch to salbutamol aerosol as soon as possible.
Salbutamol must be administered via an oxygen-driven nebuliser.
 - **hydrocortisone** IV every 6 hours (children: 5 mg/kg/injection, adults: 100 mg/injection).
- For patients who do not respond rapidly to nebulised salbutamol:
 - In adults, administer a single dose of magnesium sulfate (infusion of 1 to 2 g in 0.9% sodium chloride over 20 minutes).
 - In children, use continuous nebulisation rather than intermittent nebulisation.

Notes:

- In pregnant women, treatment is the same as for adults. In mild or moderate asthma attacks, administering oxygen reduces the risk of foetal hypoxia.
- For all patients, irrespective of the severity of the asthma attack, look for underlying lung infection and treat accordingly.

Chronic asthma

Clinical features

- Asthma should be suspected in patients with episodic respiratory symptoms (wheezing, chest tightness, shortness of breath and/or cough) of variable frequency, severity and duration, disturbing sleep, and causing the patient to sit up to breathe. These symptoms may appear during or after exercise.
- Chest auscultation may be normal or demonstrate diffuse sibilant wheezes.
- Atopic disorders or a personal or family history of atopy (eczema, allergic rhinitis/conjunctivitis) or a family history of asthma increases probability of asthma but their absence does not exclude asthma.

Patients with typical symptoms of asthma and a history of disease that is characteristic of asthma should be considered as having asthma after exclusion of other diagnoses.

The assessment of the frequency of daytime and nighttime symptoms and limitations of physical activity determines whether asthma is *intermittent* or *persistent*.

Treatment

Only patients with persistent asthma need long-term treatment. The mainstay of treatment is inhaled corticosteroids. Treatment is started at the step most appropriate to initial severity then, re-evaluated and adjusted according to clinical response. It aims to abolish symptoms with the lowest possible dose of inhaled corticosteroids. An intervening severe exacerbation or loss of control necessitates reassessment to re-evaluate treatment.

Long-term treatment does not mean treatment for life. Asthma attacks may occur over months or years, with intervening asymptomatic intervals when long-term treatment is not required.


Long-term treatment of asthma according to severity

Categories	Treatment
Intermittent asthma <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Intermittent symptoms (< once/week) – Night time symptoms < twice/month – Normal physical activity 	No long term treatment Inhaled salbutamol when symptomatic
Mild persistent asthma <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Symptoms > once/week, but < once/day – Night time symptoms > twice/month – Symptoms may affect activity 	Continuous treatment with inhaled beclometasone + Inhaled salbutamol when symptomatic
Moderate persistent asthma <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Daily symptoms – Symptoms affect activity – Night time symptoms > once/week – Daily use of salbutamol 	Continuous treatment with inhaled beclometasone + Inhaled salbutamol (1 puff 4 times/day)
Severe persistent asthma <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Daily symptoms – Frequent night time symptoms – Physical activity limited by symptoms 	Continuous treatment with inhaled beclometasone + Inhaled salbutamol (1-2 puff/s 4 to 6 times/day)

Inhaled corticosteroid treatment: **beclometasone** dose varies according to the severity of asthma. Find the minimum dose necessary to both control the symptoms and avoid local and systemic adverse effects:

Children: 50 to 100 micrograms twice daily depending on the severity. Increase to 200 micrograms twice daily if the symptoms are not controlled. In patients with severe chronic asthma the dosage may be as high as 800 micrograms/day.

Adults: start with 250 to 500 micrograms twice daily depending on the severity. If a total dosage of 1000 micrograms/day (in 2 to 4 divided doses) is ineffective, the dosage may be increased to 1500 micrograms/day, but the benefits are limited.

 The number of puffs of beclometasone depends on its concentration in the inhaled aerosol: 50, 100 or 250 micrograms/puff. To avoid dosing errors, use only inhalers of 50 or 100 micrograms/puff for children. Reserve inhalers of 250 micrograms/puff for adults.

Do not restrict exercise. If exercise is a trigger for asthma attacks, administer 1 or 2 puffs of salbutamol 10 minutes beforehand.

In pregnant women, poorly controlled asthma increases the risk of pre-eclampsia, eclampsia, haemorrhage, in utero growth retardation, premature delivery, neonatal hypoxia and perinatal mortality. Long-term treatment remains inhaled salbutamol and beclometasone at the usual dosage for adults. Whenever possible, avoid oral corticosteroids.

If symptoms are not well controlled during a period of at least 3 months, check the inhalation technique and adherence before changing to a stronger treatment.

If symptoms are well controlled for a period of at least 3 months (the patient is asymptomatic or the asthma has become *intermittent*): try a step-wise reduction in medication, finally discontinuing treatment, if it seems possible. Provide patients with a salbutamol inhaler for any possible attacks. Evaluate after 2 weeks. If the results are satisfactory, continue for 3 months and then re-evaluate. If the patient has redeveloped chronic asthma, restart long-term treatment, adjusting doses, as required.

Pulmonary tuberculosis

Pulmonary tuberculosis is a bacterial infection due to *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, spread by airborne route. After contamination, *M. tuberculosis* multiplies slowly in the lungs: this represents the primary infection.

In immunocompetent patients, the pulmonary lesion heals in 90% of cases, but in 10%, patients develop active tuberculosis.

Tuberculosis may also be extrapulmonary: tuberculous meningitis, disseminated tuberculosis, lymph node tuberculosis, spinal tuberculosis, etc.

Patients with HIV infection have an increased risk of developing active tuberculosis. Tuberculosis is the opportunistic disease that most commonly reveals AIDS. In certain countries, up to 70% of patients with tuberculosis are co-infected with HIV.

Clinical features

Prolonged cough (> two weeks), sputum production, chest pain, weight loss, anorexia, fatigue, moderate fever, and night sweats.

The most characteristic sign is haemoptysis (presence of blood in sputum), however it is not always present and haemoptysis is not always due to tuberculosis. If sputum is smear-negative, consider pulmonary distomatosis (page 149), melioidosis (Southeast Asia), profound mycosis or bronchial carcinoma.

In an endemic area, the diagnosis of tuberculosis is to be considered, in practice, for all patients consulting for respiratory symptoms for over two weeks who do not respond to non-specific antibacterial treatment.

Diagnosis

- Sputum smear microscopy; culture
- Chest X-rays are useful for the diagnosis of smear negative tuberculosis and tuberculosis in children.

Treatment

The treatment is a combination of several of the following antituberculous drugs [isoniazid (H), rifampicin (R), pyrazinamide (Z), ethambutol (E), streptomycin (S)]. The regimen is standardised and organized into 2 phases (initial phase and continuation phase).

The treatment of drug-sensitive tuberculosis lasts a minimum of 6 months.

It takes significant investment to cure a TB patient, both from the patient and the medical team. Only uninterrupted treatment for several months may lead to cure and prevent the development of resistance, which complicates later treatment. It is essential that the patient understands the importance of treatment adherence and that he has access to correct case management until treatment is completed.

Prevention

When BCG is correctly carried out, it confers protection that is not insignificant (probably over 50%). It has been proven that BCG protects against severe forms of the disease, in particular tuberculous meningitis and miliary tuberculosis.

BCG vaccination does not diminish transmission of tuberculosis.

For more information on the diagnosis, treatment and prevention of tuberculosis, and on the follow-up of tuberculosis patients, refer to the MSF handbook, *Tuberculosis*.

Gastrointestinal disorders

Acute diarrhoea	83
Shigellosis	86
Amoebiasis	88
Disorders of the stomach and duodenum	89
Stomatitis	92

Acute diarrhoea

- Acute diarrhoea is defined as at least 3 liquid stools per day for less than 2 weeks.
- There are 2 clinical types of acute diarrhoea:
 - **Simple diarrhoea without blood**, caused by viruses in 60% of cases (rotavirus, enterovirus), bacteria (*Vibrio cholerae*, enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli*, non-typhi *Salmonella*, *Yersinia enterocolitica*) or parasites (*giardiasis*). Diseases, such as malaria, acute otitis media, upper and lower respiratory tract infections, etc. can be accompanied by this type of diarrhoea.
 - **Dysentery or bloody diarrhoea**, caused by bacteria (*Shigella* in 50% of cases, *Campylobacter jejuni*, enteroinvasive or enterohaemorrhagic *Escherichia coli*, *Salmonella*) or parasites (intestinal amoebiasis).
- Infectious diarrhoeas are transmitted by direct (dirty hands) or indirect (ingestion of contaminated water or food) contact.
- The high mortality rate from diarrhoeal diseases, even benign, is due to acute dehydration and malnutrition. This can be prevented by adequate rehydration and nutrition.

Clinical features

- First assess for signs of dehydration. See *Assessment of diarrhoeal patients for dehydration*, WHO, page 305.
- Then look for other signs:
 - profuse watery diarrhoea (cholera, enterotoxigenic *E. coli*),
 - repeated vomiting (cholera),
 - fever (salmonella, viral diarrhoea),
 - presence of red blood in stools: see *Shigellosis*, page 86 and *Amoebiasis*, page 88.
- In a patient over 5 years with severe and rapid onset of dehydration, suspect cholera.

Treatment

General principles:

- Prevent or treat dehydration: rehydration consists of prompt replacement of fluid and electrolyte losses as required, until the diarrhoea stops.
- Administer zinc sulfate to children under 5 years.
- Prevent malnutrition.
- Do not systematically administer antimicrobials: only certain diarrhoeas require antibiotics (see *antimicrobial treatment*, following page).
- Do not administer anti-diarrhoeal drugs or antiemetics.
- Treat the underlying condition if any (malaria, otitis, respiratory infection, etc.).

Prevention of dehydration (outpatient)

Follow *Treatment plan A to treat diarrhoea at home*, WHO, page 306.

Treatment of dehydration

Moderate dehydration (at dispensary level)

Follow *Treatment plan B to treat dehydration*, WHO, page 308.

Severe dehydration (at hospital level)

Follow *Treatment plan C to treat severe dehydration quickly*, WHO, page 321.

- In the event of **hypovolaemic shock** or if there is no improvement after one hour: increase the infusion rate.
- Check for signs of fluid overload: palpebral oedema is the first sign of overhydration. Stop rehydration until oedema disappear.
- If there are signs of acute pulmonary oedema (laryngeal crackles, dyspnoea and increased respiration rate, coughing with or without frothy sputum, distress, bilateral lung crepitations, tachycardia etc.), administer IV **furosemide** immediately and repeat after one to 2 hours if required:
Children: 1 mg/kg/injection
Adults: 40 mg/injection

Special situations

- Cholera
In the event of severe dehydration, an adult may require up to 10 to 15 litres of **Ringer Lactate** (RL) on the first day. RL potassium content is low. There is a risk of symptomatic hypokalaemia in patients exclusively rehydrated by IV route. Thus, start oral rehydration solution (SRO) as soon as possible in patients under infusion.
- Oral rehydration and severe malnutrition
Use standard rehydration salts (SRO) in cholera patients only. In all other cases, use ReSoMal (see *Severe acute malnutrition*, page 40).

Zinc supplementation (in children under 5 years)

Zinc sulfate is given in combination with oral rehydration solution in order to reduce the duration and severity of diarrhoea, as well as to prevent further occurrences in the 2 to 3 months after treatment:

zinc sulfate PO

Children under 6 months: 10 mg once daily (1/2 tablet once daily) for 10 days

Children from 6 months to 5 years: 20 mg once daily (1 tablet once daily) for 10 days

Place the half-tablet or full tablet in a teaspoon, add a bit of water to dissolve it, and give the entire spoonful to the child.

Do not administer this treatment if the child receives ready-to-use therapeutic food (RUTF) which already contains zinc.

Prevention of malnutrition

Follow *Treatment plan A to treat diarrhoea at home*, WHO, page 306.

Antimicrobial treatment

Diarrhoea without blood

Most acute diarrhoeas are caused by viruses unresponsive to antimicrobials. Antimicrobials can be beneficial in the event of cholera or giardiasis.

- **Cholera:** the most important part of treatment is rehydration. In the absence of resistance (perform antibiotic-sensitivity testing), antibiotic treatment shortens the duration of diarrhoea:

doxycycline PO

Children: 4 mg/kg as a single dose

Adults: 300 mg as a single dose

or

azithromycin PO

Children: 20 mg/kg as a single dose

Adults: 1 g as a single dose

Note: doxycycline is usually contraindicated in pregnant women and children under 8 years. However, for treating cholera, the administration of a single dose should not provoke any adverse effects. Check national recommendations.

- **Giardiasis:** tinidazole or metronidazole, see page 147.

Bloody diarrhoea (dysentery)

- **Shigellosis** is the most frequent cause of dysentery (amoebic dysentery is much less common). If there is no laboratory diagnosis to confirm the presence of amoebae, first line treatment is for shigellosis (see page 86).
- **Amoebiasis:** antiparasitic treatment only if motile *E. histolytica* amoebae are found in stools or if a correct shigellosis treatment has been ineffective (see page 88).

Prevention

- Breastfeeding reduces infant morbidity and mortality from diarrhoea and the severity of diarrhoea episodes.
- When the child is weaned preparation and storage of food are associated with the risk of contamination by faecal micro-organisms: discourage bottle-feeding; food must be cooked well; milk or porridge must never be stored at room temperature.
- Access to sufficient amounts of clean water and personal hygiene (washing hands with soap and water before food preparation and before eating, after defecation etc.) are effective methods of reducing the spread of diarrhoea.

Shigellosis

- There are 4 serogroups of shigella: *S. flexneri*, *S. boydii*, *S. sonnei* and *S. dysenteriae*. *Shigella dysenteriae* type 1 (Sd1) is the only strain that causes large scale epidemics. Of the 4 serogroups it has the highest case fatality rate (up to 10%).
- Ciprofloxacin is currently the only effective treatment for shigellosis. It is therefore essential to prevent the development of resistances.

Clinical features

Bloody diarrhoea with or without fever, abdominal pain and tenesmus, which is often intense.

Patients with at least one of the following criteria have an increased risk of death:

- Signs of serious illness:
 - fever $> 38.5^{\circ}\text{C}$
 - malnutrition ($< 80\%$ of the median)
 - severe dehydration
 - confusion, seizures or coma
- Age groups at risk:
 - children under 5 years
 - adults over 50 years

Treatment

- Antibiotic treatment:
 - **ciprofloxacin** PO is the first line treatment
Children: 30 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses for 3 days
Adults: 1 g/day in 2 divided doses for 3 days
 - in pregnant women, ciprofloxacin is contra-indicated in principle, use **ceftriaxone**
IM: 1 g once daily for 3 to 5 days

Amoxicillin is ineffective in vivo. The use of nalidixic acid favours the development of ciprofloxacin resistance.
- For pain:
 - hyoscine butylbromide** PO
 - Children from 6 to 12 years: 10 mg, to be repeated every 8 hours if necessary
 - Adults: 10 to 20 mg, to be repeated every 8 hours if necessary
 - All opioid analgesics are contra-indicated as they slow peristalsis.
- Supportive therapy:
 - nutrition: all patients with dysentery should receive nutritional supplements
2500 kcal/day during hospitalisation
1000 kcal/day as outpatients
Children already in nutritional centres should be isolated.
 - rehydration: systematic administration of **ORS** (follow the WHO protocols, pages 316 to 321).

- Never give loperamide or any other antidiarrhoeal.
- Complications of shigellosis due to Sd1:
 - septicaemia: see *antibiotic treatment of septic shock* (page 20)
 - acute abdomen: see *antibiotic treatment of septic shock* (page 20) and laparotomy
 - seizures: **diazepam** (page 23) and fluid restriction
 - moderate to severe haemolytic uraemic syndrome, may require transfusion and/or haemodialysis.

Shigellosis in an epidemic context (Sd1)

- Antibiotic resistance develops rapidly (sometimes during the course of an epidemic). After confirming the causal agent, antimicrobial susceptibility should be monitored monthly by culture and sensitivity tests.
- Patients presenting with signs of serious illness or with risk factors are hospitalised for the duration of treatment and are monitored daily (clinically and for compliance).
- Patients with neither signs of serious illness nor risk factors are treated as outpatients. Organise home visits for daily monitoring (clinically and for compliance); hospitalise if the patient develops signs of serious illness.
- Hygiene measures: isolate patients as for cholera, individual and collective hygiene. Shigellosis is an extremely contagious disease (the ingestion of 10 bacteria is infective).

Note: over the past few years, Sd1 epidemics of smaller scale and with lower case fatality rates (less than 1%) have been observed.

Amoebiasis

Amoebiasis is a parasitic infection due to the intestinal protozoa *Entamoeba histolytica*. Transmission is faecal-oral, by ingestion of amoebic cysts from food or water contaminated with faeces. Usually, ingested cysts release non-pathogenic amoebae and 90% of carriers are asymptomatic.

In 10% of infected patients, pathogenic amoebae penetrate the mucous of the colon: this is the intestinal amoebiasis (amoebic dysentery). The clinical picture is similar to that of shigellosis, which is the principal cause of dysentery.

Occasionally, the pathogenic amoebae migrate via the blood stream and form peripheral abscesses. Amoebic liver abscess is the most common form of extra-intestinal amoebiasis.

Clinical features

- **Amoebic dysentery**
 - diarrhoea containing red blood and mucus
 - abdominal pain, tenesmus
 - no fever or moderate fever
 - possibly signs of dehydration
- **Amoebic liver abscess**
 - painful hepatomegaly; mild jaundice may be present
 - anorexia, weight loss, nausea, vomiting
 - intermittent fever, sweating, chills; change in overall condition

Laboratory

- Amoebic dysentery: identification of mobile trophozoites (*E. histolytica histolytica*) in fresh stool samples
- Amoebic liver abscess: indirect haemoagglutination and ELISA

Treatment

- **Amoebic dysentery**
 - The presence of cysts alone should not lead to the treatment of amoebiasis.
 - Amoebiasis confirmed with a parasitological stool examination:
 - tinidazole PO**
Children: 50 mg/kg once daily for 3 days (without exceeding 2 g/day)
Adults: 2 g once daily for 3 days
 - or **metronidazole PO**
Children: 45 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses for 5 days
Adults: 1.5 g/day in 3 divided doses for 5 days
 - If there is no laboratory, first line treatment for dysentery is for shigellosis (see page 86). Treat for amoebiasis if correct treatment for shigellosis has been ineffective.
 - Oral rehydration salts (**ORS**) if there is risk of, or if there are signs of dehydration (follow the WHO protocols, pages 316 to 321).
- **Amoebic liver abscess**
 - tinidazole PO**: same treatment as for amoebic dysentery for 5 days
 - metronidazole PO**: same treatment as for dysentery for 5 to 10 days

Disorders of the stomach and duodenum

Gastro-oesophageal reflux disease

Clinical features

Burning stomachache or heartburn, generally relieved by antacids; acid regurgitation (often postural: while sitting forward or lying down). In the absence of dysphagia (oesophageal stenosis), these signs are benign.

Treatment

- First instance, encourage the patient to avoid alcohol and tobacco use.
Give **aluminium hydroxide** PO¹: 1.5 to 3 g/day in 3 divided doses one hour after meals
or
Instruct the patient to take 500 mg at the time of a painful attack.
- If antacids are insufficient:
omeprazole PO: 20 mg once daily in the morning for 3 days
or, if not available, **cimetidine** PO: 400 mg once daily at bedtime for 3 days
- In small children: no drug treatment, rest and sleep on an incline (30° to 45°).

Peptic ulcer diseases

Clinical features

Burning epigastric pain or epigastric cramps between meals, that wake the patient at night. They are most characteristic when they occur as episodes of a few days and when accompanied by nausea and even vomiting.

The most common complications are perforation and bleeding.

Treatment of non-complicated ulcers

- For an isolated episode:
 - identify patients taking NSAID or acetylsalicylic acid; stop treatment
 - encourage patients to avoid alcohol and tobacco use
 - **omeprazole** PO: 20 mg once daily in the morning for 7 to 10 days
or, if not available, **cimetidine** PO: 800 mg once daily at bedtime for 7 to 10 days
- If the patient has frequent recurrences, unrelated to NSAID use, that require repeated treatment with antiulcer drugs: see eradication of *Helicobacter pylori*, next page.

¹ Aluminium hydroxide may decrease absorption of drugs taken at the same time, leave an interval of at least 2 hours between taking aluminium hydroxide and other drugs.

Treatment of complicated ulcers

Perforation

Perforation should be considered in patients presenting with sudden onset intense epigastric pain, particularly if there is rigidity of the abdominal wall. The risk of peritonitis is increased if the perforation occurs on a full stomach.

- To start:
 - place the patient on a strict fast (NPO); insert a nasogastric tube and aspirate if possible
 - place an intravenous line and hydrate (alternate between 5% glucose and Ringer Lactate)
 - **hyoscine butylbromide** IV or IM: 10 to 20 mg, to be repeated every 8 hours if necessary
 - **omeprazole** IV infusion: 40 mg/day over 20 to 30 minutes
or, if not available, **cimetidine** continuous IV infusion: 1600 mg over 24 hours
- Refer to a surgeon if the patient has eaten during the 6 hours prior to the onset of pain or if there is no improvement within 12 hours despite medical treatment.
- Continue treatment for 3 days then restart oral feeding if the perforation occurred on an empty stomach and if the patient improved during the first 12 hours of treatment. Then start PO treatment to eradicate *Helicobacter pylori* (see further).

Gastrointestinal bleeding

Passing of black stool (maelena) and/or vomiting blood (haematemesis). In 80% of cases the bleeding stops spontaneously.

- Insert a nasogastric tube for aspiration and insert an IV line (16G).

If the haemodynamic state is stable (pulse and blood pressure are normal)

- Hydrate (Ringer Lactate), monitor, keep NPO for 12 hours.
- If there is no active haemorrhage, restart oral feeding after 12 hours.
- Gastric lavage with cold water is not essential, but may help evaluate persistence of bleeding.

If the haemorrhage continues (haematemesis) *and/or if the haemodynamic state deteriorates* (pulse increases, BP drops):

- Intensive care and transfusion according to the severity of the bleeding (see *Haemorrhagic shock*, page 19).
- Emergency surgical intervention.

Most peptic ulcers are caused by *Helicobacter pylori* infection. If a diagnosis of ulcer is probable, and the patient has frequent attacks requiring repeated treatment with antiulcer drugs or, in cases of complicated ulcers (perforation or gastrointestinal bleeding) treatment to eradicate *H. pylori* should be considered to prevent relapses.

Once the acute phase has passed, prescribe one of the following treatments:

Treatment of choice (10 days)		Alternative (14 days)
metronidazole PO ² 1 g/day in 2 divided doses + amoxicillin PO 2 g/day in 2 divided doses + omeprazole PO 40 mg/day in 2 divided doses	metronidazole PO ² 1 g/day in 2 divided doses + amoxicillin PO 2 g/day in 2 divided doses + bismuth subcitrate PO 480 mg/day in 4 divided doses	metronidazole PO ² 1 g/day in 2 divided doses + amoxicillin PO 2 g/day in 2 divided doses + cimetidine PO 1600 mg/day in 2 divided doses

² Metronidazole PO can be replaced with tinidazole PO: 1 g/day in 2 divided doses.

Notes:

- Acetylsalicylic acid (aspirin) and NSAID (indometacin, ibuprofen, diclofenac etc) are contra-indicated in patients suffering from or with a history of ulcers.
- Omeprazole is as effective PO as IV.

Dyspepsia

Clinical features

Epigastric pain or discomfort following meals, often accompanied by bloating, sensation of fullness and nausea. Dyspepsia is most commonly functional, linked with stress and not linked to the quantity of gastric acid (antacids and antiulcer drugs are ineffective). Resolution is usually spontaneous.

Treatment

If the symptoms persist, short term symptomatic treatment may be considered.

In adults:

metoclopramide PO (30 mg/day in 3 divided doses given 6 hours apart, 1/2 hour before meals, for 2 to 3 days) may be helpful in cases of nausea, vomiting, bloating, etc.

hyoscine butylbromide PO (30 mg/day in 3 divided doses, 1/2 hour before meals, for 2 to 3 days) may be helpful in cases of spasmodic pain.

Note: consider and treat possible intestinal parasites (taeniasis, ascariasis, ancylostomiasis, giardiasis, amoebiasis).

Stomatitis

Stomatitis is an inflammation of the mucous membranes of the mouth caused by a fungal, viral or bacterial infection, a vitamin deficiency, an injury, etc.

Prolonged or painful stomatitis may contribute to dehydration or may cause loss of appetite with denutrition, particularly in children.

In infants, examine routinely the mouth in the event of breast refusal or difficulties in sucking.

In all cases:

- Maintain adequate hydration and feeding; offer foods that will not irritate the mucosa (soft, non-acidic). Use a nasogastric tube for a few days if pain is preventing the patient from eating.
- Keep the mouth clean to prevent complications and recurrence.

Oral and oropharyngeal candidiasis

Infection due to *Candida albicans*, common in infants, immunocompromised or diabetic patients. Other risk factors include treatment with oral antibiotics or high-dose inhaled corticosteroids.

Clinical features

White patches on the tongue, inside the cheeks, that may spread to the pharynx.

In patients with frequent recurrences or extensive forms invading the esophagus (swallowing difficulty and pain), consider HIV infection.

Treatment

nystatin (to be taken between meals): 400 000 IU/day, i.e. 1 lozenge to be sucked or 1 ml of the oral suspension (100 000 IU) 4 times/day for 7 days. The oral suspension should be swilled around the oral cavity and swallowed, or, in young children, applied to the tongue and the inside of each cheek.

Show the mother how to treat since in most cases, candidiasis will be treated at home.

In immunocompromised patients: see page 214.

Oral herpes

Infection due to the *herpes simplex* virus. Primary infection typically occurs in children aged 6 months-5 years and may cause acute gingivostomatitis, sometimes severe. After primary infection, the virus remains in the body and causes in some individuals periodic recurrences which are usually benign (herpes labialis).

Clinical features

- *Primary herpetic gingivostomatitis*: multiple vesicles on the oral mucosa and lips which rupture to form painful, yellowish, at times extensive ulcers. Local lesions are usually associated with general malaise, regional lymphadenopathy and fever.
- *Recurrent herpes labialis*: clusters of vesicles at the junction between the lip and the skin.

In patients with frequent recurrences or extensive forms, consider HIV infection (see page 214).

Treatment

Primary herpetic gingivostomatitis

- Treat pain: paracetamol or ibuprofen PO.
- In the event of severe lesions, inability to drink and significant pain:
 - admit the child to hospital (high risk of dehydration);
 - if the child presents within the first 96 hours of symptoms onset, **aciclovir** PO for 5 to 7 days:
 - Children under 2 years: 200 mg 5 times per day
 - Children over 2 years: 400 mg 5 times per day
- In the event of secondary bacterial infection: amoxicillin PO 7 days.

In immunocompromised patients: see page 214.

Recurrent herpes labialis

Spontaneous resolution within 7 to 10 days. An antiseptic (chlorhexidine or polyvidone iodine) may be applied; paracetamol PO if necessary.

Both forms of herpes are contagious: do not touch lesions (or wash hands afterwards); avoid oral contact.

Other infectious causes

Tonsillitis (page 53), diphtheria (page 55), measles (page 189).

For scarlet fever (strawberry tongue associated with a skin rash):

phenoxymethylpenicillin (pencillin V) PO for 10 days

Children under 1 year: 250 mg/day in 2 divided doses

Children from 1 to 5 years: 500 mg/day in 2 divided doses

Children from 6 to 12 years: 1 g/day in 2 divided doses

Adults: 2 g/day in 2 divided doses

Stomatitis from scurvy (vitamin C deficiency)

Clinical features

Bleeding gums, associated in infants with lower limb pain caused by subperiosteal haemorrhage. It is common in contexts of poor food quality or in populations completely dependent on food aid (refugee camps).

Treatment

ascorbic acid (vitamin C) PO

Children: 150 to 200 mg/day in 3 or 4 divided doses

Adults: 500 to 750 mg/day in 3 or 4 divided doses

The treatment is continued until symptoms improve (1 to 2 weeks), then a preventive treatment (children and adults: 25 to 50 mg/day) is given as long as the situation requires.

Other lesions resulting from a nutritional deficiency

Other vitamin deficiencies may provoke mouth lesions: angular stomatitis of the lips and glossitis from vitamin B2 (riboflavin), niacin (see *Pellagra*, page 118) or vitamin B6 (pyridoxine) deficiencies.

Iron deficiency may also provoke angular stomatitis (see *Anaemia*, page 37).

Give the corresponding vitamins at curative doses. Multivitamins are insufficient to treat true vitamin deficiencies.

CHAPTER 4

Skin diseases

4

Dermatology	97
Scabies	98
Lice (pediculosis)	101
Superficial fungal infections	103
Bacterial skin infections	105
Cutaneous anthrax	109
Treponematoses	111
Leprosy	113
Herpes simplex and herpes zoster	116
Other skin disorders	117

Dermatology

Skin diseases, particularly infectious skin diseases, are very common. They must be treated individually or collectively, but must also be considered as indicators of the sanitary condition of a population. A high prevalence of infectious skin diseases may reflect a problem of insufficient water quantity and lack of hygiene in a population.

Dermatological examination

- Observe the type of lesion:
 - **Macule:** flat, non palpable lesion that is different in colour than the surrounding skin
 - **Papule:** small (< 1 cm) slightly elevated, circumscribed, solid lesion
 - **Vesicle** (< 1 cm), **bullae** (> 1 cm): clear fluid-filled blisters
 - **Pustule:** vesicle containing pus
 - **Nodule:** firm, elevated palpable lesion (> 1 cm) that extend into the dermis or subcutaneous tissue.
 - **Erosion:** loss of the epidermis that heals without leaving a scar
 - **Excoriation:** erosion caused by scratching
 - **Ulcer:** loss of the epidermis and at least part of the dermis that leaves a scar
 - **Scale:** flake of epidermis that detaches from the skin surface
 - **Crust:** dried serum, blood, or pus on the skin surface
 - **Atrophy:** thinning of the skin
 - **Lichenification:** thickening of the skin with accentuation of normal skin markings
- Look at the distribution of the lesions over the body; observe their arrangement: isolated, clustered, linear, annular (in a ring). Ask if the lesions are itchy.
- Look for a possible cause: insect bites; scabies, lice, other parasitic skin infections; contact with plants, animals, jewellery, detergents, etc.
- Ask about any ongoing treatment: topical, oral or parenteral.
- Look for local or regional signs (secondary infection, lymphangitis, adenopathy, erysipelas) and/or systemic signs (fever, septicaemia, distant infectious focus).
- Consider the sanitary condition of the family, particularly for contagious skin diseases (scabies, scalp ringworm, lice).
- Check tetanus vaccination status.

Patients with skin disease often present late. At this stage, primary lesions and specific signs may be masked by secondary infection. In these cases, it is necessary to re-examine the patient, after treating the secondary infection, in order to identify and treat the underlying skin disease.

Scabies

Scabies is a cutaneous parasitosis due to the presence of the mite *Sarcoptes scabiei hominis* within the epidermis. It exists in two forms: ordinary scabies, relatively benign and moderately contagious; and crusted scabies, favoured by immune deficiency, extremely contagious and refractory to conventional treatment. Person to person transmission takes place chiefly through direct skin contact, and sometimes by indirect contact (sharing clothing, bedding). The challenge in management is that it must include simultaneous treatment of both the patient and close contacts, and at the same time, decontamination of clothing and bedding of all persons undergoing treatment, in order to break the transmission cycle.

Clinical features

Ordinary scabies

In older children and adults

- Itching, worse at night, very suggestive of scabies if close contacts have the same symptom and
- Typical skin lesions:
 - Scabies burrows (common): fine wavy lines of 5 to 15 mm, corresponding to the tunnels made by the parasite within the skin. Burrows are most often seen in the interdigital spaces of the hand and flexor aspect of the wrist, but may be present on the areolae, buttocks, elbows, axillae. The back and the face are spared. Burrows may be associated with vesicles, corresponding to the entry point of the parasite in the skin.
 - Scabies nodules (less common): reddish-brown nodules, measuring 2 to 20 mm, on the genitals in men, persisting after effective treatment (they are not necessarily indicative of active infection).and/or
- Secondary skin lesions: resulting from scratching (excoriations, crusts) or super-infection (impetigo).

Typical lesions and secondary lesions may co-exist, or specific lesions may be entirely masked by secondary lesions.

In infants and young children

- Vesicular eruption; often involving palms and soles, back, face, and limbs. Secondary infection or eczematization is frequent. Isolated scabies nodules in the axillae may be the only manifestation.
- Examination of the mother's hands may support the diagnosis.

Crusted (Norwegian) scabies

Thick, scaly, erythematous plaques, generalised or localised, resembling psoriasis, with or without itching (50% of cases). Delay in diagnosis may lead to a scabies epidemic.

Treatment

In all cases

- Close contacts of the patient are treated simultaneously, even in the absence of symptoms.
- Clothing and bedding (including that of contacts) are changed after each treatment. They are washed at $\geq 60^{\circ}\text{C}$ then dried in the sun, or exposed to sunlight for 72 hours, or sealed in a plastic bag for 72 hours.

Ordinary scabies

Topical treatment

Topical scabicides are applied over the entire body (including the scalp, post-auricular areas, umbilicus, palms and soles), avoiding mucous membranes and face, and the breasts in breastfeeding women. Particular attention should be paid to common infestation sites. The recommended contact time should not be shortened or exceeded; the patient must not wash his hands while the product is in use (or the product should be reapplied if the hands are washed). In infants, the hands must be wrapped to prevent accidental ingestion of the product. Topical scabicides should not be applied to broken or inflamed skin. Treatment of secondary bacterial infection, if present, should be initiated 24 to 48 hours before use of topical scabicides (see *Impetigo*, page 105).

The preferred treatment is **5% permethrin** (lotion or cream):

Child > 2 months and adult: one application, with a contact time of 8 hours, then rinse off. Permethrin is easier to use (no dilution required), and preferred over benzyl benzoate in children, and pregnant/lactating women. One application may be sufficient, but a second application 7 days later reduces the risk of treatment failure.

or, if not available, **benzyl benzoate 25%** lotion:

	Children < 2 years	Children 2-12 years	Children > 12 years and adults
Dilution	Lotion must be diluted before use:		Use undiluted 25% lotion
	1 part 25% lotion + 3 parts water	1 part 25% lotion + 1 part water	
Contact time	12 hours (6 hours for infants < 6 months), then rinse off	24 hours, then rinse off	24 hours, then rinse off

A second application of benzyl benzoate (e.g. after 24 hours, with a rinse between the 2 applications; or two successive applications, 10 minutes apart, when the first application has dried, with a rinse after 24 hours) reduces the risk of treatment failure.

Second applications are not recommended in pregnant women and children < 2 years.

Oral treatment

Treatment with **ivermectin** PO (200 micrograms as a single dose) is an alternative: it is more practical than topical treatment (e.g. in the case of an epidemic or for treating contacts) and can be started right away in the case of secondary infection. A single dose may be sufficient; a second dose 7 days later reduces the risk of treatment failure.

Ivermectin is not recommended for children < 15 kg or pregnant women (safety not established)¹.

Administration of ivermectin to patients with loiasis carries a risk of severe neurological complications when significant *Loa loa* microfilaraemia is present (see *Filariasis*, page 157)².

Weight	15 to 24 kg	25 to 35 kg	36 to 50 kg	51 to 65 kg
Ivermectin 3 mg tab	1 tab	2 tab	3 tab	4 tab
Ivermectin 6 mg tab	1/2 tab	1 tab	1 1/2 tab	2 tab

Treatment effectiveness is judged on clinical grounds. Itching may persist for 1 to 3 weeks after elimination of the parasite.

Persistence of typical burrows beyond 3 weeks should lead to suspicion of treatment failure (insufficient treatment, e.g. the scalp was not included in topical treatment or the patient washed his hands during the treatment period), or early re-infestation (contacts and environment not treated). In these cases, patient and contacts should be retreated.

Persistent itching may be due to another condition, initially masked by scabies.

Crusted scabies

Treatment combines simultaneous administration of oral ivermectin and topical scabicide at regular intervals, e.g. every week for 2 to 3 weeks or more, according to severity and clinical response.

Crusts should be softened (salicylic acid ointment) and removed before applying local treatment (otherwise, local treatment is ineffective).

As exfoliated skin scales may spread the parasite, the patient should be isolated during the treatment, staff should use protection (gloves, gowns and hand washing after contact), and environment (bedding, floors and surfaces) should be decontaminated.

¹ Treatment with ivermectin in these patients is reserved for severe cases for which no alternative exists (see crusted scabies).

² In areas where loiasis is endemic, certain precautions are recommended before administering ivermectin: e.g. measure the *Loa loa* microfilaraemia, if possible, or ensure that the patient has no history of loiasis (migration of an adult worm under the conjunctiva or transient « Calabar » swellings), nor history of severe adverse reactions following a previous treatment with ivermectin, or if in doubt, use topical treatment in preference to oral.

Lice (pediculosis)

Pediculosis is a benign contagious parasitic infection due to 3 species of lice specific to humans: head lice, body lice and pubic lice. Transmission from person to person occurs through direct or indirect contact.

Body lice are potential vectors of relapsing fever (page 182), typhus (page 185) and trench fever.

Clinical features

- Head lice mainly affect children: itching and scratch marks (nape of neck and around the ears), which may become secondarily infected (impetigo) in prolonged infestation; presence of live lice and/or live (shiny, grey) nits attached to the hair shaft within 5 mm of the scalp.
- Body lice mainly affect populations living under poor conditions (refugees, prisoners, the homeless): itching and scratch marks (back, belt line and armpits), often inflamed and infected; presence of lice and nits in the clothing (parasites are not found on the body).
- Pubic lice are considered to be a sexually transmitted infection (STI): itching and scratch marks (pubic and perianal area), but other hairy areas may also be affected (armpits, thighs, eyelashes); lice and nits at the base of the hair shaft, rarely visible.
- Examine contacts; check for associated systemic infection (body lice) or STI (pubic lice).

Treatment

Head lice

Apply to dry hair **1% permethrin** lotion (leave on for 10 min) or **0.5% malathion** lotion (leave on for 12 hours; 8 hours in children 6 months-2 years). Do not reduce or exceed the recommended duration of treatment. Rinse thoroughly. Decontaminate combs, headwear and bedding (wash $\geq 60^{\circ}\text{C}/30$ min, iron or dry in the sun or, if not feasible, seal in a plastic bag for 2 weeks). Treat those contacts with lice and/or live nits, not those with dead nits alone (dull, white, > 1 cm from scalp) as above. It is recommended to repeat the application after 10 days.

Body lice

For *mass treatment* (outbreak): apply 30 to 60 g (2 to 4 heaped soup spoons) of **0.5% permethrin** powder to the inside of the clothes and underclothes in contact with the skin (front and back, neck and waistline, sleeves and socks) in a fully clothed patient, then rub in the powder by hand. Leave for 12 to 24 hours. Treat other clothing (including headwear) and bedding in a plastic bag with **0.5% permethrin** powder. Repeat in 8 to 10 days if the infestation persists.

For *individual treatment*: disinfection of clothing and bedding as above or as for head lice.

Pubic lice

Shave and/or apply **1% permethrin** lotion to hairy areas (as for head lice). Treat the partner at the same time. Decontaminate clothing and bedding (as for head lice). Repeat the application after 7 days.

Treatment of secondary bacterial infection, if present, should begin 24 to 48 hours before local antiparasitic treatment (see *Impetigo*, page 105); local treatment is applied later when tolerated.

Superficial fungal infections

Superficial fungal infections are benign infections of the skin, scalp and nails caused by *Candida albicans* or dermatophytes.

Clinical features and treatment

Candidiasis

Candidal diaper dermatitis

Erythema of the perianal area with peripheral desquamation and sometimes pustules. Secondary infection may develop.

- Buttocks must be kept clean (ordinary soap and water) and dry.
- Avoid humidity: according to the context, expose the buttocks to air or change diapers more frequently; remove plastic pants.
- Protect the skin with **zinc oxide ointment** if diarrhoea is present.
- If diaper dermatitis is severe and persistent despite these measures, consider an intestinal infection (**nystatin** PO: 400 000 IU / day in 4 divided doses for 20 days).

Other candidiasis

Candidiasis of skin folds: **miconazole 2%** cream, twice daily for 2 to 4 weeks

Oral candidiasis: see *Stomatitis*, page 92.

Vulvovaginal candidiasis: see *Abnormal vaginal discharge*, page 233.

Dermatophytoses (tinea or ringworm)

Dermatophytes cause various clinical lesions, depending on the anatomic site involved: scalp, glabrous (hairless) skin, folds or nails. See following page.

Dermatophytoses

Anatomic site ¹	Clinical features	Treatment
Scalp Scalp ringworm <i>Tinea capitis</i>	Common in children. Depending on the species: – One or more round, scaly, erythematous plaques with the ends of broken hairs. – Inflammation, suppuration, crusting and peripheral lymphadenopathy (kerion). – Permanent hair loss (favus). Some scalp ringworms are contagious: simultaneously examine (and treat) symptomatic contacts.	– Shave or cut hair short on and around the lesions. – Local treatment: 2 times/day, clean with soap and water, dry and apply miconazole 2% cream or Whitfield's ointment for 2 weeks or longer if necessary. – Administer systemic treatment as local treatment alone does not cure scalp ringworm: griseofulvin PO for 6 weeks (up to 8 to 12 weeks) Children ≤ 12 years: 10 to 20 mg/kg/day in 1 or 2 divided doses (max. 500 mg/d) Children > 12 years and adults: 500 mg to 1 g/day in 1 or 2 divided doses or itraconazole PO Children: 3 to 5 mg/kg once daily for 4 weeks (max. 200 mg/d) Adults: 200 mg once daily for 2 to 4 weeks – Suppurative lesions: treat superinfection (see <i>Impetigo</i> , page 105) before applying local antifungal treatment. – For painful kerion: paracetamol PO. In pregnant lactating/breastfeeding women: oral antifungals are contraindicated. Apply a topical treatment (miconazole 2% cream or Whitfield's ointment) to limit the spread of infection until it is possible to treat orally.
Glabrous skin Ringworm of the body <i>Tinea corporis</i>	Erythematous, scaly, pruritic macule with a well-demarcated, raised, vesicular border and central healing.	– For non widespread, localised tinea: Local treatment: 2 times/day, clean with soap and water, dry and apply miconazole 2% cream or Whitfield's ointment for 2 to 4 weeks or for 2 weeks after clinical resolution. – Reserve oral antifungals for particularly extensive lesions: griseofulvin PO for 4 to 6 weeks or itraconazole for 15 days.
Folds <i>Tinea pedis</i> (athlete's foot) <i>Tinea cruris</i>	– <i>Interdigital spaces (Tinea pedis):</i> Pruritus, fissure and whitish scales in the 3 rd and / or 4 th interdigital spaces ² . – <i>Groin (Tinea cruris):</i> Circumscribed, pruritic, erythematous plaque, with a pale centre surrounded by vesiculopustules, extending outward from the groin.	Topical treatment as above. If oozing lesions, use miconazole 2% cream only (do not use Whitfield's ointment).

¹ Dermatophytosis may affect the nails (*Tinea unguium*, onychomycosis). Treatment is prolonged (12 to 18 months with griseofulvin) thus, in practice, difficult. Failures and relapses are frequent.

² In candidal intertrigo, lesions are usually located in the 1st and 2nd interdigital spaces.

Bacterial skin infections

Impetigo

- Impetigo is a benign, contagious infection of the epidermis due to group A β -haemolytic streptococcus and *Staphylococcus aureus*. Co-infection is common. Transmission is by direct contact. Lack of water and poor hygiene increase spread.
- Primary infections are most common in children. Secondary infections complicating pre-existing pruritic dermatoses (lice, scabies, eczema, herpes, chickenpox etc.) are more common in adults.

Clinical features

- Classic form: flaccid vesicle on erythematous skin which becomes pustular and forms a yellowish crust. Different stages of the infection may be present simultaneously. The lesion does not leave a scar. The most common sites of infection are around the nose and mouth, on the limbs or on the scalp. There is no fever.
- Bullous impetigo: large flaccid bullae and erosions of the skin in the ano-genital region in newborns and infants.
- Ecthyma: an ulcerative form of impetigo that leaves scars. Lesions usually occur on the lower limbs. This form is most common in the immunocompromised, diabetics and alcoholics.
- Rare complications:
 - abscess, pyodermitis, lymphangitis, osteomyelitis, septicaemia;
 - systematically look for signs of acute glomerulonephritis.

Treatment

- **Localised impetigo** (less than 3 lesions on the same region of the body):
 - Clean with soap and water 2 times/day and dry.
 - Soften crusts if present by applying vaseline and gently remove them.
 - Keep dry (do not cover with an occlusive dressing; if on the buttocks of children, leave uncovered, etc.).
 - Keep fingernails short.
- **Extensive impetigo** (more than 3 lesions or impetigo on more than one region of the body), bullous impetigo, ecthyma, abscess; immunocompromised patient:
 - Treat locally as above.
 - Incise abscesses.
 - Treat with antibiotics:
cloxacillin PO
 Children: 50 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses for 7 days
 Adults: 3 g/day in 3 divided doses for 7 days

For patients allergic to penicillin: **erythromycin** PO

Children: 30 to 50 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses for 7 days

Adults: 3 g/day in 3 divided doses for 7 days

– **For all patients:**

- Quarantine from school.
- Treat any pre-existing skin disease: lice (see page 101), scabies (see page 98), eczema (see page 117), herpes (see page 116), scalp ringworm (see page 104), or an ENT infection (see Chapter 2).
- Trace and treat contacts.
- Check for proteinuria (use a reagent strip) 3 weeks after the infection.

Furuncles (boils) and carbuncle

A necrotising perifollicular infection, usually due to *Staphylococcus aureus*. Development is favoured by humidity, breaks in the skin, lack of hygiene, diabetes mellitus, malnutrition, iron deficiency or compromised immunity.

Clinical features

- Furuncle: red, warm, painful nodule with a central pustule, usually around a hair follicle. It becomes fluctuant, discharges a core of purulent exudate, and leaves a depressed scar. It occurs most frequently on the thighs, groin, buttocks, armpits, neck and back. There is no fever.
- Carbuncle: a cluster of interconnected furuncles, sometimes with fever and peripheral adenopathies. It leaves a depressed scar.

Treatment

- For a single furuncle:
 - Clean with soap and water 2 times/day and cover with a dry dressing.
 - Warm moist compresses encourage furuncle to drain.
 - After drainage, clean and apply an antiseptic until the lesion has completely healed.
- For furuncles on the face, carbuncles, multiple furuncles (furunculosis) or in immunocompromised patients, treat systematically with antibiotics:
 - cloxacillin** PO
 - Children: 50 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses for 7 days
 - Adults: 3 g/day in 3 divided doses for 7 days
 - For patients allergic to penicillin:
 - erythromycin** PO
 - Children: 30 to 50 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses for 7 days
 - Adults: 3 g/day in 3 divided doses for 7 days
- Excise the furuncle only when it becomes fluctuant.
- For all cases:
 - Frequent hand washing, wash bedding;
 - Never manipulate a furuncle on the face as there is a risk of serious complication: unilateral facial inflammation with high fever and risk of cavernous sinus thrombosis.

Erysipela

Erysipela is an acute non-necrotising hypodermal infection, due to group A streptococcus. Common in adults, rare in children.

Clinical features

- Painful, inflammatory, oedematous plaque on a lower limb, high fever, peripheral adenopathies and lymphangitis).
- May occur on the face: bilateral, oedematous plaques, with peripheral swelling.
- Look for a cutaneous portal of entry: ulcer, wound, intertrigo.
- Local complications: most commonly superficial abscess, sometimes deep abscess (secondary staphylococcal infection), rarely develops into necrotising fasciitis.
- Rare generalised complications: septicaemia, acute glomerulonephritis, erythema nodosum.

Treatment

- **benzylpenicillin procaine** IM
Children: 50 000 IU/kg once daily
Adults: 1.5 MIU once daily
until the fever disappears and there is clinical improvement, then change to oral treatment to complete 7 to 10 days of treatment with:
phenoxymethylpenicillin (penicillin V) PO
Children under 1 year: 250 mg/day in 4 divided doses
Children from 1 to 5 years: 500 mg/day in 4 divided doses
Children from 6 to 12 years: 1 g/day in 4 divided doses
Adults: 2 g/day in 4 divided doses
or
amoxicillin PO: 50 mg/kg/day in 2 or 3 divided doses
For patients allergic to penicillin: **erythromycin** PO
Children: 50 mg/kg/day in 2 or 3 divided doses for 7 to 10 days
Adults: 3 g/day in 3 divided doses for 7 to 10 days
- Hospitalise patients who show marked generalised signs, signs of local complications, patients in poor general condition (chronic disease, the elderly) or if there is a risk of non-compliance during outpatient treatment.
- *Note:* other bacteria (*Staphylococcus aureus*, Gram negative bacteria) may cause acute cellulitis resembling erysipela. In the event of treatment failure with penicillin, consider these infections and change to **amoxicillin / clavulanic acid (co-amoxiclav)**.
- For all patients:
 - Bed rest with the affected leg elevated.
 - Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAID) are contra-indicated (risk of necrotising fasciitis).
 - Treat the portal of entry (ulcer, wound, intertrigo).
 - Check for proteinuria, on reagent strip, 3 weeks after the infection.

Necrotising infections of the skin and soft tissue

Necrosis of the hypodermis, with a vascular thrombosis, and sometimes a necrosis of the underlying superficial aponeurosis (fasciitis) and secondarily necrosis of the dermis. The clinical picture varies depending on the causal bacteria, most often Group A streptococcus, commonly associated with other bacteria (*Staphylococcus aureus*, anaerobic, enterobacteria, enterococcus).

Clinical features

Intensely painful, poorly demarcated, erythematous plaque with oedema and severe septic syndrome. Some patients then develop hemorrhagic blisters and bluish or blackish, cold, hypoaesthetic spots. The presence of gas or crepitation on palpation is linked to certain bacteria (*Clostridium perfringens*, enterobacteria).

Treatment

In case of necrotising fasciitis or gas gangrene: refer.

- Urgent surgical drainage of the wound and excision of the necrotic tissue.
- Antibiotic treatment (the length of treatment varies according to the clinical evolution):
 - **Necrotising fasciitis:**
 - benzylpenicillin IV**
Children: 600 000 IU (360 mg)/kg/day in 6 injections or infusions given every 4 hours
Adults: 24 MIU (14.4 g)/day in 6 injections or infusions given every 4 hours
 - +
 - clindamycin IV**
Children: 40 mg/kg/day in 3 infusions given every 8 hours (maximum 1.3 g/day)
Adults: 1.8 g/day in 3 infusions given every 8 hours
 - **Gas gangrene:**
 - benzylpenicillin IV:** as above
 - +
 - metronidazole IV**
Children: 30 mg/kg/day in 3 infusions given every 8 hours (maximum 1.5 g/day)
Adults: 1.5 g/day in 3 infusions given every 8 hours
 - +
 - gentamicin IM**
Children and adults: 3 to 6 mg/kg/day in 2 injections

Cutaneous anthrax

- A toxic infection of herbivores due to *Bacillus anthracis* that is transmitted to humans by inoculation through the skin (contact with infected dead animals, flies). Cutaneous anthrax is common in the tropics.
- Pulmonary (transmitted by inhalation) and intestinal (transmitted by eating infected meat) forms also exist.

Clinical features

- Papule, then pruritic vesicle that ulcerates and becomes a black eschar surrounded by significant oedema with lymphangitis, regional adenopathy and/or generalised signs. Cutaneous anthrax usually occurs on uncovered areas of the body (head, neck, limbs) and is painless.
- If not treated promptly, there is a risk of extensive, malignant oedema and septicaemia.

Treatment

- **Simple cutaneous anthrax** (at dispensary level):
 - Antibiotic treatment:
 - phenoxymethylpenicillin (penicillin V) PO**
 Children under 1 year: 250 mg/day in 4 divided doses for 7 to 10 days
 Children from 1 to 5 years: 500 mg/day in 4 divided doses for 7 to 10 days
 Children from 6 to 12 years: 1 g/day in 4 divided doses for 7 to 10 days
 Adults: 2 g/day in 4 divided doses for 7 to 10 days
 - For patients allergic to penicillin:
 - doxycycline PO** (except for children under 8 years and pregnant or lactating women)
 Children over 8 years and adults: 200 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 7 to 10 days
 or
 - erythromycin PO**
 Children: 30 to 50 mg/kg/day in 2 or 3 divided doses for 7 to 10 days
 Adults: 2 to 3 g/day in 2 or 3 divided doses for 7 to 10 days
 - Do not excise the eschar. Daily dry dressings.
- **Cutaneous anthrax with extensive oedema or generalised signs or cutaneous anthrax localised on the head or neck** (at hospital level):
 - benzylpenicillin procaine + benzylpenicillin or benzylpenicillin procaine IM**
 Children: 100 000 IU/kg/day in 1 or 2 injections
 Adults: 4 MIU/day in 1 or 2 injections

Change to oral treatment as soon as possible with **phenoxymethylpenicillin (penicillin V)** PO to complete 10 days of treatment:

Children under 1 year: 250 mg/day in 4 divided doses

Children from 1 to 5 years: 500 mg/day in 4 divided doses

Children from 6 to 12 years: 1 g/day in 4 divided doses

Adults: 2 g/day in 4 divided doses

For patients allergic to penicillin:

chloramphenicol IV

Children: 100 mg/kg/day in 3 injections

Adults: 3 g/day in 3 injections

Change to oral treatment as soon as possible with **chloramphenicol PO** at the same doses to complete 10 days of treatment.

Prevention

- Antibiotic prophylaxis for adult contacts:
doxycycline PO (except for pregnant and lactating women): 200 mg/day for 6 weeks
- Bury or burn the carcasses of animals that die of anthrax.

Treponematoses

- Bacterial infections caused by 3 different types of treponema (other than *Treponema pallidum*).
- Human-to-human transmission may be direct or indirect.
- The 3 non-venereal treponematoses result in positive syphilis serology (TPHA-VDRL), but this test is not necessary as diagnosis is clinical.
- For treatment of syphilis see *Genital infections*, page 229.

Clinical features

See table following page.

Treatment

- *For the 3 treponematoses*

benzathine benzylpenicillin IM

Children under 6 years: 600 000 IU as a single injection

Children over 6 years and adults: 1.2 MIU as a single injection

For patients allergic to penicillin:

erythromycin PO

Children: 50 mg/kg/day in 2 or 3 divided doses for 14 days

Adults: 2 to 3 g/day in 2 or 3 divided doses for 14 days

or

doxycycline PO (except for children under 8 years and pregnant and lactating women)

Children over 8 years: 100 to 200 mg once daily or in 2 divided doses for 14 days

Adults: 200 mg once daily or in 2 divided doses for 14 days

Notes:

- Antibiotic treatment will cure early stage cases and may relieve the pain of osteitis. It may be ineffective for late stage infections.
- Syphilis serology will remain positive despite clinical cure.

- *Prophylactic treatment of contacts*

Examine contacts and treat with **benzathine benzylpenicillin** IM as a single dose as above (also treat patients in the latent stage with positive serology in endemic zones).

Clinical signs of treponematoses

	YAWS	PINTA	BEJEL (endemic syphilis)
Pathogen	<i>Treponema pertenue</i>	<i>Treponema carateum</i>	<i>Treponema pallidum</i> type M
Geographic distribution	Tropical and humid forests	Tropical zones of Latin America	Arid areas, semi-desert of the Middle East and Africa
Population	Children between 4 and 14 years	Children and adults	Nomadic populations, particularly children
First stage	Yaws chancre: skin coloured lesion, non-indurated, itchy, on the lower limbs in 95% of cases, with peripheral adenopathy. Spontaneous healing or development of a large yaw surrounded by smaller yaws.	Annular, erythematous, scaly plaques, usually on uncovered body parts (face, extremities), resemble dermatophytes. Lesions heal spontaneously leaving scars.	Discrete chancre: moist papule, most commonly on the mucous membranes or in dermal folds, with peripheral adenopathy.
Second stage	Lesions appear 3 weeks after the initial chancre, occur in crops and heal spontaneously: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – frambesioma (papillomatous lesion, vegetal, very contagious) – isolated or associated with yaws (round, squamous papules, not very contagious) – osteoperiostitis of the long bones (phalanges, nasal process of the maxilla, tibia) 	Pintids: plaques of various colours (bluish, reddish, whitish). May occur anywhere on the body.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – mucous patches of the mouth common: very contagious ulcerated, round in form, indurated, with white coating, bleed easily, usually occur on the inside of the lips, cheek and tongue or labial folds – condyloma in the anogenital region (rare) – cutaneous lesions are rare: vegetal aspect, in dermal folds – bone destruction identical to that of yaws, in the legs and forearms
Late stage	After some years of latency: periostitis; painful, debilitating osteitis; ulcerating and disfiguring rhinopharyngitis; juxta-articular nodules	Symmetrical white patches on the limbs. The depigmentation is permanent, remaining after treatment.	After several years of latency: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – gummatous lesions of skin and long bones – plantar and palmar keratosis – juxta-articular nodules – hyper- and hypo-pigmented patches (as in pinta)

Leprosy (Hansen's disease)

An endemic, chronic bacterial infection due to *Mycobacterium leprae*. Humans are the only reservoir of proven significance. Leprosy is not very contagious with transmission through prolonged, close, direct contact, particularly between household members. Children are most at risk of contracting the disease.

Clinical features

Leprosy should be considered in any patient presenting with hypopigmented skin lesions or peripheral neuropathy. In suspect cases, conduct a thorough clinical examination:

- skin and mucous membranes (patient must be undressed)
- neurological examination: sensitivity to light touch, pinprick and temperature (hot-cold test)
- palpation of the peripheral nerves

Different clinical forms and classification of leprosy exist.

The Ridley-Jopling classification differentiates 5 forms based on several factors, including the bacteriological index.

The WHO clinical classification is simplified to include only 3 forms (see next page)

The Ridley-Jopling classification of leprosy

Paucibacillary forms (least contagious forms)		Multibacillary forms (most contagious forms)		
Tuberculoid	Borderline Tuberculoid	Borderline	Borderline Lepromatous	Lepromatous
T.T.	B.T.	B.B.	B.L.	L.L.

Tuberculoid leprosy

- The primary characteristic is peripheral nerve involvement: tender, infiltrated and thickened nerves; loss of thermal, then tactile and pain sensation. This may lead to trophic ulcers and mutilations of the extremities.
- Lesions are single or few in number:
 - plaque with a well-demarcated raised border and an atrophic, clear centre or
 - erythematous macule on pale skin, hypopigmented macule on dark skin
- Nerve involvement develops late in the disease.

