Approach to Internal Medicine

A Resource Book for Clinical Practice

David Hui · Alexander A. Leung · Christopher Ma *Editors*



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Fifth Edition

Edited by

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To Ella, Rupert, Nancy, Benjamin David Hui To May and all my loved ones Christopher Ma To Mary and all my family Alexander A. Leung To Saireena and all my family Saifal Anwar To Jordan and all my loved ones Caitlyn Collins

Preface

"He who studies medicine without books sails an uncharted sea, but he who studies medicine without patients does not go to sea at all."

Sir William Osler

In this age of the internet and mobile devices, when every bit of medical information is literally at our fingertips, why do we still need a handbook? Clinicians are now, more so than ever, faced with an over-whelming amount of data, and the need for a clinical resource that is reliable, accurate, clear, and concise is of paramount importance. To take advantage of the ever growing literature, clinicians need to have a fundamental understanding of the basics, a conceptual framework to organize all the data, and a principled approach to medical decision making. This is how *Approach to Internal Medicine* can be most helpful.

Approach to Internal Medicine strives to provide practicing clinicians and trainees with a practical, evidence-based, and concise resource for everyday clinical use, bedside teaching and examination preparation. Now in its fifth edition, our editorial team has substantially updated its content, which consists of over 250 internal medicine topics under 17 subspecialties. In each topic, the sections on differential diagnoses, investigations, and treatments are designed for the rapid retrieval of high-yield clinical information. Unique to Approach to Internal Medicine, we have included multiple comparison tables aimed at highlighting the distinguishing features between various clinical entities, and numerous clinical pearls and memonics (marked by \bigstar).

Good patient care requires dedication and teamwork. This also holds true for the mammoth task of updating the current edition. We are very fortunate to have recruited a new editor (Dr. Christopher Ma) and two new assistant editors (Dr. Saifal Anwar and Dr. Caitlyn Collins), who bring with them their wealth of knowledge and new ideas. We are also indebted to our section editors and contributors for their meticulous review of each subspecialty, providing expert input on the most up-to-date information. We are grateful to all previous contributors and users of this handbook for their feedback over the past years. We also would like to thank the editorial and production teams at Springer, particularly Katherine Kreilkamp and Margaret Moore for their expert guidance and support throughout this project. Finally, we are obliged to our families for their understanding and support during the countless nights and weekends updating this edition.

While every effort has been made to ensure the accuracy of information in this handbook, the author, editors, and publisher are not responsible for omissions, errors, or any consequences that result from application of the information contained herein. Verification of the information in this manual remains the professional responsibility of the practitioner. Readers are strongly urged to consult other

appropriate clinical resources prior to applying information in this manual for direct patient care. This is particularly important since patterns of practice and clinical evidence evolve constantly. We welcome any constructive feedback to help make this manual a more accurate, practical, comprehensive, and user-friendly resource.

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The first name and last name information of Dr. Saifal Anwar, the assistant editor for this book was swapped in the original publication of the book. Dr. Saifal Anwar's name has been corrected on the title page and dedication page of book Frontmatter.

Disclaimer

Approach to Internal Medicine is meant to be a practical field guide. Dosages of medications are provided for quick reference only. Readers should consult other resources before applying information in this manual for direct patient care. The author, editors, and publisher of Approach to Internal Medicine cannot be held responsible for any harm, direct or indirect, caused as a result of application of information contained within this manual.

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1 PULMONARY MEDICINE Ashley-Mae E. Gillson



Asthma

2020 Global Initiative for Asthma Guidelines FitzGerald et al. *Can J Respir Crit Care Sleep Med* 2017;1(4) Lougheed et al. *Can Respir J* 2012;19(2)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF WHEEZING

EXTRATHORACIC AIRWAY OBSTRUCTION

- OROPHARYNX—enlarged tonsils, retropharyngeal abscess, obesity, post-nasal drip
- LARYNX—laryngeal edema, laryngostenosis, laryngocele, epiglottitis, anaphylaxis, severe laryngopharyngeal reflux, laryngospasm
- vocal corbs—vocal cord dysfunction, paralysis, hematoma, tumor, cricoarytenoid arthritis

INTRATHORACIC AIRWAY OBSTRUCTION

- TRACHEAL OBSTRUCTION—tracheal/subglottic stenosis, tracheomalacia, tracheobronchitis (herpetic, fungal), malignancy, benign tumor, aspiration, foreign body
- TRACHEAL COMPRESSION—goiter, right-sided aortic arch
- LOWER AIRWAY OBSTRUCTION—asthma, COPD, bronchiolitis, bronchiectasis, carcinoid tumor, aspiration, malignancy
- PARENCHYMA—pulmonary edema
- VASCULAR—pulmonary embolism

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF ASTHMA—heterogeneous disease, characterized by chronic airway inflammation with variable expiratory airflow limitation, which may later become persistent

CLINICAL PHENOTYPES OF ASTHMA

 ALLERGIC ASTHMA—most recognized; often starts in childhood and associated with a past or family history of allergic disease such as eczema, allergic rhinitis, or food/drug allergy; induced sputum eosinophils often increased; responds well to inhaled corticosteroid (ICS) treatment

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

- NON-ALLERGIC ASTHMA—asthma not associated with allergy. Sputum analysis may be neutrophilic, eosinophilic, or paucigranulocytic; lower short-term response rate to ICS
- ADULT-ONSET ASTHMA—often non-allergic, more frequently in women; often requires higher doses of ICS or is relatively refractory to corticosteroid treatment. Occupational asthma must be ruled out
- ASTHMA WITH PERSISTENT AIRFLOW LIMITATION patients with longstanding asthma develop incompletely reversible airflow limitation thought to be due to airway wall remodeling
- ASTHMA WITH OBESITY—prominent respiratory symptoms and little eosinophilic airway inflammation

EXACERBATORS OF ASTHMA

- INFECTIONS—viral, bacterial, fungal
- outdoors—respirable particulates, ozone, sulfur dioxide, cold air, humidity, smoking
- INDOORS—smoke, dust mites, air conditioners, humidity, perfumes, scents, mold, animal dander
- NON-ADHERENCE
- INCORRECT INHALER TECHNIQUE
- MAJOR PSYCHOLOGICAL OR SOCIOECONOMIC PROBLEMS

RISK FACTORS FOR ASTHMA EXACERBATIONS—>1 exacerbation in previous year, socioeconomic status, poor adherence, incorrect inhaler technique, low lung function, smoking, eosinophilia

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—history of asthma and any lifethreatening exacerbations, number of ER visits/ hospital admissions in the last 6 months (or ever),

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CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

any ICU admissions, previous prednisone use, triggers for attacks, usual peak expiratory flow rate, change in peak flow rates, wheezing, cough, dyspnea, decreased function, exercise limitation, nocturnal symptoms, absenteeism from work/school, postnasal drip, recurrent sinusitis, GERD, past medical history, medication history, psychosocial issues, occupational and work environment, home environment (pets, heating source, filter changes, mold)

PHYSICAL—HR \uparrow , RR \uparrow , pulsus paradoxus, O₂ requirement, moderate-severe dyspnea, barrel chest, cyanosis, stridor, chest hyperresonance, decreased breath sounds, wheezing, forced expiratory time

TYPES OF WHEEZING—inspiratory wheeze and expiratory wheeze are classically associated with extrathoracic and intrathoracic airway obstruction, respectively. However, they are neither sensitive nor specific and cannot help to narrow differential diagnosis

