INFECTIOUS DISEASE JEOPARDY/FAMILY FEUD

Dr. Shinar

PREVENTION: PGY-1

This CD4 count and below is when to start prophylaxis for a patient with HIV for atypical mycobacterium infection, according to the CDC guidelines.

- A. ≤ 200
- B. ≤ 100
- $C. \leq 50$
- D. ≤ 350 with thrush

2013 IDSAGuidelines for the Prevention and Treatment of Opportunistic Infections

Recommendations for Preventing and Treating Disseminated *Mycobacterium avium* Complex (MAC) Disease (page 1 of 2)

Preventing 1st Episode of Disseminated MAC Disease (Primary Prophylaxis)

Indications for Initiating Primary Prophylaxis:

 CD4 count <50 cells/mm³ after ruling out disseminated MAC disease based on clinical assessment (which may include mycobacterial blood culture for some patients) (AI)

Preferred Therapy:

- Azithromycin 1200 mg PO once weekly (AI), or
- · Clarithromycin 500 mg PO BID (AI), or
- Azithromycin 600 mg PO twice weekly (BIII)

Alternative Therapy:

 Rifabutin 300 mg PO daily (BI) (dosage adjusted may be necessary based on drug-drug interactions, please refer to <u>Table 5</u> for dosing recommendation when used with ARV drugs).

Note: Active TB should be ruled out before starting rifabutin.

Indication for Discontinuing Primary Prophylaxis:

• CD4 count >100 cells/mm³ for ≥3 months in response to ART (AI)

Indication for Restarting Primary Prophylaxis:

CD4 count <50 cells/mm³ (AIII)

2013 IDSA Guidelines for the Prevention and Treatment of Opportunistic Infections

PREVENTION: PGY-2

This is the indication for life-long primary SBP prophylaxis in patients with ascites due to liver cirrhosis, according to the AASLD guidelines.

- A. A history of SBP
- B. Ascitic fluid protein < 1.5 g/dL and creatinine > 1.0 mg/dL
- C. Ascitic fluid protein < 1.5 g/dL and bilirubin > 3 mg/dL

RECOMMENDATIONS

- 34. Intravenous ceftriaxone for 7 days or twicedaily norfloxacin for 7 days should be given to prevent bacterial infections in patients with cirrhosis and gastrointestinal hemorrhage. (Class I, Level A). Perhaps parenteral antibiotic, while the patient is bleeding and oral antibiotic after oral intake is resumed, for a total of 7 days, is a practical treatment regimen.
- Patients who have survived an episode of SBP should receive long-term prophylaxis with daily norfloxacin (or trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole). (Class I, Level A)
- 36. In patients with cirrhosis and ascites, longterm use of norfloxacin (or trimethoprim/sulfamethasoxazole) can be justified if the ascitic fluid protein <1.5 g/dL along with impaired renal function (creatinine ≥1.2, BUN ≥25 or serum Na ≤130) or liver failure (Child score ≥9 and bilirubin ≥3. (Class I, Level A)
- Intermittent dosing of antibiotics to prevent bacterial infections may be inferior to daily dosing due to the development of bacterial resistance) and thus daily dosing should preferentially be used. (Class IIb, Level C)

2012 AASLD Guidelines for Prevention of SBP

PREVENTION: PGY-3+4

According to the American Heart Association Guidelines in 2007, this condition DOES NOT require endocarditis antibiotic prophylaxis.