Lepromatous leprosy

- The primary characteristic is multiple muco-cutaneous lesions:
 - macules, papules or infiltrated nodules on the face, ear lobes and the upper and lower limbs. Lesions are bilateral, symmetrical, pigmented. Initially, there is no sensory loss.
 - involvement of the nasal mucosa with crusting and nose bleeds
 - oedema of the lower limbs
- Nerve involvement develops late in the disease.

Borderline leprosy

Forms between tuberculoid and lepromatous.

Indeterminate leprosy (I)

Form that does not fall in the Ridley-Jopling classification, frequent in children: a single well-demarcated macule, hypopigmented on dark skin, slightly erythematous on pale skin. Absence of sweat and hair, and loss of sensation are inconstant.

Lesion heals spontaneously or the disease evolves towards tuberculoid or lepromatous leprosy.

Lepra reactions

- *Reversal reactions*: occur in patients with borderline leprosy, during treatment, when evolving towards tuberculoid leprosy. Skin lesions become swollen and painful with a risk of necrosis and ulceration. Acute painful neuritis (ulnar nerve) requires urgent treatment (see page 115) as there is a risk of permanent sequelae.
- *Downgrading reactions*: occur in untreated patients with borderline leprosy, when the disease evolves towards lepromatous leprosy. These reactions are difficult to distinguish from reversal reactions.
- *Erythema nodosum leprosum*: crops of tender subcutaneous nodules, purplish-red, then yellowish in colour. This reaction is seen exclusively in patients with lepromatous leprosy during the first year of treatment.

In order to simplify diagnosis and to promote rapid implementation of treatment, the WHO simplified clinical classification of leprosy and differentiates only 3 forms:

- Multibacillary leprosy: more than 5 skin lesions
- Paucibacillary leprosy: 2 to 5 skin lesions
- Single skin lesion paucibacillary leprosy

Laboratory

Demonstration of acid-fast bacilli in a Ziehl-Neelsen stained smear:

- nasal smear
- skin-split smear taken from the ear lobe or from a skin lesion

In tuberculoid leprosy, bacilli are usually not found.

Treatment

Treatment of leprosy

- Leprosy is a curable disease. Early antibiotic treatment prevents functional sequelae and transmission of the disease.
- In countries where leprosy is endemic, it is important to be informed about national control programmes.
- The high rates of resistance and of recurrences after single drug therapy have led to the use of effective multi-drug therapy regimens which are easy to administer in the field and for which no resistance has been reported.
- Teach the patient to recognise and quickly report a lepra reaction or relapse in order to modify or restart treatment.

Treatment recommended by the WHO, based on the simplified clinical classification of leprosy

	Multibacillary leprosy (more than 5 skin lesions)	Paucibacillary leprosy (2 to 5 skin lesions)	Paucibacillary leprosy (single skin lesion)
Children under 10 years	dapsone PO: 25 mg once daily, self-administered + rifampicin PO: 300 mg once monthly, under supervision + clofazimine PO: 100 mg once monthly, under supervision and 50 mg 2 times weekly, self-administered	dapsone PO: 25 mg once daily, self-administered + rifampicin PO: 300 mg once monthly, under supervision	
Children between 10 and 14 years	dapsone PO: 50 mg once daily, self-administered + rifampicin PO: 450 mg once monthly, under supervision + clofazimine PO: 150 mg once monthly, under supervision and 50 mg on alternate days, self-administered	dapsone PO: 50 mg once daily, self-administered + rifampicin PO: 450 mg once monthly, under supervision	
Adults	dapsone PO: 100 mg once daily, self-administered + rifampicine PO: 600 mg once monthly, under supervision + clofazimine PO: 300 mg once monthly, under supervision and 50 mg once daily, self-administered	dapsone PO: 100 mg once daily, self-administered + rifampicine PO: 600 mg once monthly, under supervision	rifampicin PO: 600 mg + ofloxacin PO: 400 mg + minocycline PO: 100 mg
Duration	12 months	6 months	single dose

Treatment of leprosy reactions

- Reversal or downgrading reactions: **prednisolone** (or **prednisone**) PO: 1 mg/kg/day for 3 to 5 days then progressively decrease the dosage (reduce the dosage by 10% each week).
- Erythema nodosum leprosum: **clofazimine** PO, 100 to 300 mg/day associated with an NSAID (do not administer dosages equal to or greater than 300 mg/day for more than 3 months).

Herpes simplex and herpes zoster

Herpes simplex

Recurrent viral infection of the skin and mucous membranes due to the *herpes simplex virus*. Recurrent lesions have a different presentation than primary infection.

Clinical features

- Recurrent herpes labialis: tingling feeling followed by an eruption of vesicles on an erythematous base, located on the lips ('fever blisters') and around the mouth, they may extend onto the face. Recurrence corresponds to a reactivation of the latent virus after a primary infection. No associated malaise, adenopathy or fever.
- Carefully consider other sites: buccal (page 92), genital (page 236), ophthalmic, and secondary bacterial infections.

Treatment

- Clean with soap and water 2 times/day until the lesions have healed.
- For patients with secondary bacterial infections: antibiotic treatment as for impetigo (see page 105).

Herpes zoster (shingles)

Acute viral infection due to the varicella-zoster virus. Chickenpox is the primary infection and herpes zoster the reactivation of the latent virus.

Clinical features

- Unilateral neuralgic pain followed by an eruption of vesicles on a erythematous base, that follow the distribution of a nerve pathway.
- Lesions most commonly occur on the thorax, but herpes zoster may also develop on the face with a risk of ophthalmic complications.
- Herpes zoster is more common in adults than in children.

Treatment

- Similar to that of herpes simplex, with the addition of systematic analgesics: **paracetamol** PO (see *Pain*, page 29).
- **aciclovir** PO given within the first 48 hours after the eruption of lesions is only indicated for severe forms: necrotic or extensive lesions or lesion on the face which may spread to the eyes (see *HIV infection and AIDS*, page 219).

Other skin disorders

Eczema (dermatitis)

- Acute eczema: erythematous plaque, pruritic, vesicular, oozing, with poorly demarcated and crumbly borders.
- Chronic eczema: erythematous plaque, scaly, dry, poorly demarcated and pruritic.
- Look for a cause (contact allergic dermatitis, fungal or bacterial infection with a distant focus, malnutrition) and ask about family history.

Treatment

- Clean with soap and water 2 times / day.
- Then apply:
 - for acute eczema: **calamine** lotion 2 times / day
 - for chronic eczema: **zinc oxide ointment** 2 times / day
- Look for and treat any pre-existing skin disease (scabies, lice etc.).
- For patients with secondary infections: treat as impetigo (see page 105).
- For patients with intense pruritus, antihistamines (promethazine PO or chlorphenamine PO at the dosages indicated below) for a few days.

Urticaria

- Papules: transient, erythematous, oedematous, pruritic, resembling nettle stings.
- Look for a cause: food or drug (particularly antibiotic) allergy, insect bites; the invasive stage of a bacterial or parasitic infection (ascariasis, strongyloidiasis, ancylostomiasis, schistosomiasis, loiasis), viral infection (hepatitis B or C); generalised disease (cancer, lupus, dysthyroidism, vasculitis).

Treatment

- If the pruritus is intense, antihistamines:
promethazine PO
 Children from 2 to 5 years: 10 mg / day in 2 divided doses
 Children from 5 to 10 years: 10 to 25 mg / day in 2 divided doses
 Children over 10 years and adults: 75 mg / day in 3 divided doses
 or **chlorphenamine** PO
 Children from 1 to 2 years: 1 mg 2 times daily
 Children from 2 to 6 years: 1 mg 4 to 6 times daily (max. 6 mg / day)
 Children from 6 to 12 years: 2 mg 4 to 6 times daily (max. 12 mg / day)
 Children over 12 years and adults: 4 mg 4 to 6 times daily (max. 24 mg / day)
- In the event of anaphylactic reaction, see page 19.

Pellagra

Pellagra is a dermatitis resulting from niacin and/or tryptophane deficiency (in persons whose staple food is sorghum, maize not treated with lime; patients with malabsorption, or during famine).

Clinical features

Classically, disease of the 'three Ds': dermatitis, diarrhoea and dementia.

- Dark red plaques, well demarcated, symmetric, located on exposed areas of the body (forehead, neck, forearms, legs). The skin becomes very scaly, pigmented, sometimes with haemorrhagic bullae.
- Gastrointestinal (glossitis, stomatitis and diarrhoea) and neuropsychiatric symptoms are seen in more serious forms.

Traitement

- **nicotinamide PO**
Children and adults: 300 to 500 mg/day in 2 divided doses, give with a diet rich in protein until the patient is fully cured.
- In the event of an epidemic of pellagra, for example in a refugee camp, it is vital that the food ration be modified (add groundnuts or dry vegetables) in order to meet the daily requirements (approximately 15 mg/day for adults).

CHAPTER 5

Eye diseases

5

Xerophthalmia (vitamin A deficiency)	121
Conjunctivitis	123
Trachoma	126
Other pathologies	128
Onchocerciasis	
Loiasis	
Pterygium	
Cataract	

Xerophthalmia (vitamin A deficiency)

The term xerophthalmia covers all the ocular manifestations of vitamin A deficiency. Xerophthalmia can progress to irreversible blindness if left untreated.

In endemic areas, vitamin A deficiency and xerophthalmia affect mainly children (particularly those suffering from malnutrition or measles) and pregnant women.

Disorders due to vitamin A deficiency can be prevented by the routine administration of retinol.

Clinical features

- The first sign is hemeralopia (crepuscular blindness): the child cannot see in dim light, may bump into objects and/or show decreased mobility.
- Then, other signs appear gradually:
 - Conjunctival xerosis: bulbar conjunctiva appears dry, dull, thick, wrinkled and insensitive
 - Bitot's spots: greyish foamy patches on the bulbar conjunctiva, usually in both eyes (specific sign, however not always present).
 - Corneal xerosis: cornea appears dry and dull
 - Corneal ulcerations
 - Keratomalacia (the last and most severe sign of xerophthalmia): softening of the cornea, followed by perforation of the eyeball and blindness (extreme care must be taken during ophthalmic examination due to risk of rupturing cornea).

Treatment

It is essential to recognise and treat early symptoms to avoid the development of severe complications. Vision can be saved provided that ulcerations affect less than a third of the cornea and the pupil is spared. Even if deficiency has already led to keratomalacia and irreversible loss of sight, it is imperative to administer treatment, in order to save the other eye and the life of the patient.

– Retinol (vitamin A) PO

Regardless of the clinical stage:

Children from 6 to 12 months (or under 8 kg): 100 000 IU once daily on D1, D2 and D8

Children over 1 year (or over 8 kg): 200 000 IU once daily on D1, D2 and D8

Adults (except pregnant women): 200 000 IU once daily on D1, D2 and D8

Vitamin A deficiency is rare in breast fed infants under 6 months, if needed: 50 000 IU once daily on D1, D2 and D8.

In pregnant women, treatment varies according to the stage of illness:

- Hemeralopia or Bitot's spots: 10 000 IU once daily or 25 000 IU once weekly for at least 4 weeks. Do not exceed indicated doses (risk of foetal malformations).
- If the cornea is affected, risk of blindness outweighs teratogenic risk. Administer 200 000 IU once daily on D1, D2 and D8.

- Corneal lesions are a medical emergency. In addition to the immediate administration of retinol, treat or prevent secondary bacterial infections: apply **1% tetracycline eye ointment** twice daily (do not apply eye drops containing corticosteroids) and protect the eye with an eye-pad after each application.

Prevention

- Systematically administer retinol PO to children suffering from measles (one dose on D1 and D2).
- In areas where vitamin A deficiency is common, routine supplementation of **retinol** PO:
 - Children under 6 months: 50 000 IU as a single dose
 - Children from 6 to 12 months: 100 000 IU as a single dose every 4 to 6 months
 - Children from 1 to 5 years: 200 000 IU as a single dose every 4 to 6 months
 - Mothers after giving birth: 200 000 IU as a single dose immediately after delivery or within 8 weeks of delivery

Note: to avoid excessive dosage, record any doses administered on the health/immunisation card and do not exceed indicated doses. Vitamin A overdose may cause raised intracranial pressure (bulging fontanelle in infants; headache, nausea, vomiting) and, in severe cases, impaired consciousness and convulsions. These adverse effects are transient; they require medical surveillance and symptomatic treatment if needed.

Conjunctivitis

Conjunctivitis is an acute inflammation of the conjunctiva due to a bacterial or viral infection, allergy, or irritation. Endemic or epidemic, conjunctivitis may be associated with measles or rhinopharyngitis in children. In the absence of hygiene and effective treatment, secondary bacterial infections may develop, affecting the cornea (keratitis) and leading to blindness.

Clinical features

- Clinical signs of all conjunctivites include: redness of the eye and irritation. Visual acuity is not affected.
- Depending on the cause:
 - abundant and purulent secretions, eyelids stuck together on waking, unilateral infection at onset: bacterial conjunctivitis
 - watery (serous) secretions, no itching: viral conjunctivitis
 - excessive lacrimation, eyelid oedema, intense itching: allergic conjunctivitis
- In endemic areas, turn both upper eyelids up to check for signs of trachoma (see *Trachoma*, page 126).
- Suspect keratitis if patient reports intense pain (more than is usually associated with conjunctivitis) and photophobia. Instill one drop of **0.5% fluorescein** to check for possible ulcerations.
- Always check for foreign bodies (subconjunctival or corneal) and remove after administering **0.4% oxybuprocaine** anaesthetic eye drops. Never give bottle of eye drops to the patient.

Treatment

- *Bacterial conjunctivitis*
 - Clean eyes 4 to 6 times / day with boiled water or 0.9% sodium chloride.
 - Apply **1% tetracycline eye ointment** 2 times / day into both eyes for 7 days.
 - Never use corticosteroid drops or ointment.
- *Viral conjunctivitis*
 - Clean eyes 4 to 6 times / day with boiled water or 0.9% sodium chloride.
 - Apply local antibiotics if there is a (risk of) secondary bacterial infection (see above).

- *Allergic conjunctivitis*
 - Local treatment as for viral conjunctivitis.
 - Antihistamines for one to 3 days (promethazine PO or chlorphenamine PO, see page 117).

Note: in the event of a foreign body, check tetanus immunisation status.

Neonatal conjunctivitis

Conjunctivitis due to *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* and/or *Chlamydia trachomatis* in children born to infected mothers.

Clinical features

- Purulent conjunctivitis within the first 28 days of life.
- *Gonococcal conjunctivitis* usually occurs 2 to 7 days after birth. The infection is bilateral in 50% of cases, highly contagious and may rapidly lead to severe corneal lesions and blindness.
- *Chlamydial conjunctivitis* usually occurs 5 to 14 days after birth. The infection is often unilateral.

Prevention

Immediately at birth:

- Clean eyelids with sterile 0.9% sodium chloride.
- Then, apply **1% tetracycline eye ointment** once into both eyes.

Note:

In case of maternal *herpes simplex virus* infection at delivery: clean eyelids with sterile 0.9% sodium chloride then, apply **3% aciclovir eye ointment** once into both eyes, then wait 12 hours and apply tetracycline.

Treatment

At dispensary level

Treatment is urgent and the child should be referred. When immediate hospitalisation is not possible, clean and apply **1% tetracycline eye ointment** into both eyes every hour, until systemic treatment is available.

At hospital level

- If possible isolate the newborn for 24 to 48 hours.
- Treatment of choice is **ceftriaxone** IM: 50 mg/kg as a single dose (without exceeding 125 mg) if only the eyes are infected.
Failing the above, use **spectinomycin** IM: 25 mg/kg as a single dose (without exceeding 75 mg).

- Clean eyes with an isotonic sterile solution (0.9% sodium chloride or Ringer Lactate) to prevent secretions from adhering, and apply **1% tetracycline eye ointment** 4 times/day.
- If systemic treatment is not immediately available, apply **1% tetracycline eye ointment** into both eyes every hour until the treatment is available.
- Treat mother and partner (see *Genital infections*, page 229)
- If treatment with ceftriaxone fails, treat for chlamydia:
erythromycin PO: 50 mg/kg/day in 2 or 3 divided doses for 14 days

Viral epidemic keratoconjunctivitis

(corneal and conjunctival lesions)

- Treat as viral conjunctivitis. If possible, refer to an ophthalmologist.
- Protect the eye with a compress as long as photophobia lasts. Remove as soon as possible.
- If necessary, administer a preventive dose of **vitamin A** (see page 122).

Trachoma

Trachoma is a highly contagious keratoconjunctivitis due to *Chlamydia trachomatis*. The disease is endemic in the poorest rural areas of Africa, Asia, Central and South America and the Middle East.

Infection is usually first contracted early in childhood by direct or indirect contact (dirty hands, contaminated towels, flies). In the absence of hygiene and effective treatment, the inflammation intensifies with successive infections, causing scars and deformities on the upper tarsal conjunctiva. The resulting ingrowing eyelashes (trichiasis) cause corneal lesions followed by permanent blindness, usually in adulthood.

The WHO classifies trachoma into 5 stages. Early diagnosis and treatment of first stages is essential to avoid the development of trichiasis and associated complications.

Clinical features

Several stages can occur simultaneously:

- Stage I: trachomatous inflammation - follicular (TF)
Presence of five or more follicles in the upper tarsal conjunctiva. Follicles are whitish, grey or yellow elevations, paler than the surrounding conjunctiva.
- Stage II: trachomatous inflammation - intense (TI)
The upper tarsal conjunctiva is red, rough and thickened. The blood vessels, normally visible, are masked by a diffuse inflammatory infiltration or follicles.
- Stage III: trachomatous scarring (TS)
Follicles disappear, leaving scars: scars are white lines, bands or patches in the tarsal conjunctiva.
- Stage IV: trachomatous trichiasis (TT)
Due to multiple scars, the margin of the eyelid turns inwards (entropion); the eyelashes rub the cornea and cause ulcerations and chronic inflammation.
- Stage V: corneal opacity (CO)
Cornea gradually loses its transparency, leading to visual impairment and blindness.

Treatment

– Stages I and II:

- Clean eyes and face several times per day.
- Antibiotic therapy:

The treatment of choice is **azithromycin** PO:

Children over 6 months or over 6 kg: 20 mg/kg as a single dose

Adults: 1 g as a single dose

Failing the above, apply **1% tetracycline eye ointment**: 2 times/day for 6 weeks

In children under 6 months or 6 kg: **erythromycin** PO (40 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses for 14 days)

– Stage III: no treatment

– Stage IV: surgical treatment

While waiting for surgery, if regular patient follow-up is possible, taping eyelashes to the eyelid is a palliative measure that can help protect the cornea. In certain cases, this may lead to permanent correction of the trichiasis within a few months.

The method consists in sticking the ingrowing eyelashes to the external eyelid with thin strip of sticking-plaster, making sure that the eyelid can open and close perfectly. Replace the plaster when it starts to peel off (usually once a week); continue treatment for 3 months.

Note: epilation of ingrowing eyelashes is not recommended since it offers only temporary relief and regrowing eyelashes are more abrasive to the cornea.

– Stage V: no treatment

Prevention

Cleaning of the eyes, face and hands with clean water reduces direct transmission and the development of secondary bacterial infections.

Other pathologies

Onchocerciasis (river blindness)

Ocular lesions result from the invasion of the eye by microfilariae. They generally develop in adults and progress to blindness in the absence of early treatment.

Clinical features and treatment

Ocular lesions are always associated with onchocercal skin lesions (see page 157).

- Pruritus, hemeralopia (crepuscular blindness), decrease in visual acuity, narrowing of the visual field, awareness of microfilariae in the visual field (the patient sees “little wiggling worms before his eyes”).
- Lesions of the cornea (punctuate, then sclerosing, keratitis), iris (iridocyclitis) or posterior segment (chorioretinopathy and optic atrophy); microfilariae within the anterior chamber or vitreous humor (slit lamp).

For treatment, see *Onchocerciasis*, page 157. Ivermectin treatment may improve anterior segment lesions (sclerosing keratitis, iridocyclitis) and visual acuity. Severe lesions (chorioretinal lesions, optic atrophy) continue to progress despite treatment.

Loiasis

Clinical features and treatment

Migration of an adult worm under the palpebral or bulbar conjunctiva (white, filiform worm, measuring 4 to 7 cm in length, mobile) and ocular pruritus, lacrimation, photophobia or eyelid oedema.

For treatment, see *Loiasis*, page 159. The migration of the worm is often of very brief duration. Do not attempt to extract it, or administer anaesthetic drops; simply reassure the patient, the event is harmless. Surgical removal is likewise futile if the worm is dead/calcified.

Pterygium

A whitish, triangular growth of fibrovascular tissue extending slowly from the conjunctiva to the cornea. It occurs most frequently in patients who are exposed to wind, dust, or arid climates and never disappears spontaneously.

Clinical features and treatment

Two stages:

- Benign pterygium develops slowly, does not reach the pupil: no treatment.
- Progressive vascularized pterygium: red and inflamed growth covers the pupil and may impair vision:
 - Clean eye with sterile water or 0.9% sodium chloride.
 - Surgical removal if facilities are available.

Cataract

Opacity of the lens that causes a progressive loss of visual acuity. Cataract is common in the tropics and can occur at a younger age than in Europe. The presence of cataract in both eyes leads to blindness. Surgery is the only treatment.

CHAPTER 6

Parasitic diseases

Protozoan infections

Malaria	131
Human african trypanosomiasis	139
American trypanosomiasis	142
Leishmaniases	144
Intestinal protozoan infections (parasitic diarrhoea)	147

Helminthic infections

Flukes	149
Schistosomiasis	150
Cestodes	152
Nematode infections	154
Filariasis	157

Malaria

Malaria is a parasitic infection due to protozoa of the genus *Plasmodium*, transmitted to humans by the bite of *Anopheles* mosquitoes. Transmission by transfusion of parasite infected blood and transplacental transmission are also possible.

Most infections are due to four species: *P. falciparum*, *P. vivax*, *P. ovale* and *P. malariae*. All species may cause uncomplicated malaria; severe malaria (defined by the presence of complications) is almost always due to *P. falciparum*.

Clinical suspicion of malaria should be confirmed whenever possible by a parasitological diagnosis. However, treatment of suspected malaria should not be delayed when confirmatory testing is not available: uncomplicated malaria can progress rapidly to severe malaria, and severe malaria may cause death within a few hours if left untreated.

Clinical features

Malaria should always be considered in a patient living in or coming from an endemic area, who presents with fever (or history of fever in the previous 48 hours).

Uncomplicated malaria

Fever is frequently associated with chills, sweating, headache, muscular ache, malaise, anorexia or nausea. In children, fever may be associated with abdominal pain, diarrhoea and vomiting. Anaemia is frequent in children and pregnant women.

Severe malaria

In addition to the above, the patient presents with one or more of the following complications:

- Impaired consciousness, delirium or coma
- Seizures, generalised or focal (e.g. abnormal eye movements)
- Prostration (extreme weakness; in children: inability to sit or drink/suck)
- Respiratory distress: rapid and laboured breathing or slow, deep breathing
- Circulatory collapse (shock): cold extremities, weak or absent pulse, slow capillary refill time (> 3 seconds), cyanosis
- Jaundice (check mucosal surfaces of the mouth, conjunctivae and palms)
- Haemoglobinuria: dark red urine
- Abnormal bleeding: skin (petechiae), conjunctivae, nose, gums; blood in stools
- Acute renal failure: urine output < 12 ml/kg/day in children and < 400 ml/day in adults, despite adequate hydration

Patients presenting with any of the above features or with severe anaemia (see page 37) must be hospitalised immediately.

Laboratory diagnosis

Parasitological diagnosis

– Microscopy

Thin and thick blood films enable parasite detection, species identification, quantification and monitoring of parasitaemia.

Note: blood films may be negative due to sequestration of the parasitized erythrocytes in peripheral capillaries in severe malaria, as well as in placental vessels in pregnant women.

– *Rapid diagnostic tests (RDTs)*¹

Rapid tests detect parasite antigens. They give only a qualitative result (positive or negative) and may remain positive several days or weeks following effective treatment.

Note: even with positive diagnostic results, rule out other causes of fever.

Additional examinations

- Haemoglobin (Hb) level: to be measured routinely in all patients with clinical anaemia, and in all patients with severe malaria.
- Blood glucose level: to be measured routinely to detect hypoglycaemia (< 3 mmol/l or < 55 mg/dl) in patients with severe malaria and those with malnutrition.

Treatment of malaria due to *P. vivax*², *P. malariae*, *P. ovale*

chloroquine (CQ) PO

Children and adults: 10 mg base/kg once daily on D1, D2
5 mg base/kg on D3

P. vivax and *P. ovale* can cause relapses due to activation of dormant parasites in the liver. A treatment with primaquine³ can be given to eliminate these parasites, after the initial treatment with CQ. However, this treatment is reserved for patients living in areas where re-infection is unlikely, i.e. non-endemic or low transmission areas.

Treatment of uncomplicated falciparum malaria

Antimalarial treatment (for pregnant women, see page 138)

The treatment is an artemisinin-based combination therapy (ACT)⁴ given by the oral route for 3 days. The first-line ACT is chosen according to therapeutic efficacy in the area under consideration. Coformulations (2 antimalarials combined in the same tablet) are preferred over coblisters (2 distinct antimalarials presented in the same blister). For dosing information, see table next page.

If vomiting precludes oral therapy, treatment is started using IV or IM artesunate or IM artemether (see page 135) or rectal artesunate (see page 134), depending on availability, until the patient can tolerate a complete 3-day oral treatment with an ACT.

¹ Most rapid tests detect the following antigens alone or in combination: HRP2 protein specific to *P. falciparum*; an enzyme (Pf pLDH) specific to *P. falciparum*; an enzyme (pan pLDH) common to all 4 plasmodium species. HRP2 may continue to be detectable for 2 to 3 weeks or more after parasite clearance; pLDH remains detectable for several days (up to 2 weeks) after parasite clearance.

² In general, *P. vivax* remains sensitive to CQ but resistance is found in Papua New Guinea, the Solomon Islands, Burma, India, Indonesia and East Timor. In these regions, follow national recommendations.

³ **Primaquine** for 14 days: 0.25 to 0.5 mg/kg once daily in children > 4 years; 15 mg once daily in adults. Primaquine is contra-indicated in individuals with G6PD deficiency. If G6PD deficiency cannot be tested individually, the decision to prescribe primaquine must take into account the prevalence of deficiency in the population.

⁴ ACT: a combination of artemisinin or one of its derivatives (e.g. artesunate, artemether) with another antimalarial of a different class.

Treatment of uncomplicated falciparum malaria with ACTs

ACT	Presentation	Dosage
artemether/ lumefantrine (AL)	Coformulated tablets of 20 mg artemether / 120 mg lumefantrine Blister child < 3 years (5 to 14 kg), 6 tab /blister Blister child 3-8 years (15 to 24 kg), 12 tab /blister Blister child 9-14 years (25 to 34 kg), 18 tab /blister Blister > 14 years-adults (> 34 kg), 24 tab /blister	On D1, the first dose is given at 0 hour and the 2 nd dose at 8-12 hours. Subsequent doses on D2 and D3 are given twice daily (morning and evening). ==> 1 tab twice daily on D1, D2, D3 ==> 2 tab twice daily on D1, D2, D3 ==> 3 tab twice daily on D1, D2, D3 ==> 4 tab twice daily on D1, D2, D3
artesunate-amodiaquine (AS-AQ)	Coformulated tablets Blister children 2-11 months (4.5 to 8 kg), tab of AS 25 mg / AQ base 67.5 mg, 3 tab /blister Blister children 1-5 years (9 to 17 kg), tab of AS 50 mg / AQ base 135 mg, 3 tab /blister Blister children 6-13 years (18 to 35 kg), tab of AS 100 mg / AQ base 270 mg, 3 tab /blister Blister ≥ 14 years-adults (≥ 36 kg), tab of AS 100 mg / AQ base 270 mg, 6 tab /blister	 ==> 1 tab once daily on D1, D2, D3 ==> 1 tab once daily on D1, D2, D3 ==> 1 tab once daily on D1, D2, D3 ==> 2 tab once daily on D1, D2, D3
	Co-blister Coblister children ≤ 6 years, containing: 3 tab of AS 50 mg + 3 tab of AQ base 153 mg Coblister children 7-13 years, containing: 6 tab of AS 50 mg + 6 tab of AQ base 153 mg Coblister ≥ 14 years/ adults, containing: 12 tab of AS 50 mg + 12 tab of AQ base 153 mg	5-11 months ==> 1/2 tab AS + 1/2 tab AQ once daily on D1, D2, D3 1-6 years ==> 1 tab AS + 1 tab AQ once daily on D1, D2, D3 ==> 2 tab AS + 2 tab AQ once daily on D1, D2, D3 ==> 4 tab AS + 4 tab AQ once daily on D1, D2, D3
artesunate- sulfadoxine/pyramethamine (AS-SP)	Co-blister Coblister children ≤ 6 years, containing: 3 tab of AS 50 mg + 1 tab of SP 500/25 mg Coblister children 7-13 years, containing: 6 tab of AS 50 mg + 2 tab of SP 500/25 mg Coblister ≥ 14 years/ adults, containing: 12 tab of AS 50 mg + 3 tab of SP 500/25 mg or Coblister ≥ 14 years/ adults, containing: 6 tab of AS 100 mg + 3 tab of SP 500/25 mg	2-11 months ==> 1/2 tab AS once daily on D1, D2, D3 + 1/2 tab SP as a single dose on D1 1-6 years ==> 1 tab AS once daily on D1, D2, D3 + 1 tab SP as a single dose on D1 ==> 2 tab AS once daily on D1, D2, D3 + 2 tab SP as a single dose on D1 ==> 4 tab AS once daily on D1, D2, D3 + 3 tab SP as a single dose on D1 ==> 2 tab AS once daily on D1, D2, D3 + 3 tab SP as a single dose on D1
artesunate-mefloquine (AS-MQ)	Coformulated tablets Blister children 6-11 months (5 to 8 kg), tab of AS 25 mg / MQ 55 mg, 3 tab /blister Blister children 1-6 years (9 to 17 kg), tab of AS 25 mg / MQ 55 mg, 6 tab /blister Blister children 7-12 years (18 to 29 kg), tab of AS 100 mg / MQ 220 mg, 3 tab /blister Blister ≥ 13 years-adults (≥ 30 kg), tab of AS 100 mg / MQ 220 mg, 6 tab /blister	 ==> 1 tab once daily on D1, D2, D3 ==> 2 tab once daily on D1, D2, D3 ==> 1 tab once daily on D1, D2, D3 ==> 2 tab once daily on D1, D2, D3
dihydroartemisinin- piperazine (DHA/PPQ)	Coformulated tablets Blister children 5-12 kg, tab of 20 mg DHA / 160 mg PPQ, 3 tab /blister Blister children 13-23 kg, tab of 40 mg DHA / 320 mg PPQ, 3 tab /blister Blister children 24-35 kg, tab of 40 mg DHA / 320 mg PPQ, 6 tab /blister Blister adolescents-adults 36-74 kg, tab of 40 mg DHA / 320 mg PPQ, 9 tab /blister Blister adults ≥ 75 kg, tab of 40 mg DHA / 320 mg PPQ, 12 tab /blister	5-6 kg ==> 1/2 tab once daily on D1, D2, D3 7-12 kg ==> 1 tab once daily on D1, D2, D3 ==> 1 tab once daily on D1, D2, D3 ==> 2 tab once daily on D1, D2, D3 ==> 3 tab once daily on D1, D2, D3 ==> 4 tab once daily on D1, D2, D3

Notes:

In infants below the age/weight mentioned in the table above, there is little data on efficacy and safety of ACTs.

The combinations AL, AS-AQ and DHA-PPQ can be used. The dose should be calculated so as to correspond to 10-16 mg/kg/dose of lumefantrine; 10 mg/kg/day of amodiaquine; 16-26 mg/kg/day of piperazine).

The combination AS-SP should not be used during the first weeks of life.

Clinical condition of young children can deteriorate rapidly; it may be preferable to start parenteral treatment straight away (see page 135).

In the event of failure of correctly administered treatment with a first line ACT, use another ACT or quinine PO.

quinine PO D1 to D7

Children and adults ≤ 50 kg: 30 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses at 8-hour intervals

Adults > 50 kg: 1800 mg/day in 3 divided doses at 8-hour intervals

Reduced susceptibility to quinine has been observed in South-East Asia and Amazon region. In these areas, quinine is given in combination with doxycycline or clindamycin:

doxycycline PO D1 to D7

Children > 8 years and adults: 200 mg once daily

or, in children < 8 years:

clindamycin PO D1 to D7

20 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses

Note: *P. falciparum* is resistant to chloroquine (CQ) in Africa, South America, South-East Asia and Oceania but appears to remain sensitive to CQ in Haiti and the Dominican Republic. In these regions, CQ remains the first line treatment (see non-falciparum malaria, page 132).

Symptomatic treatment

– Paracetamol PO in the event of high fever, see page 26.

Treatment of severe malaria

The patient must be hospitalised.

Antimalarial treatment (for pregnant women, see page 138)

At dispensary level:

Before transfer, administer the first dose of artesunate or artemether IM (loading dose, see below) or one dose of rectal **artesunate**:

Weight	50 mg artesunate suppository	200 mg artesunate suppository
3-5 kg	1	–
6-10 kg	2	–
11-20 kg	–	1
21-40 kg	–	2
41-60 kg	–	3
61-80 kg	–	4

At hospital level:

The drugs of choice are artemisinin derivatives, administered by parenteral route: artesunate IV or IM or, if injectable artesunate is not available, artemether IM.

For patients in shock: use artesunate IV or, if not available, quinine IV. The intramuscular route is not appropriate.

artesunate slow IV (2-3 minutes) or slow IM into the anterior thigh, if IV route is not possible): 2.4 mg/kg on admission then at 12 hours and 24 hours (H0, H12, H24) then once daily. Administer at least 3 doses, then, if the patient can swallow, change to oral route.

According to the route of administration used: dissolve the powder (vial of 60 mg artesunate) with 1 ml of 5% sodium bicarbonate then add into the vial:

- 5 ml of 0.9% NaCl to obtain 6 ml of solution containing 10 mg of artesunate/ml, for IV injection
- or
- 2 ml of 0.9% NaCl to obtain 3 ml of solution containing 20 mg of artesunate/ml, for IM injection

IV injection Artesunate solution 10 mg/ml	
Weight	Dose
< 3 kg	0.8 ml
3-4 kg	1.2 ml
5-7 kg	2 ml
8-11 kg	3 ml
12-16 kg	4 ml
17-23 kg	6 ml
24-30 kg	8 ml
31-40 kg	10 ml
41-50 kg	12 ml
51-60 kg	15 ml
61-70 kg	18 ml
> 70 kg	21 ml

IM injection Artesunate solution 20 mg/ml	
Weight	Dose
< 3 kg	0.4 ml
3-4 kg	0.6 ml
5-7 kg	1 ml
8-11 kg	1.5 ml
12-16 kg	2 ml
17-23 kg	3 ml
24-30 kg	4 ml
31-40 kg	5 ml
41-50 kg	6 ml
51-60 kg	7.5 ml
61-70 kg	9 ml
> 70 kg	10.5 ml

or **artemether** IM (anterior thigh): 3.2 mg/kg on admission (D1) then 1.6 mg/kg once daily. As soon as the patient can swallow, change to oral route.

Weight	20 mg ampoule artemether (20 mg/ml, 1 ml)		80 mg ampoule artemether (80 mg/ml, 1 ml)	
	Loading dose (3.2 mg/kg on D1)	Maintenance dose (1.6 mg/kg/day)	Loading dose (3.2 mg/kg on D1)	Maintenance dose (1.6 mg/kg/day)
< 3 kg	0.5 ml	0.3 ml	–	–
3-4 kg	0.8 ml	0.4 ml	–	–
5-6 kg	1.2 ml	0.6 ml	–	–
7-9 kg	1.6 ml	0.8 ml	–	–
10-14 kg	2.5 ml	1.2 ml	–	–
15-19 kg	3.2 ml	1.6 ml	–	–
20-29 kg	–	–	1.2 ml	0.6 ml
30-39 kg	–	–	1.6 ml	0.8 ml
40-49 kg	–	–	2 ml	1 ml
50-59 kg	–	–	2.5 ml	1.2 ml

Use a 1 ml syringe graduated in 0.01 ml when the dose required is less than 1 ml.

After the initial treatment with parenteral artesunate or artemether, administer a 3-day course of ACT⁵ (see *uncomplicated falciparum malaria*, page 132).

or

quinine IV (the dose is expressed in quinine salt):

- Loading dose: 20 mg/kg to be administered over 4 hours, then, keep the vein open with an infusion of 5% glucose over 4 hours; then
- Maintenance dose: 8 hours after the start of the loading dose, 10 mg/kg every 8 hours (alternate quinine over 4 hours and 5% glucose over 4 hours).

For adults, administer each dose of quinine in 250 ml of glucose. For children under 20 kg, administer each dose of quinine in a volume of 10 ml/kg of glucose.

Do not administer a loading dose to patients who have received oral quinine, mefloquine or halofantrine within the previous 24 hours: start with maintenance dose.

As soon as the patient can tolerate oral treatment, administer either a 3-day course of ACT⁵ or oral quinine (\pm doxycycline or clindamycin, see page 134) to complete 7 days of treatment.

If the combination AS-MQ is used as oral completion treatment following IV quinine, an interval of 12 hours should elapse between the last dose of quinine and the administration of MQ.

Note: in isolated areas, when it is *absolutely* impossible to transfer a patient to a facility where parenteral antimalarial treatment can be administered, artesunate suppositories must be administered once daily, until the patient is able to take a 3-day course of ACT.

Symptomatic treatment and management of complications

Hydration

Maintain adequate hydration. As a guide, volume to be administered per 24 hours by oral or IV route:

Weight	5 to 9 kg	10 to 19 kg	20 to 29 kg	≥ 30 kg
Total volume / 24 hours	120 ml/kg	80 ml/kg	60 ml/kg	50 ml/kg
Total volume / 24 hours if associated severe pneumonia or neurological symptoms	80 ml/kg	60 ml/kg	50 ml/kg	40 ml/kg

Adjust the volume according to clinical condition in order to avoid dehydration or fluid overload (risk of pulmonary oedema).

When the IV route is used, administer $\frac{1}{2}$ 0.9% sodium chloride combined with $\frac{1}{2}$ 10% glucose.

Treat dehydration, if present (pages 316 to 321).

Fever

- Paracetamol in the event of high fever, see page 26.

Severe anaemia

- Blood transfusion is indicated:
 - In children with Hb < 4 g/dl (or between 4 and 6 g/dl with signs of decompensation⁶).
 - In pregnant women with Hb < 7 g/dl (before 36 weeks) or Hb < 8 g/dl (at 36 weeks or later).

⁵ Do not use AS-MQ if the patient developed neurological signs during the acute phase.

⁶ Clinical signs of decompensation may include: shock, impaired consciousness or respiratory distress (acidosis).

- In other patients with Hb < 7 g/dl, monitor clinical status and Hb level and consider transfusion on a case-by-case basis.

Hypoglycaemia

- If the patient is able to swallow:
50 ml of 10% glucose, or 40 ml of water + 10 ml of 50% glucose, or 50 ml of water + 5 g (1 teaspoon) of granulated sugar, or 50 ml of milk.
- In an unconscious patient:
Children: 5 ml/kg of **10% glucose**⁷ by slow IV injection (5 minutes) or infusion
Adults: 1 ml/kg of **50% glucose** by slow IV injection (5 minutes)
- Check blood glucose level after 30 minutes. If blood glucose level remains < 3 mmol/l or < 55 mg/dl, administer another dose or give glucose by oral route, according to the patient's clinical condition. Hypoglycaemia may recur: maintain regular sugar intake (5% glucose, milk, according to circumstances) and continue to monitor for several hours.

Notes:

- In an unconscious or prostrated patient, in case of emergency or when venous access is unavailable or awaited, use granulated sugar by the sublingual route to correct hypoglycaemia.⁸
- The risk of hypoglycaemia is higher in patients receiving IV quinine.

Coma

Check/ensure the airway is clear, measure blood glucose level and assess level of consciousness (Blantyre or Glasgow coma scale).

In the event of hypoglycaemia or if blood glucose level cannot be measured, administer glucose.

If the patient does not respond to administration of glucose, or if hypoglycaemia is not detected:

- Exclude meningitis (lumbar puncture) or proceed directly to administration of an antibiotic (see *Meningitis*, page 165).
- Insert a urinary catheter; place the patient in the recovery position.
- Reposition the patient every 2 hours; ensure eyes and mouth are kept clean and moist, etc.
- Monitor vital signs, blood glucose level, level of consciousness, urine output, hourly until stable, then every 4 hours.
- Monitor fluid balance.

Seizures

See page 23. Address possible causes (e.g. hypoglycaemia; fever in children).

Respiratory distress

- Rapid laboured breathing:
Check for pulmonary oedema, which may occur with or without fluid overload: reduce IV infusion rate if the patient is receiving IV therapy, nurse semi-sitting, oxygen, **furosemide IV**: 1 mg/kg in children, 40 mg in adults. Repeat after 1 to 2 hours if necessary.
Associated pneumonia should also be considered (see *Pneumonia*, page 66).

⁷ In children, if ready-made G10% solution is not available: add 10 ml of G50% solution per 100 ml of G5% solution to obtain a G10% solution.

⁸ Place a level teaspoon of sugar, moistened with a few drops of water, under the tongue, then place the patient in the recovery position. Repeat after 15 min if the patient has not regained consciousness. As with other methods for treating hypoglycaemia, maintain regular sugar intake, and monitor.

- Slow, deep breathing (acidosis):
Look for dehydration (and correct if present), decompensated anaemia (and transfuse if present).

Oliguria and acute renal failure

Look first for dehydration (page 315), especially due to inadequate fluid intake or excessive fluid losses (high fever, vomiting, diarrhoea). Treat dehydration, if present (pages 316 to 321). Be aware of the risk of fluid overload and acute pulmonary oedema. Monitor for the return of urine output.

Acute renal failure (ARF) is found almost exclusively in adults and is more common in Asia than Africa. ARF should be suspected if urine output remains < 400 ml/day or < 20 ml/hour (< 12 ml/kg/day in children) despite adequate rehydration. Insert a urinary catheter, measure output. Restrict fluids to 1 litre/day (30 ml/kg/day in children), plus additional volume equal to urine output. Renal dialysis is often necessary.

Antimalarial treatment in pregnant women

- **Uncomplicated falciparum malaria**
 - During the first trimester, quinine PO for 7 days (\pm clindamycin) is in principle preferred as it is better known. However, ACT may be used if necessary (except DHA/PPQ), e.g. if quinine is not available, or if the treatment failed or if adherence to quinine treatment is uncertain.
 - During the 2nd and 3rd trimesters, the treatment of choice is an ACT (except DHA/PPQ); quinine is an alternative.
- **Severe malaria**
 - During the first trimester, artemisinin derivatives or quinine may be used.
 - During the 2nd and 3rd trimesters, the treatment of choice is an artemisinin derivative; quinine is an alternative.

Prevention ⁹

- In areas with high risk of infection with *P. falciparum*, pregnant women should be tested for malaria at regular interval during antenatal clinic visits. All women with a positive test should receive a 3 day-course of ACT. Women with negative(s) test(s) should receive SP (as a single dose) for its preventive effect, according to a specific schedule (refer to the MSF handbook, *Obstetrics*), but only in regions where SP still has sufficient efficacy.
- In malaria endemic zones and in epidemic-prone contexts, all in-patient facilities (including HIV treatment centres and feeding centres), should be furnished with long-lasting insecticidal nets (LLINs).

⁹ See specialised literature for information regarding anti-vector measures and prevention in travellers.

Human african trypanosomiasis (sleeping sickness)

Human african trypanosomiasis (HAT) is a zoonosis caused by protozoa (trypanosomes), transmitted to humans through the bite of a tsetse fly (*Glossina*). Transmission by contaminated blood transfusion and transplacental transmission are also possible.

The disease is found only in sub-Saharan Africa. There are two forms: *Trypanosoma brucei gambiense* HAT in western and central Africa and *Trypanosoma brucei rhodesiense* HAT in eastern and southern Africa.

Clinical features

Inoculation may be followed by an immediate local reaction (trypanosomal chancre). This chancre arises in about 50% of all rhodesiense but rarely in gambiense.

Gambiense HAT

- Incubation lasts from a few days to several years.
- The first stage (haemolymphatic stage) corresponds to the haematogenous and lymphatic dissemination of the parasite. Signs include intermittent fever, joint pain, lymphadenopathy (firm, mobile, painless lymph nodes, mainly cervical), hepatosplenomegaly and skin signs (facial oedema, pruritus).
- The second stage (meningoencephalitic stage) corresponds to the invasion of the central nervous system. Signs of the haemolymphatic stage recede or disappear and varying neurological signs progressively develop: sensory disturbances (deep hyperaesthesia), psychiatric disorders (apathy or agitation), disturbance of the sleep cycle (with daytime somnolence alternating with insomnia at night), impaired motor functions (paralysis, seizures, tics) and neuroendocrine disorders (amenorrhoea, impotence).
- In the absence of treatment: cachexia, lethargy, coma and death.

Rhodesiense HAT

The first stage is the same as above, but the incubation period is shorter (< 3 weeks), the disease evolves more rapidly and symptoms are more severe. Patients often die of myocarditis in 3 to 6 months without having developed signs of the meningoencephalitic stage.

In practice, gambiense and rhodesiense HAT can be difficult to differentiate: e.g., there exist cases of acute gambiense infection and others of chronic rhodesiense infection.

Laboratory

- Diagnosis involves 3 steps for gambiense HAT (screening test, diagnostic confirmation and stage determination) and 2 steps for rhodesiense HAT (diagnostic confirmation and stage determination).
- The recommended screening test for *T.b. gambiense* infection is the CATT (Card Agglutination Test for Trypanosomiasis). It detects the presence of specific antibodies in the patient's blood or serum.

- Diagnostic confirmation: presence of trypanosomes in lymph node aspirates or in blood using concentration techniques: capillary tube centrifugation technique (Woo test), quantitative buffy coat (QBC), mini-anion exchange centrifugation technique (mAEC).
- Stage determination: detection of trypanosomes (after centrifugation) and white cell count in the cerebrospinal fluid (lumbar puncture):
 - Haemolympathic stage: no trypanosomes AND ≤ 5 white cells/mm³
 - Meningoencephalitic stage: evidence of trypanosomes OR > 5 white cells/mm³

Treatment (except in pregnant women)

- Due to the toxicity of trypanocides, detection of the parasite is essential before initiating treatment. In the absence of parasitological confirmation, treatment may nevertheless be justified in certain cases: very strong clinical suspicion, patients in life-threatening condition, strong serological suspicion (CATT 1:16 positive) in a population where the disease is highly prevalent ($> 2\%$).
- Several treatment regimens exist. Check national recommendations and local resistance levels.
- Treatment must be administered under close medical supervision. Patients receiving pentamidine can be treated as outpatients but those receiving suramin, eflornithine (with or without nifurtimox) or melarsoprol should be hospitalised.
- After treatment, patients should be checked every 6 months (clinical examination, lumbar puncture and examination for trypanosomes) over 24 months, to look for relapse.

Haemolympathic stage (Stage I)

Gambiense HAT

pentamidine isetionate deep IM

Children and adults: 4 mg/kg once daily for 7 to 10 days

Patients should receive a source of glucose (meal, sweet tea) one hour before injection (risk of hypoglycaemia); they should remain supine during administration and one hour after injection (risk of hypotension).

Rhodesiense HAT

suramin slow IV

Children and adults: D1: test dose of 4 to 5 mg/kg

D3, D10, D17, D24, D31: 20 mg/kg without exceeding 1 g/injection

Suramin may cause anaphylactic reactions, a test dose is recommended prior to starting treatment. In the event of an anaphylactic reaction after the test dose, the patients must not be given suramin again.

Meningoencephalitic stage (Stage II)

Before administering trypanocides, the priority is to improve the patient's general condition (rehydration, treatment of malaria, intestinal worms, malnutrition, bacterial infections). It is nonetheless recommended not to postpone the trypanocidal treatment for more than 10 days.

Gambiense HAT

First choice: nifurtimox-eflornithine combination therapy (NECT)

nifurtimox PO

Children and adults: 15 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses for 10 days

+

eflornithine IV infusion over 2 hours

Children and adults: 400 mg/kg/day in 2 divided infusions (every 12 hours) for 7 days

The catheter must be handled with great attention to avoid local or general bacterial infections: thoroughly disinfect the insertion site, ensure secure catheter fixation, protect the insertion site with a sterile dressing, systematically change the catheter every 48 hours or earlier in case of signs of phlebitis.

Second choice: **eflornithine** IV infusion over 2 hours

Children under 12 years: 600 mg/kg/day in 4 divided infusions (every 6 hours) for 14 days

Adults: 400 mg/kg/day in 4 divided infusions (every 6 hours) for 14 days

In the event of a relapse after NECT or eflornithine:

melarsoprol slow IV

Children and adults: 2.2 mg/kg once daily for 10 days

Prednisolone PO (1 mg/kg once daily) is frequently combined throughout the duration of treatment.

Melarsoprol is highly toxic: reactive encephalopathy (coma, or recurrent or prolonged seizures) in 5 to 10% of treated patients, fatal in around 50% of cases; peripheral neuropathy, invasive diarrhoea, severe skin rash, phlebitis, etc.

Rhodesiense HAT

melarsoprol slow IV

Children and adults: 2.2 mg/kg once daily for 10 days

Prednisolone PO (1 mg/kg once daily) is frequently combined throughout the duration of treatment.

Treatment in pregnant women

All trypanocides are potentially toxic for the mother and the foetus (risk of miscarriage, malformation, etc.). However, due to the life-threatening risk for the mother and the risk of mother-to-child transmission, treatment must be initiated as follows:

Haemolymphatic stage:

pentamidine for gambiense HAT as of the second trimester and **suramin** for rhodesiense HAT.

Meningoencephalitic stage:

Treatment depends on the mother's condition:

- If in immediately life-threatening condition: treatment with **NECT** or **eflornithine** cannot be deferred until after delivery.
- If not immediately life-threatening condition: **pentamidine** for gambiense HAT and **suramin** for rhodesiense HAT. Treatment with NECT or eflornithine is to be administered after delivery.

Prevention and control

- Individual protection against tsetse fly bites: long sleeves and trousers, repellents, keeping away from risk areas (e.g. near rivers).
- Disease control: mass screening and treatment of patients (*T.b. gambiense*), trypanocide treatment of cattle (*T.b. rhodesiense*), vector control using tsetse fly traps or insecticides.

American trypanosomiasis (Chagas' disease)

- Chagas' disease is a zoonosis due to the flagellated protozoan parasite *Trypanosoma cruzi*, transmitted to man by triatomine bugs (reduviidae) through a break in the skin or mucous membranes. Transmission by contaminated blood transfusion and transplacental transmission are also possible.
- The disease is only found on the American continent in the area between the south of Mexico and the south of Argentina.

Clinical features

- *Acute phase*
 - Depending on the inoculation site, the first sign is a skin chancre or unilateral purplish orbital oedema (Romaña's sign) with local lymphadenopathy and fever (38°C, higher in children) over several weeks.
 - This is followed by multiple lymphadenopathies, hepatosplenomegaly, myocarditis (chest pain, heart failure), sometimes meningoencephalitis (seizures, paralysis).
 - Acute phase may be asymptomatic or subclinical.

The transition from the acute to chronic phase does not always occur.

- *Chronic phase*
 - Follows a long latent period after the acute phase: cardiac lesions (arrhythmia and conduction disorders, cardiomyopathy, heart failure, chest pain, thromboembolism) and gastrointestinal lesions (megaoesophagus and megacolon).
 - Most patients are asymptomatic.

Laboratory

- *Acute phase*
 - Thin or thick film: detection of the parasite in blood or lymph nodes.
 - Serologic tests: detection of anti-*Trypanosoma cruzi* antibodies.
 - Xenodiagnosis: examination of the faeces of uninfected triatomine bug fed with the patient's blood.
- *Chronic phase*
 - Serologic tests: detection of anti-*Trypanosoma cruzi* antibodies.

Treatment

– *Acute phase*

nifurtimox PO (contra-indicated in the first trimester of pregnancy, breast-feeding or in patients with history of mental disorders or seizures):

Patient under 40 kg: 10 to 12 mg/kg/day in 2 to 3 divided doses for 30 to 60 days

Patient over 40 kg: 8 mg/kg/day in 2 to 3 divided doses for 30 to 60 days

The adverse effects of nifurtimox (anorexia, nausea, gastric pain, agitation, sleeping disorders, seizures) occur in less than 20% of cases and must not result in treatment discontinuation. Avoid alcohol during treatment.

or

benznidazole PO (contra-indicated in the first trimester of pregnancy and breast-feeding):

Patient under 40 kg: 7.5 mg/kg/day in 2 to 3 divided doses for 30 to 60 days

Patient over 40 kg: 5 mg/kg/day in 2 to 3 divided doses for 30 to 60 days

The minor adverse effects of benznidazole (nausea, skin rash) occur in about 50% of patients. In the event of purpura with fever, paraesthesia or peripheral polyneuritis, stop treatment.

– *Chronic phase in children under 12 years*

benznidazole PO

Children under 40 kg: 7.5 mg/kg/day in 2 to 3 divided doses for 30 to 60 days

Children over 40 kg: 5 mg/kg/day in 2 to 3 divided doses for 30 to 60 days

– *Chronic phase in children over 12 years and adults*

Do not treat in the event of pregnancy, breast-feeding, hepatic or renal failure, or a severe intercurrent pathology.

nifurtimox PO: 8 to 10 mg/kg/day in 2 to 3 divided doses for 60 to 90 days

or

benznidazole PO: 5 mg/kg/day in 2 to 3 divided doses for 60 days

– *Symptomatic treatment*

See seizures (page 23), pain (page 29) and heart failure (page 294).

Prevention

- Improvement of housing and vector control: plastered walls and cement floors, corrugated-iron roofs, insecticide spraying.
- Blood transfusions: screening donor blood for *T. cruzi* infection.

Leishmaniasis

The leishmaniasis are a group of parasitic diseases caused by protozoa of the genus *Leishmania*, transmitted by the bite of a sandfly. Over 20 species cause disease in man.

- **Cutaneous** leishmaniasis is endemic in more than 70 countries in South and Central America, Middle East, Central Asia, and Africa.
- **Mucocutaneous** leishmaniasis occurs in Latin America and, more rarely, in Africa (Ethiopia, Sudan).
- **Visceral** leishmaniasis occurs in more than 60 countries in East and North Africa, South and Central Asia, Southern Europe, and South and Central America.

Clinical features

Cutaneous and mucocutaneous leishmaniasis

- Single or multiple lesions on the uncovered parts of the body: an erythematous papule begins at the sandfly bite, enlarges to a nodule and extends in surface and depth to form a scabbed ulcer. Ulcers are painless, unless there is secondary bacterial or fungal infection. Usually, lesions heal spontaneously, leaving a scar, and result in lifelong protection from disease.
- Lesions may also spread to the mucosa (mouth, nose, conjunctiva) giving rise to the mucocutaneous form, which may cause severe disfigurement.

Visceral leishmaniasis

Visceral leishmaniasis (kala azar) is a systemic disease, resulting in pancytopenia, immunosuppression, and death if left untreated.

- Prolonged (> 2 weeks) irregular fever, splenomegaly, and weight loss are the main signs.
- Other signs include: anaemia, diarrhoea, epistaxis, lymphadenopathy, moderate hepatomegaly.
- Bacterial diarrhoea, pneumonia, and tuberculosis may develop due to immunosuppression.

Post-kala azar dermal leishmaniasis

Macular, nodular or papular skin rash of unknown aetiology, particularly on the face, and typically occurring after apparent cure of visceral leishmaniasis.

Laboratory

Cutaneous and mucocutaneous leishmaniasis

- Parasitological diagnosis: identification of Giemsa-stained parasites in smears of tissue biopsy from the edge of the ulcer.
- No useful serological tests.

Visceral leishmaniasis

- Parasitological diagnosis: identification of Giemsa-stained parasites in smears of splenic, bone marrow, or lymph node aspiration-biopsy. Splenic aspiration is the most sensitive technique but carries a theoretical risk of potentially fatal haemorrhage.
- Serological diagnosis: rK39 dipstick test and direct agglutination test (DAT) can be used for diagnosis of primary visceral leishmaniasis in clinically suspect cases. Diagnosis of relapse is only by parasitological confirmation.

Treatment

The various species of *Leishmania* respond differently to drugs. Follow national recommendations. For information:

Cutaneous and mucocutaneous leishmaniasis

- Cutaneous lesions generally heal spontaneously in 3 to 6 months. Treatment is only indicated if lesions are persistent (> 6 months), disfiguring, ulcerating, or disseminated.
- Forms with a single lesion or few lesions: start with local treatment with a pentavalent antimonial: **sodium stibogluconate** or **meglumine antimoniate**, 1 to 2 ml infiltrated into the lesion if it is a nodule and into the edges and base around the crust if it is an ulcer.
It should be repeated every 3 to 7 days for 2 to 4 weeks. Once healing begins, the treatment can be stopped and healing will continue.
- IM treatment with a pentavalent antimonial (20 mg/kg/day for 10 to 20 days) is restricted to severe cases and must be administered under close medical supervision.
- Miltefosine PO (as for visceral leishmaniasis) for 28 days is effective in many forms of cutaneous leishmaniasis.
- Ulcers are often secondarily infected with streptococci and staphylococci: administer suitable antibiotics.
- Mucocutaneous forms: as for visceral leishmaniasis.

Visceral leishmaniasis

– Visceral leishmaniasis in East Africa

- First-line treatment:
a **pentavalent antimonial** IM or slow IV: 20 mg/kg/day for 17 days
+ **paromomycin** IM: 15 mg (11 mg base)/kg/day for 17 days
- Second-line treatment for relapse and for specific vulnerable groups: severe disease, pregnant women, patients over 45 years:
liposomal amphotericin B IV infusion: 3 to 5 mg/kg/day for 6 to 10 days up to a total dose of 30 mg/kg
- Treatment in HIV co-infected patients:
liposomal amphotericin B IV infusion: 3 to 5 mg/kg/day for 6 to 10 days up to a total dose of 30 mg/kg

+ **miltefosine** PO for 28 days:

Children 2 to 11 years: 2.5 mg/kg/day

Children > 11 years and < 25 kg: 50 mg/day

Children and adults 25 to 50 kg: 100 mg/day

Adults > 50 kg: 150 mg/day

– **Visceral leishmaniasis in South Asia**

- First-line treatment:

liposomal amphotericin B IV infusion: 3 to 5 mg/kg/day for 3 to 5 days up to a total dose of 15 mg/kg

or

liposomal amphotericin B IV infusion: 10 mg/kg as a single dose

- Second-line treatment for relapse:

liposomal amphotericin B IV infusion: 3 to 5 mg/kg/day for 5 to 8 days up to a total dose of 25 mg/kg

For all patients with visceral leishmaniasis, hydration, nutritional support and treatment of intercurrent infections (malaria, dysentery, pneumonia, etc.) are essential.