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC (including eosinophils), lytes, urea, Cr, troponin/CK
- MICROBIOLOGY—sputum Gram stain/ AFB/C&S, nasopharyngeal swab for viral studies
- imaging—CXR

SPECIAL

- ABG—if acute respiratory distress
- PEAK FLOW METER—need to compare bedside reading to patient's baseline
- SPIROMETRY/PFT (non-acute setting)—↑ FEV1 >12% and an absolute ↑ by 200 mL post-bronchodilator suggests asthma
- BRONCHIAL PROVOCATION TESTING (i.e. methacholine challenge, non-acute setting)—if diagnosis of asthma not confirmed by spirometry alone. A decrease of FEV1 >20% after methacholine challenge suggests asthma. Sens 95%
- ALLERGY TESTING (non-acute setting)—skin prick testing has high sensitivity, allergen serology IgE testing
- SPUTUM EOSINOPHIL COUNTS (non-acute setting)—performed in specialized centres for monitoring of asthma control in patients with moderate to severe asthma
- FRACTIONAL CONCENTRATION OF EXHALED NITRIC OXIDE (FENO)—not currently recommended for general asthma population; further studies required to determine specific patients who would benefit and frequency of testing

ACUTE MANAGEMENT

ABC-O₂ to keep sat >92%, IV

BRONCHODILATORS—*salbutamol* 100 μg MDI 2 puffs q6h ATC + q1h PRN and *ipratropium* 20 μg MDI 2 puffs q6h scheduled (frequency stated is only a guide, may increase or decrease on a case by case basis); consider asthma protocol if present in Emergency Department

STEROID—*prednisone* 0.5–1 mg/kg PO daily× 7–14 days (may be shorter depending on response) or *methylprednisolone* 0.4–0.8 mg/ kg IV daily (until conversion to prednisone)

OTHERS—if refractory case and life-threatening, consider IV epinephrine, IV salbutamol, theophylline, inhaled anesthetics, MgSO₄

RESPIRATORY SUPPORT—non-invasive ventilation, intubation and mechanical ventilation

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT

EDUCATION—smoking cessation (see p. 490). Asthma action plan. Puffer technique education and review; consider medication adherence and cost to patient

ENVIRONMENTAL CONTROL—avoidance of outdoor/indoor allergens, irritants, and infections; home environment cleanliness (e.g. steam cleaning) VACCINATIONS—influenza vaccine annually and pneumococcal vaccine every 5 years

MANAGE COMORBIDITIES—obesity, GERD, allergies, rhinitis/sinusitis/nasal polyps, anxiety/ depression

ASTHMA MEDICATIONS

- step 1 (infrequent asthma symptoms <2 per month and no risk factors for exacerbations) low dose ICS-formoterol as needed
- STEP 2 (asthma symptoms or need for reliever ≥2x per month)—daily low dose ICS or as needed low dose ICS-formoterol; also consider daily leukotriene receptor antagonist (LTRA), which is most effective in asthma complicated with sinus disease and exercise-induced asthma, or low dose scheduled ICS plus SABA as needed (salbutamol 100 µg MDI 2 puffs PRN)
- STEP 3 (asthma symptoms most days)—low dose ICS-LABA, consider increasing to medium dose ICS
- STEP 4 (asthma symptoms most days and low lung function)—medium dose ICS-LABA, consider increasing to high dose ICS, add-on tiotropium or LTRA
- STEP 5 (severe asthma symptoms or need for reliever most days and low lung function) high dose ICS-LABA, consider low doses oral corticosteroids

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

- PHENOTYPE ASSESSMENT—referral
- ADD-ON THERAPY—anti-IgE (i.e. omalizumab for refractory allergic asthma), anti-IL5/SR (i.e. SC mepolizumab or benralizumab with severe eosinophilic asthma), anti-IL4R (i.e. SC dupilumab for severe type 2 asthma, or requiring oral corticosteroids)
- AZITHROMYCIN—consider azithromycin 500 mg PO 3 ×/week (consider ototoxicity

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

and cardiac arrhythmia; requires ECG to check for long QTc, sputum for atypical mycobacteria; treatment for at least 6 months to determine efficacy)

 BRONCHIAL THERMOPLASTY—severe asthma, currently should only be performed as a part of clinical study; further evidence on effectiveness and safety needed



HDM: house dust mitre (ICS: inhaled corticosteroid; LABA: long-acting beta2-agonist; LTRA: leukotriene receptor antagonist; OCS: oral corticosteroids; SABA: short-acting beta2-agonist; SLT: sublingual immunotherapy

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TREATMENT ISSUES

ASTHMA CONTROL CRITERIA

| Characteristic | Frequency or value |
|------------------------------------|--------------------|
| Daytime symptoms | <4 days/week |
| Night-time symptoms | <1 night/week |
| Physical activity | Normal |
| Exacerbations | Mild, infrequent |
| Absence from work or | None |
| school due to | |
| asthma | |
| Need for a SABA | <4 doses/week |
| FEV1 or PEF | ≥90% personal best |
| PEF diurnal variation ^a | <10–15% |
| Sputum eosinophils | <2-3% |

^aDiurnal variation is calculated as the difference between the highest and lowest PEF divided by the highest PEF multiplied by 100 for morning and night (determined over a 2 week period)

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

ASSESSING ASTHMA SEVERITY

- MILD—well controlled with step 1 or 2 treatment (i.e. PRN ICS-formoterol alone)
- MODERATE—well controlled with step 3 treatment (i.e. low dose ICS-LABA)
- SEVERE—requires step 4 or 5 treatment (i.e. high dose ICS-LABA to prevent it from becoming uncontrolled) or asthma that remains uncontrolled

COMMON INHALED MEDICATIONS

- SHORT-ACTING β-AGONISTS (SABA) salbutamol MDI 100 μg 1–2 puffs PRN or 2.5 mg NEB PRN, terbutaline 500 μg INH PRN
- SHORT-ACTING MUSCARINIC ANTAGONISTS (SAMA)—ipratropium MDI 20 μg 2 puffs QID or 500 μg NEB QID
- LONG-ACTING β-AGONISTS (LABA)—formoterol 6–24 μg INH BID, salmeterol diskus 50 μg 1 puff BID

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- LONG-ACTING MUSCARINIC ANTAGONISTS (LAMA) tiotropium 18 μg INH daily
- INHALED CORTICOSTEROIDS—beclomethasone 125–250 µg INH BID, budesonide turbuhaler 200–400 µg INH BID or 0.5–1 mg NEB BID, fluticasone 125–250 µg INH BID, ciclesonide MDI 100–400 µg INH daily (only indicated for asthma at this time, not COPD), mometasone twisthaler 100–400 µg INH BID

ADMISSION CRITERIA

| | | PEF | | |
|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------------------|--------------|
| | FEV1 (L) | (L/min) | PaO ₂ | Action |
| Very severe | - | - | <90% with O ₂ | Admit |
| Severe | <1.6 (<40%) | <200 (<40%) | <90% | Admit |
| Moderate | 1.6-2.1 | 200-300 | >90% | Admit? |
| Mild | >2.1 (>60%) | >300 (>60%) | >90% | Send home |

DISCHARGE CRITERIA—consider discharging patient if peak flow >70% of usual (or predicted) value for at least 1 h after bronchodilator

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

EXERCISE-INDUCED ASTHMA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—mild asthma with symptoms only during exercise due to bronchoconstriction as a result of cooling of airways associated with heat and water loss
- DIAGNOSIS—spirometry. Exercise or methacholine challenge may help in diagnosis
- TREATMENTS—prophylaxis with salbutamol 2 puffs MDI, given 5–10 min before exercise. Consider leukotriene antagonists or inhaled glucocorticoids if frequent use of prophylaxis