- A. Prior history of endocarditis
- B. Bioprosthetic heart valve
- C. Valve regurgitation due to a structural valve problem in a heart transplant
- D. Mechanical prosthetic heart valve
- E. Bicuspid aortic valve

Patients at highest risk — Prophylaxis is warranted only in settings associated with the highest risk of an adverse outcome if IE occurs [1.4]. This includes patients with:

- · Prosthetic heart valves, including bioprosthetic and homograft valves
- · A prior history of IE
- · Unrepaired cyanotic congenital heart disease, including palliative shunts and conduits
- Completely repaired congenital heart defects with prosthetic material or device during the first six months after the procedure (whether placed by surgery or by catheter intervention)
- . Repaired congenital heart disease with residual defects at the site or adjacent to the site of the prosthetic patch or prosthetic device
- Valve regurgitation due to a structurally abnormal valve in a transplanted heart [4]

Common valvular lesions for which antimicrobial prophylaxis is NOT recommended include bicuspid aortic valve, acquired aortic or mitral valve disease (including mitral valve prolapse with regurgitation), and hypertrophic cardiomyopathy with latent or resting obstruction [1].

2007 American Heart Association Guidelines

EMPIRIC COVERAGE-PGY 1

According to the 2014 IDSA guidelines, this is the most appropriate empiric antibiotic coverage for mild, non-purulent cellulitis in the outpatient setting.

- A. Clindamycin
- B. Doxycycline
- C. Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxasole
- D. Linezolid
- E. Amoxicillin/clavulanic acid

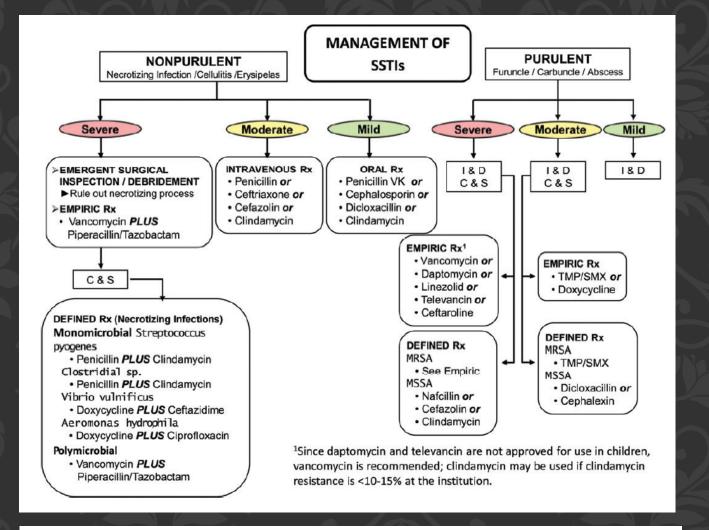


Figure 1. Purulent skin and soft tissue infections (SSTIs). Mild infection: for purulent SSTI, incision and drainage is indicated. Moderate infection: patients with purulent infection with systemic signs of infection. Severe infection: patients who have failed incision and drainage plus oral antibiotics or those with systemic signs of infection such as temperature >38°C, tachycardia (heart rate >90 beats per minute), tachypnea (respiratory rate >24 breaths per minute) or abnormal white blood cell count (<12 000 or <400 cells/μL), or immunocompromised patients. Nonpurulent SSTIs. Mild infection: typical cellulitis/erysipelas with no focus of purulence. Moderate infection: typical cellulitis/erysipelas with systemic signs of infection. Severe infection: patients who have failed oral antibiotic treatment or those with systemic signs of infection (as defined above under purulent infection), or those who are immunocompromised, or those with clinical signs of deeper infection such as bullae, skin sloughing, hypotension, or evidence of organ dysfunction. Two newer agents, tedizolid and dalbavancin, are also effective agents in SSTIs, including those caused by methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, and may be approved for this indication by June 2014. Abbreviations: C & S, culture and sensitivity; I & D, incision and drainage; MRSA, methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, RX, treatment; TMP/SMX, trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole.

2014
IDSA
Guidelines
for Skin
and Soft
Tissue
Infections

EMPIRIC COVERAGE-PGY 2

According to the 2010 IDSA guidelines, this is the appropriate empiric antibiotic coverage for a previously healthy 50 year-old woman who presents with left lower quadrant pain and a CT scan that is consistent with acute diverticulitis and abscess formation. Vitals are normal.