Tuberculosis and/or HIV infection may also be present and should be suspected if relapse occurs more than once or in the event of treatment failure.

Post-kala azar dermal leishmaniasis (PKDL)

Only patients with severe or disfiguring disease or with lesions remaining for > 6 months, and young children with oral lesions that interfere with feeding, are treated.

– **PKDL in East Africa**

a **pentavalent antimonial** IM or slow IV: 20 mg/kg/day for 17 to 60 days

+ **paromomycin** IM: 15 mg (11 mg base)/kg/day for 17 days

or

liposomal amphotericin B IV infusion: 2.5 mg/kg/day for 20 days

or

miltefosine PO for 28 days (as for visceral leishmaniasis) may be beneficial in HIV co-infected patients

– **PKDL in South Asia**

liposomal amphotericin B IV infusion: 5 mg/kg/day twice weekly up to a total dose of 30 mg/kg

Prevention

- Insecticide-treated mosquito nets.
- Vector control and elimination of animal reservoir hosts.

Intestinal protozoan infections (parasitic diarrhoea)

The most important intestinal protozoan infections are amoebiasis (*Entamoeba histolytica*), giardiasis (*Giardia lamblia*), cryptosporidiosis (*Cryptosporidium* sp), cyclosporiasis (*Cyclospora cayetanensis*) and isosporiasis (*Isospora belli*).

Intestinal protozoa are transmitted by the faecal-oral route (soiled hands, ingestion of food or water contaminated with faeces) and may cause both individual cases of diarrhoea and epidemic diarrhoea outbreaks.

Clinical features

- Amoebiasis gives rise to bloody diarrhoea, see Chapter 3, page 88.
- Clinical presentation of giardiasis, cryptosporidiosis, cyclosporiasis and isosporiasis is very similar:
 - Diarrhoea is usually mild and self-limiting, except in children and patients with advanced HIV disease (CD4 < 200). These patients are likely to develop severe, intermittent or chronic diarrhoea that may be complicated by malabsorption with significant wasting (or failure to gain weight in children) or severe dehydration.
 - Stools are usually watery, but steatorrhoea (pale, bulky, fatty stools) may be found in the event of secondary fat malabsorption; stools may contain mucus.
 - Diarrhoea is usually associated with non-specific gastrointestinal symptoms (abdominal distension and cramps, flatulence, nausea, anorexia), but patients have low-grade fever or no fever.

Laboratory

Definitive diagnosis relies on parasite identification in stool specimens (trophozoites and cysts for giardia; oocysts for cryptosporidium, cyclospora, isospora). Two to three samples, collected 2 to 3 days apart are necessary, as pathogens are shed intermittently.

Treatment

- Correct dehydration if present (for clinical features and management, see pages 315 and 321).

- If the causal agent has been identified in the stool:

Giardiasis	tinidazole PO as a single dose or metronidazole PO for 3 days Children: 50 mg/kg (max.2 g) Children: 30 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses Adults: 2 g Adults: 2 g/jour en une prise
Cryptosporidiosis	In immunocompetent patients, no aetiological treatment; spontaneous resolution in 1 to 2 weeks.
Cyclosporiasis	co-trimoxazole PO for 7 days Children: 50 mg SMX + 10 mg TMP/kg/day in 2 divided doses Adults: 1600 mg SMX + 320 mg TMP/day in 2 divided doses In immunocompetent patients, symptoms usually resolve spontaneous in 1 to 3 weeks. Treatment is given in case of severe or prolonged symptoms.
Isosporiasis	co-trimoxazole PO for 7 to 10 days Adults: 1600 to 3200 mg SMX + 320 to 640 mg TMP/ day in 2 divided doses In immunocompetent patients, symptoms usually resolve spontaneous in 2 to 3 weeks. Treatment is given in case of severe prolonged symptoms.

- If reliable stool examination cannot be carried out: parasitic diarrhoeas cannot be differentiated on clinical grounds, nor is it possible to distinguish these from non-parasitic diarrhoeas. An empirical treatment (using tinidazole or metronidazole and cotrimoxazole as above, together or in succession) may be tried in the case of prolonged diarrhoea or steatorrhoea. In patients with HIV infection, see empirical treatment, page 213.
- In patients with advanced HIV disease, cryptosporidiosis, cyclosporiasis and isosporiasis are opportunistic infections; the most effective intervention is the treatment of the underlying HIV infection with antiretrovirals. Patients remain at high risk for dehydration/death until immunity is restored.

Flukes

Infection/Epidemiology	Clinical features/Diagnosis	Treatment
Lung flukes <i>Paragonimus</i> sp <i>Distribution:</i> South-East Asia, China, parts of Cameroon, Nigeria, Gabon, Congo, Colombia, Peru <i>Transmission:</i> eating raw freshwater crustaceans	The two most prominent symptoms are prolonged (> 2 weeks) productive cough and intermittent haemoptysis (rusty-brown sputum). In endemic areas, paragonimosis should be considered whenever pulmonary tuberculosis is suspected as the clinical and radiological features overlap. Paragonimosis is confirmed when eggs are detected in sputum (or possibly in stools).	praziquantel PO Children > 2 years and adults: 75 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses for 2 to 3 days
Hepatobiliary flukes <i>Fasciola hepatica</i> and <i>gigantica</i> <i>Distribution:</i> worldwide, in areas where sheep and cattle are raised <i>Transmission:</i> eating uncooked aquatic plants	<i>During migration phase:</i> asthenia, prolonged fever, myalgia, right upper quadrant pain, mid hepatomegaly; sometimes, allergic signs (e.g. pruritus). At this stage, the diagnosis is rarely considered and can only be confirmed through serology; parasitological examination of stools is always negative. <i>Once adult flukes are present in the biliary tract:</i> presentation resembles cholelithiasis: right upper quadrant pain, recurrent episodes of obstructive jaundice/febrile cholangitis. The diagnosis is confirmed when parasite eggs are detected in stools (or flukes are seen in the biliary tract with sonography).	triclabendazole PO Children and adults: 10 mg/kg as a single dose May repeat in 24 hours in the event of severe infection
<i>Opisthorchis felinus</i> (Asia, Eastern Europe) <i>Opisthorchis viverrini</i> (Cambodia, Laos, Vietnam, Thailand) <i>Clonorchis sinensis</i> (China, Korea, Vietnam) <i>Transmission:</i> eating raw/undercooked freshwater fish	Abdominal pain and diarrhoea. With heavy infection, hepatobiliary symptoms: hepatomegaly, right upper quadrant pain, jaundice or episodes of febrile cholangitis. The diagnosis is confirmed when parasite eggs are detected in stools.	praziquantel PO Children > 2 years and adults: 75 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses for 1 or 2 days
Intestinal flukes <i>Fasciolopsis buski</i> (India, Bangladesh, South-East Asia) <i>Heterophyes heterophyes</i> (South-East Asia, Nile delta) <i>Metagonimus yokogawai</i> (Siberia, China, Korea) <i>Transmission:</i> eating uncooked aquatic plants (<i>F. buski</i>), raw/undercooked fish (other species)	Symptoms are limited to diarrhoea and epigastric or abdominal pain. With massive infection, <i>F. buski</i> can cause oedematous allergic reactions (including ascites, anasarca). The diagnosis is confirmed when parasite eggs are detected in stools.	praziquantel PO Children > 2 years and adults: 75 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses for 1 day

Schistosomiasis

Schistosomiasis are acute or chronic visceral parasitic diseases due to 5 species of trematodes (schistosomes).

The three main species infecting humans are *Schistosoma haematobium*, *Schistosoma mansoni* and *Schistosoma japonicum*. *Schistosoma mekongi* and *Schistosoma intercalatum* have a more limited distribution (see table next page).

Humans are infected while wading/bathing in fresh water infested with schistosome larvae. Symptoms occurring during the phases of parasite invasion (transient localized itching as larvae penetrate the skin) and migration (allergic manifestations and gastrointestinal symptoms during migration of schistosomules) are frequently overlooked. In general, schistosomiasis is suspected when symptoms of established infection become evident (see table next page).

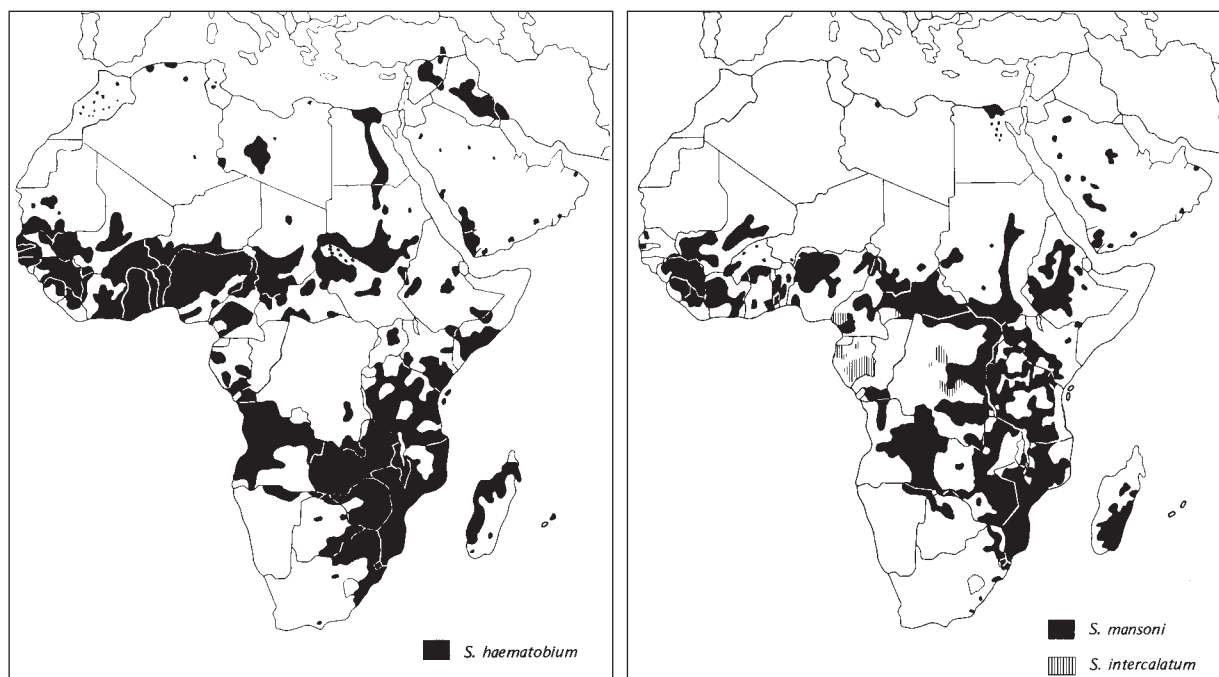
Each species gives rise to a specific clinical form: genito-urinary schistosomiasis due to *S. haematobium*, intestinal schistosomiasis due *S. mansoni*, *S. japonicum*, *S. mekongi* and *S. intercalatum*.

The severity of the disease depends on the parasite load. Heavily infected patients are prone to visceral lesions with potentially irreversible sequelae.

Children aged 5 to 15 years are particularly at risk: prevalence and parasite load are highest in this age group.

An antiparasitic treatment should be administered to reduce the risk of severe lesions, even if there is a likelihood of re-infection.

Geographic distribution of schistosomiasis in Africa (WHO)



	Parasite/Epidemiology	Clinical features/Diagnosis (established infection)	Treatment
Genito-urinary schistosomiasis	<p><i>S. haematobium</i> <i>Distribution:</i> Africa, Madagascar and the Arabian peninsula</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Urinary manifestations: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In endemic areas, urinary schistosomiasis should be suspected in any patients who complain of macroscopic haematuria (red coloured urine throughout, or at the end of, micturition). Haematuria is frequently associated with polyuria/ dysuria (frequent and painful micturition). • In patients, especially children and adolescents, with urinary symptoms, visual inspection of the urine (and dipstick test for microscopic haematuria if the urine appears grossly normal) is indispensable. • Presumptive treatment is recommended in the presence of macro- or microscopic haematuria, when parasitological confirmation (parasite eggs detected in urine) cannot be obtained. – Genital manifestations: In women, symptoms of genital infection (white-yellow or bloody vaginal discharge, itching, lower abdominal pain, dyspareunia) or vaginal lesions resembling genital warts or ulcerative lesions on the cervix; in men, haemospermia (blood in the semen). – If left untreated: risk of recurrent urinary tract infections, fibrosis/ calcification of the bladder and ureters, bladder cancer; increased susceptibility to sexually transmitted infections and risk of infertility. – In endemic areas, genito-urinary schistosomiasis may be a differential diagnosis to the genito-urinary tuberculosis, and in women, to the sexually transmitted infections (especially in women with an history of haematuria). 	<p>The same antiparasitic treatment is used for all species:</p> <p>praziquantel PO Children > 2 years and adults¹: 40 mg/kg as a single dose</p>
Intestinal schistosomiasis	<p><i>S. mansoni</i> <i>Distribution:</i> tropical Africa, Madagascar, the Arabian peninsula, South America (especially Brazil)</p> <p><i>S. japonicum</i> <i>Distribution:</i> China, Indonesia, the Philippines</p> <p><i>S. mekongi</i> <i>Distribution:</i> parts of Lao PDR, Cambodia (along the Mekong River)</p> <p><i>S. intercalatum</i> <i>Distribution:</i> parts of DRC, Congo, Gabon, Cameroon, Chad</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Non-specific digestive symptoms (abdominal pain; diarrhoea, intermittent or chronic, with or without blood) and hepatomegaly. – For <i>S. intercalatum</i>: digestive symptoms only (rectal pain, tenesmus, rectal prolapse, bloody diarrhoea). – If left untreated: risk of hepatic fibrosis, portal hypertension, cirrhosis, gastrointestinal haemorrhage (hematemesis, melanae, etc.), except with <i>S. intercalatum</i> (less pathogenic than other intestinal schistosomes, no severe hepatic lesions). – The diagnosis is confirmed when parasite eggs are detected in stools. – In the absence of reliable parasitological diagnosis: in areas where intestinal schistosomiasis is common, diarrhoea (especially bloody diarrhoea) with abdominal pain and/ or hepatomegaly may be a basis for presumptive diagnosis and treatment. 	

¹ For the treatment of schistosomiasis, praziquantel may be administered to pregnant women.

Cestodes (adult forms)

Parasites	Clinical features / Laboratory	Treatment	Transmission / Prevention
Taeniasis <i>Taenia saginata</i> <i>Taenia solium</i> (worldwide)	<p>Often asymptomatic or segments expelled in the stools.</p> <p>Sometimes gastrointestinal disturbances (epigastric or abdominal pain, nausea, diarrhoea)</p> <p>Laboratory: eggs in stools or collected from perianal skin (scotch tape method), segments in stools</p>	<p>praziquantel PO¹ Children over 4 years and adults: 5 to 10 mg/kg as a single dose or niclosamide PO Children: 50 mg/kg as a single dose Adults: 2 g as a single dose Thoroughly chew the tablets before swallowing and wash down with as little water as possible.</p>	<p><i>Transmission</i> by eating raw or undercooked meat:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • beef for <i>T. saginata</i> • pork for <i>T. solium</i> <p><i>Prevention:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • individual: cook meat thoroughly • collective: slaughterhouse monitoring
Diphyllobothriasis <i>Diphyllobothrium latum</i> (temperate or cold lake areas)	<p>Often asymptomatic</p> <p>In the event of heavy infection: mild gastrointestinal disturbances, anaemia due to vitamin B₁₂ deficiency associated with (rare) neurological sequelae</p> <p>Laboratory: eggs in stools</p>	<p>praziquantel PO¹ Children over 4 years and adults: 10 to 25 mg/kg as a single dose or niclosamide PO Children: 50 mg/kg as a single dose Adults: 2 g as a single dose Thoroughly chew the tablets before swallowing and wash down with as little water as possible. If anaemia: vitamin B₁₂ + folic acid</p>	<p><i>Transmission</i> by eating raw or undercooked freshwater fish</p> <p>Individual <i>prevention</i>: cook fish thoroughly</p>
Hymenolepiasis <i>Hymenolepis nana</i> (worldwide)	<p>Often asymptomatic</p> <p>In the event of heavy infection: gastrointestinal disturbances (epigastric pain)</p> <p>Laboratory: eggs in stools</p>	<p>praziquantel PO¹ Children over 4 years and adults: 15 to 25 mg/kg as a single dose or niclosamide PO Adults: 2 g as a single dose on D1, then 1 g/day for 6 days Thoroughly chew the tablets before swallowing and wash down with as little water as possible.</p>	<p><i>Transmission</i> by faecal-oral route or auto-infection</p> <p><i>Prevention:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • individual: hand washing, nail cutting • collective: hygiene and sanitation (water, latrines, etc.)

¹ Praziquantel must be administered to pregnant women with *T. solium* taeniasis and cysticercosis. For the other indications, treatment can usually be deferred until after delivery.

Cestodes (larvae)

Parasites	Clinical features / Laboratory	Treatment	Transmission / Prevention
Cysticercosis <i>Taenia solium</i> (worldwide)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Muscular: asymptomatic or myalgia - Subcutaneous: nodules - Neurological (neurocysticercosis) headache, convulsions, coma, etc. - Ocular: exophthalmia, strabismus, iritis, etc. <p>Laboratory: hypereosinophilia in blood and cerebrospinal fluid</p>	<p>albendazole PO²</p> <p>Children over 2 years: 15 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses (without exceeding 800 mg/day) for 8 to 30 days</p> <p>Adults: 800 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 8 to 30 days, repeat if necessary</p> <p>or</p> <p>praziquantel PO³</p> <p>Children over 4 years and adults: 50 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses for 14 to 30 days</p> <p>In the event of <i>neurocysticercosis</i>: hospitalize, treat convulsions and combine with prednisolone PO for the entire duration of treatment, starting 2 or 3 days before.</p>	<p><i>Transmission</i> by eating food contaminated with <i>T. solium</i> eggs or auto-infection</p> <p><i>Individual prevention:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • treat <i>T. solium</i> carriers • hygiene • cook meat thoroughly
Hydatid cyst <i>Echinococcus granulosus</i> (South America, North, East and South Africa, Western Europe)	<p>Cysts located in the liver (60% of cases); lungs (30% of cases), and, less frequently, in other sites including the brain.</p> <p>Long asymptomatic period. The cyst becomes symptomatic when complications develop (biliary obstruction; anaphylactic shock in the event of rupture into peritoneal cavity, vessels or an organ; febrile painful jaundice in the event of rupture into the biliary tree, etc.) .</p>	<p>First-line treatment: surgical excision</p> <p>albendazole PO² is useful in addition to, or instead of, surgery:</p> <p>Children over 2 years and adults under 60 kg: 15 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses</p> <p>Adults over 60 kg: 800 mg/day in 2 divided doses</p> <p>Treatment duration:</p> <p>In addition to surgery (pre-operatively or post-operatively): continuous course of minimum 2 months or at least two 28-day courses with a drug-free interval of 14 days. Inoperable cases: 28-day courses with drug-free intervals of 14 days, for 3 to 6 months (on average), possibly up to 1 year.</p>	<p><i>Transmission:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • direct: contact with dogs • indirect: water and food contaminated by dog faeces <p><i>Prevention:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • individual: avoid contact with dogs • collective: eliminate stray dogs, monitor slaughterhouses

² Albendazole is contra-indicated during the first trimester of pregnancy.

Nematode infections

Infection/Epidemiology	Clinical features/Diagnosis	Treatment
Ascariasis (roundworms) ¹ <i>Ascaris lumbricoides</i> <i>Distribution</i> : worldwide, mainly in tropical and subtropical <i>Transmission</i> : ingestion of ascaris eggs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – <i>During larval migration</i> Loeffler's syndrome: transient pulmonary symptoms (dry cough, dyspnoea, wheezing) and mild fever. – <i>Once adult worms are present in the intestine</i> Abdominal pain and distension. In general, the diagnosis is made when adult worms are expelled from the anus (or occasionally from the mouth). Ascaris are large (15-30 cm), cylindrical worms, pinkish-white, with slightly tapered ends. – <i>Complications</i> Ascariasis is usually benign, but massive infestation may cause intestinal obstruction (abdominal pain, vomiting, constipation), especially in children < 5 years. Worms may accidentally migrate to gall bladder, liver or peritoneum, causing jaundice, liver abscess, or peritonitis. – Ascaris eggs may be detected through parasitological examination of stools. 	albendazole PO as a single dose Children > 6 months and adults: 400 mg (200 mg in children > 6 months but < 10 kg) or mebendazole PO for 3 days Children > 6 months and adults: 200 mg/day in 2 divided doses (100 mg/day in 2 divided doses in children > 6 months but < 10 kg)
Trichuriasis (whipworms) ¹ <i>Trichuris trichiura</i> <i>Distribution and transmission</i> : as for <i>A. lumbricoides</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – In heavy infection: abdominal pain and diarrhoea – In massive infection: chronic bloody diarrhea, tenesmus, rectal prolapse due to frequent attempts to defecate, especially in children. Worms may sometimes be seen on the rectal mucosa when prolapsed: these are grayish-white, 3-5 cm in length, in the shape of a whip, with a thickened body and a long, threadlike extremity. – Trichuris eggs may be detected through parasitological examination of stools. 	albendazole PO for 3 days Children > 6 months and adults: 400 mg once daily (200 mg once daily in children > 6 months but < 10 kg) or mebendazole PO for 3 days, as for ascariasis. A single dose of albendazole or mebendazole is often insufficient.
Hookworm infection ¹ <i>Ancylostoma duodenale</i> <i>Necator americanus</i> <i>Distribution</i> : tropical and subtropical regions <i>Transmission</i> : larval skin penetration following contact (feet, hands) with contaminated soil	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – <i>During larval penetration/migration</i> Cutaneous signs (pruritic papulo-vesicular rash at the site of penetration, usually the feet) and pulmonary symptoms (similar to ascariasis). – <i>Once adult worms are present in the intestine</i> Mild abdominal pain. Attachment of the parasite to the mucosa leads to chronic blood loss and anaemia (in endemic areas, antihelminthic treatment is recommended for patients with iron-deficiency anaemia.) – Hookworm eggs may be detected through parasitological examination of stools. 	albendazole as a single dose (as for ascariasis) is much more effective than mebendazole as a single dose. When using mebendazole , a 3-day treatment (as for ascariasis) is recommended. Treatment of anaemia (see page 37).

¹ Roundworms, whipworms and hookworms frequently co-infect the same host. This should be taken into account when prescribing antihelminthic treatment.

Infection/Epidemiology	Clinical features/Diagnosis	Treatment
Strongyloidiasis <i>Strongyloides stercoralis</i> <i>Distribution:</i> humid tropical regions <i>Transmission:</i> larval skin penetration and auto-infection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – <i>Acute strongyloidiasis</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • During larval penetration/ migration: cutaneous signs (erythema and pruritus at the site of penetration, which may persist several weeks) and pulmonary symptoms (similar to ascariasis). • Once larvae are present in the intestine: gastrointestinal symptoms (bloating, abdominal and epigastric pain, vomiting, diarrhoea). – <i>Chronic strongyloidiasis</i> Intestinal larvae may re-infect their host (auto-infection) by penetrating through the intestinal wall or by migrating transcutaneously from perianal skin. Chronic infections result in prolonged or recurrent pulmonary and gastrointestinal symptoms. Transcutaneous migration of intestinal larvae gives rise to a typical rash (<i>larva currens</i>), mainly in the anal region and on the trunk: sinuous, raised, linear, migrating lesion, intensely pruritic, moving rapidly (5 to 10 cm/hour) and lasting several hours or days². – <i>Complications</i> Hyperinfection (massive infestation) results in exacerbation of pulmonary and gastrointestinal symptoms, and possible dissemination of larvae to atypical locations, (CNS, heart, etc.). This form occurs mainly in patients receiving immunosuppressive therapy (e.g. corticosteroids). – <i>Strongyloides</i> larvae may be detected through parasitological examination of stools. 	<p>First line treatment is ivermectine PO² as a single dose: Children > 15 kg and adults: 200 micrograms/kg, on an empty stomach</p> <p>While less effective, a 3-day treatment with albendazole PO (as for trichuriasis) may be an alternative.</p> <p>Hyperinfections are refractory to conventional therapy. Prolonged or intermittent multiple-dose regimens are required.</p>
Enterobiasis (pinworms) <i>Enterobius vermicularis</i> <i>Distribution:</i> worldwide <i>Transmission:</i> faecal-oral route or auto-infection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Anal pruritus, more intense at night, vulvovaginitis in girls (rare). In practice, the diagnosis is most often made when worms are seen on the perianal skin (or in the stool in heavy infestation). Pinworms are small (1 cm), mobile, white, cylindrical worms with slightly tapered ends. – Pinworm eggs may be collected from the anal area (scotch tape method) and detected under the microscope. 	<p>albendazole PO as a single dose (as for ascariasis) or mebendazole PO as a single dose: Children > 6 months and adults: 100 mg (50 mg in children > 6 months but < 10 kg)</p> <p>A second dose may be given after 2 to 4 weeks.</p>

² The migrating larvae of *Ancylostoma braziliense* and *caninum* (hookworms of cats and dogs) also present as a pruritic, inflammatory, creeping eruption in humans (cutaneous larva migrans) but with a slower rate of progression and a longer duration (several weeks or months). Treatment is with **albendazole** (400 mg as a single dose or once daily for 3 days in children > 6 months and adults; 200 mg in children > 6 months but < 10 kg) or **ivermectin** (200 micrograms/kg as a single dose).

Infection/Epidemiology	Clinical features/Diagnosis	Treatment
<p>Trichinellosis <i>Trichinella</i> sp <i>Distribution</i>: worldwide, particularly frequent in Asia (Thailand, Laos, China, etc.) <i>Transmission</i>: consumption of raw or undercooked meat containing trichinella larvae (pork, wart-hog, bear, dog, etc.)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – <i>Enteric phase</i> (1 to 2 days after ingestion of infected meat) Self-limited episode of diarrhoea and abdominal pain lasting several days. – <i>Muscular phase</i> (about 1 week after ingestion) High fever; muscular pain (ocular [pain on eye movement], masseters [limitation of mouth opening], throat and neck [pain with swallowing and speech], trunk and limbs); facial or bilateral peri-orbital oedema; conjunctival haemorrhage, subungual haemorrhage; headache. Typical features are not always present and the patient may present with a non-specific flu-like syndrome. Other features, such as dietary habits (consuming pork/raw meat), suggestive symptoms (fever > 39°C and myalgia and facial oedema) in several individuals who have shared the same meal (e.g. ceremony) or hypereosinophilia > 1000/mm³, reinforce the clinical suspicion. – Definitive diagnosis: muscle biopsy; serology (ELISA, Western Blot). 	<p>albendazole PO for 10 to 15 days Children > 2 years: 10 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses Adults: 800 mg/day in 2 divided doses or mebendazole PO for 10 to 15 days Children > 2 years: 5 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses Adults: 400 mg/day in 2 divided doses</p> <p><i>plus, regardless of which antihelminthic is chosen:</i> prednisolone PO: 0.5 to 1 mg/kg/day for the duration of treatment</p>

Filariasis

Filariases are helminthiases due to tissue-dwelling nematode worms (filariae). Human to human transmission takes place through the bite of an insect vector.

The most important pathogens are outlined in the table below. Mixed infections are common in co-endemic regions.

Each filarial species is found in 2 principal developmental stages: macrofilariae (adult worms) and microfilariae (larval offspring). The treatment depends on the pathogenic stage of the species considered and targets microfilariae for *O. volvulus* and macrofilariae for the other species.

Species /Infections	Location of macrofilariae	Location of microfilariae	Pathogenic stage	Presence of <i>Wolbachia</i>
<i>Onchocerca volvulus</i> (onchocerciasis)	Subcutaneous nodules	Skin and eye	Microfilariae	Yes
<i>Loa loa</i> (loiasis)	Subcutaneous tissue	Blood	Macrofilariae	No
<i>Wuchereria bancrofti</i> , <i>Brugia malayi</i> and <i>Brugia timori</i> (lymphatic filariasis)	Lymph vessels	Blood	Macrofilariae	Yes

Classical antifilarial agents include diethylcarbamazine (DEC), ivermectin and albendazole. Doxycycline is used solely in the treatment of *O. volvulus* and lymphatic filarial worms, which harbour an endosymbiotic bacterium (*Wolbachia*) sensitive to doxycycline.

Onchocerciasis (river blindness)

The distribution of onchocerciasis is linked to that of its vector (*Simulium*), which reproduces near rapidly flowing rivers in intertropical Africa (99% of cases), Latin America (Guatemala, Mexico, Ecuador, Colombia, Venezuela, Brazil) and Yemen.

Clinical features

In endemic areas, the following signs, alone or in combination, are suggestive of onchocerciasis:

- Onchocercomas: painless subcutaneous nodules containing adult worms, usually found over a bony prominence (iliac crest, trochanters, sacrum, rib cage, skull, etc.), measuring several mm or cm in size, firm, smooth, round or oval, mobile or adherent to underlying tissue; single, or multiple and clustered.
- Acute papular onchodermatitis: papular rash, sometimes diffuse but often confined to the buttocks or lower extremities, intensely itchy, associated with scratch marks,

often superinfected (« filarial scabies »)¹. This arises from dermal invasion by microfilariae.

- Late chronic skin lesions: patchy depigmentation on the shins (« leopard skin »), skin atrophy or areas of dry, thickened, peeling skin (lichenification; “lizard skin”).
- Visual disturbances and ocular lesions: see page 128.

Laboratory

- Detection of the microfilariae in the skin (skin snip biopsy, iliac crest).
- If the skin biopsy is positive, look for loiasis in regions where loiasis is co-endemic (mainly in Central Africa).

Treatment

Antiparasitic treatment

- Diethylcarbamazine is contra-indicated (risk of severe ocular lesions).
- **Doxycycline** PO (200 mg/day for 4 weeks; if possible 6 weeks) kills a significant percentage of adult worms and progressively reduces the number of *O. volvulus* microfilariae². It is contra-indicated in children < 8 years and pregnant or breast-feeding women.
- **Ivermectin** PO is the drug of choice: 150 micrograms/kg as a single dose; a 2nd dose should be administered after 3 months if clinical signs persist. Repeat the treatment every 6 or 12 months to maintain the parasite load below the threshold at which clinical signs appear³. Ivermectin is not recommended in children < 5 years or < 15 kg and pregnant women.
- In case of co-infection with *Loa loa* or in regions where loiasis is co-endemic, ivermectin should be administered with caution (risk of severe adverse reactions in patients with high *L. loa* microfilarial load):
 - If it is possible to test for *Loa loa* (thick blood film):
Confirm and quantify the microfilaraemia. Administer the appropriate treatment according to the microfilarial load (see *Loiasis*, page 159).
 - If it is not possible to perform a thick film examination, take a history from the patient:
If the patient has received a previous treatment with ivermectin without developing serious adverse reactions (see page 160), administer the treatment.
If the patient has never received ivermectin nor developed signs of loiasis (migration of an adult worm under the conjunctiva, or « Calabar » swellings), administer the treatment.
If the patient already has developed signs of loiasis and if onchocerciasis has a significant clinical impact, administer ivermectin under close supervision (see *Loiasis*, page 159) or use an alternative (doxycycline, as above).
- In the case of concomitant lymphatic filariasis: administer ivermectin first then start treatment for lymphatic filariasis with doxycycline PO (see page 162) one week later.

¹ Differential diagnosis is sarcoptic scabies (page 98).

² Elimination of *Wolbachia* reduces the longevity and fertility of the macrofilariae, and thus the production of new microfilariae within the organism.

³ Ivermectin kills microfilariae and disrupts production of microfilariae by adult worms. However the treatment must be administered at regular intervals since it does not kill adult worms.

Nodulectomy (surgical removal of onchocercomas)

Nodules are benign, often deep, and their ablation does not treat onchocerciasis. Thus, nodulectomy is reserved for cranial nodules (their proximity to the eye is a risk factor for visual compromise) or nodules which are cosmetically unacceptable. In other cases, refrain from nodulectomy. Nodulectomy is performed under local anaesthesia, in an appropriately equipped facility.

Loiasis

The distribution of loiasis is linked to that of its vector (*Chrysops*) in forests or savannah with gallery forests in West or Central Africa (limits West: Benin; East: Uganda; North: Sudan and South: Angola).

Clinical features

- The subconjunctival migration of an adult worm is pathognomonic of *Loa loa* infection.
- Localised subcutaneous swellings, allergic in origin, transient (several hours or days), painless, non-pitting, appearing anywhere on the body, frequently the upper extremities and face, often associated with localised or generalised pruritus (« Calabar swellings »).
- Onset of pruritus, in the absence of other signs.
- Subcutaneous migration of an adult worm: pruritic, palpable red cord-like linear lesion, sinuous, advancing (1 cm/hour), disappearing rapidly with no trace⁴. Such migration generally arises following treatment with diethylcarbamazine, rarely spontaneously.

Laboratory

- Detection of microfilariae in the peripheral blood (thick film, stained with Giemsa). Blood specimens should be collected between 10 am and 5 pm. Quantify microfilaraemia even if the diagnosis is certain, since treatment is determined by the intensity of the parasite load.
- If the thick film is positive, look for onchocerciasis in regions where onchocerciasis is co-endemic (mainly in Central Africa).

Treatment

Antiparasitic treatment

- Diethylcarbamazine (DEC) is the only macrofilaricide available but is contraindicated in:
 - Patients with microfilaraemia > 2000 mf/ml (risk of severe encephalopathy, with poor prognosis).
 - Patients co-infected with *O. volvulus* (risk of severe eye lesions).
 - Pregnant women, infants, and patients in poor general condition.

⁴ For differential diagnosis, see cutaneous larva migrans, page 155.

- Ivermectin (and possibly albendazole) is used to reduce microfilaraemia before administration of DEC; however, ivermectin administration may trigger encephalopathy in patients with very high *Loa loa* microfilaraemia (> 30 000 mf/ml).
- Doxycycline is not indicated since *Loa loa* does not harbour *Wolbachia*.
- Management:

1) *L. loa* microfilaraemia is < 1,000-2,000 mf/ml:

A 28-day treatment of **DEC** may be started using small doses of 3 to 6 mg/day, i.e. 1/32 or 1/16 of a 100 mg tablet, administered in 2 divided doses. Double the dose every day up to 400 mg/day in 2 divided doses in adults (3 mg/kg/day in children).

If microfilaraemia or symptoms persist, a second treatment is given 4 weeks later.

If DEC is contra-indicated due to possible or confirmed co-infection with *O. volvulus*, **ivermectin** (150 micrograms/kg as a single dose) treats onchocerciasis, and reduces pruritus and frequency of Calabar swellings. The treatment may be repeated every month or every 3 months.

2) *L. loa* microfilaraemia is between 2,000 and 8,000 mf/ml:

Reduce microfilaraemia with **ivermectin** (150 micrograms/kg as a single dose); repeat the treatment every month if necessary; administer DEC when the microfilaraemia is < 2000 mf/ml.

3) *L. loa* microfilaraemia is between 8,000 and 30,000 mf/ml:

Treatment with **ivermectin** (150 micrograms/kg as a single dose) may cause marked functional impairment for several days. Close supervision and support from family member(s) are necessary⁵. Prescribe paracetamol as well for 7 days.

4) *L. loa* microfilaraemia is > 30,000 mf/ml:

- If the loiasis is well tolerated, it is preferable to refrain from treatment: the disease is benign and treatment with ivermectin may cause very severe adverse reactions (encephalopathy), albeit rarely.
- If loiasis has a significant clinical impact and/or the patient presents with symptomatic onchocerciasis requiring treatment, **ivermectin** (150 micrograms/kg as a single dose) is administered for 5 days under supervision in hospital⁶. An attempt to first reduce *L. loa* microfilaraemia using **albendazole** (400 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 3 weeks) is an option. When *L. loa* microfilaraemia is < 30 000 mf/ml, treat with ivermectin under close supervision and support, then DEC when the microfilaraemia is < 2000 mf/ml.

Extraction of macrofilariae

Subcutaneous migration of a microfilaria usually results from treatment with DEC; the worm will die beneath the skin and extracting it serves no purpose.

Removal of an adult worm from the conjunctiva: see page 128.

⁵ Patients may present with various pain syndromes, be unable to move without help or unable to move at all. Monitoring is necessary to determine whether the patient can manage activities of daily living, and provide assistance if necessary. If the patient remains bedridden for several days, ensure pressure sores do not develop (mobilisation, repositioning).

⁶ A severe reaction may occur on D2-D3. It is usually preceded by haemorrhages of the palpebral conjunctiva on D1-D2. Routinely check for this sign by turning back the eyelids. Symptoms of post-ivermectin encephalopathy are reversible and the prognosis favourable, if the patient is correctly managed; the treatment is symptomatic until symptoms resolve. Avoid the use of steroids due to adverse effects.

Lymphatic filariasis (LF)

The distribution of LF is linked to that of its mosquito vectors (*Anopheles*, *Culex*, *Aedes*, etc.):

W. bancrofti: sub-Saharan Africa, Madagascar, Egypt, India, South East Asia, Pacific region, South America, The Caribbean

B. malayi: South East Asia, China, India, Sri Lanka

B. timori: Timor

90% of LF is due to *W. bancrofti* and 10% to *Brugia* spp.

Clinical features

- Acute recurrent inflammatory manifestations
 - Adenolymphangitis: lymph node(s) and red, warm, tender oedema along the length of a lymphatic channel, with or without systemic signs (e.g. fever, nausea, vomiting). The inflammation may involve the lower limbs, external genitalia and breast.
 - In men: acute inflammation of the spermatic cord (funiculitis), epididymis and testicle (epididymo-orchitis).

Attacks resolve spontaneously within a week and recur regularly in patients with chronic disease.

- Chronic manifestations
 - Lymphoedema: oedema of the lower extremity or external genitalia or breast, secondary to obstruction of the lymphatics by macrofilariae. The oedema is reversible initially but then becomes chronic and increasingly severe: hypertrophy of the area affected, progressive thickening of the skin (fibrous thickening with formation of creases, initially superficial, but then deep, and verrucous lesions). The final stage of lymphoedema is elephantiasis.
 - In men: increase in volume of fluid due to accumulation within the tunica vaginalis (hydrocoele, lymphocoele, chylocoele); chronic epididymo-orchitis.
 - Chyluria: milky or rice-water urine (disruption of a lymphatic vessel in the urinary tract).

In patients parasitized by *Brugia* spp, genital lesions and chyluria are rare: lymphoedema is usually confined to below the knee.

Laboratory

- Detection of microfilariae in the peripheral blood (thick film)⁷; blood specimens should be collected between 9 pm and 3 am.
- In regions where loiasis and/or onchocerciasis are co-endemic, check for co-infection if the LF diagnosis is positive.

Treatment

Antiparasitic treatment

- Treatment is not administered during an acute attack.

⁷ When test results are negative in a clinically suspect case, consider detection of antigens (ICT rapid test) and/or ultrasound of the inguinal area in search of the « filarial dance sign ».

- **Doxycycline** PO, when administered as a prolonged treatment, eliminates the majority of macrofilariae and reduces lymphoedema: 200 mg/day for 4 weeks minimum. It is contra-indicated in children < 8 years and pregnant or breast-feeding women.
- **Diethylcarbamazine** PO as a single dose (400 mg in adults; 3 mg/kg in children) may be an alternative but eliminates a variable proportion of adult worms (up to 40%) and does not relieve symptoms; a prolonged treatment is no more effective than single dose therapy. In addition, DEC is contra-indicated in patients with onchocerciasis or *Loa loa* microfilarial load > 2000 mf/ml and in pregnant and breast-feeding women.
- Ivermectin (weak or absent macrofilaricidal effect) and albendazole should not be used for the treatment of individual cases (no effect on symptoms).
- In the case of confirmed or probable co-infection with *O. volvulus*: treat onchocerciasis first (see page 157), then administer doxycycline.

Control/prevention of inflammatory manifestations and infectious complications

- Acute attacks: bed rest, elevation of the affected limb without bandaging, cooling of the affected limb (wet cloth, cold bath) and analgesics; antibacterial or antifungal cream if necessary; antipyretics if fever (paracetamol) and hydration.
- Prevention of episodes of lymphangitis and lymphoedema: hygiene of the affected extremity⁸, comfortable footwear, immediate attention to secondary bacterial/fungal infections and wounds.
- Established lymphoedema: bandaging of the affected limb by day, elevation of the affected extremity (after removal of the bandage) when at rest, simple exercises (flexion-extension of the feet when recumbent or upright, rotation of the ankles); skin hygiene, as above.

Surgery

May be indicated in the treatment of chronic manifestations: advanced lymphoedema (diversion-reconstruction), hydrocoele and its complications, chyluria.

⁸ Wash at least once daily (soap and water at room temperature), paying special attention to folds and interdigital areas; rinse thoroughly and dry with a clean cloth; nail care.

CHAPTER 7

Bacterial diseases

Bacterial meningitis	165
Tetanus	170
Typhoid fever	174
Brucellosis	176
Plague	178
Leptospirosis	180
Relapsing fever (borreliosis)	182
Eruptive rickettsioses	185

Bacterial meningitis

Meningitis is an acute bacterial infection of the meninges, which may affect the brain and lead to irreversible neurological damage and auditory impairment.

Bacterial meningitis is a medical emergency. The treatment is based on early parenteral administration of antibiotics that penetrates well into the cerebrospinal fluid. Empiric antibiotic therapy is administered if the pathogen cannot be identified or while waiting for laboratory results.

The main bacteria responsible vary depending on age and/or context:

– Meningitis in a non-epidemic context:

- Children 0 to 3 months:

Children ≤ 7 days: Gram-negative bacilli (*Klebsiella* spp, *E. coli*, *S. marcescens*, *Pseudomonas* spp, *Salmonella* spp) and group B streptococcus

Children > 7 days: *S. pneumoniae* accounts for 50% of all bacterial meningitis.

L. monocytogenes is occasionally responsible for meningitis during this period.

- Children 3 months-5 years: *S. pneumoniae*, *H. influenza B* and *N. meningitidis*
- Children > 5 years and adults: *S. pneumoniae* and *N. meningitidis*

Special conditions:

- Immunodepressed patients (HIV, malnourished): high percentage of Gram-negative bacilli (specially *Salmonella* spp) and also *M. tuberculosis*.
- Sick cell anaemia: *Salmonella* spp and *Staphylococcus aureus* are frequent causes.
- Meningitis may be related to *S. aureus* when associated with skin infection or skull fracture.

– Meningitis in an epidemic context:¹

In the Sahelian region¹ during the dry season, epidemics of meningococcal meningitis (*Neisseria meningitidis* A or C or W135) affect children from 6 months of age, adolescents and adults. In these regions, whether during epidemics or not, all the above pathogens can be found, especially in young children.

Clinical features

The clinical presentation depends on the patient's age:

Children over 1 year and adults

- Fever, severe headache, photophobia, neck stiffness
- Brudzinski's sign (neck flexion in a supine patient results in involuntary flexion of the knees) and Kernig's sign (attempts to extend the knee from the flexed-thigh position are met with strong passive resistance).
- Petechial or ecchymotic purpura (usually in meningococcal infections)
- In severe forms: coma, seizures, focal signs, purpura fulminans

¹ But not exclusively, e.g. Rwanda, Angola, Brazil

Children under 1 year

The classic signs of meningitis are usually absent.

- The child is irritable, appears sick with fever or hypothermia, poor feeding or vomiting.
- Other features include: seizures, apnoea, altered consciousness, bulging fontanelle (when not crying); occasionally, neck stiffness and purpuric rash.

Laboratory

- Lumbar puncture (LP):
 - Macroscopic examination of the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF): antibiotic therapy should be initiated immediately if the LP yields a turbid CSF.
 - Microscopic examination: Gram stain (but a negative examination does not exclude the diagnosis) and white blood cell count (WBC).
 - In an epidemic context, once the meningococcal aetiology has been confirmed, there is no need for routine LP for new cases.

	Pressure	Aspect	WBC (leucocytes/mm ³)	Protein	Other tests
Normal CSF		Clear	< 5	Pandy – < 40 mg/dl	–
Bacterial meningitis	++++	Cloudy, turbid	100-20 000 mainly neutrophils In neonates: > 20 In immunocompromised the WBC may be < 100	Pandy + 100-500 mg/dl	Gram stain +
Viral meningitis	Normal to +	Clear	10-700 mainly lymphocytes	Pandy –	–
TB meningitis	+++	Clear or yellowish	< 500 mainly lymphocytes	Pandy +	AFB
Cryptococcal meningitis	++++	Clear	< 800 mainly lymphocytes	Pandy –	India ink

- Rapid test for detection of bacterial antigens.

Note: in an endemic area, it is essential to test for severe malaria (rapid test or thin/thick films).

Treatment in a non-epidemic context

Antibiotic therapy

For the choice of antibiotic therapy and dosages according to age, see following page 169.

Duration of antibiotic therapy:

1) According to the pathogen:

- *Haemophilus influenzae*: 7 days
- *Streptococcus pneumoniae*: 10-14 days
- *Group B streptococcus* and *Listeria*: 14-21 days
- *Gram-negative bacilli*: 21 days
- *Neisseria meningitidis*: see *Antibiotic therapy in an epidemic context*

2) If the pathogen is unknown:

Children < 3 months: 2 weeks beyond the first sterile CSF culture or 21 days

Children > 3 months and adults: 10 days. Consider extending treatment or alternative diagnoses if fever persists beyond 10 days. On the other hand, a 7-day course of ceftriaxone is sufficient in patients who are making an uncomplicated recovery.

Additional treatment

- Dexamethasone reduces the risk of hearing loss in patients with *H. influenzae* or *S. pneumoniae*. Early administration is indicated in meningitis caused by these pathogens or when the pathogen is unknown, except in neonates (and in presumed meningococcal meningitis in an epidemic context).

dexamethasone IV:

Children > 1 month and adults: 0.15 mg/kg (max. 10 mg) every 6 hours for 2 days.

The treatment should be started before or with the first dose of antibiotic, otherwise, the treatment offers no benefit.

- Ensure that the patient is well fed and well hydrated (infusions or nasogastric tube if necessary).
- Seizures: see page 23.
- Coma: prevention of bed sores, care of the mouth and eyes, etc.

Treatment in an epidemic context ²

Antibiotic therapy

In this context, *N. meningitidis* is the most likely pathogen. First-line treatment (in out-patients) is either oily chloramphenicol or ceftriaxone administered as a single IM dose.

¹ Refer to the MSF handbook *Management of epidemic meningococcal meningitis*.

Children over 2 years and adults (except for pregnant or breast-feeding women)

oily chloramphenicol IM: 100 mg/kg as a single dose without exceeding 3 g. Divide the dose into two injections if needed, half-dose in each buttock. Do not exceed indicated doses.

Age	2-5 years	6-9 years	10-14 years	≥15 years
Dose	1.5 g	2 g	2.5 g	3 g

or

ceftriaxone IM: 100 mg/kg as a single dose, maximum 4 g. Divide the dose into two injections if needed, half-dose in each buttock.

Age	2-5 years	6-9 years	10-14 years	≥15 years
Dose	1.5 g	2.5 g	3 g	4 g

If there is no clinical improvement (i.e. repeated convulsions, fever > 38.5°C, appearance or aggravation of a reduced level of consciousness or of neurological signs) 24 hours after the first injection: administer a second dose of the same antibiotic.

If there is no clinical improvement (same signs as above) 48 hours after beginning the treatment (i.e. after two consecutive doses of oily chloramphenicol or ceftriaxone administered at 24-hour interval), review the diagnosis. If no other diagnosis has been found (e.g. malaria), continue the treatment with ceftriaxone once daily for 5 days.

Children less than 2 years

The treatment depends on the most probable pathogen and the patient's age, as for meningitis in non-epidemic context (see page 169).

Pregnant or breast-feeding women

ceftriaxone IM: 100 mg/kg as a single dose, maximum 4 g

or **ampicilline** IV at the doses indicated page 169

Oily chloramphenicol is contra-indicated.

Additional treatment

- Ensure that the patient is well fed and well hydrated (infusions or nasogastric tube if necessary).
- Seizures: see page XX.
- Coma: prevention of bed sores, care of the mouth and eyes, etc.
- Dexamethasone is not indicated.

		No associated skin infection		Associated skin infection (including umbilical cord infection)	
		First choice	Alternative	First choice	Alternative
1 month	0-7 days	ampicillin IV 150 mg/kg/day in 3 injections + cefotaxime IV 100-150 mg/kg/day in 2 injections	ampicillin IV 150 mg/kg/day in 3 injections + gentamicin IV 5 mg/kg/day in 2 injections	cloxacillin IV 75 mg/kg/day in 2 injections + cefotaxime IV 100-150 mg/kg/day in 2 injections	cloxacillin IV 75 mg/kg/day in 2 injections + gentamicin IV 5 mg/kg/day in 2 injections
	8-28 days	ampicillin IV 200 mg/kg/day in 3 injections + cefotaxime IV 150-200 mg/kg/day in 3 injections	ampicillin IV 200 mg/kg/day in 3 injections + gentamicin IV 7.5 mg/kg/day in 3 injections	cloxacillin IV 200 mg/kg/day in 3 injections + cefotaxime IV 150-200 mg/kg/day in 3 injections	cloxacillin IV 200 mg/kg/day in 3 injections + gentamicin IV 7.5 mg/kg/day in 3 injections
1 to 3 months		ampicillin IV 200-300 mg/kg/day in 3 injections + ceftriaxone IV 100 mg/kg once daily	ampicillin IV 200-300 mg/kg/day in 3 injections + gentamicin IV 7.5 mg/kg once daily	cloxacillin IV 200 mg/kg/day in 4 injections + ceftriaxone IV 100 mg/kg once daily	cloxacillin IV 200 mg/kg/day in 4 injections + gentamicin IV 7.5 mg/kg once daily
3 months to 5 years		ceftriaxone IV 100 mg/kg once daily	–	cloxacillin IV 200 mg/kg/day in 4 injections + ceftriaxone IV 100 mg/kg once daily	–
> 5 years and adults		ceftriaxone IV 100 mg/kg once daily 2 g/day in adults	ampicillin IV 200-300 mg/kg/day in 3 injections 12 g/day in adults	cloxacillin IV 200 mg/kg/day in 4 injections 8 to 12 g/day in adults + ceftriaxone IV 100 mg/kg once daily 2 g/day in adults	–

Tetanus

Tetanus is a severe infection due to the bacillus *Clostridium tetani*, which is found in soil, and human and animal waste. The infection is not communicable. *C. tetani* is introduced into the body through a wound and produces a toxin whose action on the central nervous system is responsible for the symptoms of tetanus.

Tetanus is completely preventable through vaccination. In unvaccinated individuals, most breaks in the skin or mucous membranes carry a risk of tetanus, but the wounds with the greatest risk are: umbilical cord stump in newborns, operative sites in surgical or obstetrical procedures performed under non-sterile conditions, puncture wounds, wounds with tissue loss or contamination with foreign material or soil, avulsion and crush injuries, sites of non-sterile injections, chronic wounds (e.g. lower extremity ulcers), burns and bites.

Tetanus develops in persons who have not been correctly vaccinated before exposure, or have not received adequate prophylactic treatment immediately after exposure.

Clinical features

Generalised tetanus is the most frequent and severe form of the infection. It presents as muscular rigidity, which progresses rapidly to involve the entire body, and paroxysmal muscle spasms, which are very painful. Level of consciousness is not altered.

Children and adults

- Average period from exposure to onset of symptoms is 7 days (3 to 21 days)
- Muscular rigidity is first seen in the jaw muscles (difficulty, then inability, in opening the mouth [trismus], preventing the patient from speaking, eating) then, extends to those of the face (fixed smile [risus sardonicus]), the neck (difficulty in swallowing), trunk (restriction of respiratory muscles; hyperextension [opisthotonos]), abdomen (guarding) and limbs (extension of the lower limbs and flexion of the upper limbs).
- Muscle spasms appear at the onset or when muscular rigidity becomes generalised. They are triggered by stimuli or arise spontaneously. Spasms of the thoracic and laryngeal muscles may cause respiratory distress or aspiration.

Newborns

- In 90% of cases, initial symptoms appear within 3 to 14 days of birth.
- The first signs are significant irritability and sucking difficulties (rigidity of the lips, trismus), then rigidity becomes generalised, as in adults. An infant qualifies as a *case of neonatal tetanus* if it has sucked and cried normally for the first 2 days of life, then becomes irritable and stops sucking 3 to 28 days after birth, and demonstrates rigidity and muscle spasms.
- Although the umbilicus is almost always the portal of entry, clinical infection of the cord site (omphalitis) is evident in only one half of cases.
- Check for septicaemia, which is frequently associated.

Treatment

Hospitalisation is necessary and requires 3 to 4 weeks on average. Correct management can reduce mortality by 50%, even in hospitals with limited resources.

General measures

- The patient should be the sole occupant of a dark, quiet room: all stimulation (noise, light, touch) may trigger painful spasms that may cause critical respiratory distress.
- Handle the patient very carefully, under sedation and as little as possible; reposition every 3 to 4 hours to prevent bedsores.
- Establish IV access: hydration, access for IV injections.
- Insert a nasogastric tube: hydration and feeding; administration of oral medications.
- Gentle aspiration of secretions (nose, oropharynx).
- Provide hydration and nutrition in feeds divided over 24 hours. In newborns, give expressed breast milk every hour (risk of hypoglycaemia).

Neutralisation of toxin

human tetanus immunoglobulin IM

Newborns, children and adults: 500 IU as a single dose, injected into 2 separate sites

Inhibition of toxin production

The treatment of choice is **metronidazole** IV for 7 days¹ (administered over 60 min in newborns):

Newborns: one dose of 15 mg/kg then, after 24 hours, 7.5 mg/kg every 12 hours

Children: 7.5 mg/kg every 8 hours

Adults: 500 mg every 8 hours

Control of rigidity and spasms, and sedation of the patient

⚠ Due to increased risk of respiratory depression/arrest when using high doses of diazepam, the patient must always be kept under constant close observation, with immediate availability of equipment required for intubation and manual ventilation.

The dose and frequency of administration depend on the patient's clinical response and tolerance (monitor respiratory rate or oxygen saturation).

diazepam

For IV as well as for intra-rectal administration², dilute 2 ml of diazepam (10 mg) in 8 ml of 5% glucose or 0.9% sodium chloride.

Children: 0.1 to 0.3 mg/kg by slow IV injection (over 3 to 5 minutes) or 0.5 mg/kg by rectal route, without exceeding 10 mg per dose, to be repeated every 1 to 4 hours

Adults: 10 mg by slow IV or intra-rectal route

¹ **Benzylpenicillin** IV for 10 to 14 days may be an alternative (second choice):

Newborns: 80,000 IU/kg/day (50 mg/kg/day) in 2 injections every 12 hours

Infants: 125,000 IU/kg/day (75 mg/kg/day) in 3 injections every 8 hours

Children: 200,000 to 400,000 IU/kg/day (120 to 240 mg/kg/day) in 4 injections every 6 hours

Adults: 10 MIU/day (6 g/day) in 4 injections every 6 hours

Change to the oral route when possible with **phenoxymethylpenicillin (penicillin V)** by nasogastric tube.

Children: 62.5 mg/kg/day in 4 doses; adults: 2 g/day in 4 doses.

² For rectal administration, use a syringe without needle or cut a nasogastric tube, CH8, to a length of 2-3 cm and attach it to the tip of the syringe.

In the case of severe spasms not controlled by intermittent dosing, diazepam may be administered by continuous IV infusion (except in infants less than 1 month), under constant close observation.

Children over 1 month and adults: 3 to 10 mg/kg/day, the dose is to be adjusted according to clinical response.

Control of pain

In early stage, if necessary; the risk of respiratory depression is increased, thus closer monitoring is required:

morphine slow IV (5 minutes)

Newborns: 0.05 mg/kg every 6 hours if needed

Children from 1 to 6 months: 0.1 mg/kg every 6 hours if needed

Children over 6 months and adults: 0.1 mg/kg every 4 hours if needed

Treatment of the entry site

A systematic search should be made for the entry wound. Provide local treatment under sedation: cleansing, and for deep wounds, irrigation, debridement.

Cord infection: do not excise or debride; treat bacterial omphalitis.

Tetanus vaccination

As tetanus does not confer immunity, vaccination against tetanus must be administered once the patient has recovered.

In case of neonatal tetanus, initiate the vaccination of the mother.

Prevention

Of critical importance, given the difficulty of treating tetanus once established.

1) Post-exposure prophylaxis

- In all cases:
 - Cleansing and disinfection of the wound, and elimination of foreign material.
 - Antibiotics are not prescribed routinely for prophylaxis. The decision to administer an antibiotic (metronidazole or penicillin) is made on a case-by-case basis, according to the patient's clinical status.
- Depending on pre-exposure vaccination status:
 - tetanus vaccine (TV)³ and immunoglobulin: see indications below.

Risk	Complete vaccination (3 or more doses)			Incomplete vaccination (less than 3 doses) or no vaccination or unknown status
	Time since administration of latest dose: < 5 years 5-10 years > 10 years			
Minor clean wound	None	None	TV one booster dose	Initiate or complete TV
All other wounds	None	TV one booster dose	TV one booster dose	Initiate or complete TV and Administer tetanus immunoglobulin

³ Tetanus-containing vaccine, such as TT or DT or dT or DTP or DTP + HepB or DTP + Hib + HepB according to availability and patient's age.

tetanus vaccine IM

Children and adults: 0.5 ml/injection

With no vaccination or unknown vaccination status: administer at least 2 doses at an interval of 4 weeks.

With incomplete vaccination: administer one dose.

Then, to ensure long-lasting protection, administer additional doses to complete the total 5 doses, as indicated in the table below.

human anti-tetanus immunoglobulin IM

Children and adults: 250 IU as a single dose; 500 IU for wounds more than 24 hours old.

Inject the vaccine and the immunoglobulin in 2 different sites, using a separate syringe for each.

2) Routine vaccination (pre-exposure prophylaxis)

- Children: 5 doses in total: a first series of 3 doses of DTP or DTP + HepB or DTP + Hib + HepB before the age of 1 year, administered at an interval of 1 month (e.g. at the age of 6, 10 and 14 weeks), then a 4th dose of a vaccine containing tetanus toxoid between the ages of 4 to 7 years, then a 5th dose between 12 and 15 years.
- Women of childbearing age: 5 doses during the reproductive years: a series of 3 doses (dT or TT) with an interval of at least one month between the 1st and 2nd dose and an interval of at least 6 months between the 2nd and 3rd dose, then two other doses, each at minimum interval of one year, e.g. during pregnancies (see table below).
- Pregnant women: if a woman has never been vaccinated or if her vaccination status is unknown: 2 doses of dT or TT during the pregnancy to reduce the risk of tetanus in mother and newborn: the first as soon as possible during the pregnancy and the second at least 4 weeks later and at least 2 weeks before delivery. This vaccination regime protects more than 80% of newborns from neonatal tetanus. A single dose offers no protection. Continue vaccination after delivery to complete 5 doses, as for women of childbearing age.