OCCUPATIONAL ASTHMA AND WORK-EXACERBATED ASTHMA

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—may be induced or aggravated by exposure to allergens or other sensitizing agents at work, or sometimes from a single, massive exposure; estimated 5–20% of new adult-onset asthma cases can be attributed to an occupational exposure

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- DIAGNOSIS—PEF monitoring at and away from work
- MANAGEMENT—refer to Occupational Medicine specialist, use strategies to limit exposure to allergen/sensitizing agent; consider changing occupations; treat asthma as per guidelines

TRIAD ASTHMA (Samter syndrome)—triad of asthma, aspirin/NSAIDs sensitivity, and nasal polyps. Cyclooxygenase inhibition $\rightarrow \downarrow$ prostaglandin $E_2 \rightarrow \uparrow$ leukotriene synthesis \rightarrow asthma symptoms. Management includes ASA/NSAIDs avoidance and leukotriene antagonists (montelukast)

ALLERGIC BRONCHOPULMONARY ASPERGILLOSIS (ABPA)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—associated with asthma and cystic fibrosis. Due to colonization of the airways by Aspergillus fumigatus, leading to an intense, immediate hypersensitivity-type reaction in the airways
- CLINICAL FEATURES—history of asthma or cystic fibrosis (CF), recurrent episodes of fever, dyspnea, and productive cough (brownish sputum). Peripheral blood eosinophilia. CXR findings of patchy infiltrates and central bronchiectasis, CT chest findings of central bronchiectasis, "finger-in-glove" appearance (i.e. mucus-filled dilated bronchi)
- **DIAGNOSIS**—one predisposing condition (asthma or CF); obligatory criteria (positive Asperaillus extract skin test, detectable serum laE level, elevated total serum laE concentration); other criteria (>2 must be present: serum antibodies to A. fumigatus or elevated A. fumigatus-specific IgG levels, radiographic pulmonary opacities consistent with ABPA, elevated eosinophil in glucocorticoid-naïve patients)
- TREATMENTS—systemic glucocorticoids (i.e. prednisone 0.5 mg/kg PO daily or equivalent × 14 days), followed by tapering over 3–4 months; consult Infectious Diseases service; consider antifungal therapy with itraconazole or voriconazole as part of initial therapy for acute ABPA, with the goal of reduction in the long-term glucocorticoid dose

Patterson et al. Clin Infect Dis 2016;63(4)

Acute Dyspnea 2015 ACCP/CTS Guideline Prevention of Acute Exacerbations of COPD

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

RESPIRATORY

- AIRWAY—COPD exacerbation, asthma exacerbation, acute bronchitis, infectious exacerbation of bronchiectasis, foreign body obstruction
- PARENCHYMA—pneumonia, cryptogenic organizing pneumonia (COP), ARDS, acute exacerbation of interstitial lung disease
- vascular—pulmonary embolism, pulmonary hypertension
- PLEURAL—pneumothorax, pleural effusion
 CARDIAC
- MYOCARDIAL—HF exacerbation, myocardial infarction
- VALVULAR—aortic stenosis, acute aortic regurgitation, mitral stenosis, endocarditis
- PERICARDIAL—pericardial effusion, tamponade

SYSTEMIC—sepsis, metabolic acidosis, anemia, cachexia

OTHERS—neuromuscular, psychogenic, anxiety

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

PRECIPITANTS OF COPD EXACERBATION infections, lifestyle/environmental (10% [cigarette smoke, dust, pollutants, cold air]), non-adherence to medications, pulmonary embolism, pulmonary edema, pneumothorax, progression of COPD

CLINICAL FEATURES

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THE CLINICAL EXAMINA-TION PREDICT AIRFLOW LIMITATION?

| | LR+ | LR– |
|-----------------------------|-----|------|
| History | | |
| Smoking >40 pack-years | 12 | 0.63 |
| Smoking ever | 1.8 | 0.16 |
| Sputum >1/4 cup | 4 | 0.84 |
| Chronic bronchitis symptoms | 3 | 0.78 |
| Wheezing | 3.8 | 0.66 |
| Any exertional dyspnea | 2.2 | 0.83 |
| Coughing | 1.8 | 0.69 |
| Any dyspnea | 1.2 | 0.55 |
| | | |

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

| | LR+ | LR– |
|--------------------------------------|------|------|
| Physical | | |
| Barrel chest | 10 | 0.90 |
| Decreased cardiac dullness | 10 | 0.88 |
| Match test | 7.1 | 0.43 |
| Rhonchi | 5.9 | 0.95 |
| Hyperresonance | 4.8 | 0.73 |
| FEV1 >9 s | 4.8 | - |
| FEV1 6–9 s | 2.7 | - |
| FEV1 <6 s | 0.45 | - |
| Subxiphoid cardiac apical impulse | 4.6 | 0.94 |
| Wheezing | 4.4 | 0.88 |
| Maximum laryngeal height \leq 4 cm | 4.2 | 0.70 |
| Pulsus paradoxus (>15 mmHg) | 3.7 | 0.62 |
| Decreased breath sounds | 2.6 | 0.66 |
| Accessory muscle use | - | 0.70 |
| Clinical Judgement | | |
| Overall Clinical Prediction of | 5.6 | - |
| Moderate-Severe Disease | | |
| Overall Clinical Prediction of Mild | 2.3 | - |

APPROACH—"No single item or combination of items from the clinical examination rules out airflow limitation." The best findings associated with increased likelihood of airflow limitation are objective wheezing, FEV1 >9 s, positive match test, barrel chest, hyperresonance, and subxiphoid cardiac impulse. "Three findings predict the likelihood of airflow limitation in men: years of cigarette smoking, subjective wheezing and either objective wheezing or peak expiratory flow rate."

Holleman et al. JAMA 1995;273(4) UPDATE—multivariate 'Rule In' Obstructive Disease Model (history of obstructive airways disease, smoking >40 pack-years, age \geq 45, and laryngeal height \leq 4 cm) has posterior odds of disease of 220. Multivariate'Rule Out'Obstructive Disease Model (smoking <30 years, no wheezing symptoms, and no auscultated wheezing) has posterior odds of disease of 0.02

Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination. McGraw-Hill, 2009

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, troponin/CK, Ca, Mg, PO₄
- MICROBIOLOGY—sputum Gram stain/AFB/ C&S/fungal, nasopharyngeal swab for viral studies
- imaging—CXR
- ECG—left atrial enlargement, atrial fibrillation, sinus tachycardia
- SPIROMETRY/PFT—FEV1/FVC <0.7, may be partially reversible. Severity based on FEV1
- ABG—if acute respiratory distress

SPECIAL

- BNP—if suspect HF
- D-DIMER, CT CHEST—if suspect PE
- ECHOCARDIOGRAM

DIAGNOSTIC & PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

DIAGNOSIS OF COPD—should be considered in patients at risk of developing disease; smoking history is most important risk factor; increased risk in patients with past history of asthma or severe childhood respiratory disease, exposed to passive smoke or biomass fuel; spirometry is essential for diagnosis (fixed post-bronchodilator FEV1/FVC ratio <0.70 or less than the lower limit of normal) **GOLD CLASSIFICATION FOR COPD**—all have FEV1/FVC <0.7. Severity of airflow limitation based on post-bronchodilator FEV1

- stage 1 (mild)—FEV1 ≥ 80% predicted
- stage 2 (moderate)—FEV1 50–79% predicted
- **STAGE 3** (severe)—FEV1 30–49% predicted
- stage 4 (very severe)—FEV1 <30% predicted