- A. Ampicillin-sulbactam
- B. Piperacillin-tazobactam
- C. Ciprofloxacin and metronidazole
 - D. Cefipime and clindamycin
- E. Vancomycin and imipenum-cilastin

Table 2. Agents and Regimens that May Be Used for the Initial Empiric Treatment of Extra-biliary Complicated Intra-abdominal Infection

		Community-acquired infection in adults		
Regimen	Community-acquired infection in pediatric patients	Mild-to-moderate severity: perforated or abscessed appendicitis and other infections of mild-to-moderate severity	High risk or severity: severe physiologic disturbance, advanced age, or immunocompromised state	
Single agent	Ertapenem, meropenem, imipenem- cilastatin, ticarcillin-clavulanate, and piperacillin-tazobactam	Cefoxitin, ertapenem, moxifloxacin, tigecycline, and ticarcillin-clavulanic acid	Imipenem-cilastatin, meropenem, dori- penem, and piperacillin-tazobactam	
Combination	Ceftriaxone, cefotaxime, cefepime, or ceftazidime, each in combination with metronidazole; gentamicin or tobramycin, each in combination with metronidazole or clindamycin, and with or without ampicillin	acin, each in combination with metronidazole ^a	Cefepime, ceftazidime, ciprofloxacin, or levofloxacin, each in combination with metronidazole ^a	

^a Because of increasing resistance of *Escherichia coli* to fluoroquinolones, local population susceptibility profiles and, if available, isolate susceptibility should be reviewed.

Community-Acquired Infection of Mild-to-Moderate Severity in Adults

- 28. Antibiotics used for empiric treatment of community-acquired intra-abdominal infection should be active against enteric gram-negative aerobic and facultative bacilli and enteric gram-positive streptococci (A-I).
- 29. Coverage for obligate anaerobic bacilli should be provided for distal small bowel, appendiceal, and colon-derived infection and for more proximal gastrointestinal perforations in the presence of obstruction or paralytic ileus (A-I).
- 30. For adult patients with mild-to-moderate community-acquired infection, the use of ticarcillin-clavulanate, cefoxitin, ertapenem, moxifloxacin, or tigecycline as single-agent therapy or combinations of metronidazole with cefazolin, cefuroxime, ceftriaxone, cefotaxime, levofloxacin, or ciprofloxacin are preferable to regimens with substantial anti-*Pseudomonal* activity (Table 2) (A-I).

- 31. Ampicillin-sulbactam is not recommended for use because of high rates of resistance to this agent among community-acquired *E. coli* (B-II).
- 32. Cefotetan and clindamycin are not recommended for use because of increasing prevalence of resistance to these agents among the *Bacteroides fragilis* group (B-II).
- 33. Because of the availability of less toxic agents demonstrated to be at least equally effective, aminoglycosides are not recommended for routine use in adults with community-acquired intra-abdominal infection (B-II).
- 34. Empiric coverage of *Enterococcus* is not necessary in patients with community-acquired intra-abdominal infection (A-I).
- 35. Empiric antifungal therapy for *Candida* is not recommended for adult and pediatric patients with community-acquired intra-abdominal infection (B-II).

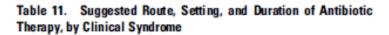
- 36. The use of agents listed as appropriate for higher-severity community-acquired infection and health care-associated infection is not recommended for patients with mild-to-moderate community-acquired infection, because such regimens may carry a greater risk of toxicity and facilitate acquisition of more-resistant organisms (B-II).
- 37. For those patients with intra-abdominal infection of mild-to-moderate severity, including acute diverticulitis and various forms of appendicitis, who will not undergo a source control procedure, regimens listed for treatment of mild-tomoderate–severity infection are recommended, with a possibility of early oral therapy (B-III).

2010 IDSA Guidelines for Intra-Abdominal Infections

EMPIRIC COVERAGE- PGY 3+4

A 65 year old man presented with sepsis due to a diabetic foot infection. The patient went to the OR on hospital day #2 and had an amputation of the affected limb and is clinically improved. This is the appropriate duration of antibiotic treatment according to the 2012 IDSA guidelines for diabetic foot infection.