Dose	Vaccination schedule in adults	Degree and duration of protection
TV1	On first contact with the health care system or as soon as possible during pregnancy	No protection
TV2	At least 4 weeks after TV1	80% 1 to 3 years
TV3	6 months to 1 year after TV2 or during the following pregnancy	95% 5 years
TV4	1 to 5 years after TV3 or during the following pregnancy	99% 10 years
TV5	1 to 10 years after TV4 or during the following pregnancy	99% Throughout the reproductive years

3) Other measures

Appropriate hygiene during delivery, including home birth.

Typhoid fever

- Systemic infection due to *Salmonella typhi*. The organism enters the body via the gastrointestinal tract and gains access to the bloodstream via the lymphatic system.
- Typhoid fever is acquired by ingestion of contaminated water and food or by direct contact (dirty hands).

Clinical features

- Sustained fever (lasting more than one week), headache, asthenia, insomnia, anorexia, epistaxis.
- Abdominal pain or tenderness, diarrhoea or constipation, gurgles.
- Toxic confusional state, prostration.
- Moderate splenomegaly, relative bradycardia (normal pulse despite fever).
- *Differential diagnosis* may be difficult as symptoms resemble those of lower respiratory tract infections, urinary infections, and malaria or dengue fever in endemic areas.
- *Complications* can occur during the active phase or during convalescence (even during treatment): intestinal perforation or haemorrhage, peritonitis, myocarditis, encephalitis, coma.

Laboratory

- Relative leukopenia (normal white blood cell count despite septicaemia).
- Isolation of *S. typhi* from blood cultures (take at least 10 ml of blood) and stool cultures during the first 2 weeks.
- Widal's agglutination reaction is not used (both sensitivity and specificity are poor).

Treatment (at hospital level)

- Isolate the patient.
- Keep under close surveillance, hydrate, treat fever (see *Fever*, page 26).
- Antibiotic therapy: case-fatality rates of 10% can be reduced to less than 1% with early antibiotic treatment based on the findings of blood cultures. The oral route is more effective than the parenteral route. If the patient cannot take oral treatment, start by injectable route and change to oral route as soon as possible.

Antibiotic treatment (except during pregnancy or breast-feeding)

- The treatment of choice is: **ciprofloxacin** PO for 5 to 7 days
Children: 30 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses (usually not recommended in children under 15 years, however, the life-threatening risk of typhoid outweighs the risk of adverse effects)
Adults: 1 g/day in 2 divided doses

cefixime PO for 7 days may be an alternative to ciprofloxacin in children under 15 years:

Children over 3 months: 15 to 20 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses

Failing that, and in the absence of resistance:

amoxicillin PO for 14 days

Children: 75 to 100 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses

Adults: 3 g/day in 3 divided doses

or

chloramphenicol PO for 10 to 14 days depending on severity

Children: 100 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses

Adults: 3 g/day in 3 divided doses

- *S. typhi* is rapidly developing resistance to quinolones. In this event, use:

ceftriaxone IM or IV¹ for 10 to 14 days depending on severity

Children: 75 mg/kg once daily

Adults: 2 to 4 g once daily

Antibiotic treatment in pregnant or breast-feeding women

In pregnant women, typhoid carries a major risk of maternal complications (intestinal perforation, peritonitis, septicaemia) and foetal complications (miscarriage, premature delivery, intrauterine death).

- In the absence of resistance:

amoxicillin PO: 3 g/day in 3 divided doses for 14 days

- If resistance:

ceftriaxone IM or IV¹: 2 to 4 g once daily for 10 to 14 days depending on severity

Failing that, use **ciprofloxacin** PO (usually not recommended for pregnant or breast-feeding women. However, the life-threatening risk of typhoid outweighs the risk of adverse effects). For dosage, see above.

Note: fever persists for 4 to 5 days after the start of treatment, even if the antibiotic is effective. It is essential to treat the fever and to check for possible maternal or foetal complications.

- In patients presenting severe typhoid, with toxic confusional state (hallucinations, altered consciousness) or intestinal haemorrhage:

dexamethasone IV: loading dose 3 mg/kg and then 1 mg/kg every 6 hours for 2 days

Prevention

- Disinfection of faeces with 2% chlorine solution.
- Individual (hand washing) and collective hygiene (safe water supply, sanitation).
- The possibility of vaccination must be considered: it can be useful in some situations (high-risk age group, hyperendemic zone), but its effectiveness remains controversial.

¹ The solvent of ceftriaxone for IM injection contains lidocaine. Ceftriaxone reconstituted using this solvent must NEVER be administered by IV route. For IV administration, water for injection must always be used.

Brucellosis

- A zoonosis that mainly affects domestic animals. It is occasionally transmitted to man by ingestion of infected raw milk, or by contact (with infected animals or with soiled objects through abrasion on the skin). Human-to-human transmission is rare.
- Brucellosis is caused by Gram-negative bacilli of the genus *Brucella*: *B. melitensis* (sheep and goats), *B. abortus* (cattle), *B. suis* (pigs) and less commonly, *B. canis* and *B. ovis*.
- The disease is found worldwide and mainly in rural areas. The true incidence of brucellosis in tropical countries is probably underestimated as it is often undiagnosed.

Clinical features

The clinical signs and associated symptoms are fluctuating and non specific. Diagnosis is difficult because of the broad spectrum of clinical manifestations.

Acute form

- Common form: gradual onset over one to 2 weeks: undulant fever (up to 39-40°C) lasting 10 to 15 days, night sweats, chills, asthenia, joint and muscle pain. Possible sacroileitis, arthritis (knee) and orchitis.
In regions where malaria is endemic, the possibility of acute brucellosis should be considered when a high fever persists despite correct anti-malarial treatment.
- Other clinical forms:
 - Typhoid-like form: sudden onset with signs of septicaemia; high fever, typhoid state, delirium, abdominal signs.
 - Subacute form: mild, non-specific clinical signs that do not lead the patient to seek medical attention. Serum test positive.

Secondary brucellosis

Prolonged asthenia, focal signs:

- Bone and joint involvement: arthritis of the hip, sacroileitis, spondylitis with sciatalgia (pseudo-Pott's disease).
- Neurobrucellosis: pseudo-tuberculosis meningitis, meningoencephalitis; a complication at vertebral site involving peripheral nerves may cause motor and/or sensory disorders.

Chronic brucellosis

- General signs; physical and mental asthenia, sweating and polyalgia.
- Focal signs: slow developing bone, neuromeningeal or visceral foci.

Laboratory

- During the acute phase diagnosis can be confirmed by the detection of the pathogen in a blood culture.
- The Rose Bengal test (or card test) can identify specific antibodies. It is a quick, cheap and both specific and sensitive test for the diagnosis of acute and localized forms of brucellosis.

- Other serological tests (Wright's test, ELISA, indirect immunfluorescence and Coombs' test) cannot usually be done.

Treatment

Treatment is based on a combination of 2 antibiotics. Since streptomycin and rifampicin are also used in the treatment of tuberculosis, it is essential to rule out the possibility of active TB before starting treatment (patient history, clinical examination and chest X-ray if possible). Rifampicin must only be used when indicated below.

Acute form

- Children over 8 years and adults (except in pregnant or breast-feeding women):

doxycycline PO

Children: 100 to 200 mg once daily or in 2 divided doses for 6 weeks

Adults: 200 mg once daily or in 2 divided doses for 6 weeks

+ **streptomycin** IM

Children: 15 mg/kg once daily for 2 weeks

Adults: 1 g once daily for 2 weeks

- Children under 8 years

cotrimoxazole PO: 40 mg SMX + 8 mg TMP/kg/day in 2 divided doses for 6 weeks

+ **gentamicin** IM: 7.5 mg/kg once daily or in 2 divided doses for 2 weeks

or **rifampicin** PO: 15 mg/kg once daily for 6 weeks

- Pregnant or breast-feeding women

cotrimoxazole PO: 1600 mg SMX + 320 mg TMP/day in 2 divided doses for 6 weeks

+ **rifampicin** PO: 600 mg once daily for 6 weeks

Note:

In pregnant women, the combination of cotrimoxazole + rifampicin can be administered regardless of the stage of pregnancy if treatment is indispensable.

Administration of vitamin K is recommended to prevent neonatal and maternal haemorrhage.

phytomenadione (vial containing 10 mg/ml, 1 ml):

To the mother: 10 mg/day PO for the 15 days preceding the expected date of delivery

To the newborn: 2 mg PO as a single dose at birth and again after 4 to 7 days

Focal brucellosis

- Same treatment regimen as for the acute form, but for a period of 6 weeks to 3 months depending on severity. Surgical draining of an abscess of the liver or spleen may be indicated.
- Neurobrucellosis or endocarditis: combination of **rifampicin** + **doxycycline** + **gentamicin**. Antibiotic treatment is not effective in the context of chronic, non-focal brucellosis.

Prevention

- Washing of hands and clothing if in contact with animals.
- Boil milk and avoid eating raw cheese and undercooked meat.

Plague

- A zoonosis caused by the Gram-negative bacillus *Yersinia pestis* that mainly affects wild and domestic rodents.
- Plague is transmitted to man by the bite of an infected flea vector or through a break in the skin by contact with a rodent. Human-to-human transmission occurs through the bites of human fleas, or, in the case of pneumonic plague, by inhaling infected droplets expelled by coughing.
- Vast foci of infection remain in Central and Southeast Asia, Africa, Madagascar, and in North and South America.

Clinical features and progress

There are 3 main clinical forms:

- *Bubonic plague* is the most common form: high fever, chills, headache, associated with one (or more) very painful lymph node, usually inguinal (bubo). Frequent gastrointestinal signs: abdominal pain, vomiting, diarrhoea, etc. The mortality rate in untreated patients is approximately 50% as a result of septicaemia.
- *Septicaemic plague* is a complication of untreated bubonic plague and is a fulminant illness.
- *Pneumonic plague* is a very contagious form: high fever, chills, headache, myalgia associated with paroxysmal coughing, haemoptysis and respiratory distress. This form progresses rapidly, and is fatal unless treated. It occurs either as a complication of bubonic plague or as the result of a primary infection.

Occasionally, the disease can take the form of *meningitic plague*.

Laboratory

- Isolation of *Y. pestis* (direct examination and culture) from lymph node aspirate, blood, sputum, cerebrospinal fluid, depending on the form involved.
- Serodiagnosis: ELISA reads positive soon after the onset of the illness.
- Transportation of the samples requires a cold chain (failing that, the temperature must be kept below 30°C).

Management and treatment

- When plague is suspected: take samples for cultures and antibiotic sensitivity testing and then treat immediately without waiting for the diagnosis to be confirmed. Inform the health authorities as soon as the diagnosis has been confirmed.
- Isolation:
 - Patients suffering from bubonic plague do not have to be isolated. Treat the patient and his/her bedding and clothing with an insecticide (e.g. **permethrin 0.5%** powder; see *Pediculoses*, page 101). Observe elementary rules of hygiene (wash hands, wear gowns, gloves etc.).
 - Patients with primary or secondary pneumonic plague must be strictly isolated. Their bedding, clothing, sputum and excreta must be disinfected with a chlorinated solution. Observe elementary rules of hygiene (wash hands, wear hospital lab coats, gloves etc.) and both the patient and carers should wear facemasks.

– Treatment of suspected or confirmed cases

If treatment is begun early, recovery is rapid and complete. Penicillins, cephalosporins and macrolides should not be used.

Aminoglycosides, tetracyclines, chloramphenicol and sulphonamides are effective. Follow national recommendations. For information:

streptomycin IM for 10 days

Children: 30 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses given at 12 hour-intervals

Adults: 2 g/day in 2 divided doses given at 12 hour-intervals

gentamicin IM for 10 days

Neonates and children under one year: 7.5 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses

Children over one year: 6 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses

Adults: 3 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses

doxycycline PO for 10 days

Children over 8 years and adults: 200 mg/day, once daily or in 2 divided doses

chloramphenicol PO or IV for 10 days

Children over one year and adults: 50 mg/kg/day in 4 divided doses given at 6 hour-intervals

Choice of antibiotics

Indications	First choice	Alternative
Bubonic plague	doxycycline	chloramphenicol or streptomycin
Pneumonic plague	streptomycin	–
Septicaemic plague	streptomycin	chloramphenicol
Meningitic plague	chloramphenicol	–
Pregnant or breast-feeding women	gentamicin	–

Note: in order to prevent the emergence of resistance to streptomycin which is used in the treatment of tuberculosis, it is preferable to use doxycycline or chloramphenicol for the treatment of bubonic plague.

– Chemoprophylaxis of contacts

In the event of contact, and within one week after the end of exposure:

doxycycline PO throughout the period of contact (minimum 5 days of treatment)

Children over 8 years and adults: 100 to 200 mg/day, once daily or in 2 divided doses or

co-trimoxazole PO throughout the period of contact (minimum 5 days of treatment)

Children: 40 mg SMX + 8 mg TMP/kg/day in 2 divided doses

Adults: 1600 mg SMX + 320 mg TMP/day in 2 divided doses

Prevention

- Flea vector control is essential to controlling an epidemic.
- Long-term prevention: environmental sanitation and control of rodent reservoir.
- Vaccination against plague is only indicated for people with a high risk of exposure (laboratory technicians handling rodents) and can in no circumstances be used as a method for controlling an epidemic.

Leptospirosis

- A zoonosis caused by spirochetes of the genus *Leptospira*, affecting many domestic and wild animals (particularly rodents and principally rats).
- Leptospirosis is acquired by indirect contact (contact of the skin or mucous membranes with animal urine-contaminated water, e.g. when swimming) and less commonly, by direct contact with infected animals.

Clinical features

Diagnosis is difficult because of the broad spectrum of clinical manifestations. A distinction is usually made between the mild form (the most common, usually with a favourable outcome) and the severe form (multiple organ dysfunction syndrome).

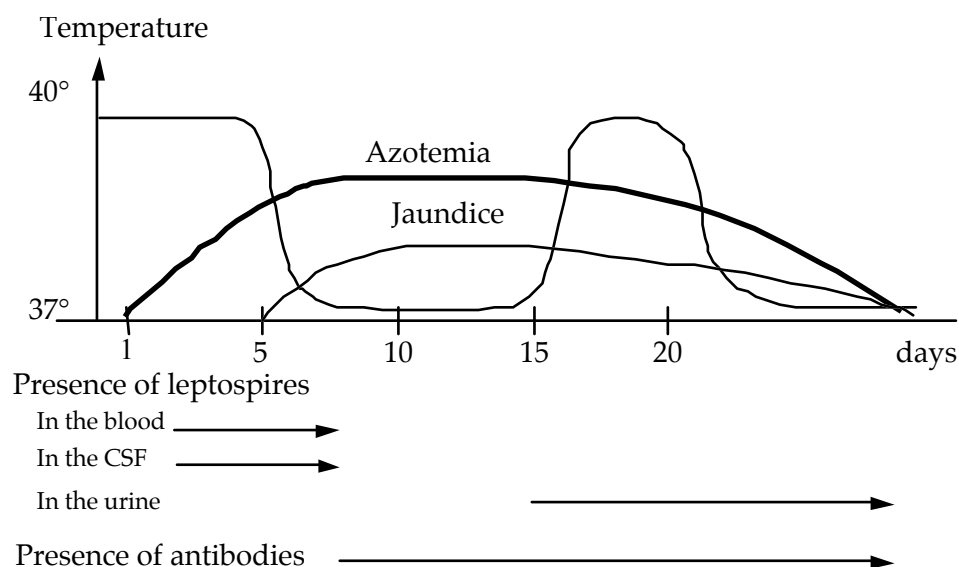
– Mild form

- After an incubation period of one to 3 weeks: influenza-like illness (high fever, chills, headache, myalgias), often combined with gastrointestinal disorders (anorexia, abdominal pain, nausea, vomiting) and possible pulmonary signs (cough, chest pain). Other signs: conjunctival haemorrhage, hepatosplenomegaly, and multiple adenopathies. Mild jaundice may be present, but this form is usually anicteric.
- The signs regress after 5 to 6 days, and then reappear, sometimes with meningeal invasion, which may be complicated by encephalitis or myelitis.

– Severe form or Weil's syndrome

The onset of the disease is the same as in mild form. After a few days, acute hepatorenal manifestations with fever, jaundice, oligo-anuric renal failure; diffuse haemorrhagic syndrome (purpura, ecchymoses, epistaxis etc.), pulmonary signs (cough, chest pain, haemoptysis) and cardiac signs (myocarditis, pericarditis).

Temperature chart and progress of leptospirosis



Laboratory

- Isolation through culture of leptospires from blood, cerebrospinal fluid (during the first phase) or urine (during the second phase).
- Serodiagnosis: immunofluorescence or ELISA (antibodies are detected from Day 8).
- Blood cell count: polymorphonuclear leukocytosis.
- If meningeal syndrome: lumbar puncture yields a clear fluid, usually with raised leucocyte count and elevated protein level (about 1 g/litre).
- Urine: proteinuria, leukocyturia, possible haematuria and presence of casts.

Treatment

- Rest and treatment of fever: **paracetamol** PO (see *Fever*, page 26).
Acetylsalicylic acid (aspirin) is contraindicated (risk of haemorrhage).
- Antibiotic treatment should be started as soon as possible:
 - *Moderate form*
amoxicillin PO
Children: 50 mg/kg/day in 2 or 3 divided doses for 7 days
Adults: 2 g/day in 2 or 3 divided doses for 7 days
or
doxycycline PO (except in pregnant or breast-feeding women and children under 8 years)
Children over 8 years: 100 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 7 days
Adults: 200 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 7 days
or
erythromycin PO
Children: 50 mg/kg/day in 2 or 3 divided doses for 7 days
Adults: 2 to 3 g/day in 2 or 3 divided doses for 7 days
 - *Severe form*
ampicillin IV
Children: 100 mg/kg/day in 3 injections
Adults: 4 to 6 g/day in 3 injections
Switch to the oral route as soon as possible, with **amoxicillin** to complete 7 days of treatment.
or
erythromycin IV
Children: 50 mg/kg/day in 3 or 4 injections
Adults: 2 g/day in 4 injections
Switch to the oral route as soon as possible to complete 7 days of treatment.

Prevention

- Avoid bathing in endemic areas.
- Rodent control, environmental sanitation (particularly water).
- Vaccination is restricted to personnel exposed in the course of their work.

Relapsing fever (borreliosis)

Relapsing fever (FR) is caused by spirochetes of the genus *Borrelia*, transmitted to humans by arthropod vectors.

Louse-borne relapsing fever (LBRF)

LBRF is caused by *Borrelia recurrentis*. It occurs in epidemic waves when conditions favourable to the transmission of body lice are met: cold climate/season, overcrowding and very poor sanitation (e.g. refugee camps, prisons). Endemic foci of LBRF are mainly the Sudan and the Horn of Africa (especially Ethiopia). LBRF can be associated with louse-borne typhus (see page 185). The mortality rate for untreated LBRF ranges from 15 to 40%.

Clinical features

- Relapsing fever is characterized by febrile episodes separated by afebrile periods of approximately 7 days (4 to 14 days).
- The initial febrile episode lasts up to 6 days:
 - Sudden onset of high fever ($> 39^{\circ}\text{C}$), severe headache and asthenia, diffuse pain (muscle, joint, back pain), often associated with gastrointestinal disturbances (anorexia, abdominal pain, vomiting, diarrhoea).
 - Splenomegaly is common; bleeding signs (e.g. petechiae, subconjunctival haemorrhage, epistaxis, bleeding gums), jaundice or neurological symptoms may be observed.
 - The febrile episode terminates in a crisis with an elevation in temperature, pulse and blood pressure, followed by a fall in temperature and blood pressure, which may last for several hours.
- Following the initial febrile episode, the cycle usually recurs; each episode is less severe than the previous one and the patient develops temporary immunity.
- Complications:
 - collapse during defervescence, myocarditis, cerebral haemorrhage;
 - during pregnancy: abortion, preterm delivery, in utero foetal death, neonatal death.

In practice, in an applicable epidemiological setting (see above), a suspect case of LBRF is, according to the WHO, *a patient with high fever and two of the following symptoms: severe joint pain, chills, jaundice or signs of bleeding (nose or other bleeding) or a patient with high fever who is responding poorly to antimalarial drugs*. Clothing should be checked for the presence of body lice and nits.

Laboratory

The diagnosis is confirmed by detection of *Borrelia* in thick or thin blood films (Giemsa stain). Blood samples must be collected during febrile periods. Spirochetes are not found in the peripheral blood during afebrile periods. In addition, the number of circulating spirochetes tends to decrease with each febrile episode.

Treatment

- Antibiotic therapy (suspect or confirmed cases and close contacts):
doxycycline PO¹
 Children: 100 mg as a single dose
 Adults: 100 or 200 mg as a single dose
 or **erythromycin** PO
 Children ≤ 5 years: 250 mg as a single dose
 Children > 5 years and adults: 500 mg as a single dose
- Treatment of pain and fever (paracetamol PO) and prevention or treatment of dehydration in the event of associated diarrhoea.
- Elimination of body lice is essential in control of epidemics (see page 101).

Tick-borne relapsing fever (TBRF)

TBRFs are caused by different *Borrelia* species. They are endemic in temperate and warm regions of the world, especially in Africa (Tanzania, DRC, Senegal, Mauritania, Mali, the Horn of Africa) and mainly in rural areas. TBRF is a major cause of morbidity and mortality in children and pregnant women. The mortality rate for untreated TBRF ranges from 2 to 15%.

Clinical features

The clinical manifestations and complications of TBRF are similar to those of LBRF but neurological symptoms (particularly, cranial nerve palsies and lymphocytic meningitis) are more frequent than in LBRF and the number of relapses is higher.

The clinical diagnosis is difficult, especially during the first episode: cases occur sporadically rather than in outbreaks; the tick bite is painless and usually unnoticed by the patient; symptoms are very similar to those of malaria, typhoid fever, leptospirosis, certain arbovirosis (yellow fever, dengue) or rickettsiosis, and meningitis.

¹ Doxycycline is usually contra-indicated in children under 8 years and pregnant women. However, if erythromycin is not available, it may be used for the treatment of LBRF, the administration of a single dose should not cause any adverse effects

Laboratory

- As for LBRF, the diagnosis is confirmed by detection of *Borrelia* in the patient's blood.
- Repeat the examination if the first smear is negative despite strong clinical suspicion.

Treatment

- Antibiotic therapy:
doxycycline PO
Children over 8 years: 100 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 5 days
Adults (except pregnant women): 200 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 5 days
or **erythromycin** PO
Children under 8 years: 50 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses for 5 days
Pregnant women: 2 g/day in 2 divided doses for 5 days
- Treatment of pain and fever (paracetamol PO) and prevention or treatment of dehydration in the event of associated diarrhoea.



Antibiotic therapy can trigger a Jarisch-Herxheimer reaction with high fever, chills, fall in blood pressure and sometimes shock. It is recommended to monitor the patient for 2 hours after the first dose of antibiotic, for occurrence and management of severe Jarisch-Herxheimer reaction (symptomatic treatment of shock). Jarisch-Herxheimer reaction appears to occur more frequently in LBRF than in TBRF.

Eruptive rickettsioses

Eruptive fevers caused by bacteria of the genus *Rickettsia* and transmitted to man by an arthropod vector. Three main groups are distinguished: typhus group, spotted fever group and scrub typhus group.

Clinical features: see next page

Laboratory

Detection of specific IgM of each group by indirect immunofluorescence. The diagnosis is confirmed by 2 serological tests at an interval of 10 days. In practice, clinical signs and the epidemiological context are sufficient to suggest the diagnosis and start treatment.

Treatment

- Symptomatic treatment:
 - Hydration (PO or IV if the patient is unable to drink)
 - Fever: **paracetamol** PO (see *Fever*, page 26). Acetylsalicylic acid (aspirin) is contraindicated due to the risk of haemorrhage.
- Antibiotherapy¹ for 7 days or until 2 days after the fever has disappeared:
 - doxycycline** PO (except in children under 8 years and pregnant or breast-feeding women):
 - Children over 8 years: 100 to 200 mg once daily or in 2 divided doses
 - Adults: 200 mg once daily or in 2 divided doses
 - or **chloramphenicol** PO (except in pregnant or breast-feeding women)
 - Children: 50 to 75 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses
 - Adults: 2 g/day in 3 divided doses
- In pregnant or breast-feeding women:
 - josamycin** PO²: 3 g/day in 3 divided doses for 8 days
- In a context of *epidemic typhus*, **doxycycline** PO 200 mg as a single dose is the choice treatment, but there is a risk of recurrence.

Note: doxycycline is usually contraindicated in children under 8 years and in pregnant or breast-feeding women. However, the administration of a single dose should not, in theory, provoke adverse effects. Check national recommendations.

Prevention

- Epidemic typhus: control of body lice (page 101).
- Murine typhus: control of fleas and then rats.
- Spotted fevers: avoid tick bites by wearing clothing and using repellents.
- Scrub typhus: use of repellents, chemoprophylaxis with **doxycycline** PO (200 mg once weekly in adults).

¹ Unlike borrelioses, antibiotic treatment of rickettsioses does not provoke a Jarisch-Herxheimer reaction. However, the geographical distribution of borrelioses and rickettsioses may overlap, and thus a reaction may occur due to a possible co-infection (see *Borrelioses*, page 182).

² Only some macrolides can be used. Erythromycin is not effective.

Clinical features

- Common to all forms:
 - Sudden onset of fever (temperature of over 39°C) with severe headache and myalgias.
 - 3 to 5 days later; onset of generalised cutaneous eruption (see below).
 - Hypotension; non-dissociated rapid pulse (variable).
 - Typhoid state: prostration, omnubilation, confusion and extreme asthenia, particularly marked in typhus forms.
 - Inoculation eschar: painless, black crusted lesion surrounded by a erythematous halo at the site of the bite. Always check for this significant sign.
 - Non-cutaneous signs vary from one form to another, and are atypical and variable (see below).

Group	Typhus		Spotted fever			Scrub typhus
Form	Epidemic typhus	Murine typhus	Mediterranean spotted fever	Rocky Mountain spotted fever	Other Old-World tick-borne fevers	Scrub typhus
Pathogen	<i>R. prowasekii</i>	<i>R. typhi</i>	<i>R. conorii</i>	<i>R. rickettsii</i>	<i>R. sibirica</i> , <i>R. australis</i>	<i>O. tsutsugamushi</i>
Vector	body lice	rat fleas	ticks	ticks	ticks	mites
Reservoir	man	rats	dogs	rodents	rodents, dogs, etc.	rodents
Occurrence	epidemic	endemic	endemic	endemic	endemic	sporadic
Geographical distribution	worldwide, conflicts; main sites Burundi/Rwanda, Ethiopia	worldwide	around the mediterranean, Sub-Saharan Africa	North America, Central America, Columbia, Brazil	Southern Africa, Australia, Siberia	Far-east, India, South Pacific
Rash	maculopapular	maculopapular	maculopapular	purpurul	maculopapular	macular
Eschar	0	0	black necrotic area	rare	black necrotic area	black necrotic area
Typhoid state	+++	+++	+/-	+/-	+ /-	+++
Extra-cutaneous signs	cough, myalgia meningeal signs	gastrointestinal signs	meningeal signs	gastrointestinal and neurological signs, hypotension	variable	meningeal signs
Case fatality (%)	30 (without treatment)	5	2	5	1	0-30

- Complications can be severe, and sometimes fatal: encephalitis, myocarditis, hepatitis, acute renal failure, haemorrhage etc.

CHAPTER 8

Viral diseases

Measles	189
Poliomyelitis	192
Rabies	194
Viral hepatitis	198
Dengue fever	201
Viral haemorrhagic fevers	204
HIV infection and AIDS	207

Measles

Measles is a highly contagious acute viral infection, transmitted by the airborne route (inhalation of respiratory droplets spread by infected individuals). The disease mainly affects children under 5 years of age and can be prevented by immunization.

For more information, refer to the MSF handbook *Management of a measles epidemic*.

Clinical features

The average incubation period is 10 days.

Prodromal or catarrhal phase (2 to 4 days)

- High fever (39-40°C) with cough, coryza (nasal discharge) and/or conjunctivitis (red and watery eyes).
- Koplik's spots: tiny bluish-white spots on an erythematous base, found on the inside of the cheek. This sign is specific of measles infection, but may be absent at the time of examination. Observation of Koplik's spots is not required for diagnosing measles.

Eruptive phase (4 to 6 days)

- On average 3 days after the onset of symptoms: eruption of erythematous, non-pruritic maculopapules, which blanch with pressure. The rash begins on the forehead then spreads downward to the face, neck, trunk (2nd day), abdomen and lower limbs (3rd and 4th day).
- As the rash progresses, prodromal symptoms subside. In the absence of complications, the fever disappears once the rash reaches the feet.
- The rash fades around the 5th day in the same order that it appeared (from the head to the feet).

The eruptive phase is followed by skin desquamation during 1 to 2 weeks, very pronounced on pigmented skin (the skin develops a striped appearance).

In practice, a patient presenting with fever and erythematous maculopapular rash and at least one of the following signs: cough or coryza or conjunctivitis, is a clinical case of measles.

Complications

Most measles cases experience at least one complication:

- Respiratory and ENT: pneumonia, otitis media, laryngotracheobronchitis
- Ocular: purulent conjunctivitis, keratitis, xerophthalmia (risk of blindness)
- Gastrointestinal: diarrhoea with or without dehydration, benign or severe stomatitis
- Neurological: febrile seizures; rarely, encephalitis
- Acute malnutrition, provoked or aggravated by measles (post-measles period)

Pneumonia and dehydration are the most common immediate causes of death.

Case management

- Admit as inpatient children with at least one major complication:
 - Inability to eat/drink/suck, or vomiting
 - Altered consciousness or seizures
 - Dehydration
 - Severe pneumonia (pneumonia with respiratory distress or cyanosis or O₂ sat. < 90%)
 - Acute laryngotracheobronchitis (croup)¹
 - Corneal lesions (pain, photophobia, erosion or opacity)
 - Severe oral lesions that prevent eating
 - Acute malnutrition
- Treat as outpatient children with no major complications, no complications or minor complications:
 - Pneumonia without severe signs
 - Acute otitis media
 - Purulent conjunctivitis (no corneal lesions)
 - Diarrhoea without dehydration
 - Oral candidiasis that does not interfere with eatingIf in doubt, keep the child under observation for a few hours.
- Isolation
 - Isolation of hospitalised patients
 - Measles cases treated as out-patients should be kept at home during this period.

Treatment

Supportive and preventive treatment

- Treat fever (paracetamol, page 26).
- Make the child drink (high risk of dehydration).
- Give smaller, more frequent meals or breastfeed more frequently (every 2 to 3 hours).
- Clear the nasopharynx (nose-blowing or nasal lavages) to prevent secondary respiratory infection and improve the child's comfort.
- Clean the eyes with clean water 2 times daily and administer retinol on D1 and D2 (see page 122) to prevent ocular complications.
- In children under 5 years: **amoxicillin** PO for 5 days as a preventive measure (reduction of respiratory and ocular infections).
- In the event of watery diarrhoea without dehydration: oral rehydration according to WHO Plan A.
- Insert a nasogastric tube for a few days if oral lesions prevent the child from drinking.

Treatment of complications

See following page

¹ Symptoms (hoarse crying or voice, difficulty breathing, a high-pitched inspiratory wheeze [inspiratory stridor], characteristic "barking" cough) are caused by inflammation and narrowing of the larynx. Croup is considered benign or "moderate" if the stridor occurs when the child is agitated or crying, but disappears when the child is calm. The child should be monitored during this period, however, because his general and respiratory status can deteriorate rapidly. Croup is severe when the stridor persists at rest or is associated with signs of respiratory distress.

	Treatment of complications
Severe pneumonia	ceftriaxone IV or IM + cloxacillin IV then change to amoxicillin/clavulanic acid PO (see pages 68-69) + oxygen if cyanosis or O ₂ saturation < 90% + salbutamol if expiratory wheezing and sibilant rales on auscultation In all cases, close monitoring.
Pneumonia without severe signs	amoxicillin PO for 5 days
Croup	Inpatient monitoring (risk of worsening). Keep the child calm. Agitation and crying exacerbate the symptoms. For severe croup: dexamethasone IM: 0.6 mg/kg single dose + nebulized epinephrine (adrenaline, 1 mg/ml ampoule): 0.5 ml/kg (max. 5 ml) + oxygen if cyanosis or O ₂ saturation < 90% Intensive monitoring until symptoms resolve.
Acute otitis media	See page 57
Dehydration	Rehydration according to WHO Plan B or C.
Oral candidiasis	See page 92
Purulent conjunctivitis	See page 123
Keratitis/ keratoconjunctivitis	tetracycline 1% eye ointment 2 times daily for 7 days + retinol PO one dose on D1, D2 and D8 (see page 121) + eye protection and tramadol PO from 6 months of age (see page 32). No topical corticosteroids.
Xerophthalmia	See page 121
Febrile seizures	See page 23

Prevention

- No chemoprophylaxis for contacts.
- Vaccination:
 - The first dose is administered at 9 months of age. In situations where there is high risk of infection (overcrowding, epidemics, malnutrition, infants born to a mother with HIV infection, etc.): administer one dose at 6 months of age (between 6 and 8 months) and one dose at 9 months of age, with an interval of at least 4 weeks between injections.
 - Children must receive a second dose before they are 5 years old in order to cover unvaccinated children or children who did not respond to the first dose.

Poliomyelitis

- Poliomyelitis is an acute viral infection due to a poliovirus (serotypes 1, 2 and 3). Human-to-human transmission is direct (faecal-oral) or indirect (ingestion of food and water contaminated by stool). Humans are the only reservoir of the virus. In principle the disease can be eradicated by mass vaccination with oral polio vaccine (OPV).
- In endemic areas, epidemics usually affect children under 5 years of age. In non-endemic areas, where vaccination coverage is low, young adults are most commonly affected.

Clinical features

- In more than 90% of cases, infection is asymptomatic.
- *Non-paralytic form*: a non-specific febrile illness with muscle pain, headache, vomiting, backache; no neurological involvement.
As spontaneous recovery usually occurs within 10 days, diagnosis is rarely made outside epidemic contexts.
- *Paralytic form*: in less than 1% of cases, after the non-specific signs, the patient develops rapid onset (from the morning to the evening) asymmetrical acute flaccid paralysis, predominantly of the lower limbs, with ascending progression. The muscles become soft with diminished reflexes. Sensation is maintained. The disease is life threatening if paralysis involves the respiratory muscles or muscles of swallowing. Initial urinary retention is common. Gastrointestinal disturbances (nausea, vomiting, diarrhoea), muscle pain and meningeal symptoms may also occur.

Laboratory

Look for the polio virus in stool samples. The virus is excreted for one month after infection, but only intermittently; therefore, 2 samples must be collected with an interval of 48 hours.

Treatment

- Hospitalise patients with the paralytic form: rest, prevent bed sores in bedridden patients, give analgesics (do not give IM injections to patients in the febrile phase), ventilate patients with respiratory paralysis.
- Physiotherapy once the lesions are stable to prevent muscle atrophy and contractures.
- Care for sequelae: physiotherapy, surgery and prosthetics.

Patients with acute flaccid paralysis (AFP)

- Consider all patients with AFP as suspected cases of poliomyelitis.
- Confirm the diagnosis by isolating the virus: send the 2 stool samples to a reference laboratory, with a clinical description of the patient. The stool samples must be stored and transported between 0°C and 8°C.
- While waiting for laboratory confirmation, vaccinate all children under 5 years of age living in the area (from the same village or neighbouring villages), irrespective of their vaccination status.
- Once the case is confirmed, organize a mass vaccination campaign: the area and the age group are determined as a function of epidemiological data.
- Surveillance: for each case of AFP there are between 100 and 200 subclinical cases. Therefore, active surveillance to detect new cases is essential for epidemic control.

Prevention

- 2 types of vaccines exist:
 - an injectable inactivated poliovirus vaccine (IPV)
 - a trivalent oral attenuated poliovirus vaccine (OPV)

In developing countries and during poliomyelitis eradication campaigns, the OPV is recommended for economic reasons, ease of administration and particularly for epidemiological reasons: it induces a rapid intestinal immunity (epidemic) and group protection due to its secondary diffusion into the natural environment

- Vaccination schedule with OPV
The WHO recommends 4 doses before 1 year of age:

Primary vaccination		Booster doses
Birth	OPV-0*	One year after the last dose and at the age of 6 years
6 weeks	OPV-1	
10 weeks	OPV-2	
14 weeks	OPV-3	

- * If the first dose (OPV-0) is not administered at birth, give the 4th dose a minimum of 1 month after the 3rd dose, for example at the same time as measles vaccination.

Rabies

Rabies is a viral infection of wild and domestic mammals, transmitted to humans by the saliva of infected animals through bites, scratches or licks on broken skin or mucous membranes. Any mammal can transmit rabies, but the great majority of human cases are due to dog bites.

Once symptoms develop, rabies presents as a fatal encephalitis. There is no curative treatment; care is palliative.

Before symptomatic disease has developed, rabies can effectively be prevented by post-exposure prophylaxis.

Clinical features

- The incubation period averages 20 to 90 days from exposure (75% of patients), but can be shorter (in severe exposure, i.e. bites to face, head and hands, multiple bites), or longer (20% of patients develop symptoms between 90 days and 1 year, and 5% more than 1 year after exposure).
- Prodromal phase: itching or paraesthesiae around the site of exposure, and non-specific symptoms (malaise, fever, etc.).
- Neurologic phase:
 - Furious form: psychomotor agitation or hydrophobia (throat spasms and panic, triggered by attempting to drink or sight/sound/touch of water) and aerophobia (similar response to a draft of air); sometimes seizures. The patient is calm and lucid between episodes.
 - Paralytic form (less common, 20% of cases): progressive ascending paralysis resembling Guillain-Barré syndrome.

Diagnosis is often difficult: there may be no history of scratch or bite (exposure through licking) or wounds may have healed; a reliable history may be difficult to obtain.

Post-exposure prophylaxis

Risk of rabies virus infection: definition of exposure categories (WHO)

Category I	Contact with animal, or licks on intact skin	No exposure
Category II	Nibbles on exposed skin Minor bite(s) or scratch(es) without bleeding	Minor exposure
Category III	Transdermal bite(s) or scratch(es) Licks on broken skin Contamination of mucous membranes by animal's saliva (licks) Exposure to bat ¹	Severe exposure

Post-exposure prophylaxis is carried out for Category II and III exposures.

¹ In the case of direct contact with bats, check national recommendations.

Treatment of the wound

– In all cases

Prolonged cleansing of the wound or contact site to eliminate the virus, as soon as possible after exposure, is of critical importance. For skin: use soap, rinse copiously with running water, remove all foreign material; application of **polyvidone iodine 10%** or **ethanol 70%** is an additional precaution which does not take the place of wound washing. For mucous membranes (eye, mouth, etc.): rinse thoroughly with water or 0.9% sodium chloride. Local cleansing is indicated even if the patient presents late.

– According to condition/type of wound

In order to avoid inoculating virus deeper into the tissues, wounds are either not sutured at all (e.g. superficial, non-mutilating or puncture wounds), or are left open and re-evaluated in 48-72 hours, with a view to possible closure. Highly contaminated wounds, or wounds that may compromise function, require surgical management (exploration, removal of foreign material, excision of necrotic tissue, copious irrigation with 0.9% sodium chloride or Ringer lactate, with local or general anaesthesia). When suturing is unavoidable, rabies immune globulin should be administered several hours or days before wound closure (see below). Infected wounds are not sutured and reassessed daily.

Passive and active immunisation

Given the variable duration of incubation, administration of vaccine/immune globulin is an urgent priority, even for patients exposed several months previously.

– Administration of rabies immune globulin

Rabies immune globulin (RIG) is indicated for Category III exposures², and Category II and III exposures in immune-compromised patients.

RIG is intended to neutralize virus in the exposure site. It is given as a single dose on D0, with the first dose of rabies vaccine. Children and adults: **human rabies immune globulin**, 20 IU/kg, or **highly purified equine immune globulin derivative F(ab')₂**, 40 IU/kg.

Infiltrate as much of the dose as possible in and around the wounds(s)³. Inject any residual product, using the IM route, in a site remote from that used for vaccination. In the event of multiple wounds, dilute the dose 2- to 3-fold with sterile 0.9% sodium chloride to obtain a sufficient quantity to infiltrate all the sites exposed.

If RIG is not available on D0, the first dose of rabies vaccine is administered alone. RIG can still be given as soon as possible within the next few days. However, RIG is no longer recommended when 7 or more days have elapsed since the first dose of vaccine was given, as vaccine-induced immunity will have developed by this time.

² Unless it can be established that the patient has been correctly vaccinated against rabies before exposure (complete pre-exposure vaccination with 3 doses of a CCV).

³ Infiltrate RIG, even if the wound has healed. For finger wounds, infiltrate very cautiously to avoid causing a compartment syndrome. When it is not possible to infiltrate the wound (mucous membranes), the entire dose is administered IM.

– Post-exposure rabies vaccination

A complete rabies vaccination series is indicated for Category II and III exposures. It should be started on D0 and continued to completion if the risk of rabies has not been excluded⁴.

Several different types of rabies vaccine are available. Vaccines prepared from cell culture (CCV), e.g. human diploid cells (HDCV), Vero cells (PVRV) or chick embryo cells (PCECV) must replace nerve tissue vaccines (NTV). There are several possible vaccination protocols: check and follow national recommendations. The shortest regimens among those endorsed by the WHO are shown as examples:

Post-exposure vaccination regimens

	No pre-exposure vaccination or Unknown vaccination status or Incomplete pre-exposure vaccination or Complete pre-exposure vaccination with a NTV		Complete pre-exposure vaccination with a CCV
	Intramuscular (IM) 2-0-1-1 Administer in the deltoid muscle (anterolateral thigh in children < 2 years), never in the gluteal muscle One IM dose = 0.5 or 1 ml (depending on the manufacturer)	Intradermal (ID)* 2-2-2-0-2 Use only PVRV or PCECV vaccine One ID dose = 0.1 ml	IM or ID* 1-1 One IM dose = 0.5 or 1 ml (depending on the manufacturer) One ID dose = 0.1 ml
D0	2 doses (one dose in each arm or thigh)	2 doses (1 dose in each arm)	1 dose
D3		2 doses (1 dose in each arm)	1 dose
D7	1 dose (in the arm or thigh)	2 doses (1 dose in each arm)	
D21	1 dose (in the arm or thigh)		
D28		2 doses (1 dose in each arm)	
	+ RIG on Day 0, if indicated		No RIG

* Incorrect ID technique results in failure of PEP: if correct ID technique cannot be assured, use the IM regimen.

⁴ Either through observation of the captured animal (if domestic) or through laboratory diagnosis of the animal (killed). The WHO recommends a 10-day observation period of the animal, if captured. If no signs of rabies develop during the observation period, the risk of rabies is excluded, and rabies vaccination is discontinued. Laboratory diagnosis of the dead animal involves sending the head to a specialised laboratory, which confirms or excludes rabies in the animal. If laboratory diagnosis is negative, risk of rabies is excluded, and rabies vaccination is discontinued.

Other measures

– Antibiotic therapy or prophylaxis

- A 7-day course of antibiotics is indicated for infected wounds (redness, oedema, purulent or serosanguinous drainage, localised cellulitis, lymphangitis, lymphadenopathy, fever). A longer treatment and/or the parenteral route may be indicated in severe infection.
- Antibiotic prophylaxis (5 to 7 days) is recommended for deep puncture wounds, wounds on the face or hands, wounds involving joints, tendons, ligaments or fractures; very contaminated wounds or those requiring debridement; in immune-compromised patients.
- Antibiotic prophylaxis is not recommended for superficial wounds or wounds more than 24-48 hours old in patients showing no local or general signs of infection.
- The same dosage is used for both treatment and prophylaxis:
amoxicillin/clavulanic acid (co-amoxiclav) PO⁵ (dosage expressed in amoxicillin):
 - Children < 40 kg: 45 to 50 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses (if using ratio 8:1 or 7:1) or in 3 divided doses (if using ratio 4:1)
 The dose of clavulanic acid should not exceed 12.5 mg/kg/day or 375 mg/day.
 - Children ≥ 40 kg and adults: 1500 to 2000 mg/day depending on the formulation available:
 Ratio 8:1: 2000 mg/day = 2 tablets of 500/62.5 mg 2 times per day
 Ratio 7:1: 1750 mg/day = 1 tablet of 875/125 mg 2 times per day
 Ratio 4:1: 1500 mg/day = 1 tablet of 500/125 mg 3 times per day
 The dose of clavulanic acid should not exceed 375 mg/day.

– Tetanus vaccination and immune globulin

Verify vaccination status. If unknown or not up-to-date, see page 170.

⁵ Co-amoxiclav is the antibiotic of choice. **Doxycycline** (200 mg/day in 2 divided doses) may be used in penicillin-allergic patients, except in pregnant women and children < 8 years.

Viral hepatitis

- Several viral infections of the liver are grouped under the heading of viral hepatitis: hepatitis A, B, C, Δ (delta) and E.
- The different hepatitis viruses are present throughout the world, but their prevalence varies by country. Hepatitis A and B are common in developing countries where nearly the entire population is infected during childhood or adolescence.
- The clinical characteristics of all five diseases are similar enough to make differential diagnosis difficult; however, there are epidemiological, immunological and pathological differences. Patients with hepatitis B, C and Δ may later develop chronic liver disease or even hepatocellular carcinoma.
- The main characteristics of each type of viral hepatitis are summarized in a table on the next page.

Clinical features

- **Asymptomatic forms**
Mild or anicteric forms are the most common, irrespective of the causal virus. The risk of developing later complications from hepatitis B, C and Δ are the same as for symptomatic patients.
- **Classic forms**
Insidious or sudden onset with symptoms of varying intensity: fever, fatigue, nausea, gastrointestinal disturbance, followed by jaundice, dark coloured urine and more or less clay-coloured stool.
- **Fulminant forms**
Hepatocellular failure with severe, often fatal, cytolysis. This form is most frequent in hepatitis B patients with secondary infection with the Δ virus, and in pregnant women infected with hepatitis E during their third trimester (20% mortality).
- **Chronic hepatitis**
Hepatitis B, C and Δ may lead to cirrhosis or hepatoma.

Main profiles observed in different clinical scenarios during HBV infection

Ag HBs	anti-HBs antibodies	anti-HBc antibodies	anti-HBc IgM	Ag HBe	anti-HBe antibodies	HBV DNA	Interpretation
+	(-)	(-)	+	(+)	(-)	(+)	Acute hepatitis
+/-	-	+	-	-	+/-	-	Acute hepatitis, recovery phase
-	+/-	+	-	-	-	-	Post-infectious immunity (cured)
+	-	+	+/-	+	-	+	Chronic hepatitis (wild virus)
-	+	-	-	-	-	-	Post-vaccination immunity

The tests in parentheses are not useful for diagnosis.

	Hepatitis A	Hepatitis B	Hepatitis C	Hepatitis Δ	Hepatitis E
<i>Age group most at risk</i>	Children	Young adults	Young adults	Young adults	Young adults
<i>Transmission</i>	Faecal-oral Contaminated food and water Transfusion (rare)	Blood and blood products Sexual Material contaminated with blood Vertical (mother-to-child)	Blood and blood products Sexual: low Material contaminated with blood (low) Probably vertical	Blood and blood products Sexual Material contaminated with blood Possibly vertical	Faecal-oral Contaminated food and water
<i>Incubation period</i>	2 to 6 weeks	4 to 30 weeks (average 10 weeks)	2 to 25 weeks	Co-infection B/ Δ : as for hepatitis B Secondary infection of hepatitis B: approximately 5 weeks	2 to 8 weeks
<i>Period of communicability</i>	Precedes signs. Brief: < 10 days after the appearance of jaundice Most infectious at the end of incubation period.	Precedes signs and lasts entire active period. Can persist in chronic carriers.	Precedes signs. Duration is not well known, probably the same as for hepatitis B. Could persist beyond normalisation of transaminases.	Precedes signs. Duration is not well known, probably the same as for hepatitis B.	Precedes signs. Duration is not well known (10 to 15 days after the appearance of jaundice)
<i>Fulminant forms</i>	0.2 to 0.4%	1 to 3%	More rare than in hepatitis B	Much more common in patients with secondary infection of hepatitis B than in patients with B/ Δ co-infection	20% mortality in pregnant women
<i>Prognosis</i>	No chronic forms	Chronicity: 0.2 to 10% of which 5 to 15% progress to cirrhosis. Hepatoma possible	Chronicity: up to 50%, of which 10 to 25% progress to cirrhosis. Hepatoma possible	Chronicity: 2 to 5% for patients with B/ Δ co-infection; > 90% if secondary infection of hepatitis B (rapid cirrhosis)	No chronic forms
<i>Individual prevention</i>	Polyvalent immunoglobulin	Specific anti-HBs immunoglobulin Safe sex (condoms)	Specific anti-HBs immunoglobulin may be effective	As for hepatitis B (the Δ virus can only develop with B)	Does not exist
<i>Vaccination</i>	Anti-hepatitis A	Anti-hepatitis B	Does not exist	Anti-hepatitis B	Does not exist
<i>Collective prevention</i>	Hygiene, sanitation	Limit transfusion, screen blood prior to transfusion Single use of disposable material			Hygiene, sanitation

Treatment

- Rest, hydration, no special diet.
- Drug therapy for symptomatic treatment (analgesics, antipyretics, antidiarrhoeals, antiemetics etc.) during the acute phase is contra-indicated as it may aggravate symptoms and the evolution of hepatitis. Corticosteroids are not indicated.

Vaccination

Only against hepatitis A and B. Vaccination against hepatitis B is included in the EPI of some countries.

IM vaccination against hepatitis B:

- *Standard schedule*
 - Newborns, infants
In countries where perinatal infection is common: one injection after birth, then at 6 and 14 weeks
Where perinatal infection is less common: one injection at 6, 10 and 14 weeks
 - Children, adolescents, adults
Schedule 0-1-6: 2 injections 4 weeks apart, then a 3rd injection 5 months after the 2nd injection
- *Accelerated schedule*, when rapid protection is required (imminent departure in highly endemic areas, post-exposure prophylaxis)
Schedule D0-D7-D21: 3 injections administered during the same month, then a 4th injection one year after the 1st injection

Dengue fever

- Dengue fever is an arthropod-borne viral disease transmitted to man through the bite of the *Aedes* mosquito. It develops sporadically and/or as epidemics (southeast Asia, the Pacific, Africa, the Caribbean and South and Central America). Four different serotypes of dengue virus exist.
- Primary infection with the dengue virus may be asymptomatic or may present as *classical dengue fever*. A second infection with a different serotype may provoke *dengue haemorrhagic fever*, characterised by an increased vascular permeability with loss of plasma from the vascular compartment and haemoconcentration.
- Dengue haemorrhagic fever may progress to *dengue shock syndrome* if, at the end of the febrile period, a significant plasma loss is not well compensated.

Clinical features

- **Dengue fever**
 - fever with headache, retro-orbital pain, muscle and joint pain
 - maculopapular rash on the lower limbs
 - common and benign haemorrhagic signs: skin (petechiae or positive tourniquet test¹) and more rarely, mucosal (epistaxis, gingival bleeding)
- **Dengue haemorrhagic fever**
 - high fever (39°C-41°C) of sudden onset lasting 2 to 7 days (sometimes with 2 peaks)
 - haemorrhagic signs: skin (petechiae, purpura, ecchymoses, positive tourniquet test¹); mucous membranes (epistaxis, gingival bleeding); gastrointestinal tract (haematemesis, melaena); bleeding from venepuncture sites
 - hepatomegaly
- **Dengue shock syndrome**

The critical stage is at the end of the febrile period (from Day 3 to Day 7). The signs preceding shock are: persistent vomiting, intense abdominal pain, agitation or lethargy, sudden hypothermia. Ascites or pleural effusion are possible.

Signs of shock:

 - rapid and weak, then undetectable pulse
 - cold extremities, profuse sweating
 - narrow pulse pressure, hypotension

Grading severity of dengue haemorrhagic fever (from WHO)

Grade	Clinical features
I	Fever + non-specific general symptoms + haemorrhagic signs (positive tourniquet test ¹ and/or easy bruising)
II	Grade I manifestations + spontaneous bleeding (skin or other haemorrhages)
III	Circulatory failure
IV	Profound shock with undetectable pulse and blood pressure

¹ Tourniquet test: inflate a blood pressure cuff on the upper arm to a point midway between the systolic and diastolic pressure for 5 minutes. The test is considered positive when 20 or more petechiae per 2.5 cm square are observed.

Laboratory

- Complete blood count (CBC) and differentials with platelet count: leukopenia and thrombocytopenia are common with $\leq 100\,000$ platelets/mm³.
- Haematocrit is the only test that shows haemoconcentration and therefore differentiates dengue fever from dengue haemorrhagic fever (haematocrit elevated 20% above average for the age and sex: e.g. if the average haematocrit for the relevant population is 35%, a haematocrit of 42% corresponds to an increase of 20%).
- Confirmation of the diagnosis:
 Confirm the aetiology at the beginning of an epidemic with serology (ELISA or rapid tests): elevated IgG and IgM anti-dengue antibodies confirm a recent infection.
 The IgM/IgG ratio differentiates primary infection (high ratio) from a secondary infection (low ratio), and therefore risk of shock.
 An increase in antibodies between two samples (from the beginning and end of an episode) confirms an acute infection. The serotype is identified by serology or PCR.

Treatment

- **Dengue fever**
 - Give **paracetamol** PO (see *Fever*, page 26); wrap the patient in a wet cloth. Acetylsalicylic acid (aspirin) is strictly contra-indicated.
 - Prevent or treat moderate dehydration (plenty of fluids, oral rehydration salts, follow *Treatment plans A or B to treat dehydration*, WHO, pages 316 to 320).
- **Dengue haemorrhagic fever** (*Grades I and II*)
 - Hospitalise and observe children under 15 years, patients presenting with significant or repeated haemorrhages, patients with less than $20\,000$ platelets/mm³ and all patients having difficulty eating or drinking.
 - Monitor vital signs (pulse, blood pressure, respiratory rate and urine output) every 3 hours and haematocrit every 6 hours. Look for the signs that precede shock.
 - Administer **Ringer Lactate**: 7 ml/kg/hour for 6 hours then adapt according to the clinical evolution and haematocrit.
 If there is an improvement: progressively reduce the rate to 5 ml/kg/hour then 3 ml/kg/hour and stop the infusion after 24 to 48 hours.
 If there is no improvement: increase to 10 ml/kg/hour, then 15 ml/kg/hour.
 Place the patient under a mosquito net.
 IM injections are contra-indicated.
- **Dengue shock syndrome: emergency +++** (*Grades III and IV*)
 - Administer **Ringer Lactate**: 10 to 20 ml/kg in less than 20 minutes, to be repeated if necessary, until a cumulative volume of 30 ml/kg is reached.
 If vital signs and haematocrit improve: change to 10 ml/kg/hour and then adapt accordingly.
 If there are no signs of improvement: administer oxygen and immediately check haematocrit:
 - if the haematocrit is still elevated or has risen: **plasma substitute** 10 to 20 ml/kg infused in less than 10 minutes. Repeat if necessary, until a cumulative volume of 30 ml/kg is reached, then give 10 to 20 ml/kg/hour until improvement in the vital signs is seen.

- a sudden drop in haematocrit without clinical improvement is a sign of haemorrhage (often gastrointestinal or internal): transfuse fresh blood, 10 to 20 ml/kg (ensure screening for HIV, hepatitis B and C etc.).
- Continue to monitor vital signs every 15 to 30 minutes and check haematocrit every 2 hours for the first 6 hours then every 4 hours. Monitor closely for the following 48 hours as shock may recur.
- Stop the infusions once the vital signs are normal and stable, the patient has regained appetite and the haematocrit is normalised, usually 48 hours after shock.

Warning: monitor for fluid overload. Puffy eyelids are the first sign of fluid overload. Stop the infusion until the puffiness disappears. In the event of pulmonary oedema (laryngeal crackles, dyspnoea, increased respiratory rate, cough with or without frothy expectorant, anxiety, crepitations in both lung fields or tachycardia), give:

furosemide IV, to be repeated after 1 to 2 hours if necessary:

Children: 1 mg/kg/injection

Adults: 40 mg/injection

- In an infant with a febrile seizure: see *Seizures*, page 23.

Prevention

- In endemic areas an epidemic risk exists: report probable or confirmed cases.
- Individual protection: mosquito nets and repellents.
- Vector control is essential, particularly during epidemics: destruction of larval habitats, insecticide spraying.

Viral haemorrhagic fevers

- A dozen diseases with different aetiologies and different modes of transmission are grouped under this name as they present with similar clinical signs.
- Dengue haemorrhagic fever is a viral haemorrhagic fever that is described on page 201.

Clinical features

- Common syndrome (CS):
 - fever higher than 38.5°C
 - short remission on Day 3 or Day 4
 - haemorrhagic symptoms (purpura, epistaxis, haematemesis, melaena etc.)
- The clinical signs are often non-specific, the severity varies depending on the aetiology (see table, page 206).

Laboratory

- Send a sample of whole blood to a reference laboratory (eg. the Pasteur Institute) for serological diagnosis. Attach a clinical description of the patient.
- Wear protective clothing while taking or handling the sample (gloves, protective glasses etc.).
- Use a triple packaging system for shipment. The tube containing the blood specimen is placed in a primary watertight, rigid container enclosing absorbent material between it and the tube containing the blood specimen (1). There must be enough absorbent material to soak up the entire blood sample in the event of a leak. This primary container is then placed in a second rigid container appropriately sealed for transport of infectious materials (2). This second container is placed in a secure carton box that has a visible infectious substance (biohazard) label (3).
- The sample may also be sent on filter paper. It is easier to transport, but the small volume of blood only allows a limited number of aetiologies to be tested.

Management

Suspicion of haemorrhagic fever (isolated case of fever with haemorrhagic symptoms in an endemic area):

- Isolation: isolation ward (or failing that screens/partitions); restrict visitors (provide protective clothing: gowns, gloves, masks).
- Standard precautions:

The general rules of hygiene must always be respected. The majority of intra-hospital infections have occurred due to a lack of respect for these simple rules.