MODIFIED MEDICAL RESEARCH COUNCIL (mMRC) DYSPNEA SCALE

- 0—no breathlessness except on strenuous exercise
- 1—short of breath when hurrying or walking up a slight hill
- 2—walks slower than people of same age on level because of breathlessness or has to stop when walking at own pace
- 3—stops for breath after walking 100m or after a few minutes
- 4—too dyspneic to leave house; breathless when dressing

COPD ASSESSMENT TEST—a validated patientreported outcome that consists of 8 items (cough, phlegm, chest tightness, shortness of breath on exertion, activity level, confidence to leave home, sleep, energy), each rated using a 6-point numeric rating scale from 0 to 5, with a higher total score indicating greater symptom burden

GOLD ABCD GRADING—assessment for initiation of COPD therapy

DIAGNOSTIC & PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

| | Assess symptoms | | | |
|--|-------------------------------|---------------------------|--|--|
| Exacerbations/ Hospitaliza- tions | mMRC 0–1; CAT<10 | mMRC ≥2; CAT ≥10 | | |
| 0–1 exacerbations without hospitalization | Gold A | Gold B | | |
| \geq 2 exacerbations or \geq 1 hospitalization | Gold C | Gold D | | |
| Global Initiative Lung Dise | for Chronic (ase (GOLD) 2 | Obstructive 020 Report | | |

PROGNOSIS OF PATIENTS WITH ACUTE EXACERBATION OF COPD—in-hospital mortality 5–10%

BODE INDEX

- BMI—0 points =>21, 1 point = ≤21
- OBSTRUCTION (post-bronchodilator FEV1)—0 points = $\geq 65\%$ predicted, 1 point = 50–64%, 2 points = 36–49%, 3 points = $\leq 35\%$
- DISTANCE WALKED IN 6 MIN—0 points = ≥350 m, 1 point = 250-349 m, 2 points = 150-249 m, 3 points = ≤149 m
- EXERCISE MMRC DYSPNEA SCALE—0 points = 0-1, 1 point = 2, 2 points = 3, 3 points = 4
- scoring—total BODE score calculated as sum of all points. Relative risk for death (any cause) is increased by 34% per one-point increase in BODE score. Relative risk for death (from respiratory failure, pneumonia, or pulmonary embolism) is increased by 62% per one-point increase in BODE score

Celli et al. NEJM 2004;350:(10)

ACUTE MANAGEMENT

 $\textbf{ABC-O_2}$ to keep sat >90%, or 88–92% if CO_2 retainer, IV

BRONCHODILATORS—salbutamol 100 μg MDI 2 puffs q4h ATC + q1h PRN and *ipratropium* 20 μg MDI 2 puffs q4h ATC

STEROIDS—*prednisone* 40–60 mg PO daily× 5–14 days (tapering dose not always necessary) or *methylprednisolone* 60–125 mg IV q6–12 h (inpatient)

ANTIBIOTICS—give if any two of the following criteria are met: ↑ sputum purulence, ↑ dyspnea or ↑ sputum volume. Other considerations include the need for non-invasive mechanical ventilation and "at risk" for poor outcomes (substantial comorbidities, severe COPD, frequent exacerbations >3/ year, recent antibiotics within 3 months); choices depend on clinical circumstance (*levofloxacin* 500 mg PO daily × 5–7 days [or 750 mg PO daily × 5

ACUTE MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

days if no renal disease], *doxycycline* 100 mg PO BID \times 5–7 days, *amoxicillin* 500 mg PO BID \times 5–7 days, *cefuroxime* 250–500 mg PO BID \times 5–7 days, *cefuroxime* 250–500 mg PO BID \times 5–7 days, or *azithromycin* 500 mg PO \times 1 day then 250 mg PO daily \times 4 days) **RESPIRATORY SUPPORT**—non-invasive ventilation, intubation and mechanical ventilation

OTHERS—DVT prophylaxis (unfractionated heparin 5000 U SC q8–12 h, enoxaparin 40 mg SC q24h, dalteparin 5000 U SC q24h, tinzaparin 75 IU/kg SC q24h), physiotherapy

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT

EDUCATION—smoking cessation (see p. 490). Disease-specific self-management program. Inhaler technique education and review VACCINATIONS—influenza vaccine annually and pneumococcal vaccine booster every 5 years REHABILITATION—education and exercise training (increases quality of life and exercise tolerance); pulmonary rehabilitation associated with ↓ risk of recurrent exacerbation in patients with moderate to very severe COPD and recent AECOPD (<4 weeks)

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

LONG-TERM OXYGEN THERAPY—if chronic hypoxemia

INITIAL PHARMACOLOGIC THERAPY based on symptoms and risk of exacerbations

- GOLD A (MINIMAL SYMPTOMS, LOW RISK OF EXACERBATION)—short-acting bronchodilator with SABA (short-acting beta agonist) and/or SAMA (short-acting muscarinic antagonist)
- GOLD B (MORE SYMPTOMS, LOW RISK OF EXACERBA-TION)—regular treatment with long-acting bronchodilator (LAMA or LABA) plus SABA for symptom relief as needed
- GOLD C (MINIMAL SYMPTOMS, HIGH RISK OF EXAC-ERBATION)—regular treatment with LAMA plus SABA for symptom relief as needed
- GOLD D (MORE SYMPTOMS, HIGH RISK OF EXACERBA-TION)—regular treatment with LAMA or combination LABA and LAMA if severe breathlessness (CAT >20); if features of asthma/COPD overlap syndrome, ICS/LABA combination may be preferred; plus SABA for symptom relief as needed

SUBSEQUENT PHARMACOLOGIC THERAPY

| Current therapy | If persistent dyspnea or high COPD impact (i.e. mMRC ≥2 or CAT ≥10) with no exacerbations | If ≥ 1 exacerbations in past year \pm persistent dyspnea or high COPD impact | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| SABA or SABA-SAMA PRN | Add LAMA or LABA | Add LAMA | | | |
| LAMA or LABA monotherapy | Change to LAMA/LABA | LAMA/LABA if peripheral eosinophils normal LABA/ICS if LAMA contraindicated and 1 exacerbation in past year with peripheral eosinophils >300/ μ L or \geq 2 exacerbations/1 hospitalization in past year with peripheral eosinophils \geq 100/ μ L | | | |
| LABA/ICS | LAMA/LABA/ICS or LAMA/LABA if no response to ICS or adverse effects from ICS | LAMA/LABA/ICS if prior indication for ICS LAMA/LABA if lack of response to ICS or adverse effects from ICS | | | |
| LAMA/LABA | Trial of different LAMA/LABA or alternate delivery system Consider low dose theophylline, repeat pulmonary rehabilitation | LAMA/LABA/ICS or Continue LAMA/LABA and add phosphodiesterase-4 inhibitor (roflumilast 500 µg PO daily) ^a or azithromycin ^b | | | |
| LAMA/LABA/ICS | Continue LAMA/LABA/ICS Consider low dose theophylline (400 mg PO daily × 3 days, then 400–600 mg PO daily, therapeutic level 10–20 µg/mL), repeat pulmonary rehabilitation Consider stopping ICS if lack of response or adverse effect to ICS | Add roflumilast ^a or azithromycin ^b Stop ICS if lack of response or adverse effect | | | |
| ^a roflumilast for patients with FEV ₁ <50% predicted and at least 1 hospitalization in past year | | | | | |