- A. IV antibiotics x 7 more days
- B. IV antibiotics x 10 more days
- C. PO antibiotics x 5 more days
- D. PO antibiotics x 14 more days



Site of Infection, by Severity or Extent	Route of Administration	Setting	Duration of Therapy
Soft-tissue only			
Mild	Topical or oral	Outpatient	1–2 wk; may extend up to 4 wk if slow to resolve
Moderate	Oral (or initial parenteral)	Outpatient/ inpatient	1–3 wk
Severe	Initial parenteral, switch to oral when possible	Inpatient, then outpatient	2-4 wk
Bone or joint			
No residual infected tissue (eg, postamputation)	Parenteral or oral		2-5 d
Residual infected soft tissue (but not bone)	Parenteral or oral		1–3 wk
Residual infected (but viable) bone	Initial parenteral, then consider oral switch		4–6 wk
No surgery, or residual dead bone postoperatively	Initial parenteral, then consider oral switch		≥3 mo

OI-PGY 1

This is the appropriate treatment for a 28 year-old man with dyspnea x 3 weeks, dry cough, and fever. He has scattered white plaques on oral mucous membranes and is saturating 88% on RA. ABG reveals pH 7.48, pC02 30, and pa02 60. CXR is shown. Rapid HIV test is positive.

- A. IV gancyclovir
- B. IV ceftriaxone and azithromycin
- C. IV TMP-SMX
- D. IV TMP-SMX and prednisone



Treating PCP

Note—Patients who develop PCP despite TMP-SMX prophylaxis usually can be treated effectively with standard doses of TMP-SMX (BIII).

For Moderate to Severe PCP—Total Duration = 21 Days (AII):

Preferred Therapy:

TMP-SMX: (TMP 15-20 mg and SMX 75-100 mg)/kg/day IV given q6h or q8h (AI), may switch to PO after clinical improvement (AI).

Alternative Therapy:

- Pentamidine 4 mg/kg IV once daily infused over at least 60 minutes (AI); may reduce the dose to 3 mg/kg IV once daily because of toxicities (BI) or
- Primaquine^b 30 mg (base) PO once daily + (Clindamycin [IV 600 q6h or 900 mg q8h] or [PO 450 mg q6h or 600 mg q8h]) (Al).
- **Adjunctive corticosteroid may be indicated in some moderate to severe cases (see indications and dosage recommendations below)

For Mild to Moderate PCP—Total Duration = 21 days (AII):

Preferred Therapy:

- . TMP-SMX: (TMP 15-20 mg/kg/day and SMX 75-100 mg/kg/day), given PO in 3 divided doses (AI) or
- TMP-SMX DS 2 tablets TID (AI).

Alternative Therapy:

- Dapsone^b 100 mg PO daily + TMP 15 mg/kg/day PO (3 divided doses) (BI) or
- Primaquine^b 30 mg (base) PO daily + Clindamycin PO (450 mg q6h or 600 mg q8h) (BI) or
- . Atovaquone 750 mg PO BID with food (BI)

Guidelines for the Prevention and Treatment of Opportunistic Infections in HIV-Infected Adults and Adolescents

Downloaded from http://aidsinfo.nih.gov/guidelines on 8/17/2015

Adjunctive Corticosteroids:

For Moderate to Severe PCP Based on the Following Criteria (AI):

- PaO₂ <70 mmHg at room air or
- Alveolar-arterial O₂ gradient ≥35 mmHg

Dosing Schedule:

Prednisone doses (beginning as early as possible and within 72 hours of PCP therapy) (AI):

Days 1-5	40 mg PO BID
Days 6-10	40 mg PO daily
Days 11-21	20 mg PO daily

IV methylprednisolone can be given as 75% of prednisone dose

R.