 - wear gloves for taking samples
 - wear gowns during consultations and care
 - wear thick rubber gloves to handle soiled laundry
 - frequent hand washing
 - respect safe injection practices
- In addition to these non-specific measures wear masks and gloves while examining the patient and protective glasses when there is a risk of splashing.

Confirmed cases of Ebola, Marburg, Lassa, Crimean-Congo haemorrhagic fevers or epidemics of unknown origin:

- More specific measures:
 - strict isolation in a reserved area separate from other patient areas, with a changing room at the entrance/exit

- disinfection (2% active chlorine), and safe disposal of excreta
- disinfection of contaminated laundry in chlorine solution (0.1% active chlorine)
- protective clothing for staff: double gloves, mask, cap, protective glasses, double gown, apron, rubber boots
- entry/exit: clean laundry for staff at entry; disinfection station at the exit. Gowns, boots and rubber gloves are soaked in a chlorine solution (0.1% active chlorine) for 2 hours before cleaning. Containers for the safe disposal of disposable material. Hand washing with soap.
- The caregiver (maximum one per patient), helped and supervised by the medical staff, follows the same protective measures.
- In the event of a death, do not wash the body. If it is imperative for cultural reasons: wear protective clothing, wash the body with chlorinated water (2% active chlorine), and restrict the number of people involved. Bury the body as quickly as possible, using a body bag when feasible.
- Wear protective clothing when handling contaminated material. No contaminated material should leave the isolation area which includes an incinerator, a sharps pit and a biological waste pit.

Confirmed cases of Yellow fever or Rift Valley fever:

- Standard precautions
- Keep the patient under a mosquito net to prevent transmission

For all patients: report to the Ministry of Health of the country

Treatment

- Aetiological treatment: only for Lassa fever and Crimean-Congo fever (ribavirine).
- Symptomatic treatment:
 - fever: paracetamol (see *Fever*, page 26). Acetylsalicylic acid (aspirin) is contra-indicated.
 - pain: mild (paracetamol), moderate (tramadol), severe (sublingual morphine): see *Pain*, page 29.
 - dehydration: follow *Treatment plans A, B or C to treat dehydration*, WHO, pages 316 to 321.
 - haemorrhagic shock: see page 19
 - seizures: see page 23
 - vomiting: **promethazine** PO
 Children from 2 to 10 years: 10 to 25 mg to be repeated every 6 hours if necessary
 Children over 10 years and adults: 25 mg to be repeated every 6 hours if necessary
- For Ebola and Marburg haemorrhagic fevers: invasive procedures must be strictly limited. Health care staff are at risk of contamination when inserting and maintaining intravenous lines. An intravenous line must be well secured so that the patient, often confused, cannot pull it out.

Prevention

- Vaccination
 - Yellow fever:
 - Mass vaccination campaign during an epidemic*
 Children from 6 months and adults: a single dose of 0.5 ml IM (preferred) or deep SC, in the deltoid muscle. In pregnant women, only administer during an epidemic.
 - Routine vaccination (EPI)*
 - Rift Valley fever (only during an epidemic)
- Vector control programmes for known vectors.
- Hospital hygiene measures are essential in all cases.

	Reservoir/ Vector <i>Geographical distribution</i>	Isolation of patients	Clinical features <i>(estimated case fatality rate)</i>
Ebola* Marburg	Unknown <i>Africa</i>	Strict isolation	CS + sudden onset general malaise, vomiting and diarrhoea (60-80%)
Lassa*	Rodents <i>Central and West Africa</i>	Strict isolation	CS + facial oedema, purulent pharyngitis, proteinuria on reagent strip (10-25%)
Junin and Machupo*	Rodents <i>South America</i>	Isolation	CS + vomiting, erythema of the face and, depending on the aetiology: - periorbital oedema, cervical adenopathy, pharyngitis (15-30%)
Omsk	Ticks <i>Europe, Asia</i>	None	- pharyngitis, reddened conjunctivae (2-5%)
Crimean Congo*	Livestock/Ticks <i>Africa, Asia</i>	Strict isolation	- oedema of the soft palate, generalised petechial rash (5-20%)
FHSR (hantavirus)*	Rodents <i>Asia and Europe</i>	None	- proteinuria on reagent strip ($< 1\%$)
Kyasanur	Small mammals/Ticks <i>India</i>	None	CS + headache, muscle pain, prostration (2-10%)
Rift Valley*	Livestock/Mosquitoes <i>Africa</i>	None Mosquito nets	Clinical signs: - isolated fever - CS - encephalitis - retinitis and blindness (30-50%)
Yellow fever*	Primates/Mosquitoes <i>Africa, South America</i>	None Mosquito nets	CS + jaundice, proteinuria on reagent strip, oliguria, headache (10-30%)

* VHF with epidemic potential
CS: common syndrome

HIV infection and AIDS

- AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrome) is the most severe form of HIV infection (human immunodeficiency virus).
- Two subtypes of HIV have been identified. HIV-1 is more widespread than HIV-2, which is mainly found in West Africa. HIV-2 is less virulent and less transmissible than HIV-1.
- HIV affects the immune system by causing a deficit in CD4 T lymphocytes.

Evolution of the disease

- *Primary infection or acute retroviral syndrome*: 50 to 70% of newly infected individuals develop a viral syndrome (fever, malaise, lymphadenopathy) during seroconversion (from 15 days to 3 months post exposure).
- *Asymptomatic HIV infection* (after seroconversion): a period of clinical latency, but not viral latency. The time period for progression from HIV infection to the development of severe immune deficiency in western countries is 10 years. This period appears to be shorter in developing countries.
- *Symptomatic HIV infection*: with progressive destruction of the immune system, common and more severe diseases occur more frequently, and with higher mortality, in seropositive individuals.
- *AIDS*: this stage corresponds to the development of severe opportunistic infections and neoplasms. From a biological point of view, AIDS is defined as a CD4 count below 200 cells/mm³. Without treatment the disease progresses rapidly towards death.

WHO clinical staging of HIV/AIDS for adults and adolescents with confirmed HIV infection.

The WHO has proposed a clinical classification of HIV infection with 4 stages of severity:

Clinical stage 1

Asymptomatic
Persistent generalized lymphadenopathy

Clinical stage 2

Unexplained moderate weight loss (< 10% of presumed or measured body weight)
Recurrent respiratory tract infections (sinusitis, tonsillitis, otitis media, pharyngitis)
Herpes zoster
Angular cheilitis
Recurrent oral ulceration
Papular pruritic eruptions
Seborrhoeic dermatitis
Fungal nail infections

Clinical stage 3

Unexplained severe weight loss (> 10% of presumed or measured body weight)
Unexplained chronic diarrhoea for longer than one month
Unexplained persistent fever (> 37.5°C intermittent or constant for > 1 month)
Persistent oral candidiasis
Oral hairy leukoplakia
Pulmonary tuberculosis
Severe bacterial infections (e.g. pneumonia, empyema, pyomyositis, bone or joint infection, meningitis, bacteraemia)
Acute necrotizing ulcerative stomatitis, gingivitis or periodontitis
Unexplained anaemia (< 8 g/dl), neutropenia (< 0.5 × 10⁹/L) and/or chronic thrombocytopenia (< 50 × 10⁹/L³)

Clinical stage 4

HIV wasting syndrome
Pneumocystis pneumonia
Recurrent severe bacterial pneumonia
Chronic herpes simplex infection (orolabial, genital or anorectal of more than one month's duration or visceral at any site)
Oesophageal candidiasis (or candidiasis of trachea, bronchi or lungs)
Extrapulmonary tuberculosis
Kaposi's sarcoma
Cytomegalovirus infection (retinitis or infection of other organs)
Central nervous system toxoplasmosis
HIV encephalopathy
Extrapulmonary cryptococcosis including meningitis
Disseminated nontuberculous mycobacteria infection
Progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy
Chronic cryptosporidiosis
Chronic isosporiasis
Disseminated mycosis (extrapulmonary histoplasmosis, coccidiomycosis)
Recurrent septicaemia (including nontyphoidal *Salmonella*)
Lymphoma (cerebral or B-cell non-Hodgkin)
Invasive cervical carcinoma
Atypical disseminated leishmaniasis
Symptomatic HIV-associated nephropathy or cardiomyopathy

Note: this classification is only for adults and adolescents. Another four-stage clinical staging has been developed for children.

Laboratory

Diagnosis of HIV infection

- The diagnosis of HIV infection is made with serological testing.
- Testing is done *voluntarily* with *informed consent*. Testing is never mandatory. Every individual has the right to know or not to know his HIV status. Test results are *confidential* to avoid discrimination. The individual should have access to *minimum services* offering pre-test and post-test counselling, treatment and support.

- A positive diagnosis is made when at least 2 different tests (2 different brands) are both clearly positive.
- A first negative test should be repeated 3 months later to exclude seroconversion (window period).

CD4 lymphocyte counts

- CD4 cell depletion is a marker of the progression of immune depression. It is a predictor of the development of opportunistic infections or neoplasms and can be used to orient their diagnosis (e.g. cerebral toxoplasmosis or cryptococcal meningitis appear when the CD4 count is below 100 cells/mm³. If clinical signs indicating these infections are present, but the CD4 count is greater than or equal to 200 cells/mm³, it is unlikely that these infections are present).
- The CD4 cell count is also used as an indicator for primary prophylaxis (see *primary prophylaxis*, page 211) and initiation of ARV treatment.

Treatment of HIV infection

Antiretroviral treatment (ARV)

A multi-drug (at least 3) antiretroviral regimen (ART) is the reference treatment. It does not eradicate the virus, but slows the progression of the disease and improves the patient's clinical state by reducing viral replication and consequently increasing the CD4 cell count to levels beyond the threshold of opportunistic infections.

Therapeutic classes

Three major classes of ARV exist:

- NRTI (nucleoside/nucleotide reverse transcriptase inhibitors): zidovudine (AZT), lamivudine (3TC), didanosine (ddI), stavudine (d4T), abacavir (ABC), tenofovir (TDF), emtricitabine (FTC).
- NNRTI (non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors): efavirenz (EFV), nevirapine (NVP). HIV-2 is naturally resistant to NNRTI.
- PI (protease inhibitors): indinavir (IDV), lopinavir (LPV), ritonavir (RTV), saquinavir (SQV).

Principles of ARV treatment

- Daily triple therapy must be taken for life to prevent the rapid development of resistance. It is important that the patient understands this and that adherence to treatment is optimal.
- The most widely-used and easiest regimens to administer are 2 NRTI + 1 NNRTI: e.g. d4T + 3TC associated with NVP or EFV (EFV is contra-indicated in pregnant women).
- In the event of treatment failure, use as a second-line: 2 other NRTI + 1 PI.

Other possible combinations exist which are less commonly used or more difficult to manage.

Criteria for ARV treatment

As there are large numbers of patients who would benefit from treatment, it seems legitimate to prioritise the treatment of patients already in clinical stage 3 and 4 and patients most at risk of developing severe opportunistic infections (patients with a CD4 count below 200 cells/mm³).

Monitoring of ARV treatment

CD4 counts are useful in the initiation and follow-up of treatment. CBC, haemoglobin and ALAT are not essential, but can be useful in detecting treatment adverse effects. Viral load (rarely available) is useful for detection of treatment failures.

Treatment of opportunistic and other infections

With progressive immunosuppression, HIV infected patients who are not receiving triple therapy (or patients with poor adherence) become increasingly susceptible to infections. For conditions of clinical stages 2 and 3, standard treatments are usually effective and the diagnosis of HIV infection does not much alter the clinical management. Patients in these stages may benefit from primary prophylaxis (see *primary prophylaxis*, page 211).

Severe opportunistic infections often require sophisticated diagnostic and therapeutic means rarely available. However, with improving health services, most of these diseases can be treated.

For treatment of opportunistic infections, see tables, pages 213 to 219.

Treatment of pain

Treat all patients for associated pain (see *Pain*, page 29).

Prevention of HIV infection

– Sexual transmission

The only reliable method of prevention is the use of male or female condoms.

In addition, early diagnosis and treatment of sexually transmitted infections is essential as they increase the transmission of HIV (see Chapter 9).

Post-exposure prophylaxis (PEP): e.g. in the event of rape, ARV treatment begun within 48 hours after possible exposure and given for a duration of 1 month may reduce the risk of infection.

– Transmission through blood and blood products

- transfusion: strict respect of indications for transfusion and systematic serological screening of the donor's blood are the two indispensable precautions in the prevention of HIV transmission through transfusions.
- IV drug use: needle and syringe exchange programmes with disposable needles and syringes for users.

– Occupational transmission (accidental needle stick injuries or injuries with contaminated objects, contact between a patient's blood and unprotected broken skin or mucous membranes).

Prevention is based on use of universal precautions to avoid contamination with soiled material or potentially infected body fluids.

Post exposure prophylaxis (PEP): e.g. in the event of an accident, ARV treatment begun within 48 hours after the accident and given for a duration of 1 month reduces the risk of infection.

– Nosocomial transmission

Prevention of nosocomial HIV infection is based on the rational use of injections and strict respect for hygiene and sterilisation and disinfection procedures for medical material.

– Mother-to-child transmission (MTCT)

The global rate of vertical transmission varies from 20% to 40%. The risk of transmission through breastfeeding is evaluated at approximately 12% and persists for the duration of breastfeeding.

In pregnant women: HIV transmission from mother-to-child may be reduced by the administration of ARVs. Many different protocols exist of varying complexity, duration and effectiveness. The most commonly used ARV are AZT, 3TC and NVP. ARV are administered to the mother during pregnancy, labour, post-partum period and to the newborn. Check national recommendations.

Programmes targeting pregnant women also include other preventive measures: no systematic episiotomy; avoid artificial rupture of the membranes. In certain situations, where the context allows, an elective caesarean section (prior to commencement of labour or rupture of membranes), under antiretroviral cover, may reduce mother-to-child transmission. It is absolutely imperative to consider the risk of a caesarean section against the benefit of this intervention.

In breastfeeding women: artificial milk if the supply of milk and safe water is guaranteed. If not, exclusive maternal breastfeeding until the age of six months followed by weaning over 1 month period. Mixed feeding (maternal + artificial milk) is contra-indicated.

Prevention of opportunistic infections

In the absence of ARV treatment, all HIV infections become symptomatic and evolve towards AIDS. However, some opportunistic infections can be prevented.

Primary prophylaxis

For HIV infected patients who have not previously contracted an opportunistic infection, in order to prevent the development of some opportunistic infections.

Criteria for primary prophylaxis:

- In the absence of CD4 count: WHO clinical stages 2, 3 and 4.
- If CD4 count is feasible: WHO clinical stages 3 and 4 irrespective of the CD4 count and WHO clinical stages 1 and 2 with CD4 count < 350 cells/mm³ (or even 500 cells/mm³, depending on national recommendations).

Infections	Primary prophylaxis
Pneumocystosis Cerebral toxoplasmosis Isosporiasis Various bacterial infections Malaria	cotrimoxazole PO: Children: 50 mg SMX + 10 mg TMP/kg once daily Adults: 800 mg SMX + 160 mg TMP once daily

Secondary prophylaxis

For patients who develop a specific opportunistic infection, in order to prevent recurrence once treatment for the infection is completed.

Infections	Secondary prophylaxis	Comments
Pneumocystosis	cotrimoxazole PO: Children: 50 mg SMX + 10 mg TMP/kg once daily Adults: 800 mg SMX + 160 mg TMP once daily	Alternative: dapsone PO Children: 2 mg/kg once daily without exceeding 100 mg/day Adults: 100 mg once daily
Toxoplasmosis		Alternatives: Adults: sulfadiazine PO: 2 g daily + pyrimethamine PO: 25 mg daily + folinic acid PO: 25 to 30 mg weekly or dapsone PO: 200 mg weekly or 50 mg daily + pyrimethamine PO: 75 mg weekly + folinic acid PO: 25 to 30 mg weekly
Isosporiasis		
Penicilliosis Histoplasmosis	itraconazole PO: Adults: 200 mg once daily	
Cryptococcal meningitis	fluconazole PO: Children: 6 mg/kg once daily Adults: 200 mg once daily	
Oral or oesophageal candidiasis	fluconazole PO: Children: 3 to 6 mg/kg once daily Adults: 100 to 200 mg once daily	Only for frequent and severe recurrences
Herpes simplex	aciclovir PO: Children under 2 years: 400 mg/day in 2 divided doses Children over 2 years and adults: 800 mg/day in 2 divided doses	Only for frequent and severe recurrences

Symptoms	Definitions and aetiologies	Diagnosis	Treatment
Diarrhoea with or without blood (also see chapter 3)	Diarrhoea is defined as at least 3 liquid stools per day. Aetiologies: Parasitic infections <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Isospora belli</i> • <i>Cryptosporidium</i> • <i>Microsporidium</i> • <i>Giardia lamblia</i> • <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i> Bacterial infections <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Shigella</i> • <i>Salmonella enteritis</i> • <i>Campylobacter enteritis</i> Mycobacterial infections <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i> (gastrointestinal TB) • <i>Mycobacterium avium</i> complex Helminthiasis <i>Strongyloides stercoralis</i> Viral infections Cytomegalovirus (CMV) Other causes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kaposi's sarcoma • Lymphoma • Idiopathic (HIV infection) • Antiretrovirals (especially lopinavir and ritonavir) 	1. History and clinical examination 2. Microscopic examination of stool for ova and parasites (2 to 3 samples) Note: <i>I. belli</i> , <i>Cryptosporidium</i> , <i>Microsporidium</i> , MAC and CMV are unlikely if CD4 count > 200 cells.	- Persistent (> 2 weeks) or chronic (> 4 weeks) diarrhoea is often associated with weight loss and dehydration. - Prevention or treatment of dehydration is critical (pages 316 to 321). - Depending on the results of the stool examinations: give appropriate treatment. - If there is no laboratory support: Acute bloody diarrhoea - First-line treatment: Children: azithromycin PO: 20 mg/kg once daily for 5 days or ciprofloxacin PO: 30 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses for 7 days Adults: ciprofloxacin PO: 1 g/day in 2 divided doses for 7 days - If amoebiasis suspected: tinidazole or metronidazole PO, see page 88 Non-bloody persistent or chronic diarrhea Persistent or chronic diarrhoea suggests advanced immunocompromised state. For patients who qualify for ARVs by CD4 count (or unknown CD4 count), ARV initiation is urgent and will usually resolve symptoms in 14 to 28 days. - <i>Isospora belli</i> : cotrimoxazole PO Children: 80 mg SMX + 16 mg TMP/kg/day in 2 divided doses for 10 days followed by 50 mg SMX + 10 mg TMP/kg/day in 2 divided doses for 3 weeks Adults: 1600 mg SMX + 320 mg TMP/day in 2 divided doses for 7 to 10 days followed by 800 mg SMX + 160 mg TMP/day in 2 divided doses for 3 weeks - <i>Cryptosporidium</i> : no specific treatment in HIV-infected patients - <i>Microsporidium</i> : albendazole PO (limited efficacy) Children: 20 mg/kg/day (max. 800 mg) in 2 divided doses for 7 days Adults: 800 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 2 to 4 weeks - <i>Helminthiasis</i> : albendazole PO Children > 6 months but ≤ 10 kg: 200 mg once daily for 3 days Children > 6 months and adults: 400 mg once daily for 3 days - <i>Giardiasis</i> : tinidazole or metronidazole , see page 147 - If no improvement (and no contra-indications such as bloody diarrhoea), symptomatic treatment with loperamide PO: Children < 2 years: contra-indicated Children 2 to 5 years: 3 mg/day Children 6 to 8 years: 4 mg/day Children > 8 years: 6 to 8 mg/day Adults: initial dose of 4 mg then 2 mg after each liquid stool (max. 16 mg/day)

Symptoms	Definitions and aetiologies	Diagnosis	Treatment
Diarrhoea with or without blood (continued)			Nutrition +++++ Children: continue to breastfeed; increase daily calorie intake: children 6-11 months: add 150 kcal/d children 12-23 months: add 200 kcal/d children 2-5 years: add 250 kcal/d children 6-9 years: add 350 kcal/d children 10-14 years: add 400 kcal/d Eliminate fresh milk, give porridge prepared with rice water or soup or yoghurts. Give 2.5 ml of oil/meal. Any child 0-5 years should receive zinc sulfate (see page 84). Adults: increase the calorie and protein intake (at least 2 g protein/kg/day). No food is excluded but avoid raw food, fresh milk and foods high in fibre. Encourage small, frequent meals.
Oral and oesophageal lesions	Fungal infections <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Oral candidiasis: whitish plaques on the oral mucosa, difficult to detach. If detached: granulous and bloody base. Oesophageal candidiasis: pain on swallowing, dysphagia. May result in weight loss. Viral infections <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Oral hairy leukoplakia (keratosis on the lateral sides of the tongue due to the Epstein-Barr virus) Oral and oesophageal herpes Aphthous ulcers	Clinical examination is usually enough to make a diagnosis. If in doubt: microscopic examination of an oral sample. Consider all severe oral candidiasis (if the pharynx is involved) as oesophageal candidiasis even in the absence of dysphagia.	- Oral candidiasis: miconazole gum patch: apply one patch/day to the gums for 7 days or nystatin PO (100 000 IU/ml oral susp.): 4 ml 4 times daily for 14 days <i>Note: oral candidiasis is an indication for PCP prophylaxis</i> - Oesophageal candidiasis: fluconazole PO for 14 to 21 days: Children: 3 a 6 mg/kg once daily Adults: 50 a 200 mg once daily These doses can be increased up to 400 mg/day if necessary. - Oral hairy leukoplakia: no treatment - Oral herpes: Analgesics (paracetamol, ibuprofen) For recurrent or extensive forms affecting the oesophagus, add: aciclovir PO within the 96 hours following the onset of lesions: Children under 2 years: 200 mg 5 times/day for 7 days Children over 2 years and adults: 400 mg 5 times/day for 7 days <i>Secondary prophylaxis only for patients with frequent recurrences</i>

Symptoms	Definitions and aetiologies	Diagnosis	Treatment
Respiratory problems (also see chapter 2)	<p>Cough and/or thoracic pain and/or dyspnoea in a symptomatic HIV infected patient.</p> <p>Aetiologies:</p> <p>Bacterial infections Pyogenic bacteria (<i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i>, <i>Haemophilus influenzae</i>, <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>)</p> <p>Mycobacterial infections <i>M. tuberculosis</i>, MAC</p> <p>Protozoal infections <i>Pneumocystis jiroveci</i></p> <p>Fungal infections <i>Cryptococcus neoformans</i>, <i>Histoplasma capsulatum</i>, <i>Coccidioides immitis</i>, <i>Aspergillus spp</i>, <i>Penicillium marneffe</i></p> <p>Viral infections CMV</p> <p>Neoplasms</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kaposi's sarcoma • Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma <p>Others</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lymphoid interstitial pneumonia • Pleural effusion (often TB) • Pericardial effusion (often TB) • Pneumothorax (may be due to PCP) 	<p>1. History and clinical examination: Blood in the sputum? If fever < 7 days, dyspnoea: unlikely TB. If cough > 21 days, weight loss, thoracic pain > 15 days, no dyspnoea: likely TB. Pulmonary auscultation: bilateral lobar pneumonia?</p> <p>2. If possible: a) Look for AFB in sputum (2 samples) b) Chest x-ray</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pneumocystis: bilateral interstitial infiltrates • Tuberculosis: lobar consolidation, cavitation, pleural effusion, intra-thoracic lymphadenopathy <p>Warning: the classic radiological signs of tuberculosis are not always found in HIV + tuberculosis patients.</p> <p>Notes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • MAC, pneumocystis, CMV and fungal infections are unlikely in patients with a CD4 count > 200 cells/mm³ • Staphylococcal pneumonia is often associated with a pyomyositis or an abscess 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For the diagnosis and treatment of upper respiratory tract infections, particularly pneumonia: see Chapter 2 • If the chest x-ray is consistent with staphylococcal pneumonia: Children: see <i>Staphylococcal pneumonia</i>, page 73 Adults: ceftriaxone IM or slow IV 1 g/day once daily + cloxacillin IV 8 g/day in 4 divided doses • If the sputum examination is AFB+, treat for tuberculosis (no thioacetazone: risk of severe reactions in HIV infected patients) • If the sputum examination is negative and the chest x-ray is consistent with <i>Pneumocystis jiroveci</i> pneumonia: cotrimoxazole PO for 21 days Children: 100 mg SMX + 20 mg TMP/kg/day in 2 divided doses Adults: 4800 SMX + 960 TMP/day in 3 divided doses Note: the symptoms may become worse during the first phase of treatment, effectiveness can only be evaluated after one week of treatment. In cotrimoxazole-allergic patients: Adults: clindamycin PO or IV: 2.4 g/day in 4 doses or injections + primaquine PO: 15 mg once daily for 21 days For either treatment, add prednisolone PO for patients with severe pneumocystosis with hypoxia: Children: start with 2 mg/kg/day then decrease the dose following the adult example Adults: 80 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 5 days, then 40 mg/day for 5 days then 20 mg/day for 10 days <i>Secondary prophylaxis is recommended.</i> • Fungal infections (cryptococcosis, penicilliosis, histoplasmosis): Adults: amphotericin B IV: 0.7 to 1 mg/kg/day for 2 weeks (cryptococcosis, penicilliosis) or one to 2 weeks (histoplasmosis), then: fluconazole PO: 400 mg/day for 8 weeks (cryptococcosis) itraconazole PO: 400 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 10 weeks (penicilliosis) itraconazole PO: 600 mg/day in 3 divided doses for 3 days then 200 to 400 mg/day for 12 weeks (histoplasmosis) <i>Secondary prophylaxis is recommended.</i>

Symptoms	Definitions and aetiologies	Diagnosis	Treatment
Lymphadenopathy	<p>Enlarged lymph nodes in a symptomatic HIV infected patient</p> <p>Persistent generalised lymphadenopathy (PGL):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2 or more extra-inguinal sites • lymph nodes > 1.5 cm • enlarged for 3 or more months <p>PGL is usually due to HIV infection.</p> <p>Aetiologies: HIV infection</p> <p>Infections</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tuberculosis • Syphilis • Histoplasmosis • Toxoplasmosis • CMV <p>Neoplasms</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kaposi's sarcoma • Lymphoma 	<p>1. Clinical examination: look for a local cause (skin or dental infection etc.); TB or syphilis.</p> <p>2. Suspected TB: lymph node aspiration, look for AFB, chest x-ray <i>Note: in HIV infected patients, tuberculosis is often extra-pulmonary.</i></p> <p>3. Suspected syphilis: serology, direct microscopy</p> <p>4. If all examinations are negative: biopsy is useful to exclude lymphoma, Kaposi's sarcoma and fungal or mycobacterial infections (see notes for patients in Stage 1).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Treat according to the aetiology or empirical treatment with, for example cloxacillin or doxycycline PO. - Tuberculosis: see the MSF handbook <i>Tuberculosis</i>. - Early syphilis: benzathine benzylpenicillin IM Adults: 2.4 MIU as a single dose (1.2 MIU in each buttock) <p><i>Note: in patients in Stage 1, no further investigation (other than 1, 2 and 3 in this table) or treatment are required.</i></p>

Symptoms	Definitions and aetiologies	Treatment
Skin lesions (see also Chapter 4)	<p>Bacterial infections</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Furunculosis • Impetigo and pyoderma • Axillary hidradenitis • Pyomyositis • Bacillary angiomatosis • Syphilis <p>Viral infections</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Herpes zoster • Herpes simplex • Genital warts • <i>Molluscum contagiosum</i> <p>Fungal infections Candidiasis, dermatophytoses and deep mycoses (penicilliosis, cryptococcosis, histoplasmosis etc.)</p> <p>Neoplasms Kaposi's sarcoma</p> <p>Other skin infections</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chronic prurigo or urticaria • Severe seborrhoeic dermatitis • Psoriasis • Scabies • Diffuse cutaneous xerosis <p>Rash caused by medication</p> <p>Bed sores</p>	<p>Bacterial infections:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Furunculosis, impetigo, chronic folliculitis: local treatment, +/- cloxacillin PO: see <i>Bacterial skin infections</i>, Chapter 4. • Suppurative axillary hidradenitis: local treatment + doxycycline PO: 200 mg/day in 1 or 2 divided doses for 6 weeks (in adults) • Pyomyositis: antibiotics/surgical drainage, see <i>Pyomyositis</i>, Chapter 10. • Bacillary angiomatosis: Adults: erythromycin PO 2 g/day in 2 or 3 divided doses for 2 months or doxycycline PO 200 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 2 months • Primary and secondary syphilis: see Chapter 9. <p>Viral infections:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Herpes zoster: local treatment and analgesics, see <i>Herpes simplex and herpes zoster</i>, Chapter 4 For necrotic, extensive forms, eruption on the face, ophthalmic zoster, add aciclovir within 48 hours of the onset of lesions: Children (IV route): 15 to 30 mg/kg/day in 3 infusions (every 8 hours) for 7 days Adults (oral route): 800 mg 5 times daily for 7 days • Herpes simplex: local treatment, see <i>Herpes simplex and herpes zoster</i>, Chapter 4. • Genital warts: see Chapter 9. <p>Fungal infections:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Candidiasis: 2% cream miconazole, twice daily • Dermatophytoses: see <i>Superficial fungal infections</i>, Chapter 4. <p>Other skin infections:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prurigo, urticaria: see <i>Other skin disorders</i>, Chapter 4. • Seborrhoeic dermatitis: Whitfield's ointment or ketoconazole or 2% miconazole applied twice daily. For severe inflammation, use a topical corticosteroid in combination with either miconazole or ketoconazole. • Xerosis: zinc oxide ointment or calamine lotion • Psoriasis: corticosteroides and zinc oxide ointment • Scabies: local treatment. For crusted or profuse scabies, add ivermectin PO (see <i>Scabies</i>, Chapter 4).

Symptoms	Definitions and aetiologies	Diagnosis	Treatment
Headache and neurological disorders in adults	<p>Persistent headache that does not respond to usual analgesics in a symptomatic HIV infected patient.</p> <p>Aetiologies:</p> <p>Infections</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tuberculous meningitis • Cryptococcal meningitis • Cerebral toxoplasmosis • Neurosyphilis • CMV encephalitis • HIV encephalopathy • Progressive multifocal leuko-encephalopathy • Cerebral malaria <p>Neoplasms</p> <p>Primary CNS lymphoma</p> <p>Common causes of headache unrelated to HIV infection: sinusitis, problems with accommodation etc. (sometimes more frequent in HIV infected patients)</p> <p>Undesirable effects of medication</p> <p>Some antiretrovirals</p>	<p>History and clinical examination:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Change in mental state • Focal deficits • Seizures • Signs of meningeal irritation • Raised intercranial pressure • Motor problems, ataxia <p>In endemic areas: check for malaria (if febrile): thick and thin films.</p> <p>Lumbar puncture (LP) if not contra-indicated.</p> <p>Elements favouring neurosyphilis:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • VDRL positive in blood and/or CSF • cells in the CSF • high protein in the CSF 	<p>Positive thick and thin films: see <i>Malaria</i>, Chapter 6.</p> <p>For patients with focal signs, treat for toxoplasmosis for 6 weeks: pyrimethamine PO: 200 mg in 2 divided doses on the 1st day, then 75 to 100 mg/day + sulfadiazine PO: 4 to 6 g/day + folinic acid PO: 15 mg/day or, failing that, cotrimoxazole PO at high doses: 50 mg SMX + 10 mg TMP/kg/day in 2 divided doses for 4 weeks <i>A secondary prophylaxis is recommended.</i></p> <p>Positive lumbar puncture:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bacterial meningitis: see Chapter 7 • Tuberculous meningitis: see the MSF handbook <i>Tuberculosis</i>. • Cryptococcal meningitis: amphotericin B IV: 0.7-1 mg/kg/d + flucytosine PO: 100 mg/kg/d for 2 weeks then fluconazole PO: 400-800 mg/d for 8 weeks or amphotericin B IV: 0.7-1 mg/kg/d + fluconazole PO: 800 mg/d for 2 weeks then fluconazole PO alone: 400-800 mg/d for 8 weeks or, as a third option, fluconazole PO: 1200 mg/d for 2 weeks then 800 mg/d for 8 weeks During the induction phase: fluconazole is given by IV route (same doses) if the patient cannot take oral treatment; liposomal amphotericin B (3 to 4 mg/kg/d, 2 weeks) may be used instead of conventional amphotericin B. <i>A secondary prophylaxis is recommended.</i> <p><i>Note:</i> intracranial pressure (ICP) is often raised in cryptococcal meningitis. To lower ICP, repeated punctures to drain CSF may be necessary at the beginning of treatment.</p> <p>Neurosyphilis: benzylpenicillin IV: 12 to 24 MIU/day in 6 injections at 4 hour intervals for 14 days or benzylpenicillin procaine IM: 2.4 g once daily + probenecid PO: 2 g/day in 4 divided doses for 10 to 14 days</p> <p>Headache of no known origin: symptomatic treatment starting with a step 1 analgesic (see <i>Pain</i>, chapter 1).</p>

Symptoms	Definitions and aetiologies	Diagnosis	Treatment
Neurological disorders in children	<p>Aetiologies:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bacterial meningitis • Tuberculous meningitis • Cryptococcal meningitis • Cerebral toxoplasmosis • CMV meningo-encephalitis • Cerebral malaria 	<p>Good history taking as only patients with acute episodes benefit from specific aetiological treatment (seizures, meningeal syndrome, focal signs).</p> <p>In endemic areas, check for malaria (if febrile): thick and thin films.</p> <p>Lumbar puncture (LP) if not contra-indicated.</p>	<p>Positive thick and thin films: see <i>Malaria</i>, Chapter 6.</p> <p>If LP is not possible:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Treat for bacterial meningitis if patient febrile and/or meningeal syndrome (see Chapter 7). • Treat for toxoplasmosis if focal signs present: pyrimethamine PO: 2 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses for 2 days then 1 mg/kg/day + sulfadiazine PO: 80 mg/kg/d in 2 divided doses + folinic acid PO: 10 mg once daily for 8 weeks or, failing that, cotrimoxazole PO at high doses: 100 mg SMX + 20 mg TMP/kg/day in 2 divided doses for 4 weeks <i>A secondary prophylaxis is recommended.</i> <p>If the LP is positive:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bacterial meningitis: see Chapter 7 • Tuberculous meningitis: see the MSF handbook <i>Tuberculosis</i>. • Cryptococcal meningitis: amphotericin B IV: 0.7-1 mg/kg/d + flucytosine PO: 100 mg/kg/d for 2 weeks then fluconazole PO: 6-12 mg/kg/d (max. 800 mg/d) for 8 weeks or amphotericin B IV: 0.7-1 mg/kg/d + fluconazole PO: 12 mg/kg/d (max. 800 mg/d) for 2 weeks then fluconazole PO alone: 6-12 mg/kg/d for 8 weeks or, as a third option, fluconazole PO: 12 mg/kg/d (max. 1200 mg/d) for 2 weeks then 12 mg/kg/d (max. 800 mg/d) for 8 weeks During the induction phase: fluconazole is given by IV route (same doses) if the child cannot take oral treatment; conventional amphotericin B may be replaced by liposomal amphotericin B (3 to 4 mg/kg/d, 2 weeks). <i>A secondary prophylaxis is recommended.</i>

Symptoms	Definitions and aetiologies	Diagnosis	Treatment
Persistent or recurrent fever	<p>Temperature higher than 38°C, chronic (lasting more than 5 days) or recurrent (multiple episodes in a period of more than 5 days)</p> <p>Aetiologies:</p> <p>Infections</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Common childhood diseases • Severe bacterial infections (TB, pneumonia, typhoid fever, septicaemia, meningitis, endocarditis etc.) • Occult bacterial infections (sinusitis, otitis, urinary tract infections) • Opportunistic infections (TB, mycosis, toxoplasmosis) • Malaria <p>Neoplasms Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma</p> <p>HIV infection</p> <p>Fever caused by medication</p>	<p>1. History and clinical examination: look for a ENT or urinary infection, TB, skin infection, enlarged lymph nodes etc.</p> <p>2. In endemic areas, check for malaria: thick and thin films.</p> <p>3. Suspected TB: look for AFB.</p> <p>4. Chest x-ray, CBC, blood cultures, urinalysis, stool culture, serology, lumbar puncture (LP).</p> <p>If the patient is under treatment, think of a fever caused by secondary effects of medication.</p>	<p>Positive thick and thin films: see <i>Malaria</i>, Chapter 6. If testing is not available: in endemic zones, give systematic malaria treatment.</p> <p>Suspected meningitis: treat according to the results of the LP. If LP is not available, treat for bacterial meningitis, see Chapter 7.</p> <p>Identified or suspected focus of infection: ENT: see Chapter 2; urinary: see Chapter 9 etc. Tuberculosis: see the MSF handbook <i>Tuberculosis</i>.</p>

CHAPTER 9

Genito-urinary diseases

Uro-nephrologic diseases	
Urolithiasis	223
Acute cystitis	224
Acute pyelonephritis	226
Acute prostatitis	228
 Genital infections (GI)	229
Urethral discharge	231
Abnormal vaginal discharge	233
Genital ulcers	236
Lower abdominal pain in women	239
Upper genital tract infections (UGTI)	240
Veneral warts	243
Major genital infections (summary)	244
 Metrorrhagia	246

Urolithiasis

Partial or complete obstruction of the urinary tract by one or more calculi.

Clinical features

- Acute, sometimes intense, flank or pelvic pain (renal colic).
- Haematuria, may be accompanied by the passage of a calculus.
- Urinalysis: haematuria, leucocyturia may be present.
- Secondary infections may develop: cystitis (see page 224) or pyelonephritis (see page 226).

Treatment

- Increase fluid intake: 3 to 4 litres/day
- Analgesics:
 - For moderate pain:
diclofenac PO: 150 mg/day in 3 divided doses for 3 days
+ **hyoscine butylbromide** PO: 30 to 60 mg/day in 3 divided doses for 3 days
 - For renal colic:
diclofenac IM: 75 mg/injection, 1 or 2 times/day for a maximum of 2 days then change to oral treatment
+ **hyoscine butylbromide** IM: 10 to 20 mg/injection to be repeated every 8 hours according to the clinical evolution
- In patients with infection: antibiotic treatment as for pyelonephritis (see page 226). The effectiveness will depend on the passage of the calculus.

Acute cystitis

Cystitis is an infection of the bladder and urethra that affects mainly women and girls from 2 years of age. *Escherichia coli* is the causative pathogen in 70 to 95% of cases. Other pathogens include *Proteus mirabilis*, enterococcus, *Klebsiella* spp and in young women, *S. saprophyticus*.

Clinical features

- Burning pain on urination and pollakiuria (passing of small quantities of urine more frequently than normal); in children: crying when passing urine; involuntary loss of urine.

AND

- No fever (or mild fever), no flank pain; no systemic signs and symptoms in children

It is essential to rule out pyelonephritis (see page 226).

The symptom 'burning pain on urination' alone is insufficient to make the diagnosis. In the event of abnormal vaginal discharge, see page 233.

Laboratory

- Urine dipstick test:
Perform dipstick analysis for nitrites (which indicate the presence of enterobacteria) and leukocytes (which indicate an inflammation) in the urine.
 - If dipstick analysis is negative for both nitrites and leukocytes, a urinary infection is excluded.
 - If dipstick analysis is positive for nitrites and/or leukocytes, a urinary infection is likely.
- Microscopy / culture: when a dipstick analysis is positive, it is recommended to carry out urine microscopy / culture in order to confirm the infection and identify the causative pathogen, particularly in children and pregnant women.

When urine microscopy is not feasible, an empirical antibiotic treatment should be administered to patients with typical signs of cystitis and positive dipstick urinalysis (leucocytes and/or nitrites).

Note: aside of these results, in areas where urinary schistosomiasis is endemic, consider schistosomiasis in patients with macroscopic haematuria or microscopic haematuria detected by dipstick test, especially in children from 5 to 15 years, even if the patient may suffer from concomitant bacterial cystitis.

Treatment

Cystitis in girls ≥ 2 years

cefixime PO: 8 mg/kg once daily for 3 days

or **amoxicillin/clavulanic acid** PO (dose expressed in amoxicillin) 25 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses (with formulation 8:1 or 7:1 or 4:1)

Note: the dose of clavulanic acid should not exceed 12.5 mg/kg/day (or 375 mg/day).

Cystitis in non pregnant women

- If dipstick analysis is positive for both nitrites and leukocytes:
fosfomycin-trometamine PO: 3 g as a single dose
 or **ciprofloxacin** PO: 500 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 3 days
 or **nitrofurantoin** PO (except in patients with G6PD deficiency): 300 mg/day in 3 divided doses for 5 days
- If dipstick analysis is negative for nitrites but positive for leukocytes, the infection may be due to *S. saprophyticus*. Fosfomycin is not active against this pathogen. Use ciprofloxacin or nitrofurantoin, as above.
- Whatever the antibiotic used, symptoms may persist for 2 to 3 days despite adequate treatment.
- In the event of treatment failure (or recurrent cystitis i.e. > 3 -4 episodes/year), **ciprofloxacin** PO: 1 g/day in 2 divided doses for 5 days
- For patients with recurrent cystitis, consider bladder stones, urinary schistosomiasis, urinary tuberculosis or gonorrhoea (examine the partner).

Cystitis in pregnant or lactating women

fosfomycine-tromethamine PO as above

or **cefixime** PO: 400 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 5 days

or **nitrofurantoin** PO (except in the last month of pregnancy, the first month of breast-feeding and in patients with G6PD deficiency): 300 mg/day in 3 divided doses for 5 to 7 days

Acute pyelonephritis

Pyelonephritis is an acute infection of the renal parenchyma, potentially severe, especially in pregnant women, neonates and infants. The pathogens causing pyelonephritis are the same as those causing cystitis (see page 224).

Clinical features

Neonates and infants

- Symptoms are not specific: fever, irritability, vomiting, poor oral intake. Palpation of the lower abdomen may show abdominal tenderness. The absence of fever does not rule out the diagnosis. On the other hand, fever –with no obvious cause– may be the only manifestation.
- Neonates may present with fever or hypothermia, altered general condition, altered conscious state, pale/grey colour, shock.

In practice, a urinary tract infection should be suspected in children with unexplained fever or septic syndrome with no obvious focus of infection.

Older children and adults

- Signs of cystitis (burning on urination and pollakiuria, etc.)
AND
- Fever $> 38.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ and flank pain (often unilateral) or abdominal tenderness

Laboratory

See *Cystitis* page 224

Treatment

- Antibiotic therapy in children
 - *Children under one month*
cefotaxime IV: 150 mg/kg/day in 3 injections for 10 days
or **ampicillin** IV: 200 mg/kg/day in 3 injections for 10 days + **gentamicin** IM or IV: 5 mg/kg once daily for 5 days
 - *Children over one month*
ceftriaxone IM or IV: 50 mg/kg once daily until the child's condition improves (at least 3 days), then change to oral treatment with:
amoxicillin/clavulanic acid PO (dose expressed in amoxicillin):
Children < 40 kg: 45 to 50 mg/kg/day in 2 doses (if using ratio 8:1 or 7:1) or in 3 doses (if using ratio 4:1)
Children ≥ 40 kg: 1500 to 2000 mg/day in 2 doses (if using ratio 8:1 or 7:1) or in 3 doses (if using ratio 4:1)
Note: the dose of clavulanic acid should not exceed 12.5 mg/kg/day or 375 mg/day.

- Antibiotic therapy in adults
 - *Pyelonephritis with no signs of serious illness*
ciprofloxacin PO: 1 to 1.5 g/day in 2 or 3 divided doses for 7 days
or **cefixime** PO: 400 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 10 days
 - *Presence of signs of serious illness* (vomiting, patient seen late in disease, sepsis) or *patient is in poor general condition* (e.g. malnutrition, presence of other diseases)
ceftriaxone IM: 1 g/once daily for at least 3 days, then change to oral treatment with **cefixime** PO: 400 mg/day in 2 divided doses to complete 10 to 14 days of treatment (up to 21 days depending on clinical response)
+ **gentamicin** IM: 3 to 6 mg/kg once daily for 3 days (if sepsis)
or, if not available:
ampicillin IV: 8 g/day in 3 injections for at least 3 days + **gentamicin** IM: 3 to 6 mg/kg once daily for 3 days, then change to oral treatment with **amoxicillin** PO: 4 g/day in 2 divided doses to complete 10 to 14 days of treatment
- Treatment of fever and pain (use paracetamol rather than NSAID, see page 26).
- Maintain proper hydration (1.5 litre/day in adults), especially in children (risk of dehydration); treat dehydration if present (see page 315 to 321).
- Management of septic shock if needed.

Acute prostatitis

Acute infection of the prostate, most commonly due to Gram negative bacteria.

Clinical features

- Signs of cystitis (burning on urination and urinary frequency) with fever in men, perineal pain is common.
- Very painful rectal examination.
- Urinalysis: leucocyturia and pyuria; haematuria may be present.

Treatment

Difficult, the infection may become chronic.

- Increase fluid intake: 3 to 4 litres / day
- Fever (see page 26) and pain (see page 29)
- Prolonged antibiotic treatment:
ciprofloxacin PO: 1 g / day in 2 divided doses for 28 days

Genital infections (GI)

The diagnosis and treatment of genital infections present several difficulties: clinical features are not specific; many infections are asymptomatic; laboratory tests available in the field are not always reliable; mixed infections are common; partners need to be treated simultaneously in case of sexually transmitted infections¹ and the risk of recurrence or treatment failure is increased in HIV-infected patients.

Thus, the WHO has introduced the syndromic management of GI and developed standardised case management flowcharts: based on the identification of consistent groups of signs and symptoms (syndromes), patients are treated for the pathogens/infections² that may cause each syndrome.

Look for a genital infection if a patient complains of:	See
Urethral discharge Painful or difficult urination (dysuria)	Urethral discharge, page 231
Abnormal vaginal discharge Vulvar itching/burning Pain with intercourse (dyspareunia) Painful or difficult urination (dysuria)	Abnormal vaginal discharge, page 233
Genital blisters or sores Burning sensation in the vulva or perineum	Genital ulcers, page 236
Skin growths in the genital (or anal) area	Venereal warts, page 243
Lower abdominal pain (in women)	Lower abdominal pain, page 239 Upper genital tract infections, page 240

Basic principles of GI management:

- The patient can be effectively treated without laboratory testing. Some tests may help in diagnosing vaginal and urethral discharge, but they should never delay treatment (results should be available within one hour).
- The patient should be treated at his/her first encounter with the health care provider (no patient should be sent home without treatment, e.g. while waiting for laboratory results).
- Single dose regimens are preferred when indicated.
- In the case of urethral discharge, abnormal vaginal discharge (except candidiasis), genital ulcers (except herpes) and sexually transmitted upper genital tract infection, the sexual partner should receive a treatment. In the case of candidiasis, genital herpes and venereal warts, the partner is treated only if symptomatic.
- Patients with sexually transmitted infections should receive information on their disease(s) and treatment and be counselled on risk reduction and HIV testing. Condoms should be provided for the duration of treatment.

¹ Genital infections may be sexually transmitted (e.g. gonorrhoea, chlamydia) or not (e.g. most cases of candidiasis).

² Keep in mind that in *Schistosoma haematobium* endemic areas, genital symptoms may also be due to, or associated with, genitourinary schistosomiasis (see page 151).

Special situation: sexual violence

Taking into consideration the physical, psychological, legal and social consequences of sexual violence, *medical care* is not limited to the diagnosis and treatment of genital lesions or infections.

Care includes listening to the victim's story, a complete physical examination, laboratory tests if available, and completion of a medical certificate (see *Practical advice for writing medical certificates in the event of sexual violence*, page 312).

During the consultation, prophylactic or curative treatments must be proposed to the patient.

– Prophylactic treatment:

- priority is given to the risk of HIV transmission (earliest possible antiviral therapy for patients seen within 48-72 hours after exposure, see *HIV infection and AIDS*, page 207) and to the risk of pregnancy resulting from rape (administer emergency contraception as soon as possible, ideally within 72 hours of exposure: **levonorgestrel** PO: one 1500 µg tablet or two 750 µg tablets as a single dose)³;
- prevention of sexually transmitted infections includes a single dose treatment with azithromycin 1 g + cefixime 400 mg. If necessary, treatment of trichomoniasis may follow;
- tetanus prophylaxis and/or vaccination (see *Tetanus*, page 170) if there are any wounds;
- vaccination against hepatitis B (see *Viral hepatitis, accelerated vaccination schedule*, page 200).

– Curative treatment:

- of wounds,
- of any related pathologies/infections if the assault is not recent.

Mental health care is necessary irrespective of any delay between the event and the patient arriving for a consultation. Care is based on immediate attention (one-on-one reception and listening) and if necessary, follow-up care with a view to detecting and treating any psychological and/or psychiatric sequelae (anxiety, depression, post-traumatic stress disorder, etc.). See Chapter 11.

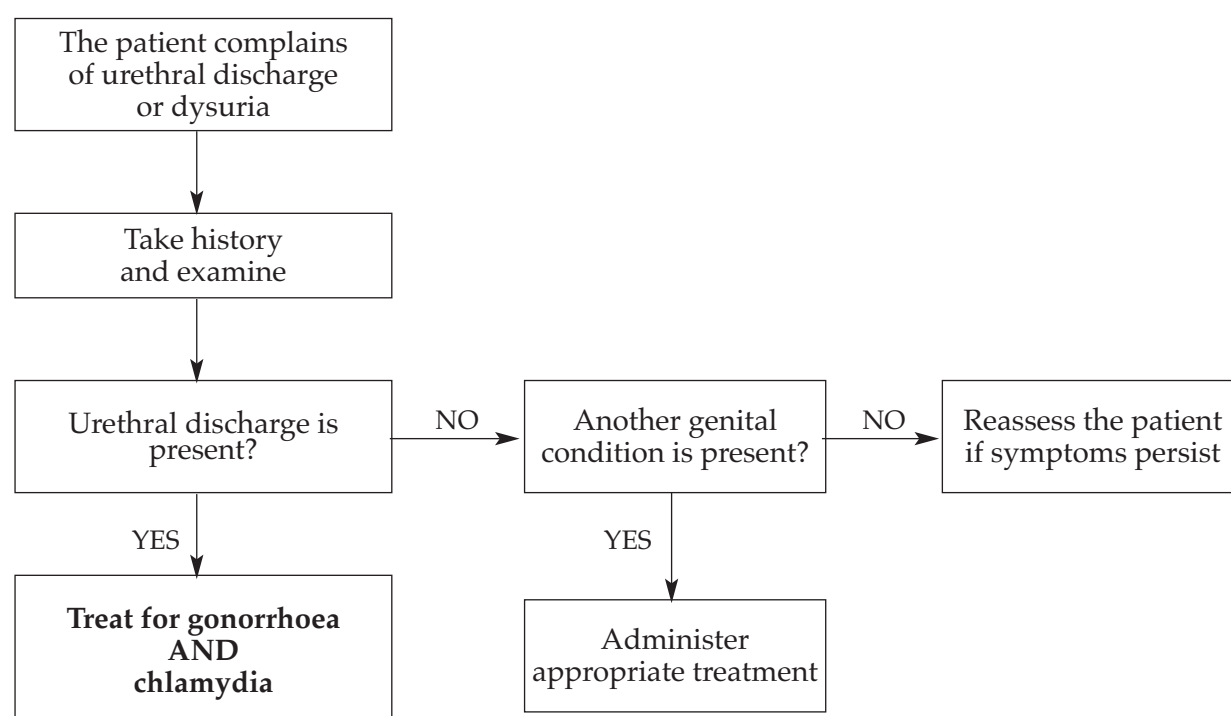
³ Genital infections may be sexually transmitted (e.g. gonorrhoea, chlamydia) or not (e.g. most cases of candidiasis).

Urethral discharge

Urethral discharge is seen almost exclusively in men. The principal causative organisms are *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* (gonorrhoea) and *Chlamydia trachomatis* (chlamydia).

The presence of abnormal discharge should be confirmed by performing a clinical examination¹. In males, the urethra should be milked gently if no discharge is visible. Furthermore, specifically check for urethral discharge in patients complaining of painful or difficult urination (dysuria).

Case management



Laboratory

- *C. trachomatis* cannot easily be identified in a field laboratory. In the absence of validated rapid diagnostic tests, the treatment is empiric.
- In men, a methylene blue or Gram stained smear from a urethral swab may be used to detect gonococci (Gram negative intracellular diplococci).

¹ In areas where lymphatic filariasis is endemic, be careful not to confuse purulent urethral discharge with milky or rice-water urine (chyluria) suggestive of lymphatic filariasis.

Treatment of the patient

- In men:
 - If microscopy of a urethral smear has been performed: in the absence of gonococci, treat for chlamydia alone; in the presence of gonococci, treat for chlamydia AND gonorrhoea.
 - When no laboratory is available, treat for chlamydia AND gonorrhoea.
- In women:
 - Treat for chlamydia AND gonorrhoea.

Men and non-pregnant women		
Treatment for chlamydia		Treatment for gonorrhoea
azithromycin PO: 1 g as a single dose or doxycycline PO: 200 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 7 days	PLUS	cefixime PO: 400 mg as a single dose or ceftriaxone IM: 250 mg as a single dose or spectinomycin IM: 2 g as a single dose
Pregnant women		
azithromycin PO: 1 g as a single dose or erythromycin PO: 2 g/day in 2 or 4 divided doses for 7 days	PLUS	cefixime PO: 400 mg as a single dose or ceftriaxone IM: 250 mg as a single dose

If urethral discharge persists or reappears after 7 days:

- Verify that the patient has received an effective treatment (i.e. one of the combinations above).
- Gonococcal resistance is a possibility if another treatment (e.g. cotrimoxazole or kanamycin) has been administered: re-treat for gonorrhoea as above (chlamydia is rarely resistant).
- If an effective antibiotic therapy has been given, consider trichomoniasis (**tinidazole** or **metronidazole** PO, 2 g as a single dose); also consider re-infection.

Treatment of the partner

The sexual partner receives the same treatment as the patient, whether or not symptoms are present.

Abnormal vaginal discharge

Abnormal vaginal discharge is defined as discharge that differs from usual with respect to colour / odour / consistency (e.g. discoloured or purulent or malodorous).

Abnormal discharge is often associated with vulvar pruritus or pain with intercourse (dyspareunia), or painful or difficult urination (dysuria) or lower abdominal pain. Routinely check for abnormal vaginal discharge in women presenting with these symptoms.

Abnormal vaginal discharge may be a sign of infection of the vagina (vaginitis) and / or the cervix (cervicitis) or upper genital tract infection.

The presence of abnormal discharge must be confirmed by performing a clinical examination: inspection of the vulva, speculum exam (checking for cervical / vaginal inflammation or discharge).

Abdominal and bimanual pelvic examinations should be performed routinely in all women presenting with vaginal discharge to rule out upper genital tract infection (lower abdominal pain and cervical motion tenderness).

The principal causative organisms are:

- In vaginitis: *Gardnerella vaginalis* and other bacteria (bacterial vaginosis), *Trichomonas vaginalis* (trichomoniasis) and *Candida albicans* (candidiasis).
- In cervicitis: *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* (gonorrhoea) and *Chlamydia trachomatis* (chlamydia).
- In upper genital tract infections: see page 240.

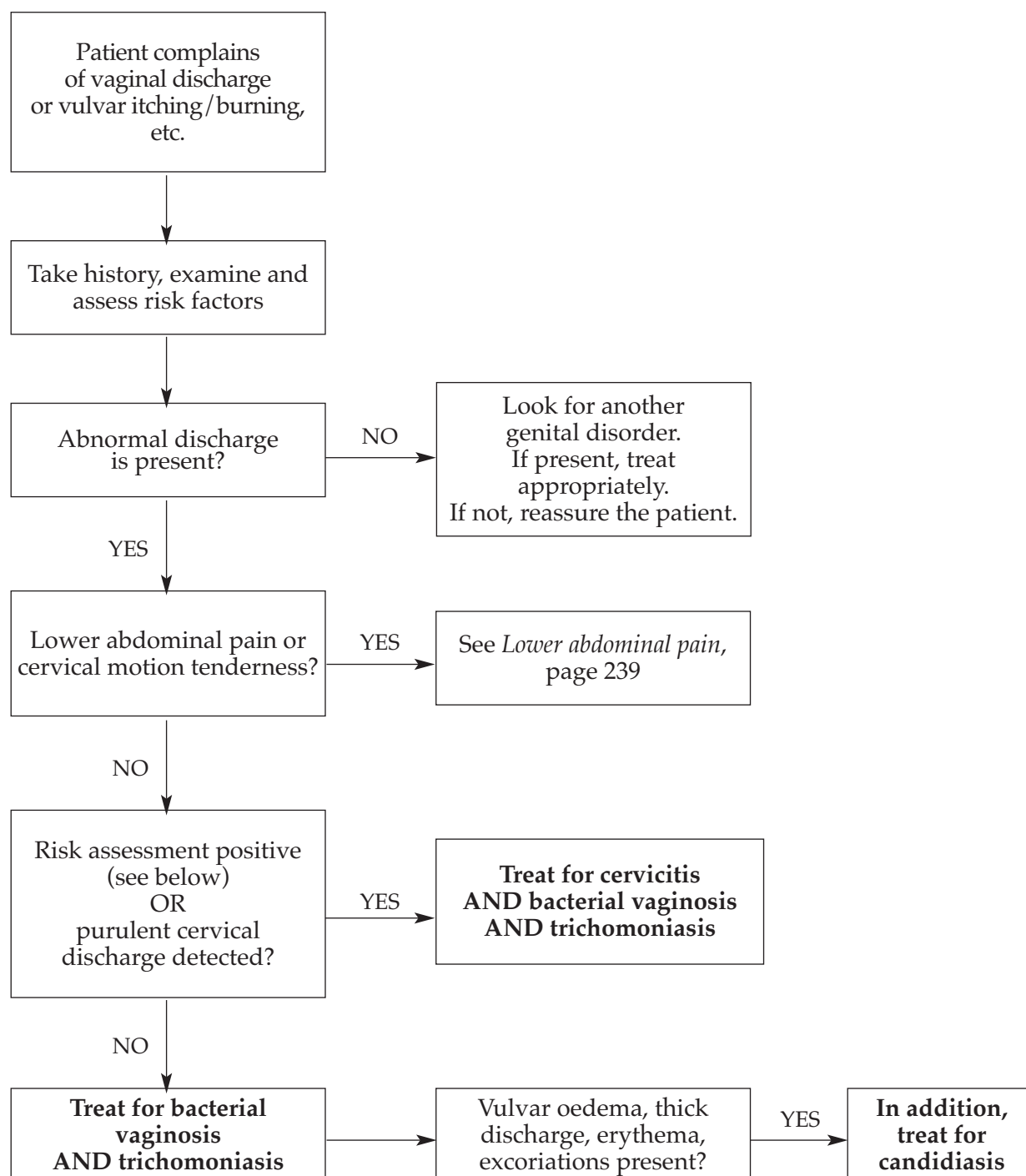
Case management

See algorithm, following page.