^bazithromycin preventive therapy is more effective in patients who are not current smokers; consider development of resistant organisms such as non-Tuberculous mycobacterium

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

INVASIVE INTERVENTIONS—if symptoms still persistent and/or decline in function, consider lung volume reduction procedures (surgery, endobronchial valves), lung transplantation

TREATMENT ISSUES

COMMON INHALED MEDICATIONS (DPI=dry powder inhaler; SMI=soft mist inhaler)

- LAMA—tiotropium DPI 18 mcg daily or SMI 2 inhalations of 2.5 mcg once daily, glycopyrronium DPI 50 mcg capsule once daily, umeclidinium DPI 62.5 mcg inhalation daily, aclidinium DPI 400 mcg BID
- LABA—formoterol DPI 12–24 mcg BID, indacaterol DPI 75 mcg daily, salmeterol DPI 50 mcg BID
- LAMA/LABA COMBINATIONS—glycopyrrolate 50 mcg/indacaterol 110 mcg 1 INH daily, tiotropium 2.5 mcg/olodaterol 2.5 mcg 2 INH daily, umeclidinium 62.5 mcg/vilanterol 25 mcg 1 INH daily
- LAMA/LABA/ICS—fluticasone furoate 100 mcg/umeclidinium 62.5 mcg/vilanterol 25 mcg 1 INH daily

FACTORS FOR IMPENDING INTUBATION-

cardiac or respiratory failure, hemodynamic instability, markedly elevated respiratory rate (>35/ min), fatigue and labored respiration, use of accessory muscles, worsening hypercapnia, acidosis (especially lactic), stridor (impending upper airway obstruction), agonal breathing (impending respiratory arrest)

LIFE-PROLONGING MEASURES FOR COPD—smoking cessation, supplemental O₂, lung transplant

INDICATIONS FOR SUPPLEMENTAL HOME O₂—ABG done at room air. PaO₂ <55 mmHg alone or PaO₂ <60 mmHg in the presence of bilateral ankle edema, cor pulmonale, or hematocrit >56%

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

α1-ANTITRYPSIN DEFICIENCY

- РАТНОРНУЗЮСОСУ production of an abnormal protease inhibitor (homozygous ZZ) with impaired transport out of the liver. Serum level is only 10–15% of normal → increased protease activity leads to emphysema and cirrhosis (10%)
- DIAGNOSIS—α1-antitrypsin levels; targeted testing should be considered in patients with COPD diagnosed before 65 years of age or with a smoking history of <20 pack years
- **TREATMENTS**—similar to COPD, *α*1-antitrypsin replacement

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

ASTHMA AND COPD OVERLAP SYNDROME (ACOS)

- DIAGNOSIS—patients with clinical features of both asthma and COPD. Airflow limitation not fully reversible, FEV1/FVC ratio <0.7 or <LLN and bronchodilator increase in FEV1 >12% and 400 mL; history of atopy or allergies; exposure to risk factors (i.e. >10 pack year smoking or equivalent, indoor/outdoor air pollutant exposure)
- TREATMENTS—similar to COPD and asthma

BRONCHIOLITIS OBLITERANS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—severe inflammation of bronchioles → airflow obstruction. Very different from bronchiolitis obliterans organizing pneumonia (BOOP)/cryptogenic organizing pneumonia (COP), a parenchymal lung disorder
- CAUSES—infection (viral, Mycoplasma), inflammatory (ulcerative colitis, rheumatoid arthritis), transplant (bone marrow, lung), toxic fumes, idiopathic
- TREATMENTS—bronchiolitis obliterans (with an organizing intraluminal exudate and proliferative granulation tissue polyp) is usually steroid responsive. Constrictive bronchiolitis (late, fibrotic, concentric) is not responsive to glucocorticoids

BRONCHIECTASIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—airway obstruction, destruction, altered immunity → ↑ cellular and mediator inflammatory response → ↑ elastase, sputum production → recurrent infections → vicious cycle → permanent dilatation of bronchi. Major types of bronchiectasis include
 - CYLINDRICAL OR TUBULAR BRONCHIECTASIS dilated airways alone, sometimes represents residual effect of pneumonia and may resolve
 - VARICOSE BRONCHIECTASIS—focal constrictive areas along the dilated airways
 - SACCULAR OR CYSTIC BRONCHIECTASIS—most severe form. Progressive dilatation of the airways, resulting in large cysts or saccules
- CAUSES
 - FOCAL—broncholith, post-infectious, tumor, extrinsic lymph node compression, postlobar resection, recurrent aspiration
 - DIFFUSE
 - POST-INFECTIOUS—bacterial (Pseudomonas, Haemophilus), mycobacterium, fungal, viral (adenovirus, measles, influenza, HIV)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- IMMUNODEFICIENCY—cancer, chemotherapy, hypogammaglobulinemia, immunosuppression, sequelae of toxic inhalation or aspiration of foreign body
- INTERSTITIAL LUNG DISEASE—traction bronchiectasis
- INFLAMMATORY—RA, SLE, Sjögren syndrome, relapsing polychondritis, IBD
- INHERITED—α1-antitrypsin deficiency, cystic fibrosis, primary ciliary dyskinesia (Kartagener syndrome, Young syndrome), tracheobronchomegaly (Mounier–Kuhn syndrome), cartilage deficiency (Williams– Campbell syndrome), Marfan syndrome

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- DIAGNOSIS—high-resolution CT chest (signet ring sign), PFT (obstruction ± reversibility)
- TREATMENTS—exercises, chest physiotherapy, and bronchodilators similar to COPD; however, if reversible, inhaled corticosteroids should be given early. Ensure adequate systemic hydration. Effective treatment of exacerbations

Related Topics

Cryptogenic Organizing Pneumonia (p. 21) Pulmonary Function Tests (p. 25) Smoking (p. 490)

Pneumonia

TYPES OF PNEUMONIA

COMMUNITY-ACQUIRED PNEUMONIA

- BACTERIAL—Streptococcus pneumoniae, Staphylococcus aureus, Haemophilus, Moraxella
- ATYPICAL—Mycoplasma, Chlamydia, Legionella, TB, community-acquired MRSA
- VIRAL—influenza, parainfluenza, metapneumovirus, RSV, adenovirus, SARS-CoV-2
- FUNGAL—blastomycosis, cryptococcus, histoplasmosis

ASPIRATION PNEUMONIA

- POLYBACTERIAL INCLUDING ANAEROBES—Bacteroides, Peptostreptococcus, Fusobacterium species and other Gram-positive bacilli
- CHEMICAL PNEUMONITIS

PNEUMONIA IN THE IMMUNOCOMPRO-MISED (see p. 277)

NOSOCOMIAL PNEUMONIA—begins in nonintubated patient within 48 hours of admission

- POLYBACTERIAL—S. aureus, MRSA, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Enterobacteriaceae (Klebsiella, Escherichia coli, Serratia), Haemophilus, Acinetobacter
- viral—influenza

VENTILATOR-ASSOCIATED PNEUMONIA begins >48 hours after the patient is intubated (see p. 107)

HEALTHCARE ASSOCIATED PNEUMONIA pneumonia that (A) occurs within 90 days of hospitalization of 2 days or more, a stay at nursing home, or a visit to an oral puncture care facility, hospital-based clinic or hemodialysis facility; or (B) occurs within 3 days of receiving antibiotics, chemotherapy, or any type of wound care

Metlay et al. AJRCCM 2019;200(7)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

COMPLICATIONS OF PNEUMONIA

- PULMONARY—ARDS, lung abscess ± cavitary formation, parapneumonic effusion/empyema, pleuritis ± hemorrhage
- EXTRAPULMONARY—purulent pericarditis, hyponatremia (from SIADH), sepsis