OI-PGY 2

A 33 year-old woman is evaluated for a 5 week history of whitish spots in the mouth and the back of the throat and discomfort with swallowing solid foods. She has never had these symptoms before. She has a 3 year history of HIV infection and also has moderately severe asthma that is well controlled on fluticasone and salmeterol. Her last CD4 count was 458 and her HIV RNA viral load is undetectable. This is the most appropriate management for this patient.

- A. Clotrimazole troches
- B. Fluticasone cessation
- C. Intravenous amphotericin B
- D. Nystatin swish-and-swallow
 - E. Oral fluconazole

Recommendations for Treating Mucosal Candidiasis (page 1 of 2)

Treating Mucosal Candidiasis

Oropharyngeal Candidiasis: Initial Episodes (Duration of Therapy: 7-14 days)

Preferred Oral Therapy:

. Fluconazole 100 mg PO once daily (AI), or

Preferred Topical Therapy:

- . Clotrimazole troches 10 mg PO 5 times daily (BI), or
- Miconazole mucoadhesive buccal tablet 50 mg: Apply to mucosal surface over the canine fossa once daily (do not swallow, chew, or crush tablet). Refer to product label for more detailed application instructions. (BI)

Alternative Oral Therapy:

- . Itraconazole oral solution 200 mg PO daily (BI), or
- . Posaconazole oral suspension 400 mg PO BID for one day, then 400 mg daily (BI)

Alternative Topical Therapy:

Nystatin suspension 4-6 mL QID or 1-2 flavored pastilles 4-5 times daily (BII)

Esophageal candidiasis (Duration of Therapy: 14-21 days)

Note: Systemic antifungals are required for effective treatment of esophageal candidiasis (AI)

Preferred Therapy:

- . Fluconazole 100 mg (up to 400 mg) PO or IV daily (AI), or
- . Itraconazole oral solution 200 mg PO daily (AI)

Alternative Therapy:

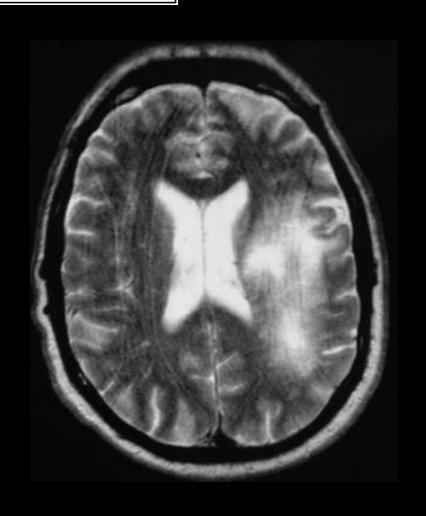
- . Voriconazole 200 mg PO or IV BID (BI), or
- . Caspofungin 50 mg IV daily (BI), or
- . Micafungin 150 mg IV daily (BI), or
- . Anidulafungin 100 mg IV for one dose, then 50 mg IV daily (BI), or
- Amphotericin B deoxycholate 0.6 mg/kg IV daily (BI), or
- Lipid formulation of amphotericin B 3-4 mg/kg IV daily (BIII)

Note: A higher rate of esophageal candidiasis relapse has been reported with echinocandins than with fluconazole.

OI-PGY 3+4

A 37 year-old woman is evaluated for worsening multiple sclerosis. She has had 3 relapses in the past year treated with corticosteroids. A recent MRI showed additional ovoid lesions since diagnosis. The decision is made to change the patient's medication from glatiramer acetate to natalizumab. Six months after this medication is initiated, the patient develops altered mental status and ataxia. Her brain MRI is shown. This is the infectious etiology.

- A. Creutzfeld-Jakob
- B. Toxoplasmosis
- C. JC Virus
- D. Cryptococcus
- E. Tuberculosis



Higher JCV Antibody Levels Precede PML Diagnosis

Patients who were diagnosed with PML (n = 71) had significantly higher JCV antibody index values more than 6 months before the diagnosis compared with patients without a PML diagnosis (n = 2522) (P < .001). Differences in antibody indices occurred only in comparison of patients with (n = 19) and those without (n = 176) a PML diagnosis who had not had prior immunosuppressive therapy; values were higher for patients later diagnosed with PML (P < .001).