Laboratory

- Tests usually available in the field can only identify causes of vaginitis, and thus are of limited usefulness.
Microscopic examination of a fresh wet smear may show mobile *T. vaginalis*, yeast cells and hyphae in candidiasis, and “clue cells” in bacterial vaginosis.
- Identification of *N. gonorrhoeae* by Gram stained smear is not sensitive in women and is not recommended.

Case management



Cervicitis may be difficult to diagnose. When in doubt, administer treatment for cervicitis to women with abnormal vaginal discharge and any of the following risk factors:

- Urethral discharge in the partner
- Context of sexual violence or prostitution
- New partner or more than one partner in the preceding 3 months

Treatment of the patient

– Cervicitis

Treat for both chlamydia AND gonorrhoea.

Non-pregnant women		
Treatment for chlamydia		Treatment for gonorrhoea
azithromycin PO: 1 g as a single dose or doxycycline PO: 200 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 7 days	PLUS	cefixime PO: 400 mg as a single dose or ceftriaxone IM: 250 mg as a single dose or spectinomycin IM: 2 g as a single dose
Pregnant women		
azithromycin PO: 1 g as a single dose or erythromycin PO: 2 g/day in 2 or 4 divided doses for 7 days	PLUS	cefixime PO: 400 mg as a single dose or ceftriaxone IM: 250 mg as a single dose

– Bacterial vaginosis and trichomoniasis

tinidazole PO: 2 g as a single dose
or **metronidazole** PO: 2 g as a single dose

In the case of treatment failure:

tinidazole PO: 1 g/day in 2 divided doses for 5 days
or **metronidazole** PO: 800 to 1000 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 7 days

– Vulvovaginal candidiasis

clotrimazole (500 mg vaginal tablet): 1 tablet as a single dose, inserted deep into the vagina at bedtime

or, if not available,

clotrimazole (100 mg vaginal tablet): one tablet inserted deep into the vagina at bedtime for 6 days

or **nystatin** (100,000 IU vaginal tablet): one tablet inserted deep into the vagina at bedtime for 14 days

If the patient has extensive vulvar involvement, **miconazole 2%** cream (2 applications to the vulva daily for 7 days) may be used in combination with the intravaginal treatment above. Miconazole cream may complement, but does not replace, treatment with clotrimazole.

Treatment of the partner

When the patient is treated for vaginitis or cervicitis, the sexual partner receives the same treatment as the patient, whether or not symptoms are present.

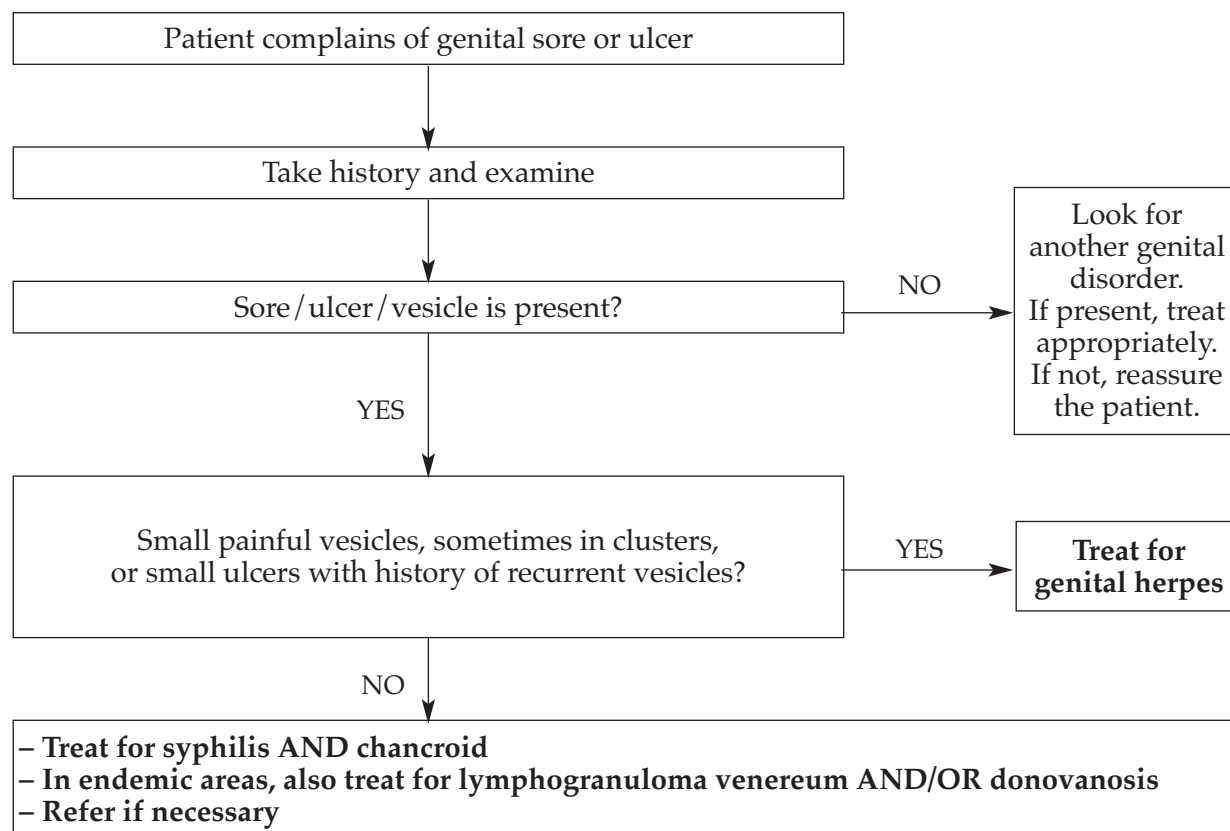
In the case of vulvovaginal candidiasis, the partner is treated only if symptomatic (itching and redness of the glans/prepuce): **miconazole 2%**, 2 applications daily for 7 days.

Genital ulcers

Genital ulcers, defined as single or multiple vesicular, ulcerative or erosive lesions of the genital tract, with or without inguinal lymphadenopathy, should lead to consideration of sexually transmitted infection.

The principal causative organisms are *Treponema pallidum* (syphilis), *Haemophilus ducreyi* (chancroid) and *Herpes simplex* (genital herpes). *Chlamydia trachomatis* (lymphogranuloma venereum) and *Calymmatobacterium granulomatis* (donovanosis)¹ are less frequent.

Case management



Laboratory

Laboratory testing available in the field is of little value: e.g., in syphilis, a negative RPR or VDRL result does not exclude primary syphilis in early stage, and a positive test may reflect previous infection in a successfully treated patient.

¹ Lymphogranuloma venereum is endemic in East and West Africa, India, Southeast Asia, South America and the Caribbean. Donovanosis is endemic in South Africa, Papua New Guinea, India, Brazil and the Caribbean.

Treatment of the patient

– Genital herpes

- Local treatment: clean the area with soap and water, **0.5% gentian violet** can be applied for 5 days.
- Antiviral treatment: **aciclovir** PO
In patients with a first episode, treatment may reduce the duration of symptom when given within 5 days after the onset of symptoms: 1200 mg/day in 3 divided doses for 7 days
In patients with recurrence, give the same dose for 5 days, but treatment is only effective if initiated during the prodromal phase or within 24 hours after the onset of symptoms.
In patients with frequent recurrences (more than 6 episodes/year), see *HIV infection and AIDS*, page 212.
- Treatment of pain: paracetamol PO

– Syphilis

benzathine benzylpenicillin IM: 2.4 MUI/injection (half the dose in each buttock). Administer a single dose for early syphilis (less than 2 years); one injection per week for 3 weeks for late syphilis (more than 2 years) or if the duration of infection is unknown.

or, for penicillin-allergic patients:

doxycycline PO: 200 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 14 days²

or

erythromycin PO: 2 g/day in 2 or 4 divided doses for 14 days

– Chancroid

azithromycin PO: 1 g as a single dose

or

ceftriaxone IM: 250 mg as a single dose

or

ciprofloxacin PO: 1 g/day in 2 divided doses for 3 days³

or

erythromycin PO: 2 g/day in 2 or 4 divided doses for 7 days

Fluctuant lymph nodes may be aspirated through healthy skin as required. Do not incise and drain lymph nodes.

Note: treat simultaneously for syphilis AND chancroid as both are frequent, and cannot be correctly distinguished on clinical grounds.

– Lymphogranuloma venereum

doxycycline PO: 200 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 14 days²

or

erythromycin PO: 2 g/day in 2 or 4 divided doses for 14 days

Fluctuant lymph nodes may be aspirated through healthy skin as required. Do not incise and drain lymph nodes.

² Doxycycline is contra-indicated in pregnant women and breast-feeding women.

³ Ciprofloxacin should be avoided in pregnant women.

– **Donovanosis**

Treatment is given for a minimum of 14 days, longer if necessary, until the complete disappearance of the lesions (otherwise risk of recurrence):

azithromycin PO: 1 g the first day then, 500 mg once daily

or

doxycycline PO: 200 mg/day in 2 divided doses⁴

or

erythromycin PO: 2 g/day in 2 or 4 divided doses

In HIV infected patients, add **gentamicin** IM: 3 to 6 mg/kg/day in 1 or 2 injections.

Treatment of the partner

The sexual partner receives the same treatment as the patient, whether or not symptoms are present, except in the case of genital herpes (the partner is treated only if symptomatic).

⁴ Doxycycline is contra-indicated in pregnant women and breast-feeding women.

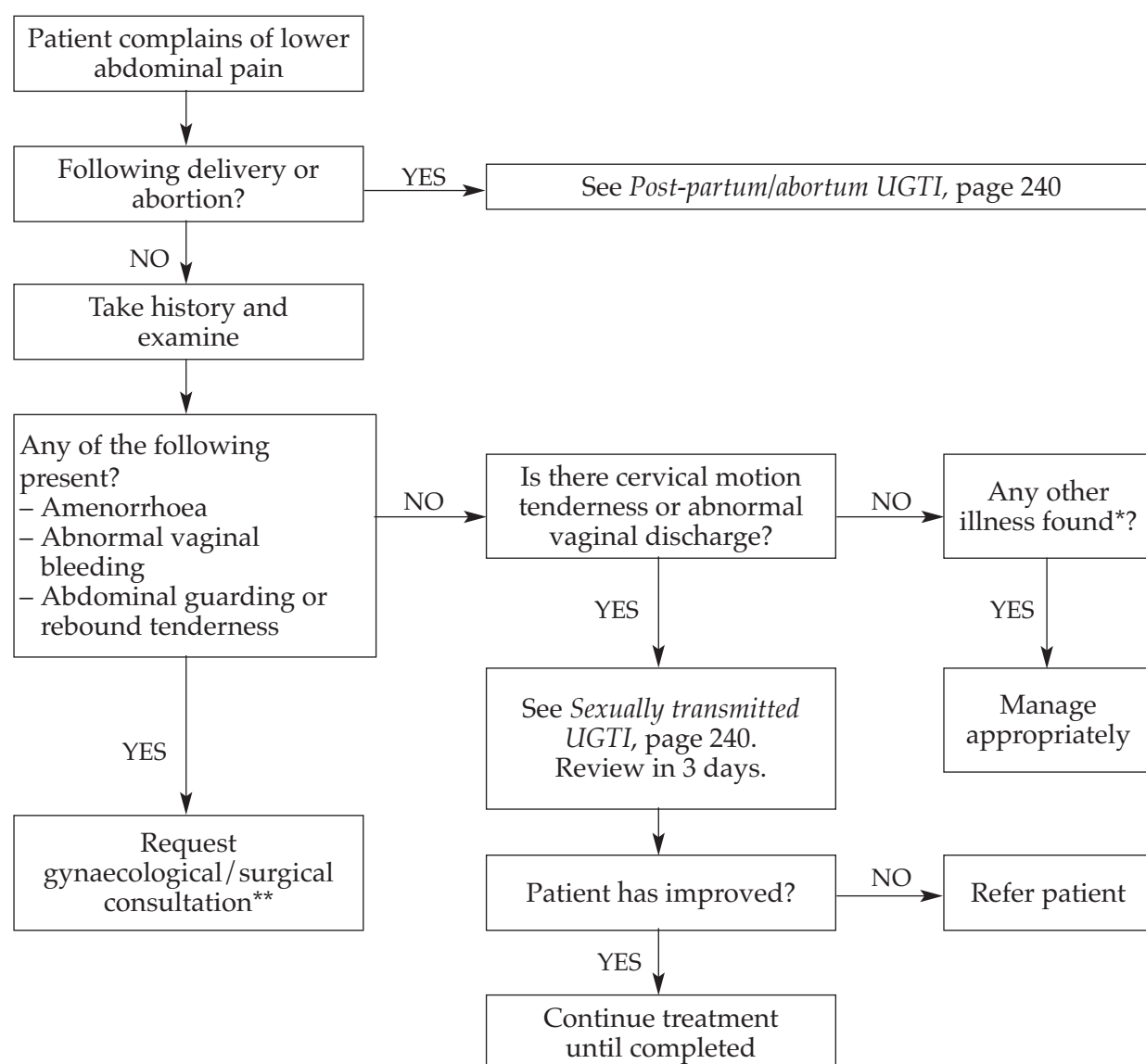
Lower abdominal pain in women

Upper genital tract infection (see page 240) should be suspected in women with lower abdominal pain.

Gynaecological examination should be routinely performed:

- Inspection of the vulva, speculum examination: check for purulent discharge or inflammation,
- and
- Abdominal exam and bimanual pelvic exam: check for pain on mobilising the cervix.

Case management



* Look for another cause (in particular, gastrointestinal or urinary pathology).

** Look for a pregnancy related pathology (threatened abortion, extra-uterine pregnancy) or a complication (peritonitis, pelvic abscess).

Upper genital tract infections (UGTI)

Upper genital tract infections are bacterial infections of the uterus (endometritis) and/or the fallopian tubes (salpingitis), which may be complicated by peritonitis, pelvic abscess or septicaemia.

UGTI may be sexually transmitted or arise after childbirth or abortion. Antibiotic choices are directed by the most common pathogens in each scenario.

If peritonitis or pelvic abscess is suspected, request a surgical opinion while initiating antibiotic therapy.

Clinical features

Sexually transmitted infections

Diagnosis may be difficult, as clinical presentation is variable.

- Suggestive symptoms are: abdominal pain, abnormal vaginal discharge, fever, dyspareunia, menometrorrhagia, dysuria.
- Infection is probable when one or more of the above symptoms are associated with one or more of the following signs: cervical motion tenderness, adnexal tenderness, tender abdominal mass.

Infections after childbirth or abortion

- Most cases present with a typical clinical picture, developing within 2 to 10 days after delivery (caesarean section or vaginal delivery) or abortion (spontaneous or induced):
 - Fever, generally high
 - Abdominal or pelvic pain
 - Malodorous or purulent lochia
 - Enlarged, soft and/or tender uterus
- Check for retained placenta.
- In the early stages, fever may be absent or moderate and abdominal pain may be mild.

Treatment

- Criteria for hospitalisation include:
 - Clinical suspicion of severe or complicated infection (e.g. peritonitis, abscess, septicaemia)
 - Diagnostic uncertainty (e.g. suspicion of extra-uterine pregnancy, appendicitis)
 - Significant obstacles to ambulatory oral treatment
 - No improvement after 48 hours, or deterioration within 48 hours, of outpatient treatment
- All other patients may be treated on an ambulatory basis. They should be reassessed routinely on the third day of treatment to evaluate clinical improvement (decrease in pain, absence of fever). If it is difficult to organise routine follow-up, advise patients to return to clinic if there is no improvement after 48 hours of treatment, or sooner if their condition is worsening.

Sexually transmitted infections

- Antibiotic therapy combines 3 antibiotics to cover the most frequent causative organisms: gonococci, chlamydiae, and anaerobes.
 - Ambulatory treatment:
 - cefixime** PO: 400 mg as a single dose or **ceftriaxone** IM: 250 mg as a single dose
 - + **doxycycline** PO: 200 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 14 days¹
 - + **metronidazole** PO: 1 g/day in 2 divided doses for 14 days
 - Treatment in hospital:
 - ceftriaxone** IM: 250 mg/day once daily
 - + **doxycycline** PO: 200 mg/day in 2 divided doses for 14 days¹
 - + **metronidazole** PO or IV: 1 g/day in 2 divided doses or infusions for 14 days
 Continue triple therapy for 24 to 48 hours after signs and symptoms have improved (resolution of fever, decrease in pain), then continue doxycycline (or erythromycin) + metronidazole to complete 14 days of treatment.
- If an IUD is in place, it should be removed (offer another method of contraception).
- Analgesic treatment according to pain intensity.
- Treatment of the partner: single dose treatment for both gonorrhoea AND chlamydia (as for *Urethral discharge*, page 231), whether or not symptoms are present.

Infections after childbirth or abortion

- Antibiotic therapy: treatment must cover the most frequent causative organisms: anaerobes, Gram negatives and streptococci.
 - Ambulatory treatment (early stages only):
 - amoxicillin/clavulanic acid (co-amoxiclav)** PO for 7 days
 - The dose is expressed in amoxicillin. Depending on the formulation of co-amoxiclav available:
 - Ratio 8:1: 3000 mg/day = 2 tablets of 500/62.5 mg 3 times per day
 - Ratio 7:1: 2625 mg/day = 1 tablet of 875/125 mg 3 times per day
 - Note: the dose of clavulanic acid should not exceed 375 mg/day.
 - or
 - amoxicillin** PO: 3 g/day in 3 divided doses + **metronidazole** PO: 1.5 g/day in 3 divided doses for 7 days
 - Treatment in hospital:
 - amoxicillin/clavulanic acid (co-amoxiclav)** IV (dose expressed in amoxicillin):
 - 3 g/day in 3 injections + **gentamicin** IM: 5 mg/kg once daily
 - or
 - ampicillin** IV: 6 g/day in 3 injections
 - + **metronidazole** IV: 1.5 g/day in 3 infusions
 - + **gentamicin** IM: 5 mg/kg once daily
 Once the patient's condition has improved and oral treatment can be tolerated, co-amoxiclav or amoxicillin + metronidazole may be given PO (as for ambulatory treatment). Stop antibiotic therapy 48 hours after resolution of fever and improvement in pain.

¹ In pregnant/breastfeeding women: **erythromycin** PO: 2 g/day in 2 to 4 divided doses for 14 days
Single dose azithromycin is not effective against chlamydia in the treatment of sexually transmitted UGTI.

In penicillin-allergic patients, use **clindamycin** (2700 mg/day in 3 divided doses or injections) + **gentamicin** (5 mg/kg once daily).

- In case of placental retention: perform digital curettage or manual vacuum extraction (refer to the MSF handbook *Obstetrics*) 24 hours after initiation of antibiotic therapy.
- Analgesic treatment according to pain intensity.
- If the patient's condition deteriorates or if fever persists after 48-72 hours of treatment, consider the possibility of complication requiring additional treatment (e.g. pelvic abscess drainage), otherwise change the antibiotic to ceftriaxone + doxycycline + metronidazole as in hospital-based treatment of sexually transmitted UGTI.

Veneral warts

Venereal warts are benign tumours of the skin or mucous membranes due to certain papilloma viruses (HPV).

Clinical features

- Venereal warts are soft, raised, painless growths, sometimes clustered (cauliflower-like appearance) or macules (flat warts), which are more difficult to discern. Warts can be external (vulva, penis, scrotum, perineum, anus) and/or internal (vagina, cervix, urethra, rectum; oral cavity in HIV infected patients).
- In women, the presence of external warts is an indication for a speculum examination to exclude vaginal or cervical warts. Speculum exam may reveal a friable, fungating tumour on the cervix, suggestive of cancer associated with papilloma virus¹.

Treatment

Choice of treatment depends on the size and location of the warts. Treatment may be less effective, and relapses more frequent, in HIV infected patients.

External warts < 3 cm and vaginal warts

podophyllotoxin 0.5%² solution may be self-applied by the patient, but in the event of vaginal warts, the treatment must be applied by medical staff.

Explain the procedure to the patient: apply the solution to the warts using an applicator or cotton bud, sparing the surrounding healthy skin, allow to air dry.

On vaginal warts, the solution should be allowed to dry before the speculum is withdrawn.

Apply the solution twice daily, 3 consecutive days per week, for up to 4 weeks.

Podophyllum preparations are contra-indicated in pregnant³ or breastfeeding women.

They should not be applied on cervical, intra-urethral, rectal, oral or extensive warts. Improper use may result in painful ulceration.

External warts > 3 cm; cervical, intra-urethral, rectal and oral warts; warts in pregnant or breastfeeding women

Surgical excision or cryotherapy or electrocoagulation.

¹ Certain types of HPV may cause cancer. Presence of genital warts in women is an indication to screen for pre-cancerous lesions of the cervix, if feasible in the context (visual inspection with acetic acid, or cervical smear, or other available techniques), and to treat any lesions identified (cryotherapy, conisation, etc., according to diagnosis).

² **Podophyllum 10%, 15% or 25% resin** is another preparation which is much more caustic, and should be applied only by medical staff. Protect the surrounding skin (vaseline or zinc oxide ointment) before applying the resin. Wash off with soap and water after 1 to 4 hours. Apply once weekly for 4 weeks.

³ Treatment of warts is not an emergency and may be deferred if alternatives to podophyllum preparations are not available. Genital warts are not an indication for caesarean section: it is uncommon for warts to interfere with delivery, and the risk of mother-to-child transmission is very low.

Major genital infections (summary)

Pathogens/ Infections	Clinical features	Laboratory	Treatment
<i>Neisseria gonorrhoeae</i> (gonorrhoea)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – In women: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • vaginal discharge, cervicitis (mucopurulent cervical discharge), dysuria (50% of infections are asymptomatic); • UGTI (salpingitis, endometritis). – In men: purulent urethral discharge and sometimes dysuria (5 to 50% of infections are asymptomatic). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – In women: not valid (not sensitive). – In men: Gram or methylene blue stain: intracellular diplococci and polymorphonuclear leucocytes (more than 4 per field). 	<p>cefixime PO: 400 mg as a single dose or ceftriaxone IM: 250 mg as a single dose Treat also for chlamydia.</p> <p>In case of UGTI, see page 240.</p>
<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i> (chlamydia)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – In women: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • vaginal discharge, cervicitis, and rarely dysuria (> 50% of infections are asymptomatic); • UGTI (salpingitis, endometritis). – In men: mild urethral discharge and/or dysuria but up to 90% of infections are asymptomatic. 	The best method is PCR (not feasible under field conditions).	<p>azithromycin PO: 1 g as a single dose or doxycycline PO¹: 200 mg/day for 7 days Treat also for gonococcal infection (except when a Gram stain in males shows no <i>N. gonorrhoeae</i>).</p> <p>In case of UGTI, see page 240.</p>
<i>Trichomonas vaginalis</i> (trichomoniasis)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – In women: yellow-green vaginal discharge, sometimes foul smelling, vulvar irritation (10 to 50% of infections are asymptomatic). – In men: most infections are asymptomatic. Can produce balanitis, urethritis with mild discharge and sometimes dysuria. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Wet mount of fresh vaginal fluid shows motile trichomonas (low sensitivity). – pH of urethral/vaginal fluid > 4.5 	tinidazole or metronidazole PO: 2 g as a single dose
Bacterial vaginosis (<i>Gardnerella vaginalis</i> and other associated bacteria)	<p>Diagnosis is made in the presence of 3 of the following 4 signs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Homogenous grey-white adherent vaginal discharge – pH of vaginal fluid > 4.5 – Vaginal fluid has an amine (fishy) odour, especially when mixed with 10% KOH – Presence of clue cells in wet mount or Gram stain of vaginal fluid 		tinidazole or metronidazole PO: 2 g as a single dose
<i>Candida albicans</i> (candidiasis)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Mainly seen in women: pruritus and vulvovaginitis, frequently creamy-white vaginal discharge, sometimes dysuria. – In men: balanitis/balanoposthitis (inflammation of the glans/prepuce, erythema, pruritus, white pustules) and rarely urethritis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Saline or KOH wet mount of fresh vaginal fluid shows budding yeast cells and pseudohyphae. – pH of vaginal fluid: normal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – In women: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> clotrimazole 500 mg: one vaginal tablet as a single dose or clotrimazole 100 mg: one vaginal tablet/day for 6 days or nystatin 100,000 IU: one vaginal tablet/day for 14 days – In men: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> miconazole 2% cream: 2 applications daily for 7 days

Pathogens/ Infections	Clinical features	Laboratory	Treatment
<i>Herpes simplex virus type 2</i> (genital herpes)	Many asymptomatic carriers. Multiple vesicles on genitals leading to painful ulcerations. In women, affects vulva, vagina and cervix; in males, penis and sometimes urethra. In primary episodes, fever (30%) and lymphadenopathy (50%). Recurrences in 1/3 of infections with shorter and milder symptoms.	Diagnosis by culture, serology and PCR done exclusively at a reference laboratory.	Analgesics, local disinfection. If available, aciclovir PO: – Primary episode: 1200 mg/day for 7 days, given within 5 days after onset of lesions. – Recurrent infections: same dose for 5 days, given within 24 hours after onset of lesions.
<i>Treponema pallidum</i> (syphilis)	Single firm painless genital ulcer, often unnoticed.	RPR/VDRL lack sensitivity and specificity, but may be useful for following treatment effectiveness (decrease in titer) or confirming re-infection (rise in titer). Treponemic tests (TPHA, FTA, rapid tests such as SD Bioline®) are more sensitive and specific.	benzathine benzylpenicillin IM: 2.4 MIU/injection, single dose (syphilis < 2 years) or one injection/week for 3 weeks (syphilis > 2 years or unknown duration) For penicillin-allergic patients: doxycycline PO ¹ : 200 mg/day for 14 days or erythromycin PO: 2 g/day for 14 days Treat also for chancroid.
<i>Haemophilus ducreyi</i> (chancroid)	Painful single (or multiple) genital ulcer (soft chancre, bleeds easily when touched). Painful and voluminous inguinal lymphadenitis in 50%. Fistulae develop in 25% of cases.	<i>H. ducreyi</i> bacillus is difficult to identify on microscopy or by culture.	azithromycin PO: 1 g as a single dose or ceftriaxone IM: 250 mg as a single dose or ciprofloxacin PO ² : 1 g/day for 3 days or erythromycin PO: 2 g/day for 7 days Treat also for syphilis.
<i>Human papillomavirus</i> (venereal warts)	Soft, raised, painless growths, sometimes clustered (acuminate condyloma) or macules (flat warts). Warts can be external (vulva, penis, scrotum, perineum, anus) and/or internal (vagina, cervix, urethra, rectum; oral cavity in HIV infected patients).	The diagnosis is based on clinical features. It is feasible in the context, the presence of genital warts in women in an indication to screen for pre-cancerous lesions of the cervix (visual inspection with acetic acid, or cervical smear, or other available techniques).	– External warts < 3 cm and vaginal warts: podophyllotoxin 0.5% – External warts > 3 cm; cervical, intra-urethral, rectal and oral warts; warts in pregnant or breastfeeding women: surgical excision or cryotherapy or electrocoagulation.

¹ Doxycycline is contra-indicated in pregnant women. It should not be administered to breast-feeding women if the treatment exceeds 7 days (use erythromycin).

² Ciprofloxacin should be avoided in pregnant women.

Metrorrhagia

Genital bleeding unrelated to the menstrual period. In women of childbearing age, always assess if the bleeding is related to a pregnancy.

In all events

- Rapidly assess the severity of bleeding.
- In the event of heavy haemorrhage or shock or if a surgical intervention (laparotomy, caesarean delivery) is required:
 - Start an IV infusion of Ringer lactate; monitor vital signs (pulse, BP);
 - Prepare for a possible blood transfusion (determine patient's group, identify potential donors);
 - If a transfusion is performed, only use blood that has been screened at least for HIV, hepatitis B, and hepatitis C.
- In the event of referral to a surgical facility, difficult transport conditions might aggravate the haemorrhage: the patient should be infused and accompanied by family members who are potential blood donors.
- Ultrasound is not imperative but it facilitates certain diagnoses (e.g. ectopic pregnancy, placenta praevia).
- Prevent or treat anaemia.

Bleeding unrelated to pregnancy

- Clinical examination:
 - speculum examination: determine the origin of the bleeding [vagina, cervix, uterine cavity]; appearance of the cervix; estimation of blood loss;
 - bimanual pelvic examination: look for uterine motion tenderness, increased volume or abnormalities of the uterus.
- Friable, hard, ulcerated, hypertrophic mass on the cervix: possible cervical cancer; surgical treatment is required. While waiting for surgery, **tranexamic acid** PO (3 g/day in 3 divided doses for 3 to 5 days) may be used to reduce bleeding.
- Inflammation of the cervix, light or moderate bleeding, purulent cervical discharge, pelvic pain: consider cervicitis (see *Abnormal vaginal discharge*, page 233) or salpingitis (see *Upper genital tract infections*, page 240).
- Enlarged, misshapen uterus: uterine fibroids; surgical treatment if large fibroids cause significant bleeding. While waiting for surgery or if surgery is not indicated, treat as a functional uterine bleeding.
- Normal uterus and cervix: possible functional uterine bleeding: **tranexamic acid** PO as above. In situations of repeated bleeding, it can be combined with an NSAID (**ibuprofen** PO: 1200 to 2400 mg/day maximum, in 3 divided doses for 3 to 5 days) and/or a long-term treatment with oral estroprogestogens or injectable progestogens.
Note: rule out other causes of vaginal bleeding before diagnosing functional uterine bleeding. Consider for example poorly tolerated contraceptive, endometrial cancer in postmenopausal women, genitourinary schistosomiasis in endemic areas (page 151).

Bleeding during the first half of pregnancy

The two diagnoses to firstly consider are ectopic pregnancy and abortion.

Ectopic pregnancy

Pregnancy that develops outside the uterus, very often in a fallopian tube. Ectopic pregnancy should be suspected in any woman of reproductive age with pelvic pain and/or metrorrhagia. There are many possible clinical presentations and these can mislead diagnosis towards appendicitis, intestinal obstruction, salpingitis or abortion. The major risk of ectopic pregnancy is rupture, leading to intra abdominal haemorrhage.

Clinical features and diagnosis

- Amenorrhoea (may be absent) or menstrual irregularity.
- Dark slight bleeding or light to heavy bright red bleeding; or haemorrhagic shock with light bleeding not corresponding to the severity of shock (intra-abdominal haemorrhage).
- Pelvic pain; sometimes distended abdomen, rebound tenderness.
- On pelvic examination: tender adnexal mass; exquisite pain in the Pouch of Douglas (haemoperitoneum); closed cervix.
- The diagnosis of pregnancy is confirmed by a positive rapid pregnancy test (urinary test) but a negative urinary test does not rule out an ectopic pregnancy.
- If ultrasound is available, the presence of an intra-uterine pregnancy eliminates the diagnosis of an ectopic pregnancy. If ultrasound shows an empty uterus together with intra peritoneal effusion, an ectopic pregnancy is likely, especially if the pregnancy test is positive.

Management

If in doubt (negative pregnancy test, no sign of rupture and stable haemodynamic conditions), hospitalise the patient for surveillance, if possible in a surgical facility. Otherwise, refer immediately for emergency laparotomy.

Threatened abortion

Clinical features

In a context of amenorrhoea: slight, bright red bleeding; pelvic pain; closed cervix.

Management

- Look for foreign bodies or vaginal wound consistent with induced abortion; remove foreign bodies, clean the wound; update tetanus immunization (page 170).
- Treat pain: paracetamol or antispasmodics PO.
- Place the patient on rest.

Abortion

Clinical features

Slight or significant bright red bleeding; expulsion of the embryo, membranes or products; uterine contractions; open cervix.

Management

- Look for foreign bodies or vaginal wound consistent with induced abortion; remove foreign bodies, clean the wound; update tetanus immunization (page 170).
- Treat pain: paracetamol or antispasmodics.
- Depending on the stage of pregnancy:
 - Before 10 weeks of pregnancy:* abortion is likely to be complete. Monitor, only intervene in the event of heavy bleeding (aspiration).
 - Between 10 and 12 weeks of pregnancy:* uterine evacuation is often necessary.
 - Manual vacuum aspiration is the method of choice (easier to perform, less traumatic and less painful than curettage).
 - Administration of **misoprostol** (600 µg PO as a single dose) can be used to avoid instrumental evacuation but carries a risk of failure. It is essential to check if the uterus is empty a few days after administration. If the treatment has failed, instrumental evacuation is unavoidable.
 - After 12 weeks of pregnancy:* labour should be allowed to progress, do not rupture the membranes. The placenta is usually evacuated with the foetus. If evacuation is incomplete or in the event of haemorrhage, perform manual removal immediately after the expulsion, before the uterus retracts or the cervix closes. If manual removal is delayed, curettage must be performed which carries a high risk of uterine perforation.
- In the event of post-abortion infection (pelvic pain, uterine tenderness, foul-smelling vaginal discharge): antibiotic treatment, see *Upper genital tract infections*, page 241.

Bleeding during the second half of pregnancy

Three conditions –placenta praevia, abruptio placentae, and uterine rupture–can quickly become life-threatening to both mother and child. These conditions must be referred to surgical facilities.

When no cause for the bleeding is found, consider the possibility of premature labour.

Placenta praevia

Placenta that covers either entirely or partially the internal os of the cervix. Placenta praevia may give rise to bleeding during the third trimester and carries a high risk of haemorrhage during delivery.

Clinical features and diagnosis

- Sudden, painless, slight or significant bright red bleeding.
- The vaginal exam must be done with extreme care to avoid triggering massive bleeding: uterus is soft; the exam may reveal displacement of the cervix and deformation of the lower uterine segment by the placenta praevia; if the cervix is dilated, the placenta can be felt in the cervix. Do not repeat the examination.
- If ultrasound is available, vaginal examination can be avoided.

Management

- If labour has not yet started and bleeding is light: bed rest and monitoring.
- If labour has started and/or bleeding is heavy: refer to surgical facility.

Abruptio placenta

Haematoma that forms between the placenta and the uterine wall as a result of separation of the placenta, prior to foetal expulsion.

Clinical features

- Dark slight bleeding, sometimes absent, or shock not always consistent with the external blood loss as bleeding is internal.
- Sudden, severe, continuous abdominal pain.
- Tightly contracted uterus; often, foetal heart sounds absent (foetal death).
- Often occurs in a context of pre-eclampsia.

Management

Refer to surgical facility.

Uterine rupture

Tear in the uterine wall, in most cases during labour, often related to inappropriate use of oxytocin.

Clinical features

- Impending rupture: prolonged labour, agitation, alteration of the general state, poor uterine relaxation, continuous abdominal pain, more severe than the contractions.
- Rupture: disappearance of uterine contractions, shock; sometimes, palpation of the dead foetus expelled into the maternal abdomen.

Management

Refer to surgical facility for emergency laparotomy.

Premature labour

Clinical features

Cervical changes (effacement and dilatation) and regular uterine contractions before 37 weeks LMP. Metrorrhagia are not always present in premature labour. If present, blood loss is usually minimal.

Management

- Strict bed rest.
- Allow labour to progress in the following cases: gestation is more than 37 weeks; the cervix is more than 3-4 cm dilated; there is significant bleeding; the foetus is distressed or dead; there is amnionitis or pre-eclampsia.
- Otherwise, tocolysis:
As first-line treatment, **nifedipine** PO (short-acting capsule): 10 mg by oral route, to be repeated every 15 minutes if uterine contractions persist (maximum 4 doses or 40 mg), then 20 mg every 6 hours for 48 hours.

or, if not available,

salbutamol IV infusion for 48 hours maximum: dilute 5 mg (10 ampoules of 0.5 mg) in 500 ml of 5% glucose or 0.9% sodium chloride to obtain a solution of 10 micrograms/ml.

Start infusion at the rate of 15 to 20 micrograms/minute (30 to 40 drops/minute).

If contractions persist, increase the rate by 10 to 20 drops/minute every 30 minutes until uterine contractions cease. Do not exceed 45 micrograms/minute (90 drops/minute).

Continue for one hour after contractions have ceased, then reduce the rate by half every 6 hours.

Monitor maternal pulse regularly, decrease the infusion rate in the event of maternal tachycardia (> 120/minute).

Do not combine nifedipine and salbutamol.

Either tocolysis is effective and contractions cease or diminish: in both cases, do not prolong treatment over 48 hours. Bed rest until the end of pregnancy.

Or tocolysis is not effective, contractions persist and labour begins: take necessary steps for a premature birth.

Post-partum haemorrhage

Clinical features

Haemorrhage, exceeding the usual 500 ml of a normal placental delivery that occurs in the first 24 hours (usually immediately) following the delivery of the child. Post-partum haemorrhage is mainly due to placental retention and uterine atonia, but may also result from uterine rupture or cervical or vaginal lacerations.

Management

- If systolic BP is < 90 mmHg, elevate the legs (keep or replace the patient's feet in the delivery table stirrups).
- Under general anaesthesia and antibiotic prophylaxis (**ampicillin** or **cefazolin** IV, 2 g as a single dose): manual removal of the placenta (if not yet delivered) and systematic manual exploration of the uterus to remove any clots/placental debris and to make sure the uterus has not ruptured.
- Then **oxytocin**: 10 IU diluted in 500 ml of Ringer lactate, at a rate of 80 drops/minute. At the same time, administer 5 to 10 IU by IV push, to be repeated if necessary until retraction of uterus, without exceeding a total dose of 60 IU.
- Massage of the uterus to expel any clots and aid uterine retraction.
- Continue monitoring (pulse, BP, blood loss). Bleeding should diminish and the uterus should remain firm.
- Measure haemoglobin.
- Insert a urinary catheter to facilitate uterine retraction.

For more information on the management of pregnancy-related bleeding, refer to the MSF handbook, *Obstetrics*.

CHAPTER 10

Medical and minor surgical procedures

Dressings	253
Treatment of a simple wound	256
Burns	266
Abscesses	274
Pyomyositis	279
Leg ulcers	281
Venomous bites and stings	283
Dental infections	287

Dressings

- The objective of dressing wounds is to promote healing. The procedure includes cleaning, disinfection and protection of the wound while respecting the rules of hygiene.
- Not all wounds need to be covered by a dressing (e.g. a clean wound that has been sutured for several days; a small dry wound not requiring sutures).

Material

- **Sterile instruments**
 - one Kocher or Pean forceps
 - one dissecting forceps
 - one pair of surgical scissors or one scalpel to excise necrotic tissue and to cut gauze or sutures

Instruments for **one** dressing for **one** patient must be wrapped together in paper or fabric (or can be placed in a metallic box) and sterilised together to limit handling and breaks in asepsis. 5 to 10 compresses may be included in this set.

If there are no sterile instruments, a dressing can be done using sterile gloves.

- **Renewable supplies**
 - sterile compresses
 - non-sterile disposable gloves
 - adhesive tape and/or crepe or gauze bandage
 - sterile 0.9% sodium chloride or sterile water
 - depending on the wound: antiseptic (polyvidone iodine scrub solution, polyvidone iodine dermal solution), paraffin compresses, analgesics

Organisation of care

Proper organization of care helps maintain the rules of asepsis and decreases the risk of contamination of the wound or transmission of organisms from one patient to another:

- Assign one room for dressings. It must be cleaned and the waste removed every day. The dressing table must be disinfected after each patient.
- Dressings may be applied at the bedside if the patient's condition requires. Use a clean, disinfected dressing trolley with: on the upper tray, sterile and/or clean material (dressing set, extra compresses, etc.) and on the lower tray, septic material (container for contaminated instruments, sharps disposal container and a container or garbage bag for waste).
- Prepare all the necessary material in a well lit area. If necessary, arrange for an assistant to be present.
- Wear protective glasses if there is a risk of projection from an oozing wound.

- Always proceed from clean to dirty: start with patients with uninfected wounds. If there are multiple dressings for one patient, start with the cleanest wound.

Technique

- If the procedure may be painful, give an analgesic and wait the necessary time for the drug to take effect before starting the procedure.
- Settle the patient comfortably in an area where his privacy is respected throughout the procedure.
- Explain the procedure to the patient and obtain his co-operation.
- Instruments (or sterile gloves) must be changed between patients.
- To prevent drug interactions, use the same antiseptic for all care of one patient.

Removal of an old dressing

- Wash hands (ordinary soap) or disinfect them with an alcohol-based hand rub.
- Put on non-sterile gloves and remove the adhesive tape, bandage and superficial compresses.
- Proceed gently with the last compresses. If they stick to the wound, loosen them with 0.9% sodium chloride or sterile water before removal.
- Observe the soiled compresses. If there is significant discharge, a greenish colour or a foul odour, a wound infection is likely.
- Discard the dressing and the non-sterile gloves in the waste container.

Observe the wound

- In the case of an open wound, loss of cutaneous tissue or ulcer, the colour is an indicator of the stage in the healing process:
 - **black** area = necrosis, wet or dry infected eschar
 - **yellow** or **greenish** area = infected tissue and presence of pus
 - **red** area = granulation, usually a sign of healing (unless there is hypertrophy), however, red edges indicate inflammation or infection
 - **pink** area = process of epithelisation, the final stage of healing that begins at the edges of the wound
- In the case of a sutured wound, the existence of local signs of suppuration and pain requires the removal of one or more sutures to avoid the infection spreading. Local signs include:
 - red, indurated and painful edges
 - drainage of pus between the sutures, either spontaneously or when pressure is applied on either side of the wound
 - lymphangitis
 - sub-cutaneous crepitations around the wound

In any case, if local signs of infection are observed, look for general signs of infection (fever, chills, changes in the overall condition).

Technique for cleaning and dressing of the wound

- Wash hands again or disinfect them with an alcohol-based hand rub.
- Open the dressing set or box after checking the date of sterilisation and that the wrapping is intact.
- Pick up one of the sterile forceps being careful not to touch anything else.
- Pick up the second forceps with the help of the first one.
- Make a swab by folding a compress in 4 using the forceps.
- **Clean sutured wound or clean open wound with red granulation:**
 - clean with 0.9% sodium chloride or sterile water to remove any organic residue; work from the cleanest to the dirtiest area (use a clean swab for each stroke);
 - dab dry with a sterile compress;
 - re-cover a sutured wound with sterile compresses or an open wound with paraffin compresses; the dressing should extend a few cm beyond the edges of the wound;
 - keep the dressing in place with adhesive tape or a bandage.
- **Necrotic or infected open wounds:**
 - clean with polyvidone iodine (7.5% scrub solution, 1 part of solution + 4 parts of sterile 0.9% sodium chloride or sterile water). Rinse thoroughly then dab dry with a sterile compress; or if not available, sterile 0.9% sodium chloride or sterile water and apply an antiseptic (10% polyvidone iodine dermal solution).
 - apply sterile vaseline and remove all necrotic tissue at each dressing change until the wound is clean.
- Discard any sharp materials used in an appropriate sharps container and the rest of the waste in a waste container.
- As quickly as possible, soak the instruments in disinfectant.
- Wash hands again or disinfect them with an alcohol-based hand rub.

The principles remain the same if the dressing is done using instruments or sterile gloves.

Subsequent dressings

- Clean, sutured wound: remove the initial dressing after 5 days if the wound remains painless and odourless, and if the dressing remains clean. The decision to re-cover or to leave the wound uncovered (if it is dry) often depends on the context and local practices.
- Infected, sutured wound: remove one or more sutures and evacuate the pus. Change the dressing at least once daily.
- Open, dirty wound: daily cleaning and dressing change.
- Open granulating wound: change the dressing every 2 to 3 days, except if the granulation is hypertrophic (in this case, apply local corticosteroids).

Treatment of a simple wound

- A simple wound is a break in the continuity of the skin limited in depth at the sub-cutaneous fatty tissue, that does not affect the underlying structures (muscle, bone, joints, major arteries, nerves, tendons) and without significant loss of tissue.
- The goal of treatment is to assure rapid healing of the wound without complications or sequelae. Several basic rules apply:
 - rapidly treat wounds, while maintaining the rules of asepsis and the order of the initial procedures: cleaning-exploration-excision;
 - identify wounds that need to be sutured and those for which suturing would be harmful or dangerous;
 - immediately suture recent, clean, simple wounds (less than 6 hours old) and delay suturing contaminated wounds and/or those more than 6 hours old;
 - prevent local (abscess) or general (gas gangrene; tetanus) infections.

Material

Instruments (Figures 1a to 1d)

- One dissecting forceps, one needle-holder, one pair of surgical scissors and one Pean or Kocher forceps are usually enough.
- One or two other artery forceps, a pair of Farabeuf retractors and a scalpel may be useful for a contused or deep wound.

Instruments to suture one wound for one patient must be packaged and sterilised together (suture box or set) to limit handling and breaks in asepsis.

Renewable supplies

- For local anaesthesia: sterile syringe and needle; **1% lidocaine** (without epinephrine)
- Sterile gloves, fenestrated sterile towel
- Sterile absorbable and non-absorbable sutures
- Antiseptic and supplies for dressings
- For drainage: corrugated rubber drain or equivalent, nylon suture

Technique

- Settle the patient comfortably in an area with good lighting and ensure all the necessary material is prepared.
- Explain the procedure to the patient and ensure his co-operation.
- If the patient is a young child, arrange to have an assistant hold the child if necessary.

Initial cleaning

- Wear suitable clothing: sterile gloves for all wounds and a gown and protective glasses if there is a risk of projection from a bleeding wound.
- Start by washing the wound, prolong the cleaning if the wound is particularly soiled. Use ordinary soap or **polyvidone iodine scrub solution** and water and rinse.
- If necessary use a sterile brush. Cleaning with running water is preferable to cleaning by immersion.
- If the wound is infected and the patient has general signs of infection (fever, chills, changes in the overall condition) systemic antibiotic therapy may be required. Administer antibiotics at least one hour prior to starting care.

Exploration

- Wash hands and put on sterile gloves.
- Disinfect the wound and surrounding area with **10% polyvidone iodine**.
- Cover the wound with a fenestrated sterile towel.
- Local anaesthetic: infiltrate **1% lidocaine** into the edges of the wound and wait at least 2 minutes for the anaesthetic to take effect.
- Proceed carefully from the superficial to the deepest parts of the wound to explore the extent of the wound, if necessary, aided by an assistant.
- Consider the anatomical location of the wound and look for injury to any underlying structures (the clinical examination of a limb must include evaluation of sensitivity and motor functioning, as well as that of tendons in order to orient surgical exploration):
 - a wound that communicates with a fracture is an open fracture,
 - a wound close to a joint may be a joint wound,
 - a wound on the hands or feet may affect the nerves and/or tendons.
- Look for and remove any foreign bodies.
- In the event of significant pain or bleeding, the exploration must be completed in an operating room.

Wound excision

- The goal of the excision is to remove non-viable tissue, which favours the proliferation of bacteria and infection.
- The wound may require little or no excision if it is clean. The excision is more extensive if the wound is bruised, irregular or extensive.
- Limit excision of the skin around the wound, particularly in facial wounds.
- Sub-cutaneous fat and tissue of doubtful viability should be generously excised in order to leave only well vascularised tissue.

Immediate suturing of a simple wound

- Immediate suturing may have serious consequences for the patient if precautions to prevent infection and promote healing are not taken.
- The decision to suture immediately can only be taken after the cleaning, exploration and satisfactory excision, and if the following conditions are met: simple wound, no more than 6 hours old with no devitalised or contused tissue (the wound may be as long as 24 hours old if on the face, scalp, upper limbs or hands).
- Bites (for local treatment see *Rabies*, page 194) and bullet, shell or mine shrapnel wounds should not be immediately sutured.

Delayed suturing of a simple wound

- Wounds that do not fill the above conditions should not be immediately sutured.
- After cleaning, exploration and excision a simple dressing is applied to the open wound.
- Further cleaning and removal of any remaining necrotic tissue is completed with daily dressing changes.
- If after 72 hours there are no signs of local infection, the wound may be sutured.

Healing by second intention of infected wounds

If the wound does not meet the conditions of cleanliness described above, the wound cannot be sutured. It will heal either spontaneously (healing by secondary intention), or will require a skin graft (once the wound is clean) if there is significant loss of tissue.



Figure 1a
Kocher forceps,
straight, toothed



Figure 1b
Kelly forceps,
curved, non-toothed



Figure 1c
Small artery forceps,
curved, non-toothed

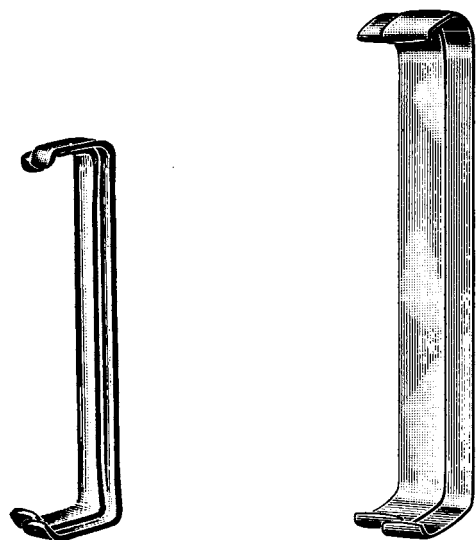


Figure 1d
Farabeuf retractors

Figures 1: *Basic instruments*

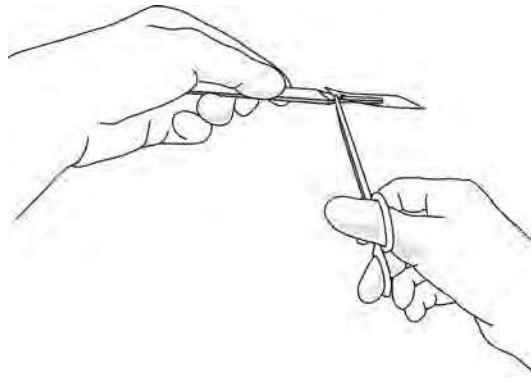


Figure 2a

Always mount a surgical blade using a needle holder.
Change the blade for each new procedure.

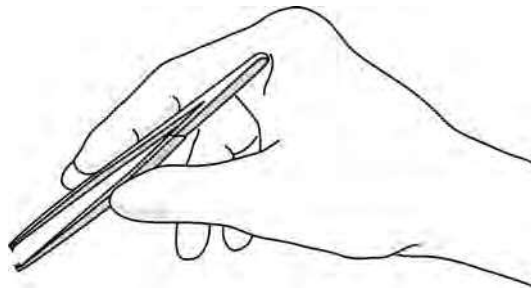


Figure 2b

Dissecting forceps should not be held in the palm of the hand, but rather between the thumb and index finger. Toothed dissecting forceps should only be used on skin.

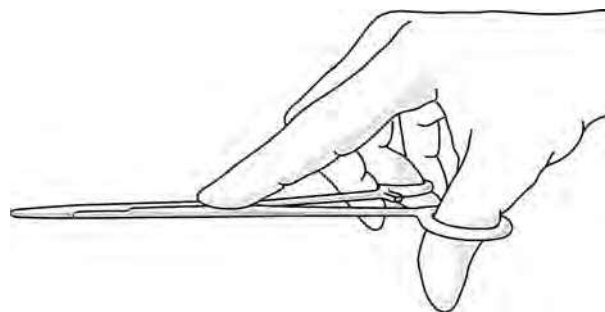


Figure 2c

Insert the thumb and the ring finger into the handle of a needle holder (or scissors), and stabilize the instrument using the index finger.

Figures 2: *How to hold instruments*

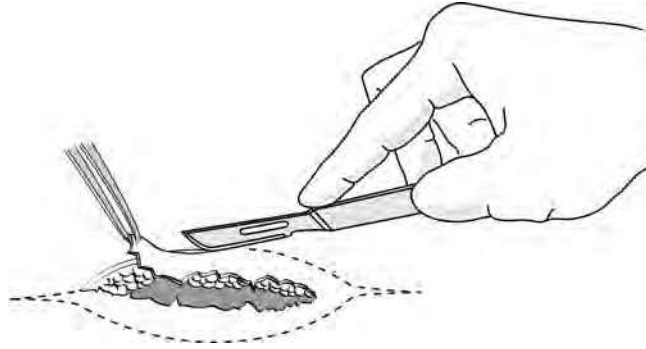


Figure 3a

Debridement of a contused, ragged wound: straightening of the wound edges with a scalpel. Be conservative in facial wounds.

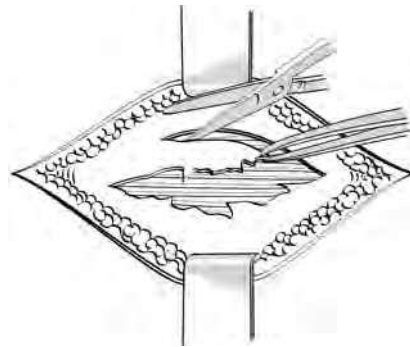


Figure 3b

Excision of edges of the aponeurosis to prevent necrosis

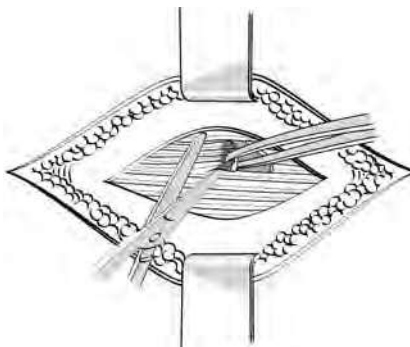


Figure 3c

Excision of contused muscle

Figures 3: Wound debridement

This should be done sparingly, limited to excision of severely contused or lacerated tissue that is clearly becoming necrotic.

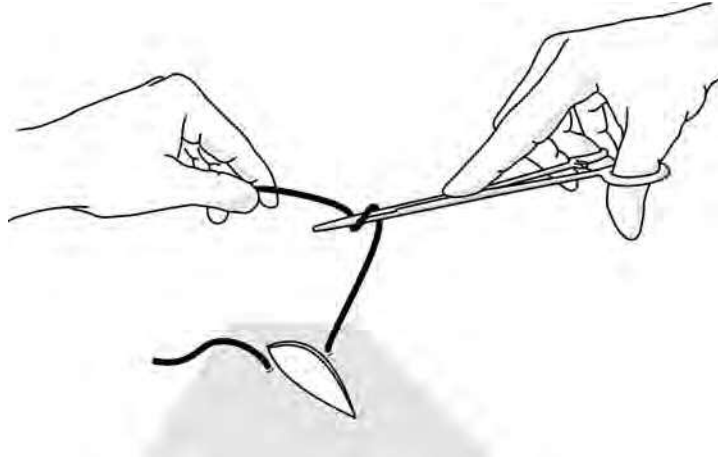


Figure 4a

Loop the suture around the needle holder in one direction and remember the direction of the loop. Grasp the loose end with the needle holder and pull it through the loop to make the first knot. Lower the knot so that it closes the wound.

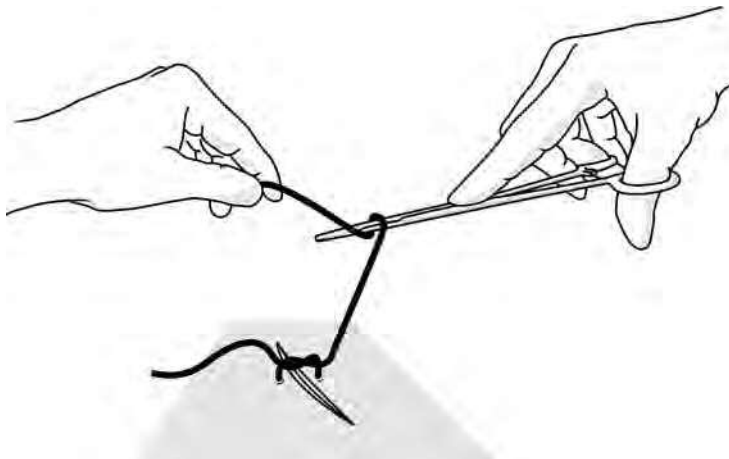


Figure 4b

The second loop should be in the opposite direction. At least 3 knots are needed to make a suture, alternating from one direction to the other.



Figure 4c

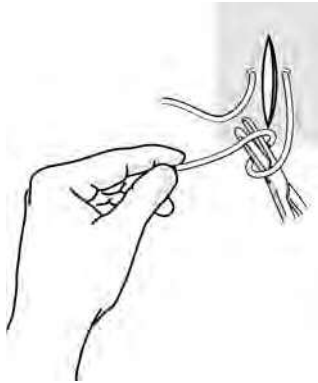
In principle the first knot lies flat.



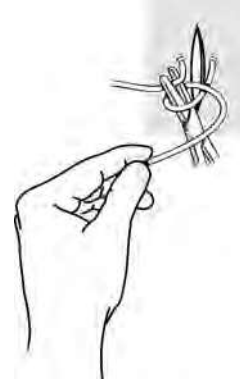
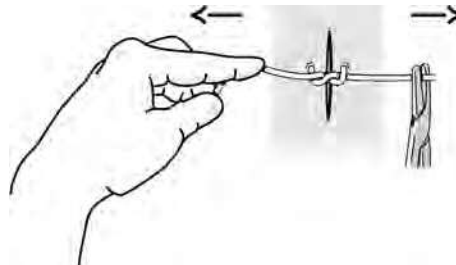
Figure 4d

Second knot in the opposite direction.

Figures 4: *Practising making knots using forceps*

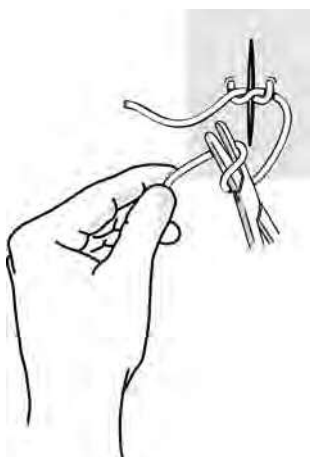

Figure 4e

Grasp the loose end with the needle holder.

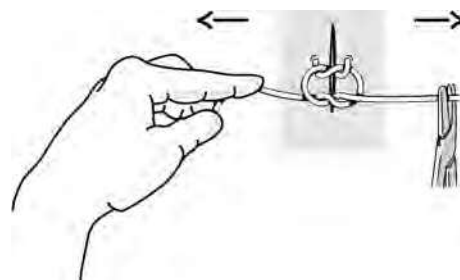

Figure 4f

Figure 4g

First flat knot

Slide the knot towards the wound using the hand holding the loose end while holding the other end with the needle holder. Tighten the knot without causing tissue ischaemia.


Figure 4h

Second knot in the opposite direction


Figure 4i

Figures 4: Practising making knots using forceps (continued)

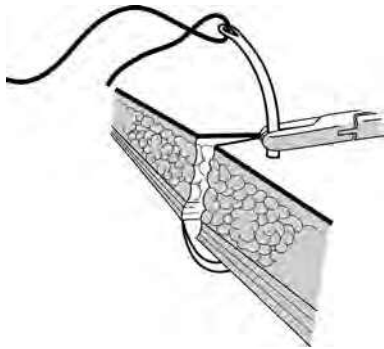


Figure 5a

The suture should be as deep as it is wide.