CLINICAL FEATURES

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE COMMUNITY-ACQUIRED PNEUMONIA?

| LR+ | LR– |
|---------|--|
| | |
| 1.8 | 0.31 |
| 1.3 | 0.55 |
| 1.4 | 0.67 |
| 1.7–2.1 | 0.59-0.71 |
| 0.1 | 3.8 |
| 3.4 | 0.94 |
| 2.2 | 0.85 |
| | |
| 1.5–3.4 | 0.78-0.82 |
| 2.2-4.3 | 0.79-0.93 |
| 2.3–2.5 | 0.64-0.78 |
| 1.6-2.7 | 0.62-0.87 |
| 3.5 | 0.9 |
| 2.0-8.6 | 0.76-0.96 |
| | LR+ 1.8 1.3 1.4 1.7-2.1 0.1 3.4 2.2 1.5-3.4 2.2-4.3 2.3-2.5 1.6-2.7 3.5 2.0-8.6 |

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

PREDICTION RULE—**Diehr model** (rhinorrhea = -2 points, sore throat = -1 point, night sweats = +1 point, myalgias = +1 point, sputum all day = +1 point, RR > 25 = +2 points, temp \geq 37.8 °C [\geq 100 °F] = +2 points. If score \geq 3, LR+ 14; if \geq 1, LR+ 5.0; if < -1 LR+ 0.22)

APPROACH—individual or combinations of symptoms and signs have inadequate test characteristics to rule in or rule out the diagnosis of pneumonia. "Decision rules that use the presence or absence of several symptoms and signs to modify the probability of pneumonia are available, the simplest of which requires the absence of any vital sign abnormalities to exclude the diagnosis." If diagnostic certainty is required in the management of a patient with suspected pneumonia, then chest radiography (gold standard) should be performed

Metlay et al. JAMA 1997;278(17) Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination. McGraw-Hill, 2009

SURFACE LUNG MARKINGS

- INFERIOR MARGIN OF THE LUNGS—level of 6th rib at the mid-clavicular line, level of 8th rib at the mid-axillary line, and level of 10th rib at the mid-scapular line
- OBLIQUE (MAJOR) FISSURES—draw a line diagonally from T3 vertebral body posteriorly to the 6th rib anteriorly
- HORIZONTAL (MINOR) FISSURE—draw a horizontal line at the level of right anterior 4th rib

Related Topics

Hypoxemia (p. 110) Parapneumonic Effusion and Empyema (p. 14) Ventilator-Associated Pneumonia (p. 107)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, troponin/CK, C-reactive protein, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, urinalysis
- MICROBIOLOGY—blood C&S, sputum Gram stain/AFB/C&S/fungal, urine C&S
- IMAGING—CXR±CT chest
- ABG—if respiratory distress, and for PSI if deciding on possible hospitalization

SPECIAL

- BRONCHOSCOPY
- NASOPHARYNGEAL SWAB—if suspect viral infection, check for influenza A/B, parainflu-

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

enza, SARS-CoV-2, human metapneumovirus, RSV, adenovirus

- MYCOPLASMA IGM
- URINE FOR LEGIONELLA ANTIGEN

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

PNEUMONIA SEVERITY OF ILLNESS (PSI) SCORE

- SCORING—age, female (-10), nursing home (+10), cancer (+30), liver disease (+20), heart failure (+10), CVA (+10), renal failure (+10), altered mental status (+20), RR >30 (+20), SBP <90 mmHg (+20), temp >40°C [>104°F] (+15), HR >125 (+10), pH <7.35 (+30), BUN >10.7 mmol/L [>30 mg/dL] +20, Na <130 mmol/L (+20), glucose >13.9 mmol/L [>250 mg/dL] +10, hematocrit <30% (+10), P_aO₂ <60 mmHg or O₂ saturation <90% on room air (+10), pleural effusion (+10)
- υτιμτν—originally developed as a prognostic tool. Consider admission if PSI score >90. Clinical judgment more important than PSI in determining admission

INFECTIOUS DISEASES SOCIETY OF AMERICA (IDSA)/AMERICAN THORACIC SOCIETY (ATS) SEVERITY CRITERIA FOR ICU ADMISSION

- MAJOR CRITERIA—septic shock requiring vasopressor support, respiratory failure requiring mechanical ventilation
- MINOR CRITERIA—altered mental status, hypotension requiring aggressive fluid resuscitation, temperature <36°C, respiratory rate ≥30, PaO₂/FiO₂ ≤250, blood urea ≥7mmol/L [20 mg/dL], leukocyte count ≤4000 cells/µL, platelets <100,000/µl, multilobar infiltrates
- υτιμτγ—severe community-acquired pneumonia is defined as meeting 1 major criteria or ≥3 minor criteria

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O_2 , IV, consider *salbutamol* 100 μ g MDI 2 puffs q6h + q1h PRN

ANTIBIOTICS

- COMMUNITY-ACQUIRED PNEUMONIA—see treatment issues for an approach to selecting the appropriate regimen (remember to adjust for renal function)
 - TETRACYCLINE—doxycycline 100 mg PO BID×5 days
 - MACROLIDES—azithromycin 500 mg PO × 3 days; clarithromycin 500 mg PO BID × 5 days

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

- FLUOROQUINOLONES—levofloxacin 750 mg PO daily × 5 days, moxifloxacin 400 mg PO daily × 5 days; avoid if exposed to fluoroquinolone within last 3–6 months
- β-LACTAMS—amoxicillin 1 g PO TID, amoxicillin–clavulanate 2 g PO BID, cefuroxime 750 mg IV q8h or 500 mg PO BID, cefotaxime 1 g IV q8h, ceftriaxone 1–2 g IV q24h, usually × 5 days
- ANAEROBIC COVERAGE—if suspect aspiration, add clindamycin 150–450 mg PO q6h or 600–900 mg IV q8h or metronidazole 500 mg PO/IV BID–TID
- NOSOCOMIAL PNEUMONIA—see treatment issues for an approach to selecting the appropriate regimen
 - ANTI-PSEUDOMONAL—ceftazidime, cefepime, meropenem, ciprofloxacin, aminoglycosides, piperacillin-tazobactam (do not use same class of agent when double covering for Pseudomonas)
 - FURTHER GRAM-NEGATIVE COVERAGE—ciprofloxacin 500 mg PO BID, gentamicin 6 mg/ kg IV q24h, tobramycin 6 mg/kg IV q24h (follow levels to adjust dosing)
 - ANAEROBIC COVERAGE—if suspect aspiration, replace gentamicin with *clindamycin* 150–450 mg PO q6h or 600–900 mg IV q8h or add *metronidazole* 500 mg PO BID
 - ANTIBIOTIC COURSE—7–8 days for most, 14–21 days for Pseudomonas, S. aureus, Stenotrophomonas, Acinetobacter
- ASPIRATION PNEUMONIA—clindamycin 600 mg IV BID, switch to 300 mg PO QID when stable. May add cefotaxime or ceftriaxone for Grampositive and Gram-negative coverage
- TUBERCULOSIS PNEUMONIA—see p. 267
- PNEUMOCYSTIS JIROVECI PNEUMONIA—see p. 278
- NON-PHARMACOLOGIC TREATMENTS
- vaccinations—influenza vaccine annually and pneumococcal vaccine booster every 5 years
- CHEST PHYSIOTHERAPY