For patients who had received immunosuppressive therapy earlier, there was no significant difference in antibody levels between those later diagnosed with PML and those without PML (P = .87).

For JCV antibody-positive patients with no prior immunosuppressant use, the risk for PML increased with longer natalizumab use. For 1 to 24 months of exposure to the drug, the risk was 0.6/1000. With 25 to 48 months of exposure, the risk increased to 5.2/1000, and with 49 to 72 months of natalizumab, the risk was 5.4/1000. Patients who were antibody negative had a risk of 0.07/1000.

For patients with no prior immunosuppressive exposure, antibody index values allowed estimation of PML risk according to the duration of exposure to natalizumab. Patients with lower antibody levels remained at substantially lower PML risk over the course of natalizumab therapy compared with patients with higher antibody levels.

A self-titration algorithm to help your patients with type 2 diabetes begin mealtime insulin therapy starting with just one injection at breakfast

Learn more about the algorithm*

*Click to learn more information about a prescription treatment algorithm option.

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Information from Industry

Table, Estimation of PML Risk per 1000 Patients According to Antibody Index by Duration of Natalizumab Exposure

Antibody Index	1 to 24 Months	25 to 48 Months	49 to 72 Months
≤0.9	0.1	0.3	0.4
≤1.1	0.1	0.7	0.7
≤1.3	0.1	1.0	1.2
≤1.5	0.1	1.2	1.3
>1.5	1.0	8.1	8.5

Patients had no prior immunosuppressant exposure.

"We know that currently some physicians after 2 years of natalizumab treatment in their antibody-positive patients will take the patients off of drug because of a fear of PML," Dr. Ticho said. "Perhaps for patients who have lower antibody index levels there is another analysis of the benefit-risk that has to be made with respect to both the disease course that those patients have and the fact that their risk of PML may actually be lower than expected right now."

TRAVEL-PGY 1

A 46 year-old woman travels to a rural area of Guatemala. Three days after arrival, she develops watery diarrhea with severe abdominal cramping. She reports two unformed stools daily for the past 2 days. She has noticed no blood in the stool and has not experienced a fever. This is the most likely cause of the patient's illness.

- A. Campylobacter jejuni
- B. Entertoxigenic Escherichia coli
 - C. Giardia lamblia
 - D. Norovirus
 - E. Shigella spp.

TRAVELERS' DIARRHEA

Bradley A. Connor

Travelers' diarrhea (TD) is the most predictable travel-related illness. Attack rates range from 30% to 70% of travelers, depending on the destination and season of travel. Traditionally, it was thought that TD could be prevented by following simple recommendations such as "boil it, cook it, peel it, or forget it," but studies have found that people who follow these rules may still become ill. Poor hygiene practice in local restaurants is likely the largest contributor to the risk for TD.

TD is a clinical syndrome that can result from a variety of intestinal pathogens. Bacterial pathogens are the predominant risk, thought to account for 80%–90% of TD. Intestinal viruses usually account for 5%–8% of illnesses, although increasing use of improved diagnostics may increase recognition of norovirus infections in the future. Infections with protozoal pathogens are slower to manifest symptoms and collectively account for approximately 10% of diagnoses in longer-term travelers. What is commonly known as "food poisoning" involves the ingestion of preformed toxins in food. In this syndrome, vomiting and diarrhea may both be present, but symptoms usually resolve spontaneously within 12 hours.

INFECTIOUS AGENTS

Bacteria are the most common cause of TD. Overall, the most common pathogen is enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli*, followed by *Campylobacter jejuni*, *Shigella* spp., and *Salmonella* spp. Enteroadherent and other E. con pathotypes are also common pathogens in TD. There is increasing discussion of *Aeromonas* spp. and *Plesiomonas* spp. as potential causes of TD as well. Viral diarrhea can be caused by a number of pathogens, including norovirus, rotavirus, and astrovirus.