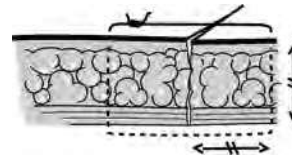


Figure 5b

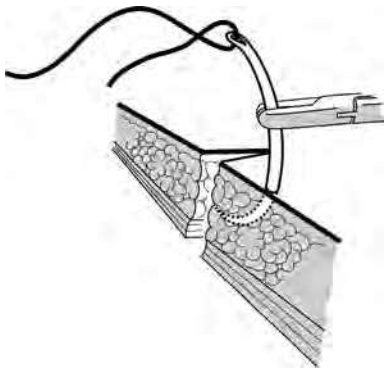


Figure 5c

The suture is too shallow, the edges are invaginated.

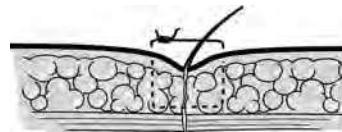


Figure 5d

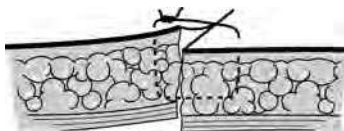


Figure 5e

Poor lining of the edges

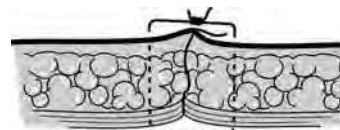


Figure 5f

Do not make the knot directly over the wound.

Figures 5: *Particular problems*

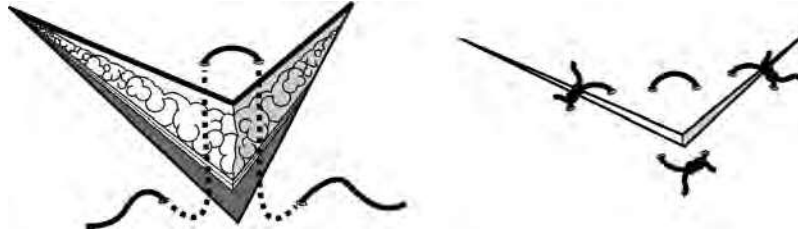


Figure 6: *Closing a corner*



Figure 7: *Closure of the skin, simple interrupted sutures with non-absorbable sutures*

Burns

Burns are cutaneous lesions caused by exposure to heat, electricity, chemicals or radiation. They cause significant pain and may threaten survival and/or compromise function.

Classification of burns

Severe burns: one or more of the following parameters:

- Involving more than 10% of the body surface area (BSA) in children and 15% in adults
- Inhalation injury (smoke, hot air, particles, toxic gas, etc.)
- Major concomitant trauma (fracture, head injury, etc.)
- Location: face, hands, neck, genitalia / perineum, joints (risk of functional deficit)
- Electrical and chemical burns or burns due to explosions
- Age < 3 years or > 60 years or significant co-morbidities (e.g. epilepsy, malnutrition)

Minor burns: involving less than 10% of the BSA in children and 15% in adults, in the absence of other risk factors.

Evaluation of burns

Extent of burns

Lund-Browder table – Percentage of body surface area according to age

Location	< 1 year	1-4 years	5-9 years	10-15 years	Adults
Head	19	17	13	10	7
Neck	2	2	2	2	2
Anterior trunk	13	13	13	13	13
Posterior trunk	13	13	13	13	13
Right buttock	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5
Left buttock	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5
Perineum / genitalia	1	1	1	1	1
Right upper arm	4	4	4	4	4
Left upper arm	4	4	4	4	4
Right lower arm	3	3	3	3	3
Left lower arm	3	3	3	3	3
Right hand	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5
Left hand	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5
Right thigh	5.5	6.5	8.5	8.5	9.5
Left thigh	5.5	6.5	8.5	8.5	9.5
Right leg	5	5	5.5	6	7
Left leg	5	5	5.5	6	7
Right foot	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5
Left foot	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5

This table helps to accurately calculate the % of BSA involved according to patient's age: e.g. burn of the face, anterior trunk, inner surface of the lower arm and circumferential burn of left upper arm in a child 2 years of age: $8.5 + 13 + 1.5 + 4 = 27\%$ BSA.

Depth of burns

Apart from first-degree burns (painful erythema of the skin and absence of blisters) and very deep burns (third-degree burns, carbonization), it is not possible, upon initial examination, to determine the depth of burns. Differentiation is possible after D8-D10.

	Superficial burn on D8-D10	Deep burn on D8-D10
Sensation	Normal or pain	Insensitive or diminished sensation
Colour	Pink, blanches with pressure	White, red, brown or black Does not blanch with pressure
Texture	Smooth and supple	Firm and leathery
Appearance	Minimal fibrinous exudate Granulation tissue evident Bleeds when incised	Covered with fibrinous exudate Little or no bleeding when incised
Healing	Heals spontaneously within 5-15 days	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Very deep burn: always requires surgery (no spontaneous healing) – Intermediate burn: may heal spontaneously in 3 to 5 weeks; high risk of infection and permanent sequelae

Evaluation for the presence of inhalation injury

Dyspnoea with chest wall indrawing, bronchospasm, soot in the nares or mouth, productive cough, carbonaceous sputum, hoarseness, etc.

Treatment of severe burns (in hospital)

I. Initial management

On admission

- Ensure airway is patent; high-flow oxygen, even when SaO_2 is normal.
- Establish intravenous access, through unburned skin if possible (intraosseous access if venous access is not possible).
- **Ringer lactate** (RL): 20 ml/kg during the first hour, even if the patient is stable.
- **Morphine** SC: 0.2 mg/kg (Step 1 and Step 2 analgesics are not effective).
- In the event of chemical burns: flush with copious amounts of water for 15 to 30 min, avoiding contamination of healthy skin; do not attempt to neutralize the chemical agent.

Once the patient is stabilized

- Remove clothes if they are not adherent to the burn.
- Take history of the burn injury: mechanism, causative agent, time, etc.
- Assess the burn injury: extent, depth, carbonization; ocular burns, burns at risk of secondary functional deficits; circumferential burns of the extremities, chest or neck. Wear face mask and sterile gloves during the examination.

- Assess for associated injuries (fractures, etc.).
- Protect the patient and keep him warm: clean/sterile sheet, survival blanket.
- Insert a urinary catheter if burns involve > 15% of BSA, and in the case of electrical burns or burns of the perineum/genitalia.
- Insert a nasogastric tube if burns involve > 20% of BSA (in the operating room while carrying out dressing procedure).
- Calculate and initiate fluid and electrolyte requirements for the first 24 hours.
- Intensive monitoring: level of consciousness, pulse, blood pressure, pulse oxymetry, respiratory rate (RR) hourly; temperature and urine output every 4 hours.
- Additional testing: haemoglobin, blood group, urine dipstick test.
- Prepare the patient for the first dressing procedure in the operating room.

Notes:

- Burns do not bleed in the initial stage: check for haemorrhage if haemoglobin level is normal or low.
- Burns alone do not alter the level of consciousness. In the case if altered consciousness, consider head injury, intoxication, postictal state in epileptic patients.
- Clinical manifestations of electrical burns vary significantly according to the type of current. Look for complications (arrhythmia, rhabdomyolysis, neurological disorders).

II. General measures during the first 48 hours

Resuscitative measures

Intravenous replacement fluid to correct hypovolaemia:

Fluid and electrolyte requirements during the first 48 hours according to age

	Children < 12 years	Children ≥ 12 years/adults
0 - 8 h	2 ml/kg x % BSA of RL + maintenance fluid* per hour x 8 h	2 ml/kg x % BSA of RL
8 - 24 h	2 ml/kg x % BSA of RL + maintenance fluid* per hour x 16 h	2 ml/kg x % BSA of RL
24 - 48 h	Daily maintenance IV fluid requirements* minus oral fluids such as milk, broth, gavage feeds (do not include drinking water in the calculation).	40 ml/kg RL minus oral fluids (do not include drinking water in the calculation).

* maintenance fluid: alternate RL and 5% glucose: 4 ml/kg/h for first 10 kg of body weight + 2 ml/kg/h for next 10 kg + 1 ml/kg/h for each additional kg (over 20 kg, up to 30 kg)

Note: increase replacement volumes by 50% (3 ml/kg x % BSA for the first 8 hours) in the event of inhalation injury or electrical burn. For burns > 50% BSA, limit the calculation to 50% BSA.

This formula provides a guide only and should be adjusted according to systolic arterial pressure (SAP) and urine output. Avoid fluid overload. Reduce replacement fluid volumes if urine output exceeds the upper limit.

Target endpoints for IV replacement fluids

	Non-electrical burns			Electrical burns
	Children < 1 year	Children 1-12 years	Children > 12 years /adults	All ages
AP (mmHg)	SAP \geq 60	SAP 70 to 90 + (2 x age)	SAP \geq 100	Age appropriate SAP
Urine output	1 to 2 ml/kg/h	1 to 1.5 ml/kg/h	0.5 to 1 ml/kg/h	1 to 2 ml/kg/h

In patients with oliguria despite adequate fluid replacement:

dopamine IV: 5 to 15 $\mu\text{g/kg/min}$ by IV pump

or **epinephrine** IV: 0.1 to 0.5 $\mu\text{g/kg/min}$ by IV pump

Stop the infusion after 48 hours, if fluid requirements can be met by the oral route or gavage.

Respiratory care

In all cases: continuous inhalation of humidified oxygen, chest physiotherapy.

Emergency surgical intervention if necessary: tracheotomy, chest escharotomy.

Do not administer corticosteroids (no effect on oedema; predisposition to infection).

No specific treatment for direct bronchopulmonary lesions.

Analgesia

See *Pain management*, page 271.

Nutrition

Start feeding early, beginning at H8:

- Daily needs in adults:
 - calories: 25 kcal/kg + 40 kcal/% SCB
 - proteins: 1.5 to 2 g/kg
- High energy foods (NRG5, Plumpy'nut, F100 milk) are necessary if the BSA is > 20% (normal food is inadequate).
- Nutritional requirements are administered according to the following distribution: carbohydrates 50%, lipids 30%, proteins 20%.
- Provide 5-10 times the recommended daily intake of vitamins and trace elements.
- Enteral feeds are preferred: oral route or nasogastric tube (necessary if BSA > 20%).
- Start with small quantities on D1, then increase progressively to reach recommended energy requirements within 3 days.
- Assess nutritional status regularly (weigh twice weekly).
- Reduce energy loss: occlusive dressings, warm environment (28-33°C), early grafting; management of pain, insomnia and depression.

Patients at risk of rhabdomyolysis (deep and extensive burns, electrical burns, crush injuries to the extremities)

Monitor for myoglobinuria: dark urine and urine dipstick tests. If present, induce alkaline diuresis for 48 hours (20 ml of **8.4% sodium bicarbonate** per litre of RL) to obtain an output of 1 to 2 ml/kg/h. Do not administer dopamine or furosemide.

Control of infection

Precautions against infection are of paramount importance until healing is complete. Infection is one of the most frequent and serious complications of burns:

- Follow hygiene precautions (e.g. sterile gloves when handling patients).
- Rigorous wound management (dressing changes, early excision).
- Separate “new” patients (< 7 days from burn) from convalescent patients (≥ 7 days from burn).
- Do not administer antibiotherapy in the absence of systemic infection. Infection is defined by the presence of at least 2 of 4 following signs: temperature > 38.5°C or < 36°C, tachycardia, tachypnoea, elevation of white blood cell count by more than 100% (or substantial decrease in the number of white blood cells).
- In the event of systemic infection, start empiric antibiotic treatment:
Children > 1 month:
cefazolin IV: 75 mg/kg/day in 3 injections + **ciprofloxacin** PO: 30 mg/kg/day in 2 doses
Adults:
cefazolin IV: 6 g/day in 3 injections + **ciprofloxacin** PO: 1.5 g/day in 3 doses
- Local infection, in the absence of signs of systemic infection, requires topical treatment with silver sulfadiazine.

Other treatments

- **Omeprazole** IV from D1:
Children: 1 mg/kg once daily
Adults: 40 mg once daily
- Tetanus immunization/prophylaxis (see *Tetanus*, page 170).
- Thromboprophylaxis: **nadroparin** SC beginning 48 to 72 h post-injury. High risk dosing protocol if the BSA is > 50% and/or in the event of high-voltage electrical injury; moderate risk dosing protocol if the BSA is 20 to 50% and/or in the event of burns of the lower limbs.
- Physiotherapy from D1 (prevention of contractures), analgesia is necessary.
- Intentional burns (suicide attempt, aggression): appropriate psychological follow-up.

III. Local treatment

Regular dressing changes¹ prevent infection, decrease heat and fluid losses, reduce energy loss, and promote patient comfort. Dressings should be occlusive, assist in relieving pain, permit mobilisation, and prevent contractures.

- Basic principles
 - Rigorous adherence to the principles of asepsis.
 - Dressing changes require morphine administration in the non-anaesthetised patient.
 - The first dressing procedure is performed in the operating room under general anaesthesia, the following in an operating room under general anaesthesia or at the bedside with morphine.
- Technique
 - At the time of the first dressing procedure, shave any hairy areas (armpit, groin, pubis) if burns involve the adjacent tissues; scalp (anteriorly in the case of facial burns, entirely in the case of cranial burns). Cut nails.
 - Clean the burn with **polyvidone iodine** scrub solution (1 volume of 7.5% PVI + 4 volumes of 0.9% sodium chloride or sterile water). Scrub gently with compresses, taking care to avoid bleeding.

¹ Open technique « naked burn patient under a mosquito net » and water immersion therapy are obsolete and should no longer be used.

- Remove blisters with forceps and scissors.
 - Rinse with 0.9% sodium chloride or sterile water.
 - Dry the skin by blotting with sterile compresses.
 - Apply **silver sulfadiazine** directly by hand (wear sterile gloves) in a uniform layer of 3-5 mm to all burned areas (except eyelids and lips).
 - Apply a greasy dressing (Jelonet® or petrolatum gauze) using a to-and-fro motion (do not use circular dressings).
 - Cover with a sterile compresses, unfolded into a single layer. Never encircle a limb with a single compress.
 - Wrap with a crepe bandage, loosely applied.
 - Elevate extremities to prevent oedema; immobilise in extension.
- Frequency: routinely every 48 hours; daily in the event of superinfection or in certain areas (e.g. perineum).
- Monitoring
- Distal ischaemia of the burned limb is the main complication during the first 48 hours. Assess for signs of ischaemia: cyanosis or pallor of the extremity, dysaesthesia, hyperalgia, impaired capillary refill.
 - Monitor daily: pain, bleeding, progression of healing and infection.

IV. Surgical care

- Emergency surgical interventions:
- Escharotomy: in the case of circumferential burns of arms, legs or fingers, in order to avoid ischaemia, and circumferential burns of chest or neck that compromise respiratory movements.
 - Tracheotomy: in the event of airway obstruction due to oedema (e.g. deep cervicofacial burns). Tracheotomy can be performed through a burned area.
 - Tarsorrhaphy: in the event of ocular or deep eyelid burns.
 - Surgery for associated injuries (fractures, visceral lesions, etc.).
- Burn surgery:
- Excision-grafting of deep burns, in the operating room, under general anaesthesia, between D5 and D6: excision of necrotic tissue (eschar) with simultaneous grafting with autografts of thin skin. This intervention entails significant bleeding risk, do not involve more than 15% of BSA in the same surgery.
 - If early excision-grafting is not feasible, default to the process of sloughing-granulation-re-epithelisation. Sloughing occurs spontaneously due to the action of sulfadiazine/petrolatum gauze dressings and, if necessary, by mechanical surgical debridement of necrotic tissue. This is followed by granulation, which may require surgical reduction in the case of hypertrophy. The risk of infection is high and the process is prolonged (> 1 month).

V. Pain management

All burns require analgesic treatment. Pain intensity is not always predictable and regular assessment is paramount: use a simple verbal scale (SVS) in children > 5 years and adults and NFCS or FLACC scales in children < 5 years (see *Pain*, page 29).

Morphine is the treatment of choice for moderate to severe pain. Development of tolerance is common in burn patients and requires dose augmentation. Adjuvant treatment may complement analgesic medication (e.g. massage therapy, psychotherapy).

Continuous pain (experienced at rest)

- Moderate pain:
paracetamol PO: 60 mg/kg/day in 4 divided doses
+ **tramadol** PO: 4 to 8 mg/kg/day in 4 divided doses
- Moderate to severe pain:
paracetamol PO: 60 mg/kg/day in 4 divided doses
+ **slow release morphine** PO: 1 to 2 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses at 12 hour-interval. In patients with severe burns, oral drugs are poorly absorbed in the digestive tract during the first 48 hours. Morphine must be administered by SC route: 0.2 mg/kg every 4 hours.

Acute pain experienced during care

Analgesics are given in addition to those given for continuous pain.

- Significant medical interventions and extensive burns: general anaesthesia in an operating room.
- Limited non-surgical interventions (dressings, painful physiotherapy):
 - Mild to moderate pain, 60 to 90 minutes before giving care:
codeine PO: 0.6 mg/kg or **tramadol** PO: 2 mg/kg rarely allows treatment to be completed comfortably. In the event of treatment failure, use morphine.
 - Moderate or severe pain, 60 to 90 minutes before giving care:
immediate release morphine PO: initial dose of 0.5 to 1 mg/kg. The effective dose is usually around 1 mg/kg, but there is no maximum dose.
or **morphine** SC: initial dose of 0.2 to 0.5 mg/kg. The effective dose is usually around 0.5 mg/kg, but there is no maximum dose.

Note: doses given are for adults.

For paracetamol, dosing is the same in children.

For tramadol and codeine, dosing is the same in children > 6 months.

For morphine, dosing is the same in children > 1 year, should be halved in children less than 1 year, and quartered in infants less than 3 months.

- Pain management using morphine during dressing changes at the bedside requires:
 - A trained nursing team.
 - Availability of immediate release oral morphine and naloxone.
 - Close monitoring: level of consciousness, RR, pulse, SaO₂, every 15 min for the first hour following dressing change, then routine monitoring.
 - Assessment of pain intensity and sedation during the intervention and for 1 hour thereafter.
 - Necessary equipment for ventilation by mask and manual suction.
 - Gentle handling of the patient at all times.
- Adjustment of morphine doses for subsequent dressings:
 - If pain intensity (SVS) is 0 or 1: continue with the same dose.
 - If SVS score ≥ 2: increase the dose by 25 to 50%. If pain control remains inadequate, the dressing change should be carried out in the operating room under anaesthesia.
- Take advantage of the residual analgesia following dressing changes to carry out physiotherapy.
- As a last resort (morphine unavailable and no facilities to give general anaesthesia), in a safe setting (trained staff, resuscitation equipment, recovery room), adding **ketamine** IM at analgesic doses (0.5 to 1 mg/kg) reinforces the analgesic effect of the paracetamol + tramadol combination given before a dressing change.

Chronic pain (during the rehabilitation period)

- The treatment is guided by self-evaluation of pain intensity, and utilises paracetamol and/or tramadol. Patients may develop neuropathic pain (see treatment page 35).
- All other associated pain (physiotherapy, mobilization) should be treated as acute pain.

Minor burns (*outpatient treatment*)

- Wound care: dressings with silver sulfadiazine or petrolatum gauze (except for first-degree superficial burns).
- Pain: paracetamol ± tramadol usually suffices.

Abscesses

An abscess is a collection of pus in the soft tissues most commonly due to *Staphylococcus aureus*.

During the suppurative stage, a 'ripe' abscess is red, inflamed, painful, shiny and swollen. It is usually fluctuant on palpation and may be fistulated. At this stage, the abscess cavity is inaccessible to antibiotics and surgical drainage is the only effective treatment.

During the early indurated stage, that precedes the suppurative stage medical treatment may be effective.

Treatment

Medical treatment (indurated stage)

- Antibiotic therapy:
Children: **amoxicillin** PO: 80 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses
+ **metronidazole** PO: 30 to 50 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses
Adults: **amoxicillin** PO: 3000 mg/day in 3 divided doses
+ **metronidazole** PO: 1500 mg/day in 3 divided doses
or
amoxicilline / clavulanic acid (co-amoxiclav) PO, only if formulations in a ratio 8:1 or 7:1 are available. The dose is expressed in amoxicillin:
Children < 40 kg: 80 mg/kg/day in 2 to 3 divided doses
Children ≥ 40 kg and adults: 2500 to 3000 mg/day in 3 divided doses depending on formulation available:
- ratio 8:1 : 3000 mg/day = 2 tablets of 500/62.5 mg, 3 times/day
- ratio 7:1 : 2625 mg/day = 1 tablet of 875/125 mg, 3 times/day
- Adapt analgesics to the pain level (see *Pain*, page 29).
- Apply compresses soaked in 70% alcohol, 2 times/day (maximum 3 times/day to prevent burns to the skin).

If there is improvement after 48 hours: continue antibiotic treatment for 5 days to complete 7 days of treatment.

If there is no improvement after 48 hours of correct treatment: treat surgically.

Surgical drainage (suppurative stage)

Material

- Sterile scalpel handle and blade
- Sterile curved, non-toothed artery forceps (Kelly type)
- Sterile gloves
- Antiseptic
- 5 or 10 ml syringe
- Non-absorbable sutures
- Sterile corrugated drain

Anaesthesia

With the exception of paronychia, local anaesthesia of the abscess is usually impossible. General anaesthesia may be indicated, using:

ketamine IM: 10 mg/kg

Technique

– Incision (Figure 8a)

- Hold the scalpel between the thumb and middle finger of the dominant hand, the index finger presses on the handle. Hold the abscess between the thumb and index finger of the other hand. The scalpel blade should be perpendicular to the skin.
- The incision is made in a single stroke along the long axis of the abscess. The incision must be long enough for a finger to be inserted.
- Be cautious when excising an abscess located over a blood vessel (carotid, axillary, humeral, femoral, popliteal).

– Digital exploration (Figure 8b)

- Explore the cavity with the index finger, breaking down all loculi (a single cavity should remain), evacuate the pus and explore to the edges of the cavity.
- The exploration also allows an assessment of the extent of the abscess, the depth, and location with respect to underlying structures (arterial pulsation) or any possible contact with underlying bone. In this last case, seek surgical advice.

– Washing

Abundant washing of the cavity using a syringe filled with antiseptic solution.

– Drainage (Figure 8c)

Insert a drain (or, failing that a gauze wick) into the base of the cavity. If possible, fix it to the edge of the incision with a single suture. The drain is withdrawn progressively and then, after 3 to 5 days removed completely.



Figure 8a
Incision with a scalpel



Figure 8b
Exploration of the cavity, breaking down any loculi

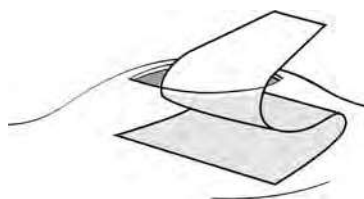


Figure 8c
Drain fixed to the skin

Figures 8: *Surgical drainage of an abscess*

Special sites

Breast abscesses

(Figures 9a to 9d)

- Breast abscesses are usually superficial, but deep ones, when they occur, are more difficult to diagnose and drain.

Medical treatment (indurated stage)

- Antibiotic treatment (see above)
- Apply a constrictive bandage, stop breast-feeding from the infected breast; express milk using a breast pump to avoid engorgement.

Surgical drainage (suppurative stage)

- Incision:
 - radial for superficial abscesses,
 - peri-areolar for abscesses near the nipple,
 - submammary for deep abscesses.
- Gentle exploration with a finger.
- Wash abundantly with a syringe filled with an antiseptic solution.
- Insert a corrugated drain.

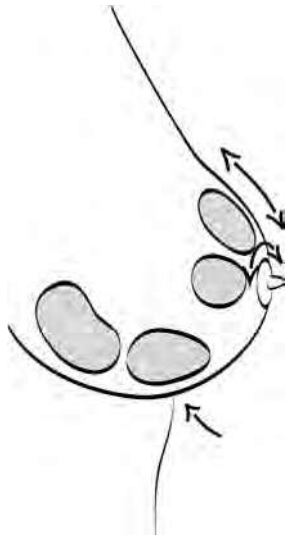


Figure 9a
Locations of breast abscesses

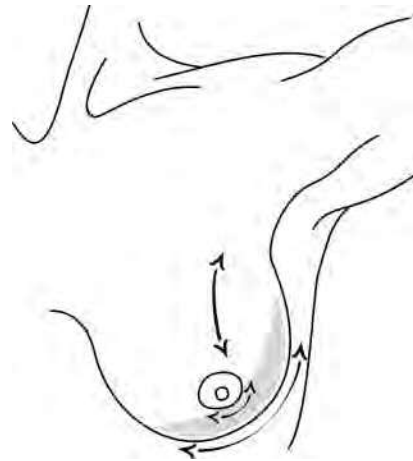


Figure 9b
Incisions: radial, peri-areolar, submammary

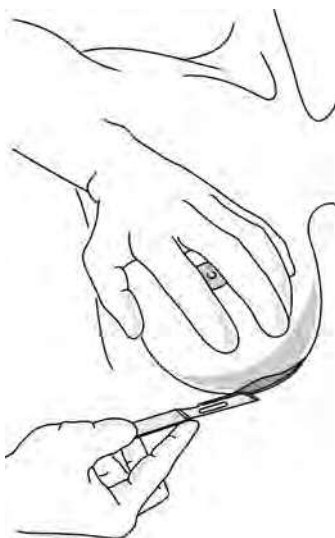


Figure 9c
Submammary incision

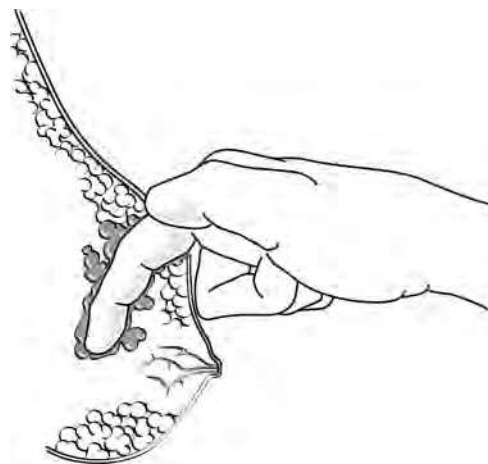


Figure 9d
Gentle exploration with a finger,
breaking down any loculi

Parotid abscess

There is a risk of severing the facial nerve when incising a parotid abscess. The incision should be horizontal along the lower margin of the abscess.

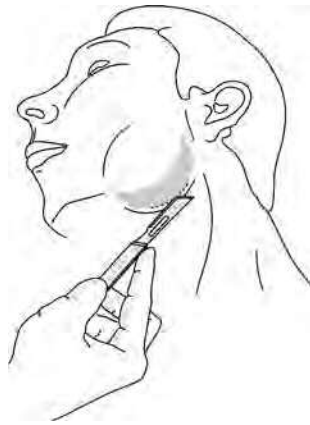


Figure 10
Incision of a parotid abscess

Pyomyositis

- Pyomyositis is an infection of the muscle, almost always due to *Staphylococcus aureus*. It most commonly affects the muscles of the limbs and torso. These infections may occur simultaneously in multiple sites.
- During the early indurated stage, while the muscle is swollen, hot and painful, medical treatment may be effective. During the suppurative stage, when the abscess has formed, surgical drainage is the only effective treatment.

Treatment

Medical treatment (indurated stage)

- Immobilise the limb.
- Antibiotic therapy as for other abscesses (see page 274).
- Adapt analgesics to the pain level (see *Pain*, page 29).
- Apply compresses soaked in 70% alcohol, 2 times/day (maximum of 3 times/day to prevent burns to the skin).

Surgical drainage (suppurative stage)

Treatment of pyomyositis is by incision following the rules for incision of abscesses described on page 275. Muscle abscesses are often deeper than other abscesses. As a result, needle aspiration with a large bore needle may be necessary to locate the abscess; it yields thick pus. Needle aspiration is insufficient treatment even if pus is evacuated.

Material and anaesthesia

As for abscesses (see pages 274 and 275).

Technique

- Generous incision along the axis of the limb, over the site of the abscess and avoiding underlying neurovascular structures; incise the skin, subcutaneous tissues and muscular fascia with a scalpel (Figure 11a).
- Dissect the muscle fibres with non-toothed forceps (Kelly type) or round tipped scissors. Insert the instrument into the muscle until the purulent cavity is reached. During insertion, keep the instrument closed and perpendicular to the muscle fibres. Withdraw gently with the scissors or forceps slightly open, keeping instrument perpendicular to the fibres (Figure 11b).
- Use a forefinger to explore the cavity, break down any loculi and evacuate the pus (Figure 11c).
- Wash abundantly with antiseptic solution.
- Insert a large drain.
- Fix the drain to the edge of the wound using a single suture. Remove the drain on about the 5th day (Figure 11d).

Special site

Myositis of the psoas muscle: if the abscess is on the right side, the clinical signs are the same as for appendicitis with pain in the right iliac area. Transfer the patient to a surgical centre.

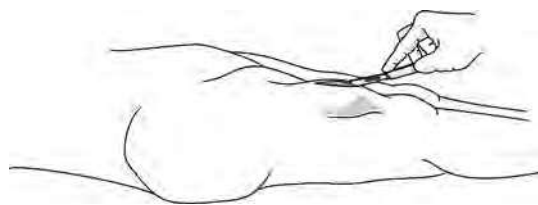


Figure 11a
Long incision

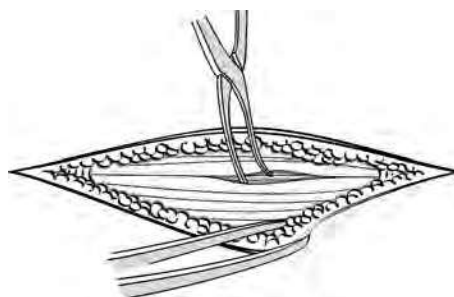


Figure 11b
Dissection of the muscle using
Kelly forceps, insert closed then withdraw
with the instrument slightly open



Figure 11c
Exploration and evacuation of pus
with the finger



Figure 11d
Drain fixed to the skin

Figures 11: *Surgical drainage of a pyomyositis*

Leg ulcers

- Leg ulcers are chronic losses of cutaneous tissue. They are common in tropical regions, resulting from varied aetiologies:
 - vascular: venous and/or arterial insufficiency
 - bacterial: leprosy, Buruli ulcer (*Mycobacterium ulcerans*), phagedenic ulcer, yaws, syphilis
 - parasitic: dracunculiasis (Guinea-worm disease), leishmaniasis
 - metabolic: diabetes
 - traumatic: trauma is often a precipitating factor combined with another underlying cause
- The history of the disease and a complete clinical examination (paying particular attention to the neurological examination to determine if there is a peripheral neuropathy caused by leprosy or diabetes) usually leads to an aetiological diagnosis.
- All ulcers may become complicated with either local or regional secondary infections (abscess, lymphadenopathy, adenitis, osteomyelitis, erysipela, pyodermitis), generalised infection (septicaemia), tetanus and after many years of evolution, skin cancer.

Daily local treatment

- Bathe the leg for 10 to 15 minutes in **NaDCC** or **chloramine** and rinse in boiled water.
- Remove any necrotic (black) and fibrinous (yellowish) tissue using compresses or excise the tissue with a scalpel.
- Apply:
 - to a clean ulcer, with little discharge: **10% polyvidone iodine** and vaseline;
 - to a dirty ulcer, with little discharge: **silver sulfadiazine**;
 - to an oozing ulcer: **10% polyvidone iodine** alone;
 - to multiple or extensive ulcers with no discharge: **silver sulfadiazine** (monitor for systemic adverse effects);
 - to multiple or extensive oozing ulcers: diluted **polyvidone iodine** (1/4 of 10% polyvidone + 3/4 of 0.9% NaCl or clean water) for one minute then rinse with 0.9% NaCl or clean water to reduce the risk of transcutaneous iodine absorption.
- Cover with a dry sterile dressing.

Systemic treatment

- Treatment with analgesics in the event of pain: adapt the level and dosage to the individual (see *Pain*, page 29).
- Give systemic antibiotics in case of:
 - secondary infection (see *Bacterial skin infections*, page 105).

- phagedenic ulcer (in the early stages, antibiotics may be useful. They are often ineffective in the chronic stages):

benzylpenicillin procaine + benzylpenicillin IM (if necessary give half the dose in each buttock)

Children: 100 000 IU/kg once daily for 7 days

Adults: 4 MIU once daily for 7 days

If the patient is allergic to penicillin:

erythromycin PO

Children: 50 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses

Adults: 2 g/day in 2 divided doses

or

doxycycline PO (except in children under 8 years and pregnant or lactating women)

Children over 8 years: 4 mg/kg once daily

Adults: 200 mg once daily

or

metronidazole PO

Children: 30 mg/kg/day in 3 divided doses

Adults: 1.5 g/day in 3 divided doses

If after 7 days the chosen antibiotic shows to be effective, continue for as long as needed, treatment duration varies according to the clinical evolution.

For patients treated with penicillin, change to oral treatment after 7 days by using

phenoxymethylpenicillin PO

Children from 1 to 5 years: 500 mg/day in 4 divided doses

Children from 6 to 12 years: 1 g/day in 4 divided doses

Adults: 2 g/day in 4 divided doses

- Treat the cause
- Complementary therapy:
 - Elevate the legs in cases of venous and/or lymphatic insufficiency
 - Give tetanus prophylaxis if appropriate (see *Tetanus*, page 170)
 - Skin graft¹ if the ulcer is extensive, clean, red and flat. Skin grafts are often necessary after surgical excision to heal phagedenic and Buruli ulcers.

¹ For techniques of skin grafting, refer to the MSF handbook, *Minor surgical procedures in remote areas*.

Venomous bites and stings

Snake bites and envenomation

- More than 50% of the bites are dry bites, i.e. no envenomation occurred. In the event that venom is injected, the severity of envenomation depends on the species, the amount of venom injected, the location of the bite (bites on the head and neck are the most dangerous) and the weight, general condition and age of the individual (more serious in children).
- It is rare that the snake involved is identified. However, observation of the clinical signs may orient diagnosis and management. Two major syndromes are identified:
 - neurological disorders that evolve towards respiratory muscle paralysis and coma are common manifestations of elapid envenomation (cobra, mamba, etc.);
 - extensive local lesions (intense pain, inflammation with oedema and necrosis) and coagulation abnormalities are common manifestations of viperid or crotalid (rattle snake) envenomation.

Clinical manifestations and management of bites and envenomations are described in the following page.

- Early diagnosis and monitoring of coagulation abnormalities is based on whole blood clotting tests performed in a dry tube (at the patient's arrival and then every 4 to 6 hours for the first day).


Take 2 to 5 ml of whole blood, wait 30 minutes and examine the tube:

- Complete clotting: no coagulation abnormality
- Incomplete clotting or no clotting: coagulation abnormality, susceptibility to bleeding¹

In the event of coagulation abnormalities, continue to monitor once daily until coagulation returns to normal.

- Aetiological treatment is based on the administration of snake antivenom serum, only if there are clear *clinical manifestations of envenomation* or *coagulation abnormalities* are observed. Antivenom sera are effective, but rarely available (verify local availability) and difficult to store.

Antivenom serum should be administered as early as possible: by IV infusion (in 0.9% sodium chloride) if using a poorly purified serum; by slow IV in the event of severe envenomation if the serum is known to be well purified. Repeat antivenom serum administration after 4 or 6 hours if the symptoms of envenomation persist.

 For all patients, be prepared for an anaphylactic reaction, which, despite its potential severity (shock), is usually more easily controlled than coagulation disorders or serious neurological disorders.

- In asymptomatic patients (bites without signs of envenomation and with normal coagulation), monitoring must continue for at least 12 hours (24 hours preferred).

¹ There can be a considerable delay between the decrease in coagulation factors (less than 30 minutes after the bite) and the first signs of bleeding (other than bleeding at the site of the bite and/or the development of sero-sanguinous blisters), which may appear only 3 days after the bite. Conversely, bleeding may resolve prior to normalization of coagulation parameters.

Clinical signs and treatment

Time since bite	Clinical manifestations	Possible aggressor	Treatment
Bite			
0	Fang marks Pain at the site of bite	?	Strict rest, immobilisation of the limb with a splint to slow the diffusion of venom ² . Wound cleansing. Tetanus prophylaxis, page 170. Observe for manifestations of envenomation. At the dispensary level, prepare patient evacuation to a referral centre.
Envenomation			
10-30 minutes	Hypotension, myosis, excessive salivation and sweating, dysphagia, dyspnoea Local paraesthesia, paresis	Elapids	Insert a peripheral IV line. IV antivenom serum as soon as possible.
	Inflammatory syndrome: intense pain, extensive regional oedema	Viperids Crotalids	Insert a peripheral IV line. IV antivenom serum as soon as possible. Analgesics ³ . IV or PO ³ anti-inflammatories.
30 minutes-5 hours	Cobra syndrome: bilateral eyelid drooping, trismus, respiratory muscle paralysis Shock	Elapids	Intubation and assisted ventilation. See <i>Shock</i> , page 17.
30 minutes-48 hours	Haemorrhagic syndrome: epistaxis, purpura, haemolysis or disseminated intra-vascular coagulation Shock	Viperids Crotalids	Monitor coagulation (blood clotting test in a dry tube). Transfusion of fresh blood in the event of severe anaemia. See <i>Shock</i> , page 17.
6 hours or more	No signs or changes in coagulation (non-venomous snakes or snake bite without envenomation)	?	Reassure the patient. Send him home after 12 hours.
	Tissue necrosis		Remove blisters, clean; daily (non occlusive) dressings. Surgical intervention for necrosis, depending on the extent, after the lesions stabilise (minimum 15 days).

- In case of clinical evidence of infection only: drainage of any abscess; amoxicillin/clavulanic acid (co-amoxiclav) for 7 to 10 days in case of cellulitis. Infections are relatively rare, and most often associated with traditional treatment or with nosocomial transmission after unnecessary or premature surgery.

² Tourniquets, incision-suction and cauterisation are ineffective and may be dangerous.

³ Do not use acetylsalicylic acid (aspirin).

Scorpion stings and envenomation

- In most cases, the sting causes local effects including: pain, oedema, erythema. Management includes strict rest, wound cleansing, analgesics PO, and tetanus prophylaxis (see *Tetanus*, page 170). In patients with significant pain, infiltrate the area around the sting with local anaesthetic (**1% lidocaine**). Observe for 12 hours.
- General signs appear in the event of severe envenomation: hypertension, excessive salivation and sweating, hyperthermia, vomiting, diarrhoea, muscle pain, respiratory difficulties, seizures; rarely, shock.
- Aetiological treatment:
The use of scorpion antivenom sera is controversial (most of them are not very effective; they may be poorly tolerated due to insufficient purification).
In practice, in countries where scorpion envenomations are severe (North Africa, the Middle East, Central America and Amazonia), check local availability of antivenom sera and follow national recommendations.
The criteria for administration are the severity of the envenomation, the age of the patient (more severe in children) and the time elapsed since the sting. This should not exceed 2 to 3 hours. If the time elapsed is more than 2 or 3 hours, the benefit of antivenom serum is poor in comparison with the risk of anaphylaxis (in contrast to envenomation by snakes).
- Symptomatic treatment:
 - In the event of vomiting, diarrhoea or excessive sweating: prevention of dehydration (oral rehydration salts), especially in children.
 - In the event of muscle pain: **10% calcium gluconate** slow IV (children: 5 ml/injection, adults: 10 ml/injection, administered over 10 to 20 minutes).
 - In the event of seizures: diazepam may be used with caution; the risk of respiratory depression is increased in envenomated patients (see *Seizures*, page 23).

Spider bites and envenomation

- Treatment is usually limited to wound cleansing, strict rest, analgesics PO and tetanus prophylaxis (see *Tetanus*, page 170).
- Severe envenomations are rare. There are two main clinical syndromes:
 - Neurotoxic syndrome (black widow spider): severe muscle pain, tachycardia, hypertension, nausea, vomiting, headache, excessive sweating. The signs develop for 24 hours and then resolve spontaneously over a few days.
 - Necrotic syndrome (recluse spider): local tissue lesions, possible necrosis and ulceration; mild general signs (fever, chills, malaise and vomiting) which usually resolve over a few days. If present, haemolysis may sometimes be life threatening.
 As well as the general measures listed above, treatment includes administration of **10% calcium gluconate** by slow IV in the event of muscle spasms (children: 5 ml/injection, adults: 10 ml/injection, administered over 10 to 20 minutes).
Incision and debridement of necrotic tissue are not recommended (not useful; may impair healing).

Hymenoptera stings (honeybees, wasps and hornets)

- Local care: remove the embedded sting (bee), clean with soap and water; if pruriginous, apply **calamine** lotion.
- Analgesics if necessary (paracetamol PO).
- In the event of an anaphylactic reaction:

epinephrine (adrenaline) IM

Use *undiluted* epinephrine solution (1:1000 = 1 mg/ml) and a 1 ml syringe graduated in 0.01 ml in children:

Children under 6 years: 0.15 ml

Children from 6 to 12 years: 0.3 ml

Children over 12 years and adults: 0.5 ml

For children, if 1 ml syringe is not available, use a *diluted* solution, i.e. add 1 mg epinephrine to 9 ml of 0.9% sodium chloride to obtain a 0.1 mg/ml solution (1:10 000):

Children under 6 years: 1.5 ml

Children from 6 to 12 years: 3 ml

Repeat after 5 minutes if no clinical improvement.

Use IV epinephrine (for doses, see *Anaphylactic shock*, page 19) in patients with circulatory collapse or those who deteriorate despite receiving IM epinephrine.

Dental infections

Infection arising as a secondary complication of an inflammation of the dental pulp. The severity and the treatment of dental infections depend on their evolution: localised to the infected tooth, extended to adjacent anatomical structures or diffuse infections.

Clinical features and treatment

Infection localised to a tooth and its surroundings (acute dental abscess)

- Intense and continuous pain.
- On examination: swelling limited to the gum surrounding the infected tooth. Purulent exudate may be present draining either through the root canal, or through the periodontal ligament (loosening the tooth) or through a gingival fistula. There are no signs of the infection extending to adjacent anatomical structures nor general signs of infection.
- Treatment:
 - Treatment is only surgical (the source of infection is inaccessible to antibiotics): root canal therapy (disinfection of the root canal) if possible or extraction of the tooth.¹
 - Pain: **paracetamol** or **ibuprofen** PO (see *Pain*, page 29).

Infections extending to adjacent anatomical structures (acute dento-alveolar abscess)

Local spreading of an acute dental abscess into the surrounding bone and tissue.

- Painful gingival and buccal swelling with warm and tender skin, developing into a ripe abscess: intense pain, with trismus, particularly if the infection is in a posterior tooth, presence of general signs (fever, fatigue, cervical lymphadenopathy).
 - In patients with acute gangrenous cellulitis (crepitations on palpation), treat as an infection extending into the cervico-facial tissues (following page).
 - Treatment:
 - First surgical: incision and drainage of the pus or extraction of the tooth.¹
 - Then antibiotic treatment for 5 days following the procedure: **amoxicillin** PO
Children: 50 mg/kg/day in 2 divided doses
Adults: 2 g/day in 2 divided doses
- Notes:*
- If the dental procedure has to be delayed (local anaesthesia not possible due to inflammation, significant trismus), start with antibiotic treatment, but the dental procedure must be completed in the following days.
- If there is no improvement within 48 to 72 hours after the dental procedure, do not change antibiotic, but start a new procedure on the tooth.
- Pain: **paracetamol** or **ibuprofen** PO (see *Pain*, page 29).

¹ For techniques of dental extraction, see the MSF handbook, *Minor surgical procedures in remote areas*.

Infections extending into the cervico-facial tissues

- Extremely serious cellulitis, with rapidly spreading cervical or facial tissue necrosis and signs of septicaemia.
- Treatment:
 - treatment in an intensive care unit.
 - high dose antibiotic treatment (see *antibiotic treatment of septic shock*, page 20).
 - extraction of the tooth.²

² For techniques of dental extraction, see the MSF handbook, *Minor surgical procedures in remote areas*.

CHAPTER 11

Mental/psychical disorders in adults

Anxiety	291
Insomnia	292
Agitation	293
Mental confusion	294
Post-traumatic stress disorder	295
Depression	297
Psychotic disorders	300

Anxiety

A patient suffering from anxiety has:

- psychical symptoms: pervasive worries, e.g. fear of having a serious illness, fear with no clearly-defined object or phobias;
- behavioural changes: nervousness, avoidance behaviour;
- physical symptoms: e.g., dry mouth, “lump in the throat,” nonspecific complaints (e.g. feeling of malaise, hot flashes or chills, diffuse pain).

Anxiety is a common feature in depression (page 297), post-traumatic stress disorder (page 295) and psychosis (page 300). It can also occur in isolation, not associated with any other mental disorders. Anxiety disorders often occur immediately after a difficult life event.

Management

Try to determine the source of the anxiety and reassure the patient. If necessary, use simple relaxation techniques to alleviate the symptoms¹.

If symptoms are exacerbated (e.g., tachycardia, feeling of suffocation, fear of dying or “going crazy,” agitation, or conversely, prostration), it may be necessary to administer **diazepam**: 5 to 10 mg PO or 10 mg IM, to be repeated after one hour if required.

Severe anxiety may justify a short course² (one to two weeks max.) of **diazepam** PO: 5 to 10 mg/day in 2 divided doses; reducing the dose by half in the last few days of treatment.

If symptoms recur after treatment discontinuation, do not resume diazepam.

Haloperidol PO at very low dose and for a short period of time (1 mg/day in 2 divided for maximum 2 to 4 weeks) may be used for its anxiolytic properties if a treatment is still needed. However, before prescribing haloperidol, re-evaluate for possible depression or post-traumatic stress disorder (see pages 295 and 297).

For generalised anxiety, an antidepressant with anxiolytic properties is preferred (**paroxetine** PO: 10 to 20 mg maximum once daily at bedtime), to be continued for 2 to 3 months after symptoms resolve then, stop gradually over 2 weeks.

For recurring attacks (panic disorder), **clomipramine** PO may be prescribed to prevent recurrences: 25 mg once daily, to be gradually increased to 75 mg once daily. Continue for 2 to 3 months after symptoms resolve then, stop gradually (over 3 to 4 weeks) while monitoring the patient for recurrence of symptoms.

¹ For example, in case of hyperventilation, use a technique that controls the respiratory rate: get the patient in a comfortable position with his eyes closed. Help him focus on his breathing so that it becomes calmer and more regular, with three-phase breathing cycles: inhalation (count to three), exhalation (count to three), pause (count to three), etc.

² Treatment should be short as benzodiazepines can cause dependence and tolerance.

Insomnia

Complaints may be: difficulty falling or remaining asleep, waking up too early in the morning, nightmares, or daytime fatigue.

Management

If the insomnia is related to an organic cause, treat the cause (e.g., administer analgesics for pain).

If the insomnia is related to the use of alcohol, drugs or a medication¹, management depends on the substance responsible.

If the insomnia is related to a particular life event (e.g. bereavement), a short term treatment with a sedating antihistamine (**promethazine** PO: 25 mg once daily at bedtime for 8 to 10 days) may be useful.

If the insomnia persists, re-evaluate the patient. Insomnia is a common feature in depression (page 297), post-traumatic stress disorder (page 295) and anxiety disorders (page 291). In such cases, the underlying disorder should be addressed.

¹ The main drugs known to cause sleep problems are corticosteroids, beta blockers, levodopa/carbidopa, levothyroxin (if overdose), phenytoin, fluoxetine and clomipramine.

Agitation

Patients with anxiety or psychotic or personality disorders, or mental confusion may have periods of psychomotor agitation.

Agitation is also common in acute intoxication (alcohol/drugs) and withdrawal syndrome (e.g. delirium tremens or abrupt interruption of antidepressant therapy).

It may be accompanied by oppositional behaviour, violence or fleeing.

Management

Clinical evaluation is best performed in pairs, in a calm setting, with or without the person's family/friends, depending on the situation.

It may be necessary to administer **diazepam** 10 mg PO to reduce the agitation and conduct the clinical exam.

If the patient is violent or dangerous, urgent sedation is required: **diazepam** IM 10 mg, to be repeated after 30 to 60 minutes if necessary.

Physical restraint may be required in certain circumstances. However, its use should be viewed as a temporary measure, always in combination with sedation and close medical supervision.

Determine whether or not the patient is confused; look for an underlying cause, e.g., neurological, metabolic, etc. (see page 294). Management depends on the underlying cause.

If the agitation is associated with anxiety, see page 291; if associated with psychotic disorders, see page 300.

Alcoholic patients can experience withdrawal symptoms within 6 to 24 hours after they stop drinking. In the early phase (pre-delirium tremens), the manifestations include irritability, a general feeling of malaise, profuse sweating and shaking. Withdrawal syndrome should be taken into consideration in patients who are hospitalised and therefore forced to stop drinking abruptly.

At a more advanced stage (delirium tremens), agitation is accompanied by fever, mental confusion and visual hallucinations (zoopsia).

Pre-DT symptoms can be prevented or treated with: **diazepam** PO (40 mg/day in 4 divided doses 6 hours apart for 1 to 3 days, then reduce and stop over 7 days) + oral hydration (3 litres of water/day) + **thiamine** IM (100 mg/day for at least 3 days).

In post-operative patients, start with the parenteral route: **diazepam** slow IV, 5 to 10 mg 4 times daily (for precautions, see *delirium tremens* below) + IV hydration (2 to 4 litres 0.9% sodium chloride/24 hours) + **thiamine** IM as above.

In case of delirium tremens (DT):

- Admit the patient to an intensive care unit.
- Administer **diazepam** IV: 10 to 20 mg 4 to 6 times/day, under close supervision with ventilation equipment near at hand. The goal is to achieve mild sedation without provoking respiratory depression. The doses and duration of the treatment are adapted according to the clinical progress.
- Add **chlorpromazine** IM if necessary: 25 to 50 mg 1 to 3 times/day.
- IV hydration: 2 to 4 litres 0.9% sodium chloride/24 hours.
- Administer **thiamine** IM: 100 mg/day for at least 3 days.
- Monitor vital signs and blood glucose levels.

Mental confusion

The clinical picture includes:

- disorientation in time and space;
- impaired consciousness;
- concentration problems;
- memory impairment.

These symptoms develop rapidly (hours or days), and often fluctuate during the course of the day.

Agitation, delusions, behavioural disorders and hallucinations (often visual) may complicate the picture.

Mental confusion almost always has an organic cause:

- Infectious: meningitis, cerebral malaria, encephalitis, septicaemia, syphilis, AIDS, etc.
- Metabolic: hyper/hypoglycaemia, electrolyte imbalance, niacin or B1 deficiencies, etc.
- Endocrine: thyroid disorders
- Neurological: epilepsy, raised intracranial pressure, head trauma, meningeal haemorrhage, brain tumour, etc.

Also consider treatment adverse effects (corticosteroids, opioid analgesics, psychotropic drugs, etc.), use of toxic substances (alcohol/drugs), or withdrawal from these substances (see *delirium tremens*, page 293).

Management

Mental confusion requires hospitalisation. Treat the underlying cause.

Post-traumatic stress disorder

An event is “traumatic” when someone has been directly confronted with death, either by seeing another person being killed or seriously injured as the result of violence, or by experiencing serious harm, such as a threat to his/her life or physical integrity (e.g. rape, torture). These events cause feelings of helplessness and horror.

Immediate, transitory disorders (prostration, disorientation, fleeing, automatic behaviours, etc.) are to be distinguished from secondary, long-lasting problems that appear several weeks or months after the event: post-traumatic stress, often associated with depression (page 297), or sometimes acute psychosis (page 300), even in people with no history of psychotic symptoms.

Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is characterised by three types of psychological response, generally seen in combination:

– *Persistent re-experiencing*

The patient describes:

- images, thoughts or perceptions related to the traumatic experience, which intrude despite efforts to block them out, including at night in the form of distressing dreams;
- flashbacks during which the patient “relives” parts of the traumatic scene.

– *Avoidance*

The patient tries to avoid:

- places, situations and people that might be associated with the trauma;
- having thoughts or feelings related to the trauma; patients may use alcohol, drugs or any psychotropic agents for this purpose.

– *Increased arousal*

Constant state of alert, exaggerated startle response, anxiety, insomnia, poor concentration. The patient may develop somatic symptoms such as hypertension, sweating, shaking, tachycardia, headache, etc.).

Re-experiencing is highly distressing and causes disorders that may worsen over time; people isolate themselves, behave differently, stop fulfilling their family/social obligations, and experience diffuse pain and mental exhaustion.

Management

Psychological intervention is essential to reduce the suffering, disabling symptoms and social handicaps resulting from PTSD.

It is important to reassure the patient that his symptoms are a comprehensible response to a very abnormal event. Sessions should be conducted with tact. The patient should be encouraged to talk about his experience. Avoid over active explorations of the patient’s emotions: leave it to the patient to decide how far he wants to go.

Associated symptoms (anxiety or insomnia), if persistent, can be relieved by symptomatic treatment (diazepam) for no more than two weeks¹.

If the patient has severe symptoms (obsessive thoughts, pronounced arousal, etc.), the pharmacological treatment is **paroxetine** PO (see page 291).

¹ Benzodiazepines can lead to dependence and tolerance. They should be used only for severe conditions and for a limited amount of time.

Depression

Depression is characterised by a set of symptoms lasting at least two weeks and causing a change from the patient's previous functioning.

The classic diagnostic criteria for a major depressive episode are:

- Pervasive sadness and/or a lack of interest or pleasure in activities normally found pleasurable

And

- At least four of the following signs:
 - Significant loss of appetite or weight
 - Insomnia, especially early waking (or, more rarely, hypersomnia)
 - Psychomotor agitation or retardation
 - Significant fatigue, making it difficult to carry out daily tasks
 - Diminished ability to make decisions or concentrate
 - Feeling of guilt or worthlessness, loss of self-confidence or self-esteem
 - Feeling of despair
 - Thoughts of death, suicidal ideation or attempt

The features of depression can vary, however, from one culture to another¹. For example, the depressed patient may express multiple somatic complaints rather than psychological distress. Depression may also manifest itself as an acute psychotic disorder in a given cultural context.

Management

When faced with symptoms of depression, consider an underlying organic cause (e.g., hypothyroidism or Parkinson's disease) or adverse effects from medical treatment (corticosteroids, cycloserine, efavirenz, levodopa, etc.). Look for a triggering event (e.g. rape, recent childbirth and post-partum depression).

Depressive symptoms are the most common psychical disorders in patients with severe chronic infectious diseases such as HIV infection or tuberculosis. These symptoms should not be neglected, especially as they have a negative impact on adherence to treatment.

Symptoms of depression are usual right after a major loss (bereavement, exile, etc.). They gradually subside, in most cases, with support from relatives. Psychological support may be useful.

Pharmacological treatment is justified if there is a risk of suicide or in the event of severe or long-lasting problems with significant impact on daily life, or if psychological follow-up alone is not enough.

Before prescribing, make sure that a 6-month treatment and follow-up (psychological support, adherence and response) is possible.

¹ Hence the importance of working with an "informant" (in the anthropological sense of the word) when dealing with unfamiliar cultural contexts.

Preferably use a serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SRI), particularly in elderly patients:

paroxetine PO: 20 mg once daily in the evening

or **fluoxetine** PO: 20 mg once daily in the morning; use with caution in patients with severe anxiety disorders or who are immobilised (e.g., wounded).

If the depression is accompanied by severe anxiety, use **amitriptyline** PO instead: start with 25 mg once daily and gradually increase over one week to 75 mg once daily (150 mg/day maximum).

Be careful with tricyclic antidepressants, as the therapeutic dose is close to the lethal dose. In elderly patients, reduce the dose by half.

Depression is less frequent in pregnancy than in the postpartum period. In situations where antidepressants are required, use paroxetine rather than fluoxetine if the woman plans to breastfeed. In the event of pregnancy in a woman under antidepressants, re-evaluate the need to continue the treatment. If the treatment is still necessary, refer to the table below. Monitor newborns for signs of toxicity or withdrawal symptoms during the first few days of life.

Antidepressant therapy

	Fluoxetine (mg/day)				Paroxetine (mg/day)				Amitriptyline (mg/day)			
Week/month	W1	W2	W3	M1	W1	W2	W3	M1	W1	W2	W3	M1
Adults	20	20	20	40	20	20	20	40	25	50	75	100
> 60 years	idem				idem				25	25	50	75
Increase at M1 (end of the first month) only if still necessary.												
Breastfeeding	Avoid				Can be used				Can be used; monitor the infant (risk of drowsiness).			
Pregnancy	Can be used								Can be used; reduce the dose at the end of pregnancy.			

If SRIs are unavailable or poorly tolerated, **clomipramide** PO may also be used: start with 25 mg once daily at bedtime, and gradually increase over one week to 75 mg once daily (150 mg/day maximum).

There is a delay of 2 to 3 weeks before antidepressant effect occurs. During this period, anxiety may be exacerbated and the risk of suicide increased, especially with fluoxetine and clomipramine. **Diazepam** PO (5 to 10 mg/day in 2 divided doses) may be given for the first two weeks of treatment.

During the first month, the patient should be followed weekly. During this period, do not give more tablets than the quantity required for each week.

All serious depression carries the risk for suicide. Talking to patients about this will not increase the risk of suicide attempt. On the contrary – depressed people are often anxious and ambivalent about suicide and feel relieved when able to talk about it.

If major symptoms have not resolved at all after a month at a normally-effective dose, refer the patient to a psychiatrist, if possible; if not, try a different antidepressant².

The treatment should always be stopped gradually (over a 2-week period for SRIs, and a 4-week period for tricyclics). Inform the patient about problems associated with abrupt treatment discontinuation (very common with paroxetine).

² In case of treatment failure with an SRI: if the patient is under paroxetine, reduce the dose over a two-week period to avoid withdrawal symptoms, then wait 2 to 4 days before starting the tricyclic antidepressant. If the patient is under fluoxetine, stop fluoxetine (withdrawal symptoms are unlikely) and wait at least 10 to 14 days before starting the tricyclic antidepressant.

Psychotic disorders

Psychoses are characterised by delusions. The patient is convinced of things that are not real, based on intuition, interpretation or hallucinations – especially auditory ones. Delusions are often accompanied by behaviour disorders, for example agitation, prostration, mutism, opposition, and fleeing.

Management includes psychosocial support and antipsychotic medication.

Treatment efficacy and the prognosis depend in large part on the quality of the relationship established with the patient and his family.

Keeping the patient at home with outpatient follow-up is preferred if the patient is not a danger to himself or others, and if the family is capable of managing the disorder.