TREATMENT ISSUES

IMPORTANT NOTE—avoid using the same antibiotic class if given within 3 months. Consider vancomycin or linezolid if MRSA suspected; emergence of community-acquired MRSA associated with serious necrotizing infections

OUTPATIENT ANTIBIOTICS CHOICE

 PREVIOUSLY HEALTHY—macrolide (azithromycin, clarithromycin, or doxycycline). Other antibiotic choices include fluoroquinolone, macrolide plus amoxicillin±clavulanate

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- COMORBIDITIES (COPD, diabetes, renal failure, HF, malignancy)—macrolide or fluoroquinolone
- SUSPECTED ASPIRATION WITH INFECTION—amoxicillin–clavulanate or clindamycin
- INFLUENZA WITH BACTERIAL SUPERINFECTION— β lactam or fluoroquinolone

ICU ANTIBIOTICS CHOICE

- **P**SEUDOMONAS UNLIKELY—macrolide plus β -lactam or fluoroquinolone plus β -lactam
- Pseudomonas unlikely but β-lactam allergy fluoroquinolone with or without clindamycin
- PSEUDOMONAS LIKELY—double coverage with agents that are effective against Pseudomonas (different classes)
- Pseudomonas LIKELY BUT β-LACTAM ALLERGY aztreonam plus levofloxacin or aztreonam plus moxifloxacin, with or without aminoglycoside

NURSING HOME ANTIBIOTICS CHOICE

 TREATMENT IN NURSING HOME—fluoroquinolone or macrolide plus amoxicillin–clavulanate

DISCHARGE DECISION—clinical stabilization usually takes 2–3 days. When symptoms have significantly improved, vital signs normalized, and patient has defervesced, patients at low risk may be safely discharged on the day of switching to oral therapy without adverse consequences. Time to radiographic resolution is variable, with up to 5 months for pneumococcal pneumonia associated with bacteremia

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

CAUSES OF NON-RESOLVING PNEUMO-NIA—non-infectious (malignancy especially bronchoalveolar carcinoma or lymphoma, cryptogenic organizing pneumonia, hemorrhage), nonbacterial (viral, fungal), immunocompromised host, antibiotic resistance, pneumonia complications (abscess, empyema, ARDS)

CAUSES OF RECURRENT PNEUMONIA

- IMMUNOCOMPROMISED ★SADDIST★—
 Suppressants (steroids, chemotherapy, transplant medications, alcohol), AIDS, Diabetes, Decreased nutrition, Immunoglobulin (hypogammaglobulinemia), Solid organ failure (renal, liver, splenectomy), Tumors
- PULMONARY—bronchiectasis, COPD, cystic fibrosis, abnormal anatomy
- GI—aspiration

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

LUNG ABSCESS

 CAUSES—anaerobes (Peptostreptococcus, Prevotella, Bacteroides, Fusobacterium), Gram-positive (Streptococcus milleri, microaerophilic streptococcus, S. aureus), Gram-negative (Klebsiella, Haemophilus, Legionella). Nocardia and actinomycosis can rarely cause lung abscess

Pulmonary Embolism

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

VIRCHOW TRIAD—risk factors for venous thromboembolism

- ENDOTHELIAL OR VESSEL WALL INJURY—fracture of pelvis, femur, or tibia
- HYPERCOAGULABILITY-obesity, pregnancy, . estrogen, smoking, cancer (high suspicion of occult malignancy in patients who develop pulmonary embolism while on anticoagulation), autoimmune disorders (antiphospholipid antibody syndrome, lupus anticoagulant, IBD), genetics (history of DVT/ PE, factor V Leiden, antithrombin III deficiency, protein C/S deficiency, prothrombin G20210A mutation, hyperhomocysteinemia)
- stasis—surgery requiring >30 min of anesthesia, prolonged immobilization, CVA, HF

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—dyspnea (sudden onset), pleuritic chest pain, cough, hemoptysis, pre/syncope, unilateral leg swelling/pain, past medical history (previous DVT/PE, active cancer, immobilization or surgery in last 4 weeks, miscarriages), medications (birth control pill, anticoagulation)

PHYSICAL—vitals (tachycardia, tachypnea, hypotension, fever, hypoxemia), respiratory examination (pulmonary hypertension if chronic PE), cardiac examination (right heart strain), leg swelling

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE PULMONARY EMBOLISM?

PREDICTION RULES—Wells criteria, PISA-PED, Geneva rule

APPROACH—combining the pretest probability with results of D-dimer testing reduces the need for further investigations in patients with low (<15%) to moderate (15–35%) clinical pretest probability. A patient with low to moderate clini-

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

 TREATMENTS—antibiotics with anaerobic coverage until radiographic improvement and stabilization (usually several weeks to months, can be completed with oral antibiotics once patient is stable). No need for percutaneous drainage. If complicated abscess, consider thoracic surgery consult for consideration of VATS/ lung resection

Kearon. Chest 2012;141(2 Suppl) Kearon. Chest 2016;149(2)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

cal probability of PE with a normal D-dimer has a LR of 0 (95% Cl 0–0.06) for PE. When there is a discrepancy between clinical gestalt and clinical prediction rule, consider placing the patient into the higher pretest probability group

Chunilal et al. JAMA 2003;290(21) Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination. McGraw-Hill, 2009

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, PTT, INR, troponin/CK × 3, D-dimer (if low probability for PE or outpatient), βhCG in women of reproductive age
- IMAGING—CXR, duplex US of legs, V/Q scan, CT chest (PE protocol)
- ECG—may see normal sinus rhythm (most common), sinus tachycardia (most common abnormality), atrial fibrillation, right ventricular strain (T wave inversion in anterior precordial leads), non-specific ST-T wave changes, right axis deviation, right bundle branch block and/or S₁Q₃T₃ (tall S wave in lead I, Q wave and inverted T wave in lead III)

ABG—if respiratory distress

SPECIAL

- ECHOCARDIOGRAM—to check for right heart strain (dilated RV and elevated RVSP).
 Particularly important if hemodynamic changes
- PULMONARY ANGIOGRAM—gold standard (usually not needed)
- THROMBOPHILIA WORKUP—factor V Leiden, prothrombin G20210A, anticardiolipin antibody, lupus anticoagulant, protein C, protein S, antithrombin III, fibrinogen; consider homocysteine level and workup for paroxysmal nocturnal hemoglobinuria and

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

antiphospholipid syndrome in cases of combined arterial–venous thrombosis. Routine testing for hypercoagulable disorders is **not** warranted

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

CXR FINDINGS IN PULMONARY EMBOLISM—normal, atelectasis, unilateral small pleural effusion, enlarged central pulmonary artery, elevated hemidiaphragm, Westermark sign (abrupt truncation of pulmonary vessel), Hampton hump (wedge infarct)

D-DIMER (sens 85–96%, spec 45–68%, LR+ 1.7–2.7, LR– 0.09–0.22)—a normal D-dimer can rule out PE if low clinical suspicion

V/Q SCAN (sens high, spec high)—result often not definitive (intermediate probability) because of other intraparenchymal abnormalities

CT PE PROTOCOL (sens 57–100%, spec 78–100%)—can be very helpful as it provides clues to other potential diagnoses/pathologies as well

LEG VEIN DOPPLER (sens 50%, spec moderate)—serial dopplers may be used for diagnosis of DVT if CT or V/Q scan failed to demonstrate PE but clinical suspicion still high