Giardia is the main protozoal pathogen found in TD. Entamoeba histolytica is a relatively uncommon pathogen in travelers. Cryptosporidium is also relatively uncommon. The risk for Cyclospora is highly geographic and seasonal: the most well-known risks are in Nepal, Peru, Haiti, and Guatemala. Dientamoeba fragilis is a low-grade but persistent pathogen that is occasionally diagnosed in travelers. The individual pathogens are each discussed in their own sections in Chapter 3, and persistent diarrhea in returned travelers is discussed in Chapter 5.

TRAVEL-PGY 2

A 19 year-old man is evaluated for a sore throat, daily fever, frontal headache, myalgia, and arthralgia of 5 days' duration. He also has severe low back pain and a rash on his trunk and extremities. He returned from a 7 day trip to the Caribbean 8 days ago. On physical examination, temperature is 38.3 (100.9), blood pressure is 104/72 mm Hg, HR is 102/min, and RR is 16/min. His pharynx is erythematous without exudate. He has a diffuse maculopapular rash on arms, legs, and chest that spares the palms and soles. There is no LAD. WBC is 3.1, platelet 85K, ALT 114 U/L, AST 154 U/L, total bilirubin 1.2 mg/dL. This is the likely diagnosis.

- A. Denge fever
- B. Leptospirosis
 - C. Malaria
 - D. Syphilis
- E. Yellow fever

Rash in dengue fever



Other symptoms — Acute dengue virus infection often presents without the full picture of classical DF, especially in children. Gastrointestinal or respiratory tract symptoms may dominate the clinical picture in some patients. Among 3926 patients with laboratory-diagnosed dengue virus infections in Puerto Rico during 1990 and 1991 (one-third of whom were <15 years of age), the frequency of specific symptoms was as follows [12]:

- Constitutional symptoms, including fever (90 percent)
- · Headache, eye pain, body pain, and joint pain (63 to 78 percent)
- · Rash (slightly more than 50 percent)
- Gastrointestinal symptoms including nausea or vomiting (more than 50 percent) and diarrhea (30 percent)
- Respiratory tract symptoms including cough, sore throat, and nasal congestion (each observed in approximately one-third of patients)

Physical examination — The physical examination in patients with DF is generally nonspecific. Conjunctival injection, pharyngeal erythema, lymphadenopathy, and hepatomegaly are observed in 20 to 50 percent of patients [13]. The rash is typically macular or maculopapular and may be associated with pruritus (picture 1).

Laboratory findings — Laboratory findings typical of DF include the following:

- Leukopenia is common in both adults and children with DF and is a useful diagnostic feature [13,15,16].
- Thrombocytopenia is noted in most patients with DF [17]. In several studies, platelet counts <100,000 cells/mm³ were observed in 16 to 55 percent of patients [11,15].
- Serum aspartate transaminase (AST) levels are frequently elevated in both adults and children with DF; the elevations are usually modest (2 to 5 times
 the upper limit of normal values), but marked elevations (5 to 15 times the upper limit of normal) are occasionally noted [11,15].

TRAVEL-PGY 3+4

A 27 year-old man is evaluated in the ED for a 2-day history of fever, weakness, and dark-colored urine. The patient returned yesterday from a 2 week camping trip to Cape Cod, Massachusetts. While there, he developed a target-shaped lesion on his thigh. He was seen at a walk-in clinic and early-stage Lyme disease was diagnosed. He was given a 14 day course of doxycycline of which he is on day #10. He is now jaundiced with normal BP and HR of 118. The liver is enlarged and tender. Hemoglobin is 8.4 g/dL, Retic count is 10%, Leukocyte count is 12.6 K, Platelet count is 110 K, LDH is 675 U/L, and total bilirubin is 8.3 mg/dL.

This is the pathogen most likely to cause the patient's current findings.