The meaning of psychoses varies with the cultural context¹. For example, psychotic disorders may be attributed to charms or to ancestor intervention. Therapeutic approach should take those beliefs into account. Patient are usually already under “traditional” treatments, this should not be seen as an obstacle to conventional medical treatment.

Acute psychotic episode

An acute psychotic episode can be a one-time occurrence, usually of sudden onset, or can occur repeatedly or may be the early phase of chronic psychosis. It can occur following a life event (e.g., loss, acute stress or trauma). In postpartum psychosis, the delusions centre on the mother-child relationship.

Before prescribing antipsychotic medication, consider the possibility of an underlying organic cause (see *Mental confusion*, page 294) or use of toxic substances.

Antipsychotic therapy is the same as that for chronic psychoses (risperidone or haloperidol, page 301) and should last at least 3 months. After 3 months, if the patient is stable, stop the treatment gradually over 4 weeks, monitoring for potential relapse.

For severe anxiety or agitation, an short-course anxiolytic or sedative treatment (see page 302) may be added to the antipsychotic treatment, at the beginning of treatment.

Chronic psychoses

The chronic psychoses (schizophrenia, paranoid psychosis, etc.) are defined by specific clinical characteristics and their long-term nature.

In schizophrenia, delusions are accompanied by dissociation; the patient seems odd, his speech and thoughts are incoherent, his behaviour unpredictable and his emotional expression discordant. Such patients are often very anxious. Delusions of persecution are common.

¹ Hence the importance of working with an “informant” (in the anthropological sense of the word) when dealing with unfamiliar cultural contexts.

The goal of the treatment is to reduce psychological suffering and disabling symptoms, particularly on the relational level. It offers real benefits, even if chronic symptoms persist (tendency toward social isolation, possible relapses and periods of increased behavioural problems, etc.).

The treatment should last at least one year, with a gradual dose reduction. Low dose may be maintained for longer periods if necessary.

Uncertainty about the possibility of follow-up at one year or beyond is no reason not to treat. However, it is better not to start pharmacological treatment for patients who have no family / social support (e.g., homeless), provided they do not have severe behavioural disorders.

Start treatment at a low dose:

risperidone PO: 2 mg in 2 divided doses on D1, then 4 mg/day in 2 divided doses as of D2. If insufficient, increase to 6 mg/day (8 mg/day maximum).

or **haloperidol** PO²: 5 mg/day in 2 divided doses; if insufficient, 10 mg/day in 2 divided doses. Not to exceed 20 mg/day.

Antipsychotic therapy

	Risperidone (mg / day)				Haloperidol (mg / day)			
Week / month	D1	W1-W2	W3	M1	W1	W2	W3	M1
Adults	2	4	4 to 6	4 to 6	5	5	5 to 10	5 to 15
> 60 years	1	2	2 to 4	2 to 4	2	2	2 to 5	2 to 10
Increase only if necessary.								
Breastfeeding	Can be used				Avoid; if absolutely necessary, administer less than 5 mg / day.			
Pregnancy	Monitor the newborn for the first few days of life.				Monitor the newborn for the first few days of life if the mother received high doses during the 3 rd trimester.			

In elderly patients, reduce the dose by half, whichever medication is used.

Extrapyramidal effects, which are more common with haloperidol than with risperidone, can be counteracted by adding **biperiden** PO: 2 to 4 mg/day in 2 divided doses.

Psychoses (first acute episode or decompensation of a chronic psychosis) are much less common during pregnancy than postpartum. In the event of pregnancy in a woman taking antipsychotics, re-evaluate the need to continue the treatment. If treatment is still necessary, refer to the table above. Monitor the newborn for extrapyramidal symptoms during the first few days of life.

For postpartum psychosis, if the woman is breastfeeding, risperidone should be preferred to haloperidol.

² If available, haloperidol decanoate IM (long-acting form) can be used in the long-term treatment of psychoses in patients stabilised on oral therapy (100 mg every 4 weeks).

For severe anxiety or agitation, the following can be added, for a short period, at the beginning of the antipsychotic treatment:

- An anxiolytic, if the patient is anxious:
diazepam PO: 5 to 15 mg/day in 2 or 3 divided doses for a few days
Only use the injectable form in severe anxiety (**diazepam** IM: 10 mg, to be repeated once after one or two hours, if necessary), then change to diazepam PO as above.
- Another, more sedating, antipsychotic if the patient is agitated:
chlorpromazine PO: 75 to 150 mg/day in 3 divided doses for a few days
- For very severe agitation, violence or opposition:
haloperidol IM: 5 mg + **chlorpromazine** IM: 25 mg, to be repeated once after one or two hours, if necessary.
In such cases, continue with haloperidol PO rather than risperidone (and if necessary, continue chlorpromazine PO as above for a few days).

Bipolar disorder

Bipolar disorder is characterised by alternating manic and depressive episodes³, generally separated by “normal” periods lasting several months or years.

Manic episodes are characterised by elation, euphoria and hyperactivity accompanied by insomnia, grandiose ideas, and loss of social inhibitions (sexual, in particular).

Depressive episodes are often severe, with significant risk of suicide.

Pharmacologically:

- Manic episodes are treated with **risperidone** PO: start at a low dose of 2 mg once daily; increase if necessary in steps of 1 mg/day (maximum dose 6 mg/day) for 3 to 6 weeks. The medication should be stopped gradually, monitoring for possible relapse.
- Depressive episodes are treated as depression (see page 297).
- The primary treatment for bipolar disorder is a long-term mood stabiliser (lithium or carbamazepine).

³ “Unipolar forms” are characterized by recurring episodes of depression.

CHAPTER 12

Other conditions

Hypertension	305
Heart failure in adults	309
Endemic goitre and iodine deficiency	312

Hypertension

- **Adult essential hypertension** is defined as a systolic pressure greater than or equal to 160 mmHg and/or a diastolic pressure greater than or equal to 90 mmHg.
The elevation must be constant: blood pressure must be measured twice at rest during three consecutive consultations over a period of three months.
Hypertension is a risk factor for stroke (cerebrovascular accident or CVA), heart failure, renal failure and atherosclerosis.
- **Hypertension in pregnancy** is defined as a systolic pressure greater than or equal to 140 mmHg or a diastolic pressure greater than or equal to 90 mmHg (with the patient seated and at rest). It may be isolated or associated with proteinuria or oedema in the case of pre-eclampsia.
Hypertension in pregnancy is a risk factor for eclampsia, placental abruption and premature delivery.

Treatment of adult essential hypertension

- In patients with medication-induced hypertension (oral contraceptives, hydrocortisone, MAO inhibitors, NSAID etc.), stop or change the treatment.
- Otherwise, start with diet and exercise modification: reduce salt intake, lose any excess weight, and increase the level of physical activity.
- If despite these measures the blood pressure remains consistently above 160/100 mmHg (or 140/80 mmHg for a diabetic patient or following a CVA), an anti-hypertensive medication may be added.
- Start with monotherapy. The optimal dose depends on the patient; reduce by half the initial dose for elderly patients.
- The three classes of anti-hypertensives used as initial therapy¹ are the thiazide diuretics, the beta-blockers and the angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors. For information:

Indications	Initial treatment
Uncomplicated hypertension	thiazide diuretic or beta-blocker
Patient over 65 years	thiazide diuretic
Diabetic patient	ACE inhibitor or beta-blocker
Complicated hypertension:	
Following a CVA	thiazide diuretic
Following a myocardial infarction	beta-blocker
Heart failure	ACE inhibitor
Renal failure	ACE inhibitor

- The treatment must be taken regularly. Abrupt cessation of beta-blocker treatment may cause adverse effects (malaise, angina)². Only prescribe a treatment if it can be followed by a patient under regular surveillance.

¹ The diuretics, beta-blockers, and ACE inhibitors have shown their capacity to prevent the complications of hypertension. They are preferred to other anti-hypertensives, notably calcium channel blockers (nifedipine).

² Furthermore, a sudden stop to treatment with centrally acting anti-hypertensives (e.g. methyldopa, clonidine) may cause a rebound effect.

The objective is to reduce the blood pressure to below 160/90 mmHg (or 140/90 mmHg for diabetic patients) while producing the fewest possible adverse effects.

For uncomplicated hypertension:

- Start with a thiazide diuretic: **hydrochlorothiazide** PO 25 to 50 mg once daily.
- If the patient is not improving after 4 weeks, or if treatment is not tolerated: check compliance, and then if there are no contra-indications (asthma, uncontrolled heart failure), change to a beta-blocker: **atenolol** PO 50 to 100 mg once daily.
- If the treatment is still of little or no benefit: recheck compliance, and then consider combined therapy (thiazide diuretic + beta-blocker or thiazide diuretic + ACE inhibitor).

Note: if enalapril³ is used as monotherapy (see table of indications), start with 5 mg once daily, then increase the dose every 1 to 2 weeks, according to blood pressure, up to 10 to 40 mg once daily or in 2 divided doses. In elderly patients, patients taking a diuretic or patients with renal impairment: start with 2.5 mg once daily as there is a risk of hypotension and/or acute renal impairment.

Specific case: treatment of hypertensive crisis

An occasional rise in blood pressure usually passes without problems, whereas aggressive treatment, notably with sublingual nifedipine, can have serious consequences (syncope, or myocardial, cerebral, or renal ischaemia).

– *In patients with hypertensive crisis:*

- Reassure the patient and place him at rest.
- If despite these measures the blood pressure remains elevated, the addition of **furosemide** PO (20 mg once daily) may, in certain cases, gradually reduce the blood pressure in 24 to 48 hours and prevent eventual complications.

– *In patients with hypertensive crisis complicated by acute pulmonary oedema:*

- The objective is not to normalise the blood pressure at any price, but to treat the pulmonary oedema (see page 308).
- Start or adjust the baseline treatment once the crisis is resolved.

Treatment of HTA in pregnancy and pre-eclampsia

Assess regularly: BP, weight, oedema, proteinuria, and uterine height.

– **For isolated hypertension** (without proteinuria)

- Rest and observation, normal sodium and caloric intake.
- Antihypertensive treatment if the systolic BP is ≥ 160 mmHg or the diastolic BP is ≥ 110 mmHg:
methyldopa PO: 500 to 750 mg/day in 2 to 3 divided doses for 2 days then increase gradually by 250 mg increments every 2 to 3 days, up to the usual dose of 1.5 g/day. Do not exceed 3 g/day.
 or **labetalol** PO: 200 mg/day in 2 divided doses then increase by 100 to 200 mg increments up to the usual dose of 400 to 800 mg/jour. If higher daily doses are required, administer in 3 divided doses. Do not exceed 2.4 g/day.
 Do not stop treatment abruptly, reduce doses gradually.
 Diuretics and angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors are contra-indicated in the treatment of hypertension in pregnancy.

³ **Enalapril** (10 to 40 mg once daily or in 2 divided doses) may be replaced by **captopril** (100 mg/day in 2 divided doses).

- **For moderate pre-eclampsia** (hypertension + proteinuria)
 - Rest and observation, normal sodium and caloric intake.
 - Antihypertensive treatment if the systolic BP is ≥ 160 mmHg or the diastolic BP is ≥ 110 mmHg, as above.
 - After 37 weeks, if there is a true intrauterine growth retardation: delivery, vaginally or by caesarean section depending on the cervical assessment. If there is no clear growth retardation, induce delivery as soon as the cervix is favourable.
- **For severe pre-eclampsia** (hypertension + massive proteinuria + major oedema)
 - Refer to a surgical centre for urgent delivery within 24 hours, vaginally or by caesarean section depending on the cervical assessment and the foetus condition.
 - While waiting for delivery, observation, normal sodium and caloric intake.
 - Antihypertensive treatment if the systolic BP is ≥ 160 mmHg or the diastolic BP is ≥ 110 mmHg, as above. If the treatment cannot be administered by oral route, use:

hydralazine by IV infusion:

Dilute 100 mg (5 vials of hydralazine, 5 ml) in 500 ml of 0.9% sodium chloride or Ringer lactate, to obtain a solution containing 200 micrograms/ml.

Initial dose: 200 to 300 micrograms/minute; maintenance dose: 50 to 150 micrograms/minute.

Administer by increasing the rate up to 20 drops/minute (max. 30 drops/minute), check BP every 5 minutes.

As soon as hypertension is controlled, decrease progressively the rate (15 drops/minute, then 10, then 5) until stopping infusion. An abrupt discontinuation may provoke a hypertensive crisis.

or **hydralazine** by slow, diluted IV injection:

Dilute 20 mg (1 vial hydralazine, 1 ml) in 9 ml of 0.9% sodium chloride to obtain a solution containing 2 mg/ml.

Administer 5 mg (2.5 ml of the diluted solution) over 2 to 4 minutes. Check BP for 20 minutes. If BP is not controlled after 20 minutes, administer the same dose. Continue repeating if necessary, waiting 20 minutes between each injection, without exceeding a cumulative dose of 20 mg.

or **labetalol** (100 mg in 20 ml ampoule, 5 mg/ml) slow IV:

One dose of 20 mg (4 ml) over at least one minute. Check BP 5 and 10 minutes after injection. If BP is not controlled, administer another dose of 20 mg and check BP. Additional doses of 40 mg, then 80 mg then 160 mg may be administered every 10 minutes until BP is controlled. Do not exceed a cumulative dose of 300 mg.

Do not exceed recommended doses and administration rate. During administration, monitor maternal BP and pulse, as well as foetal heart rate. An overdose or too rapid administration may provoke an abrupt fall in maternal BP with placental hypoperfusion and foetal death.

Diastolic BP must never fall below 90 mmHg. In the event of hypotension, use Ringer Lactate to maintain the diastolic BP ≥ 90 mmHg.
 - To reduce the risk of eclampsia prior to delivery:

magnesium sulfate: see page 25. Continue for 24 hours following delivery.

– **For eclampsia**

- Urgent delivery within 12 hours, vaginally or by caesarean section depending on the cervical assessment and the foetus condition.
- Antihypertensive treatment if the systolic BP is ≥ 160 mmHg or the diastolic BP is ≥ 110 mmHg, as above.
- **magnesium sulfate**: see page 25. Continue for 24 hours following delivery or following the last seizure.
- Nursing, hydration, monitor urinary output (insert a urinary catheter); oxygen (4 to 6 litres/minute).

For more information, refer to the MSF handbook, *Obstetrics*.

Heart failure in adults

Heart failure is defined as the inability of the myocardium to provide normal haemodynamic function.

Left-sided heart failure (often secondary to coronary or valvular heart disease, and/or arterial hypertension) is the most common form.

There are two types:

- chronic heart failure with insidious onset
- acute heart failure, which is life threatening, presents either as acute pulmonary oedema or as cardiogenic shock.

Clinical features

- **Left-sided heart failure** secondary to left ventricular failure:
 - fatigue and/or progressive dyspnoea, occurs on exertion and then at rest (accentuated by the decubitus position, preventing the patient from lying down)
 - acute pulmonary oedema: acute dyspnoea, laryngeal crackles, cough, frothy sputum, anxiety, pallor, varied degrees of cyanosis, feeble rapid pulse, wet rales in both lung fields, muffled heart sounds, often with cardiac gallop
- **Right-sided heart failure** secondary to right ventricular failure:
 - oedema of the lower limbs, jugular venous distention, hepatomegaly, hepatojugular reflux
 - ascites in advanced stages

Rarely isolated, this is often a consequence of left ventricular failure.
- **Global heart failure** secondary to failure of both ventricles:
 - left and right-sided signs. Signs of right ventricular failure are often the most prominent.

Treatment of acute heart failure (acute pulmonary oedema and cardiogenic shock)

- **First case: blood pressure is maintained**
 - Place the patient in the semi-reclined position with legs lowered.
 - Give high-flow oxygen
 - Reduce pulmonary pressure with combination furosemide + morphine + rapidly-acting nitrate derivatives:
 - furosemide** IV (onset of action in 5 minutes and peak effect in 30 minutes): 40 to 80 mg/injection, to be repeated every 2 hours according to clinical evolution. Monitor blood pressure and urine output.
 - + **morphine**: according to severity 3 to 5 mg by slow IV injection or 5 to 10 mg by SC injection
 - + **glyceryl trinitrate** sublingual: 0.25 to 0.5 mg. Monitor blood pressure. Repeat after 30 minutes if necessary, only if the systolic blood pressure remains above 100 mmHg.
 - In certain serious cases, if none of these drugs are available, bleed off 300 to 500 ml of blood over 5 to 10 minutes from the basilic vein (in the elbow fold) and monitor the blood pressure.
- **Second case: blood pressure collapsed**, see *cardiogenic shock*, page 21.

Treatment of chronic heart failure

The objective is to improve the prognosis and quality of life.

- Dietary modification: reduce salt intake to limit fluid retention, normal fluid intake (except in the case of anasarca: 750 ml/24 hours).

– Treatment of fluid retention

- Initial therapy: **furosemide** PO
During congestive episodes: 40 to 120 mg once daily. When the congestive episode is controlled, reduce the dose to 20 mg once daily.
- The dose can be increased (up to 240 mg/day). If these doses are still ineffective, adding **hydrochlorothiazide** PO (25 to 50 mg/day for several days) may be considered.
- In case of treatment failure and in the absence of severe renal impairment, furosemide may be combined with **spironolactone** PO: 25 mg once daily.
- If present, drainage of pleural effusions by needle aspiration.

Note: the risks of administering diuretics include: dehydration, hypotension, hypo- or hyperkalaemia, hyponatremia, and renal impairment. Clinical monitoring (hydration, blood pressure) and if possible metabolic monitoring (serum electrolytes and creatinine), should be done regularly, especially if giving high doses or in elderly patients.

– Baseline treatment

- Angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors are the first line treatment. Start with low doses, especially in patients with low blood pressure, renal impairment, hyponatremia, or concurrent diuretic treatment.

enalapril PO¹: 5 mg once daily for the first week, then double the dose each week until the effective dose is reached, usually around 10 to 40 mg once daily or in 2 divided doses. Increases in the dose are made while monitoring the patient's blood pressure (the systolic pressure should remain above 90 mmHg) and blood chemistry (there is a risk of hyperkalemia² and renal impairment).

In patients treated with diuretics, reduce the dose of the diuretic if possible while introducing ACE inhibitors.

If the patient is taking high doses of diuretics, reduce the initial dose of enalapril to half (risk of symptomatic hypotension).

Do not combine ACE inhibitors and spironolactone (risk of severe hyperkalemia).

- Digitalis glycosides are only indicated in patients with proven atrial fibrillation (ECG).

If there are no contra-indications (bradycardia, unidentified rhythm disturbances):

digoxine PO: 0.5 to 1 mg in 3 or 4 divided doses on the first day, then 0.25 mg once daily

The therapeutic dose is close to the toxic dose. Do not exceed the indicated dose and give half the dose, or even a quarter (on alternate days) to elderly or malnourished patients and to patients with renal impairment.

¹ Enalapril may be replaced by **captopril**: start with 6.25 mg three times daily for the first week, the effective dose is usually around 50 mg twice daily. The method of increasing the dose, the precautions, and patient monitoring are the same as for enalapril.

² Moderate hyperkalaemia is frequent, but of no concern if it remains below 5.5 mEq/l.

- With global and left-sided heart failure, the nitrate derivatives may be used in case of signs of intolerance to ACE inhibitors (chronic cough, renal impairment, severe hypotension).
isosorbide dinitrate PO: start with 10 to 15 mg/day in 2 or 3 divided doses and increase to the effective dose, usually around 15 to 60 mg/day. Very high doses (up to 240 mg/day) may be necessary.
- Whatever the treatment prescribed, monitoring should be regular: checking clinical improvement and treatment tolerance:
 - clinical monitoring consists of evaluating the weight, blood pressure, pulse (rhythm disturbances) and the progress of signs (dyspnoea, oedema, etc.);
 - laboratory monitoring is adapted according to the treatment.

Treatment of specific aetiologies

Hypertension (see page 305); *anaemia* (see page 37)

Cardiovascular or “wet” beriberi from vitamin B1 deficiency

thiamine IM or IV

Children: 25 to 50 mg/day for several days

Adults: 50 to 100 mg/day for several days

Then change to oral treatment with **thiamine** PO

Children and adults: 3 to 5 mg once daily for 4 to 6 weeks

Acute rheumatic fever

– Antibiotic treatment

benzathine benzylpenicillin IM

Children under 30 kg: 600 000 IU as a single dose

Children over 30 kg and adults: 1.2 MIU as a single dose

– Anti-inflammatory treatment

Start with **acetylsalicylic acid** PO: 50 to 100 mg/kg/day

If the fever or cardiac signs persist, replace with a corticosteroid:

prednisolone PO

Children: 1 to 2 mg/kg/day

Adults: 60 to 120 mg/day

Continue this treatment for 2 to 3 weeks after normalisation of the erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR), then decrease the doses progressively (over 2 weeks).

To avoid a relapse, resume the acetylsalicylic acid treatment in parallel with the decrease in prednisolone dose. The acetylsalicylic acid treatment is continued for 2 to 3 weeks after the corticosteroids are fully stopped.

– Secondary prophylaxis

Prophylactic treatment lasts for several years (until 18 years old, even until 25 years in the case of cardiac effects; for life in the case of chronic valvular damage).

benzathine benzylpenicillin IM

Children under 30 kg: 600 000 IU as a single dose every 4 weeks

Children over 30 kg and adults: 1.2 MIU as a single dose every 4 weeks

Endemic goitre and iodine deficiency

- Goitre is an enlargement of the thyroid gland. Endemic goitre occurs in iodine-deficient areas. Goitre can also be caused or aggravated by the regular consumption of goitrogens such as manioc, cabbage, turnips, millet etc.
- Goitre is an adaptive process: iodine is essential for the production of thyroid hormones; iodine deficiency impairs thyroid hormone synthesis; to compensate, the thyroid gland increases in volume. Thyroid function usually remains normal.
- As well as the development of goitre, iodine deficiency in pregnant women has serious consequences for the child (foetal and perinatal mortality, physical and mental retardation, cretinism). These risks must be prevented by providing iodine supplementation in iodine-deficient areas.

Clinical features

- The WHO proposes a simplified classification based on the significance of goitre:
Group 0: normal thyroid, no palpable or visible goitre
Group 1: enlarged thyroid, palpable but not visible when the neck is in the normal position
Group 2: thyroid clearly visible when the neck is in the normal position
- Possible mechanical complications (rare): compression, deviation of the trachea or of the oesophagus.

Prevention and treatment

The objective of prevention is to reduce the consequences of iodine deficiency in neonates and children. Supplying iodised salt through national programmes is the recommended method of prevention.

For prevention in populations living in iodine deficient areas where iodised salt is not available and for curative treatment of patients with goitre: use **iodised oil**, according to national protocols. For information (according to the WHO):

Population	Oral iodised oil as a single yearly dose (200 mg capsule)	IM iodised oil, every 2 years using a glass syringe (480 mg/ml ampoule)
Children under 1 year	1 capsule	240 mg (0.5 ml)
Children from 1 to 5 years	2 capsules	480 mg (1ml)
Children from 6 to 15 years	3 capsules	480 mg (1ml)
Pregnant or lactating women or women of childbearing age	2 capsules	480 mg (1ml)

Curative and preventive single-doses are the same. Oral treatment is preferred. Use injectable iodised oil for prevention only if annual administration of oral iodised oil is not possible. The target populations are pregnant and breastfeeding women, women of childbearing age and children.

In children, goitre disappears after several months. It disappears more slowly (or never) in adults despite restoration of normal thyroid function in 2 weeks. Surgery is only indicated for patients with local mechanical dysfunction.

Annexes

The interagency emergency health kit Annex 2 (WHO)	315
Practical advice for writing medical certificates in the event of sexual violence	322
List of the drugs mentioned in this guide, including the International Nonproprietary Names (INN)	325
Main references	328
Index	330

Annex 2: Assessment and treatment of diarrhoea⁵³

A-2.1 Assessment of diarrhoeal patients for dehydration

Table 1: Assessment of diarrhoea patients for dehydration

	A	B	C
1. Look at: Condition ^a Eyes ^b Thirst	Well, alert Normal Drinks normally, not thirsty	Restless, irritable Sunken Thirsty, drinks eagerly	Lethargic or unconscious Sunken Drinks poorly or not able to drink
2. Feel: Skin pinch ^c	Goes back quickly	Goes back slowly	Goes back very slowly
3. Decide:	The patient has no signs of dehydration	If the patient has two or more signs in B, there is some dehydration	If the patient has two or more signs in C, there is severe dehydration
4. Treat:	Use Treatment Plan A	Weigh the patient, if possible, and use Treatment Plan B	Weigh the patient and use Treatment Plan C Urgently
^a Being lethargic and sleepy are <i>not</i> the same. A lethargic child is not simply asleep: the child's mental state is dull and the child cannot be fully awakened; the child may appear to be drifting into unconsciousness. ^b In some infants and children the eyes normally appear somewhat sunken. It is helpful to ask the mother if the child's eyes are normal or more sunken than usual. ^c The skin pinch is less useful in infants or children with marasmus or kwashiorkor or in obese children.			

⁵³ Department of Child and Adolescent Health and Development. The treatment of diarrhoea - a manual for physicians and other senior health workers. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2005.

A-2.2 Treatment of acute diarrhoea (without blood)

Treatment Plan A: treat diarrhoea at home

Use this plan to teach the mother how to:

- ◆ prevent dehydration at home by giving the child more fluid than usual;
- ◆ prevent malnutrition by continuing to feed the child, and why these actions are important;
- ◆ recognize signs indicating that the child should be taken to a health worker.

The four rules of Treatment Plan A:

Rule 1:

Give the child more fluids than usual, to prevent dehydration

- ◆ Use recommended home fluids. These include: ORS solution, salted drinks (e.g. salted rice water or a salted yogurt drink), vegetable or chicken soup with salt.
- ◆ Avoid fluids that do not contain salt, such as: plain water, water in which a cereal has been cooked (e.g. unsalted rice water), unsalted soup, yoghurt drinks without salt, green coconut water, weak tea (unsweetened), unsweetened fresh fruit juice. Other fluids to avoid are those with stimulant, diuretic or purgative effects, for example: coffee, some medicinal teas or infusions.
- ◆ Be aware of fluids that are potentially dangerous and should be avoided during diarrhoea. Especially important are drinks sweetened with sugar, which can cause osmotic diarrhoea and hypernatraemia. Some examples are: commercial carbonated beverages, commercial fruit juices, sweetened tea.
- ◆ Use ORS solution for children as described in the box below. (Note: if the child is under 6 months and not yet taking solid food, give ORS solution or water.)

Give as much as the child or adult wants until diarrhoea stops. Use the amounts shown below for ORS as a guide. Describe and show the amount to be given after each stool is passed, using a local measure.

Age	Amount of ORS to be given after each loose stool	Amount of ORS to provide for use at home
≤ 24 months	50-100 ml	500 ml/day
2 - 10 years	100-200 ml	1L/day
≥10 years	as much as wanted	2L/day

Show the mother how to mix ORS and show her how to give ORS.

- ◆ Give a teaspoonful every 1-2 minutes for a child under 2 years.
- ◆ Give frequent sips from a cup for older children.

- ◆ If the child vomits, wait 10 minutes. Then give the solution more slowly (for example, a spoonful every 2-3 minutes).
- ◆ If diarrhoea continues after the ORS packets are used up, tell the mother to give other fluids as described in the first rule above or return for more ORS.

Rule 2:

Give supplemental zinc sulfate 20 mg tab to the child, every day for 10 to 14 days

Zinc sulfate can be given as dispersible tablets. By giving zinc sulfate as soon as diarrhoea starts, the duration and severity of the episode as well as the risk of dehydration will be reduced. By continuing zinc sulfate supplementation for 10 to 14 days, the zinc lost during diarrhoea is fully replaced and the risk of the child having new episodes of diarrhoea in the following 2 to 3 months is reduced.

Rule 3:

Continue to feed the child, to prevent malnutrition

- ◆ Breastfeeding should **always** be continued.
- ◆ The infant's usual diet should be continued during diarrhoea and increased afterwards;
- ◆ Food should **never** be withheld and the child's usual food should not be diluted;
- ◆ Most children with watery diarrhoea regain their appetite after dehydration is corrected;
- ◆ Milk:
 - **Infants of any age who are breastfed** should be allowed to breast-feed as often and as long as they want. Infants will often breastfeed more than usual, encourage this;
 - **Infants who are not breastfed**, should be given their usual milk feed (formula) at least every three hours, if possible by cup.
 - **Infants below 6 months of age who take breast milk and other foods** should receive increased breastfeeding. As the child recovers and the supply and the supply of breast milk increases, other foods should be decreased.
 - **A child who is at least 6 months old or is already taking soft foods** should be given cereals, vegetables and other foods, in addition to milk. If the child is **over 6 months and such foods are not yet being given**, they should be started during the diarrhoea episode or soon after it stops.
 - Recommended food should be culturally acceptable, readily available. Milk should be mixed with a cereal and if possible, 1 - 2 teaspoonfuls of vegetable oil should be added to each serving of cereal. If available, meat, fish or egg should be given.
 - Foods rich in potassium, such as bananas, green coconut water and fresh fruit juice are beneficial;
 - offer the child food every three or four hours (six times a day);
 - after the diarrhoea stops, continue to give the same energy-rich food, and give one more meal than usual each day for at least two weeks.

Rule 4:**Take the child to a health worker if there are signs of dehydration or other problems**

The mother should take her child to a health worker if the child:

- ◆ Starts to pass many watery stools
- ◆ Vomits repeatedly
- ◆ Becomes very thirsty
- ◆ Is eating or drinking very poorly
- ◆ Develops a fever
- ◆ Has blood in the stool; or
- ◆ Does not get better in three days-

Treatment Plan B: oral rehydration therapy for children with some dehydration

Table 2:
Guidelines for treating children and adults with some dehydration

Approximate amount of ORS solution to give in the first 4 hours						
Age*	<4 mths	4-11 mths	12-23mths	2-4 years	5-14 years	≥15 years
Weight	< 5 kg	5-7.9 kg	8-10.9 kg	11-15.9 kg	16-29.9 kg	≥30 kg
Quantity	200-400 ml	400-600 ml	600-800 ml	800 ml-1.2 L	1.2-2 L	2.2-4 L
In local measure						
<p>Use the patient's age only when you do not know the weight. The approximate amount of ORS required (in ml) can also be calculated by multiplying the patient's weight in kg by 75.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If the patient wants more ORS than shown, give more. • Encourage the mother to continue breastfeeding her child. <p>NOTE: during the initial stages of therapy, while still dehydrated, adults can consume up to 750 ml per hour, if necessary, and children up to 20 ml per kg body weight per hour.</p>						

How to give ORS solution

- ◆ Teach a family member to prepare and give ORS solution.
- ◆ Use a clean spoon or cup to give ORS solution to infants and young children. Feeding bottles should **not** be used.
- ◆ Use droppers or syringes to put small amounts of ORS solution into mouths of babies.
- ◆ Children under 2 years of age, should get a teaspoonful every 1-2 minutes; older children (and adults) may take frequent sips directly from a cup.
- ◆ Check from time to time to see if there are problems.
- ◆ If the child vomits, wait 5-10 minutes and then start giving ORS again, but more slowly, for example, a spoonful every 2-3 minutes.

- ◆ If the child's eyelids become puffy, stop the ORS and give plain water or breast milk. Give ORS according to Plan A when the puffiness is gone.

Monitoring the progress of oral rehydration therapy

- ◆ Check the child frequently during rehydration.
- ◆ Ensure that ORS solution is being taken satisfactorily and the signs of dehydration are not worsening.
- ◆ After four hours, reassess the child fully following the guidelines in Table 1 and decide what treatment to give.
- ◆ If signs of **severe dehydration** have appeared, shift to Treatment Plan C.
- ◆ If signs indicating **some dehydration** are still present, repeat Treatment Plan B. At the same time offer food, milk and other fluids as described in Treatment Plan A, and continue to reassess the child frequently.
- ◆ If there are **no signs of dehydration**, the child should be considered fully rehydrated. When rehydration is complete:
 - skin pinch is normal;
 - thirst has subsided;
 - urine is passed;
 - child becomes quiet, is no longer irritable and often falls asleep.
- ◆ Teach the mother how to treat her child at home with ORS solution and food following Treatment Plan A. Give her enough ORS packets for 2 days.
- ◆ Also teach her the signs that mean she should bring her child back to see a health worker.

If oral rehydration therapy must be interrupted

If the mother and child must leave before the rehydration with ORS solution is completed:

- ◆ Show her how much ORS to give to finish the 4-hour treatment at home.
- ◆ Give her enough ORS packets to complete the four hour treatment and to continue oral rehydration for two more days, as shown in Treatment Plan B.
- ◆ Show her how to prepare ORS solution.
- ◆ Teach her the four rules in Treatment Plan A for treating her child at home.

When oral rehydration fails

- ◆ If signs of dehydration persist or reappear, **refer the child**.

Giving zinc sulfate

- ◆ Begin to give supplemental zinc sulfate tablets, as in Treatment Plan A, as soon as the child is able to eat following the initial four hour rehydration period.

Giving food

- ◆ Except for breast milk, food should not be given during the initial four-hour rehydration period.

- ◆ Children continued on Treatment Plan B longer than four hours should be given some food every 3-4 hours as described in Treatment Plan A.
- ◆ **All children** older than 6 months should be given some food before being sent home. This helps to emphasize to mothers the importance of continued feeding during diarrhoea.

Treatment Plan C: for patients with severe dehydration

Follow the arrows. If the answer is "yes" go across. If "no" go down.

Can you give intravenous (IV) fluids immediately?

Yes



Start IV fluids immediately. If the patient can drink, give ORS by mouth while the drip is set up. Give 100 ml/kg Ringer's Lactate Solution (or if not available normal saline), divided as follows:

Age	First give 30 ml/kg in:	Then give 70 ml/kg in:
Infants (under 12 months)	1 hour*	5 hours
Older	30 minutes*	2 ½ hours

* Repeat once if radial pulse is still very weak or non-detectable.

- ◆ Reassess the patient every 1-2 hours. If hydration is not improving, give the IV drip more rapidly.
- ◆ Also give ORS (about 5 ml/kg/hour) as soon as the patient can drink: usually after 2-4 hours (infants) or 1-2 hours (older patients).
- ◆ After 6 hours (infants) or 3 hours (older patients), evaluate the patient using the assessment chart. Then choose the appropriate Plan (A, B or C) to continue treatment.

No

Is IV treatment available nearby (within 30 minutes)?

Yes



- ◆ Send the patient immediately for IV treatment.
- ◆ If the patient can drink, provide the mother with ORS solution and show her how to give it during the trip to receive IV treatment.

No

Are you trained to use a naso-gastric tube (NG) for rehydration?

Yes



- ◆ Start rehydration by tube with ORS solution: give 20 ml/kg/hour for 6 hours (total of 120 ml/kg).
- ◆ Reassess the patient every 1-2 hours:
 - if there is repeated vomiting or increased abdominal distension, give the fluid more slowly.
 - if hydration is not improved after 3 hours, send the patient for IV therapy.

No

Can the patient drink?

Yes



- ◆ Start rehydration by mouth with ORS solution, giving 20 ml/kg/hour for 6 hours (total of 120 ml/kg).
- ◆ Reassess the patient every 1-2 hours:
 - if there is repeated vomiting, give the fluid more slowly - if hydration is not improved after 3 hours send the patient for IV therapy.
- ◆ After 6 hours, reassess the patient and choose the appropriate treatment plan.

No

Urgent: send the patient for IV or NG treatment.

NB: If possible, observe the patient for at least six hours after rehydration to be sure the mother can maintain hydration giving ORS solution by mouth. If the patient is over two years old and there is cholera in your area, give an appropriate oral antibiotic after the patient is alert.

Writing medical certificates in the event of sexual violence

Physicians are often the first to be confronted with the consequences of violence. Victims are sometimes afraid to report to the authorities concerned, particularly when the population affected is vulnerable (refugees, prisoners, civilian victims of war etc.). In such a situation, the physician should try to determine if the event was isolated or part of larger scale violence (e.g. systematic rape).

Faced with sexual violence, the physician is obliged to complete a medical certificate for the benefit of the victim, irrespective of the country in which (s)he is practising.

The certificate is *individual* (for the benefit of the individual or their beneficiaries) and *confidential* (it falls within professional confidentiality). The examples of certificates presented in the following pages are written for *sexual violence*, but the approach is the same for *all forms of intentional violence*.

All medical certificates must include:

- The identity of the signing physician.
- The identity of the victim (except for certificates passed on to HCR or to ICRC *without the consent of the victim*, see below).
- The complete date and the time of the examination.
- The statement of the victim *in his/her own words*.
- The findings of the clinical examination.
- The samples taken and the examinations carried out.
- A conclusion (including, if possible, the length of Total Temporary Incapacity (TTI) and anticipated Partial Permanent Incapacity (PPI)).

Notes:

- The name of the victim (except for certificates passed on to HCR or to ICRC *without the consent of the victim*, see below), the name of the physician and his/her signature, as well as the date of the examination must appear on each page.
- A copy containing the victim's name is given *to the victim for future legal use*. Keep a copy of the medical certificate (or, if the case should arise, of the mandatory report¹) in the patient record, archived to allow future authentication of the certificate given to the victim.

What the practitioner should not do:

- Rephrase the words of the victim as the practitioner's own.
- Endorse the identity of the aggressor nor the nature of the crime, this must be left to the legal authorities.
- Conclude that there was no sexual violence in the absence of lesions on clinical examination.

Examples of medical certificates for adults and children (see following pages).

With the consent of the victim, the physician gives a copy of the certificate containing the victim's name:

- to HCR (to the protection officer only) if the victim is a refugee or displaced, so that protection measures may be put in place for the individual;
- to ICRC if the victim is a victim of war or a prisoner.

Without the consent of the victim, the physician may give a copy of the certificate to HCR or ICRC, but without revealing the identity of the victim (concretely, the sections "family name, first name and precise address" should not appear).

¹ In principle, legal reporting of sexual violence against children under 15 years is mandatory. The only exception is if there is a risk that reporting may further harm the situation of the child. Consider each case individually.

Medical certificate for an adult

I, the undersigned, (family name, first name), **doctor of medicine**,
certify that I have examined on this the (hour, day, month, year), at his/her
request, Mr, Mrs, Miss (family name, first name), **born on the**
..... (day, month, year), **living at**
..... (precise address).

(S)he declares that (s)he has been the victim of sexual violence on (hour, day,
month, year) at (place), by (aggressor known or unknown).

During the interview, (s)he stated:

“ ”

Mr, Mrs, Miss presents the following clinical signs:

- **On general examination:**
(describe the behaviour: prostrated, excited, calm, frightened, mute, tearful, etc.)
- **On somatic examination:**
(describe precisely all lesions observed on the entire body: signs of abrasion, cuts, scratches,
bites, strangulation, swelling, burns etc. Indicate the site, the extent, the number, the
character (old or recent), the severity etc.)
- **On genital examination:**
(is the hymen intact or not (if not, did it occur recently or in the past), traumatic lesions etc.)
- **On anal examination:**
(detectable traumatic lesions etc.)
- **Examinations completed** (particularly samples taken):
- **Evaluate the risk of pregnancy:**

In conclusion, Mr, Mrs, Miss shows (or does not show) signs of
recent violence and an emotional response (in)compatible with the violence of which (s)he
reports to have been victim.

(Remember: the absence of lesions does not allow a conclusion that there was no sexual
violence).

Total Temporary Incapacity (TTI) should be granted for days without consideration of
possible complications.

Sequelae may persist leaving a Partial Permanent Incapacity (PPI) to be assessed by an
expert at a future date.

This document is established with the consent of the patient and may be used for legal
purpose.

Signature of physician

Medical certificate for a child

I, the undersigned, (family name, first name), **doctor of medicine**,
certify that I have examined on this the (hour, day, month, year), at the
request of (father, mother, legal representative), **the child**
..... (family name, first name), **born on the** (day, month, year),
living at
..... (precise address of the parents or residence of the child).

During the interview, the child told me:

“ ”
(quote as faithfully as possible the words of the child without interpreting them)

During the interview, (name of the person accompanying the child) **stated:**
“ ”

This child presents the following clinical signs:

- **On general examination:**
(describe the behaviour: prostrated, excited, calm, frightened, mute, tearful, etc.)
- **On somatic examination:**
(describe precisely all lesions observed on the entire body: signs of abrasion, cuts, scratches, bites, strangulation, swelling, burns etc. Indicate the site, the extent, the number, the character (old or recent), the severity etc.)
- **On genital examination:**
(is the hymen intact or not (if not, did it occur recently or in the past), traumatic lesions, genital infection etc.)
- **On anal examination:**
(detectable traumatic lesions etc.)
- **Examinations completed** (particularly samples taken):
- **Evaluate the risk of pregnancy:**

In conclusion, this child shows (or does not show) signs of recent violence and an emotional response (in)compatible with the violence of which (s)he reports to have been victim.
(Remember: the absence of lesions does not allow a conclusion that there was no sexual violence).

Total Temporary Incapacity (TTI) should be granted for days without consideration of possible complications.
Sequelae may persist leaving a Partial Permanent Incapacity (PPI) to be assessed by an expert at a future date.

This document is established with the consent of (father, mother or legal representative) **and may be used for legal purpose.**

Signature of physician

List of the drugs mentioned in this guide, including the International Nonproprietary Names (INN)

as well as the most common synonyms and proprietary names

Abacavir = ABC: Abac[®], Abamune[®], Ziagen[®]

Aciclovir: Viratup[®], Zovirax[®]

Acetylsalicylic acid = ASA = Aspirin

Albendazole : Eskazole[®], Zentel[®]

Aluminium hydroxide: Maalox[®]

Amitriptyline: Elavil[®], Laroxyl[®], Triptyzol[®]

Amodiaquine: Camoquine[®], Flavoquine[®]

Amoxicillin: Amoxil, Clamoxyl[®]

Amoxicillin/clavulanic acid = co-amoxiclav:
Augmentin[®]

Amphotericin B: Fungizone[®]

Amphotericin B liposomal: AmBisome[®]

Ampicillin: Pentrexyl[®]

Artemether: Paluther[®]

Artemether/lumefantrine = co-artemether:
Coartem[®], Riamet[®]

Artesunate: Arsumax[®], Plasmotrim[®]

Artesunate/amodiaquine: Coarsucam[®]

Ascorbic acid = vitamin C: Laroscorbine[®],
Vitascorbol[®]

Atenolol: Tenormin[®]

Azithromycin: Zithromax[®]

Beclometasone: Beclazone[®], Becotide[®]

Benzathine benzylpenicillin: Extencilline[®],
Penadur[®], Penidural[®]

Benzylpenicillin = penicillin G: Crystapen[®],
Penilevel[®]

Benzylpenicillin procaine = penicillin G procaine:
Depocillin[®], Duracillin[®]

Benzylpenicillin procaine + benzylpenicillin =
Fortified penicillin procaine: Bicillin[®]

Benznidazole: Radanil[®]

Benzyl benzoate: Ascabiol[®]

Biperiden: Akineton[®]

Bisacodyl: Dulcolax[®]

Bithionol: Bitin[®]

Calcium gluconate

Captopril: Capoten[®], Lopril[®]

Carbamazepine: Tegretal[®], Tegretol[®]

Cefazolin: Cefacidal[®], Kefzol[®]

Cefixime: Suprax[®]

Cefotaxime : Claforan[®]

Ceftriaxone: Rocephin[®]

Chloramphenicol: Chloromycetin[®], Kemicetine[®]

Chloramphenicol (long-acting oily)

Chloroquine: Nivaquine[®]

Chlorphenamine = chlorpheniramine: Teldrin[®],
Trimeton[®]

Chlorpromazine: Largactil[®], Megaphen[®],
Thorazine[®]

Cimetidine: Tagamet[®]

Ciprofloxacin: Ciflox[®]

Clindamycin: Dalacin[®]

Clofazimine: Lamprene[®]

Clomipramine: Anafranil[®]

Cloxacillin: Cloxapen[®], Orbenin[®]

Co-amoxiclav = amoxicilline/acide clavulanique:
Augmentin[®]

Co-artemether = artéméther/lumefantrine:
Coartem[®], Riamet[®]

Codeine

Co-trimoxazole = sulfamethoxazole +
trimethoprim: Bactrim[®]

Dapsone: Avlosulfon[®], Disulone[®]

Dexamethasone	Indinavir: Crixivan®
Diazepam: Valium®	Iodine (iodised oil): Lipiodol®
Diclofenac: Cataflam®, Voltaren®	Isoniazid = INH: Cemidon®, Rimifon®
Didanosine = ddI = Videx®	Itraconazole: Sparanox®
Diethylcarbamazine: Banacide®, Hetrazan®, Notezine®	Ivermectin: Mectizan®, Stromectol®
Digoxin: Coragoxine®, Lanoxin®	Japanese Encephalitis vaccine: JE-Vax®
Diphtheria-Tetanus-Pertussis vaccine	Ketamine: Ketalar®, Ketanest®
Dopamine: Dynatra®, Intropin®	Ketoconazole cream: Nizoral®
Doxycycline: Vibramycin®	Lactulose: Duphalac®
Efavirenz: Stocrin®, Sustiva®	Lamivudine = 3TC: Epivir®, Lamivir®
Eflornithine: Ornidyl®	Levonorgestrel: Norlevo®, Plan B®, Vikela®
Enalapril: Renitec®	Lidocaine = Lignocaine: Xylocaine®
Epinephrine = adrenaline	Loperamide: Imodium®, Imosec®
Ergocalciferol = vitamin D2	Magnesium sulphate
Erythromycin: Erythrocin®, Pantomicina®, Propiocrine®	Malathion: Prioderm®
Ethambutol: Dexambutol®, Myambutol®	Measles vaccine:
Ferrous salts (sulphate or fumarate)	Mebendazole: Pantelmin®, Vermox®, Wormin®
Fluconazole: Triflucan®	Mefloquine: Lariam®
Fluoxetine: Fluoxetine®, Prozac®	Meglumine antimoniate: Glucantime®
Folic acid = vitamin B9	Melarsoprol: Arsobal®
Folinic acid: Refolinon®	Meningococcal A+C vaccine
Furosemide = frusemide: Lasilix®, Lasix®, Seguril®	Meningococcal A+C+W135 vaccine
Gelatin (fluid, modified): Gelofusine®, Plasmion®	Metoclopramide: Primperan®
Gentamicin: Gentacin®	Metronidazole: Flagyl®
Gentian violet = crystal violet = GV	Miconazole muco-adhesive: Tibozole®
Glucose 10% = dextrose 10%	Minocycline: Minocin®
Glucose 50% = dextrose 50%	Misoprostol
Glyceryl trinitrate = nitroglycerin = trinitrin	Modified fluid gelatin: Gelofusine®, Plasmion®
Griseofulvin: Fulcine®, Griseofulvine®, Grisovin®	Morphine
Haloperidol: Haldol®, Serenace®	Morphine (immediate-release): Sevredol®
Hepatitis B vaccine	Morphine (sustained-release): Kapanol®
Hydralazine: Apresoline®	Naloxone: Nalone®, Narcan®
Hydrochlorothiazide: Esidrex®, HydroSaluric®	Nelfinavir: Viracept®
Hydrocortisone: Efcortisol®, Cortagen®, Solu-cortef®	Nevirapine: Neravir®, Nevimune®, Viramune®
Hyoscine butylbromide = butylscopolamine: Buscopan®	Niclosamide: Tredemine®, Yomesan®
Ibuprofen: Advil®, Brufen®, Nureflex®	Nicotinamide = vitamin PP = vitamin B3: Nicobion®
	Nifedipine: Adalat®
	Nifurtimox: Lampit®
	Nitrofurantoin: Furadantin®

Nystatine: Mycostatine®, Nystan®	Silver sulfadiazine: Flamazine®
Omeprazole: Mopral®	Sodium stibogluconate: Pentostam®
Oral rehydration salts = ORS	Sodium valproate: = valproic acid: Convulex®, Depakine®, Epilim®
Oxytocin: Syntocinon®	Spectinomycin: Stanilo®, Trobicin®
Paracetamol = acetaminophen: Doliprane®, Panadol®	Spironolactone: Aldactone®, Spiroctan®
Paromomycin = aminosidin: Humatin®, Gabbroral®	Stavudine = d4T: Stavir®, Zerit®, Zeritavir®
Pentamidine: Pentacarinat®, Pentam®	Streptomycin
Permethrin 1% = Lyclear®	Sulfadiazine: Adiazine®
Permethrin 5%: Lyclear® dermal cream	Sulfadoxine / pyrimethamine: Fansidar®
Phenobarbital: Gardenal®, Luminal®	Suramin: Germanin®
Phenoxyethylpenicillin = penicillin V: Oracillin®, Oспен®	Tenofovir = TDF: Viread®
Phenytoin: Di-hydran®, Dilantin®, Epanutin®	Tetanus immunoglobulin
Phytomenadione = vitamin K1	Tetanus vaccine
Podophyllotoxin: Condylone®, Condylone®, Wartec®	Tetracycline eye ointment
Poliomyelitis vaccine (oral)	Thiamine = vitamin B1: Benerva®, Betaxin®
Polygelone: Haemaccel®	Tinidazole = Fasigyn®
Polyvidone iodine = povidone iodine: Betadine®	Tramadol: Tramal®, Zamadol®, Zydol®
Potassium chloride: Kaleorid®	Triclabendazole: Egaten®, Fasinex®
Praziquantel: Biltricide®, Cysticide®	Valproic acid = sodium valproate: Convulex®, Depakine®, Epilim®
Prednisone and prednisolone: Cortancyl®, Solupred®	Vitamin A = retinol
Promethazine: Phenergan®	Whitfield ointment or benzoic acid 6% + salicylic acid 3% ointment
Pyrazinamide: Zinamide®	Yellow Fever vaccine
Pyridoxine = vitamin B6: Hexobion®, Pyroxin®	Zidovudine: Retrovir®
Pyrimethamine: Daraprim®, Malocide®	Zinc sulfate
Quinine	
Rabies immunoglobulin	
Rabies vaccine:	
ReSoMal = ORS formula for severely malnourished children	
Retinol = vitamin A	
Ribavirin: Rebetol®, Virazole®	
Rifampicin: Rifadin®	
Ringer lactate = Hartmann's solution	
Ritonavir: Norvir®	
Salbutamol = albuterol: Salbulin®, Ventolin®	
Saquinavir: Invirase®, Fortovase®	

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Index

A

Abnormal vaginal discharge.....	233
Abortion.....	247
Abortion, threatened.....	247
Abruptio placenta.....	249
Abscess, acute dental.....	287
Abscess, acute dento-alveolar.....	287
Abscess, amoebic liver.....	88
Abscess, breast.....	276
Abscess, parotid.....	278
Abscess, peritonsillar.....	54
Abscesses.....	274
Acute flaccid paralysis.....	193
Acute psychotic episode.....	300
Agitation.....	293
AIDS.....	207
Amoebiasis.....	83,88
Anaemia.....	37
Ancylostomiasis.....	154
Angiomatosis, bacillary.....	217
Anthrax, cutaneous.....	109
Anxiety.....	291
Ascariasis.....	154
Asthma attack.....	74
Asthma, acute.....	74
Asthma, chronic.....	76

B

Bejel.....	112
Beriberi.....	310
Bipolar disorder.....	302
Bites, venomous.....	283
Borreliosis.....	182
Bronchiolitis.....	64
Bronchitis, acute.....	62
Bronchitis, chronic.....	63
Brucellosis.....	176
Burns.....	266

C

<i>Campylobacter</i>	213
Candidiasis, intestinal.....	92,214
Candidiasis, vaginal.....	233,244
Carbuncle.....	106
Cataract.....	128
Certificates, medical (sexual violence).....	322
Cervicitis.....	233
Cestodes.....	152
Chagas' disease.....	142
Chancroid.....	236,245
Chlamydia.....	231,233,244
Cholera.....	84
Clinical examination.....	10
Confusion (mental).....	294

Conjunctivitis.....	123
Conjunctivitis, neonatal.....	124
Cryptococcosis.....	215,218
Cryptosporidiosis.....	147,213
Cyclosporiasis.....	147
Cysticercosis.....	153
Cystitis, acute.....	224

D

Dehydration, WHO protocol.....	315
Delirium tremens.....	293
Dengue fever.....	201
Dental abscess, acute.....	287
Dental infections.....	287
Dento-alveolar abscess, acute.....	287
Depression.....	297
Dermatitis, diaper.....	103
Dermatitis, seborrhoeic.....	217
Dermatology, examination.....	97
Dermatophytoses.....	104
Diarrhoea, acute.....	83
Diarrhoea, parasitic.....	147
Diphtheria.....	55
Diphyllobothriasis.....	152
Donovanosis.....	236
Dressings.....	253
Duodenum disorders.....	89
Dysentery.....	86,88,213
Dyspepsia.....	91

E

Eclampsia.....	25,307
Ectopic pregnancy.....	247
Eczema.....	117
Endometritis.....	240
Enterobiasis.....	155
Envenomation.....	283
Epiglottitis, acute.....	51
Epilepsy.....	24
Erysipela.....	107

F

Fasciitis, necrotising.....	108
Fever.....	26,220
Fever, relapsing.....	182
Fever, yellow.....	204
Fevers, haemorrhagic viral.....	204
Filariasis.....	157
Filariasis, lymphatic.....	161
Flukes.....	149
Folic acid deficiency.....	38
Fungal infections, superficial.....	103
Furuncle.....	106

G

Gastrointestinal bleeding	90
Gastro-oesophageal reflux disease	89
Genital infections	229,244
Genital ulcers	236
Giardiasis	83,147
Goitre, endemic	312
Gonorrhoea	231,233,244

H

Haemolytic anaemia	38
Haemorrhagic disease of the newborn, phytomenadione prophylaxis	177
Haemorrhagic fevers, viral	204
Hansen's disease	113
Headache and HIV	218
Heart failure in adults	309
Hepatitis, viral	198
Herpes simplex	116
Herpes zoster	116
Herpes, genital	236,245
Herpes, oral	92,214
Hidradenitis, axillary	217
Histoplasmosis	215
History taking	10
HIV infection	207
Hookworm infection	154
Hydatid cyst	153
Hymenolepiasis	152
Hypertension	305
Hypoglycaemia	24

I

Impetigo	105
Infections extending into the cervico- facial tissues	288
Infections, genital	229,244
Infections, upper genital tract	240
Insomnia	292
Iodine deficiency	312
Iron deficiency	38
Isosporiasis	147,213

K

Kala-azar	144
Keratoconjunctivitis, viral epidemic	125
Kwashiorkor	40

L

Laboratory, examinations	11
Labour, premature	249
Laryngitis acute	51
Leg ulcers	281
Leishmaniases	144
Leprosy	113
Leptospirosis	180

Leukoplakia, oral	214
Lice	101
Loiasis	128,159
Louse-borne relapsing fever	182
Lower abdominal pain in women	239
Lumbar puncture	166
Lymphadenopathy, persistent generalised	216
Lymphogranuloma venereum	236

M

Malaria	131
Malnutrition	40
Marasmus	40
Measles	189
Meningitis, bacterial	165
Meningitis, parasitic	218
Mental confusion	294
Metrorrhagia	246
<i>Microsporidium</i>	213
Myositis of the psoas	280

N

Necrotising infections of the skin	108
Nematode infections	154
Neurosyphilis	218

O

Oedema, acute pulmonary	308
Onchocerciasis	128,157
Opisthorchiasis	149
Otitis externa, acute	57
Otitis media, acute	57
Otitis media, chronic suppurative	59

P

Pain evaluation scales	30
Pain	29
Pain, lower abdominal (in women)	239
Panic disorder	291
Papilloma viruses	243,245
Paragonimiasis	149
Paralysis, acute flaccid	193
Pediculosis	101
Pellagra	118
Penicilliosis	215
Peptic ulcer diseases	89
Perforation, gastric	90
Persistent generalised lymphadenopathy	216
Pertussis	60
Pharyngitis, acute	53
Pinta	112
Placenta praevia	248
Plague	178
Pneumocystosis	215
Pneumonia, acute	66
Poliomyelitis	192
Post-partum haemorrhage	250

Post-traumatic stress disorder	295
Pre-delirium tremens	293
Pre-eclampsia	307
Premature labour	249
Prostatitis, acute	228
Protozoan infections, intestinal	147
Psoas, myositis	280
Psoriasis and HIV	217
Psychotic disorders	300
Psychosis	300
Pterygium	128
Pulmonary oedema, acute	308
Pulmonary tuberculosis	79
Pyelonephritis, acute	226
Pyodermitis	105
Pyomyositis	279

R

Rabies	194
Relapsing fever	182
Relapsing fever, louse-borne	182
Relapsing fever, tick-borne	183
Rheumatic fever, acute	310
Rhinitis	49
Rhinopharyngitis	49
Rickettsioses, eruptive	185
Ringworm	103
River blindness	128,157

S

Salpingitis	240
Scabies	98
Scarlet fever	93
Schistosomiasis	150
Schizophrenia	300
Scurvy	94
Seborrhoeic dermatitis	217
Seizures	23
Severe acute malnutrition	40
Shigellosis	83,86
Shingles	116
Shock	17
Shock, anaphylactic	17
Shock, cardiogenic	17
Shock, haemorrhagic	17
Shock, hypovolaemic	17
Shock, septic	17
Sinusitis, acute	50
Skin infections, bacterial	105
Skin, necrotising infections	108
Sleeping sickness	139
Staphylococcal pneumonia	73,215
Stings, venomous	283
Stomach disorders	89
Stomatitis	92
Strongyloidiasis	155
Sutures	258
Syphilis	236,245

T

Taeniasis	152
Tehmoiditis, acute	50
Tetanus	170
Threatened abortion	247
Tick-borne relapsing fever	183
Toxoplasmosis, cerebral	218,219
Trachoma	126
Transfusion, blood	38
Trematodes	111
Trichinellosis	156
Trichomoniasis	233,244
Trichuriasis	154
Trypanosomiasis, african	139
Trypanosomiasis, american	142
Tuberculosis, pulmonary	79
Typhoid fever	174
Typhus	185

U

Ulcers, genital	236
Ulcers, leg	281
Upper genital tract infections	240
Urethral discharge	231
Urolithiasis	223
Urticaria	117
Uterine rupture	249

V

Vaginal discharge, abnormal	233
Vaginitis	233
Veneral warts	243,245
Venoms	283
Violence, sexual	230,322
Vitamin A deficiency	121
Vitamin C deficiency	94

W

Warts, venereal	243,245
Whooping cough	60
Wound, simple	256

X

Xerophthalmia	121
Xerosis, diffuse cutaneous	217

Y

Yaws	112
Yellow fever	204

In the same collection

Essential drugs - practical guidelines

English, French, Spanish

Obstetrics in remote settings

English, French

Tuberculosis

English, French

Public health engineering in emergency situations

English, French

Rapid health assessment of refugee or displaced populations

English only

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