- A. Anaplasma phagocytophilum
 - B. Babesia microti
 - C. Borrelia burgdorferi
 - D. Rickettsia rickettsii
 - E. West Nile virus

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

- Babesiosis is an infectious disease caused by protozoa of the genus Babesia. Babesia protozoa infect vertebrate animals and cause lysis of host red blood cells. The zoonotic cycle is maintained by tick vectors. Human infection is accidental; humans are not definitive reservoir hosts. (See "Introduction" above.)
- Clinical manifestations of Babesia infection range from asymptomatic to severe infection (sometimes fatal). Symptoms of mild illness typically include fever, chills, sweats, headache, myalgia, arthralgia, and anorexia. Severe illness may include manifestations of brisk hemolysis (jaundice, hemoglobinuria) as well as multiorgan system failure (acute respiratory distress syndrome, disseminated intravascular coagulation, congestive heart failure, and renal failure). (See 'Clinical manifestations' above.)
- The severity of infection depends on the Babesia species and the immune status of the host. B. microti is the predominant species in North America; manifestations of infection due to this species range from mild (in young healthy individuals) to severe (in immunocompromised patients and in older adults). B. divergens is the predominant species in Europe; nearly all symptomatic cases attributed to B. divergens were severe and occurred in asplenic individuals. (See 'Clinical manifestations' above.)
- Definitive diagnosis of babesiosis should be made by microscopic examination of a thin blood smear. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) is useful in the
 setting of low parasitemia, (eg, at the onset of symptoms and during convalescence). Serology alone is not diagnostic but may help determine
 whether the infection is acute, active, or recent. (See 'Diagnosis' above.)
- For patients with mild B. microti infection, we recommend treatment with <u>atovaquone-azithromycin (Grade 1B)</u>. For asymptomatic patients with babesiosis, we recommend not administering antibiotic therapy (<u>Grade 1C</u>). Treatment should be considered if parasites persist for ≥3 months. (See <u>Treatment of mild illness due to B. microti</u> above.)
- For patients with severe B. microti infection, we recommend initial antimicrobial therapy with <u>clindamycin-quinine</u> (<u>Grade 1B</u>). Indications for red blood cell exchange transfusion include high-grade parasitemia (≥10 percent) and severe anemia (hemoglobin <10 g/dL), particularly if the patient is likely to develop pulmonary, renal, or hepatic compromise. Exchange transfusion may be lifesaving and should not be withheld in cases of severe disease, even if parasitemia is less than 10 percent. Exchange transfusion should be performed in consultation with experts in hematology and pheresis.
 Severe anemia alone (hemoglobin <10 g/dL) should be addressed with transfusion of packed red blood cells. (See <u>Treatment of severe illness due to</u> B. microti' above.)
- B. divergens frequently causes fulminant illness and should be considered a medical emergency. We recommend exchange transfusion in
 consultation with hematology and pheresis expertise (<u>Grade 1C</u>), followed by antimicrobial therapy with <u>clindamycin</u> (and <u>quinine</u> when tolerated)
 (<u>Grade 1B</u>).
- Administration of antimicrobial therapy for 7 to 10 days is usually sufficient for curative treatment of mild disease. Longer duration of antimicrobial
 therapy may be needed in cases of persistent and relapsing babesiosis. Immunocompromised patients should be treated for at least six weeks,
 including two weeks after parasites are no longer detectable on blood smear. (See 'Persistent and relapsing babesiosis' above.)

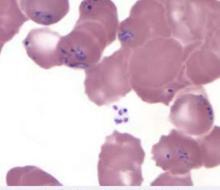


Figure G: Babesia MO-1 in a thin blood smear stained with Giemsa. Babesia sp. cannot be identified to the species level by morphology alone; additional testing, such as PCR, is always recommended.

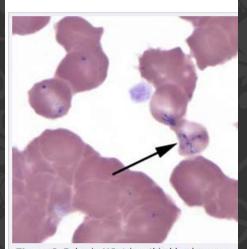


Figure 3: Babesia MO-1 in a thin blood smear stained with Giemsa. Note the tetrad (black arrow).