WELLS CRITERIA FOR PULMONARY EMBOLISM

- scoring—signs/symptoms of DVT (+3), alternative diagnosis less likely (+3), HR >100 (+1.5), immobilization or surgery in last 4 weeks (+1.5), previous DVT/PE (+1.5), hemoptysis (+1), active cancer (+1)
- LOW SUSPICION (sum 0–1, <10% chance)—D-dimer \rightarrow if positive, CT or V/Q scan
- INTERMEDIATE SUSPICION (sum 2–6, 30% chance)—D-dimer \rightarrow CT or V/Q scan \rightarrow if negative but suspicious, leg doppler \rightarrow if negative but still suspicious, pulmonary angiogram
- нісн suspicion (sum >6, >70% chance)—CT or V/Q scan → if negative but suspicious, leg Doppler → if negative but still suspicious, pulmonary angiogram
- MODIFIED WELLS SCORE—PE likely (score >4); PE unlikely ≤4)

Related Topics

Anticoagulation Therapies (p. 179) DVT (p. 177) Hypercoagulable States (p. 174) Pulmonary Embolism in Pregnancy (p. 464)

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O₂ to keep sat >94%, IV

THROMBOLYTICS — controversial as increased risk of intracranial bleed and multiple contraindications (see below). Consider only if hemodynamically unstable, right ventricular strain or life-threatening massive pulmonary embolism. Must be done in ICU. *TPA* 100 mg IV over 2 h, or *streptokinase* 250,000 IU over 30 min, the 100,000 IU/h over 12–24 h or 1.5 million IU over 2 h. Unfractionated heparin may be used concurrently

ANTICOAGULATION—if moderate to high risk of developing PE, consider initiating anticoagulation while waiting for investigations. Heparin (unfractionated heparin 5.000 U IV bolus, then 1.000 U/h and adjust to $1.5-2.5 \times normal PTT$; use UFH if considering thrombolysis), LMWH (enoxaparin 1 mg/kg SC BID or 1.5 mg/kg SC daily, tinzaparin 175 U/kg SC daily), or fondaparinux 5 mg SC daily (<50 kg), 7.5 mg SC daily (50-100 kg), or 10 mg SC daily (>100 kg). If using vitamin K antagonist, start warfarin 5 mg PO daily within 48 h and continue heparin/LMWH/fondaparinux for at least 5 days and until INR is between 2 and 3 for at least 48 h. Factor Xa inhibitors (e.g. rivaroxaban, apixaban) are the only direct oral anticoagulants that have been studied and approved as monotherapy (not requiring pre-treatment with heparin). Direct thrombin inhibitors (e.g. dabigatran) require a short course of LMWH for 5 days prior to transitioning to oral therapy (see Approach to Anticoagulation Therapies p. 179)

SURGICAL—embolectomy. Consider if thrombolysis failed or contraindicated or if hemodynamically unstable

IVC FILTER—if anticoagulation contraindicated

TREATMENT ISSUES

CONTRAINDICATIONS TO THROMBO-LYTIC THERAPY

- ABSOLUTE CONTRAINDICATIONS—history of hemorrhagic stroke or stroke of unknown origin, ischemic stroke in previous 3 months, malignant intracranial neoplasm, suspected aortic dissection, active bleeding, major trauma in previous 2 months, intracranial surgery or head injury within 3 weeks
- RELATIVE CONTRAINDICATIONS—TIA within 6 months, oral anticoagulation, pregnancy or within 1 week postpartum, non-compressible puncture sites, traumatic/prolonged (>10 min) CPR, uncontrolled hypertension (SBP >185 mmHg, DBP >110 mmHg), recent bleeding

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

(<2-4 weeks), current use of anticoagulants, advanced liver disease, infective endocarditis, active peptic ulcer, thrombocytopenia

ANTICOAGULATION DURATION

- FIRST PULMONARY EMBOLISM WITH REVERSIBLE OR TIME-LIMITED RISK FACTOR—anticoagulation for at least 3 months
- UNPROVOKED PE—at least 3 months of treatment. If no obvious risk factors for bleeding, consider indefinite anticoagulation
- PE AND MALIGNANCY—direct oral anticoagulants (DOACs) and SC LMWH are generally preferred over warfarin. Treatment should be continued until eradication of cancer as long as there are no significant contraindications to anticoagulation
- PE AND RENAL DISEASE (CrCl <30 mL/min) treatment with warfarin
- PE AND LIVER DISEASE—SC LMWH; warfarin difficult to control and INR may not reflect antithrombotic effect
- PE AND PREGNANCY OR PREGNANCY RISK—SC LMWH is preferred for outpatient treatment. Total duration of therapy should be 3–6 months until 6 weeks post-partum unless patient has risk factors for hypercoagulable state

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

FAT EMBOLISM

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—embolism of fat globules to lungs, brain, and other organs → metabolized to fatty acids leading to inflammatory response. Commonly caused by closed fractures of long bones, but may also occur with pelvic fractures, orthopedic procedures, bone marrow harvest, bone tumor lysis, osteomyelitis, liposuction, fatty liver, pancreatitis and sickle cell disease
- CLINICAL FEATURES—triad of dyspnea, neurological abnormalities (confusion), and petechial rash (head and neck, chest, axilla). May also have fever, thrombocytopenia and DIC
- DIAGNOSIS—clinical diagnosis (rash is pathognomonic). Investigations may include CXR, V/Q scan, CT chest and MRI head
- TREATMENTS—supportive care as most patients will fully recover. Mortality is 10%. Primary prophylaxis includes early mobilization. Consider trial of systemic steroids

Pleural Effusion

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

EXUDATIVE—malignancy, infection, connective tissue disease, hypothyroidism, pulmonary embolism, hemothorax, pancreatitis, chylothorax, trapped lung

TRANSUDATIVE—HF, hypoalbuminemia (GI losing enteropathy, cirrhosis, nephrotic syndrome, malnutrition), SVC obstruction, hepatic hydrothorax, urinothorax, atelectasis, trapped lung, peritoneal dialysis, hypothyroidism, pulmonary embolism

NOTE—pulmonary embolism, malignancy, hypothyroidism, trapped lung, SVC obstruction, and sarcoidosis are usually exudative, but can occasionally be transudative. HF following diuresis may become "pseudo-exudative"

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—dyspnea, cough, hemoptysis, chest pain, weight loss, fever, trauma, occupational exposures, past medical history (pneumonia, liver disease, kidney disease, thyroid disease, cancer, HF, thromboembolic disease, connective tissue disease, smoking), medications

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

PHYSICAL—vitals, cyanosis, clubbing, tracheal deviation away from side of effusion (if no collapse or trapped lung), peripheral lymphadenopathy, Horner syndrome, respiratory examination (decreased breath sounds and tactile fremitus, stony dullness to percussion), cardiac examination, leg swelling (HF or DVT); chest US is the most sensitive and specific test and should be done at point-of-care

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE AN EXUDATIVE PLEURAL EFFUSION?

| | Sens | Spc | LR+ | LR– |
|--|--------|--------|---------|-----------|
| Pleural cholesterol >55 mg/dL | 85–94% | 95–99% | 7.1–250 | 0.07–0.16 |
| Pleural LDH >200 U/L | 70% | 98% | 18 | 0.32 |
| Pleural: serum cholesterol ratio >0.3 | 93% | 94% | 14 | 0.08 |

Pleural Effusion

| CLINICAL F | CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D) | | | | | |
|---|----------------------------|-------------|--------|-----------|--|--|
| | Sens | Spc | LR+ | LR– | | |
| Pleural: serum LDH ratio >0.6 | 88% | 91% | 9.2 | 0.14 | | |
| Pleural: serum protein ratio >0.5 | 90% | 90% | 7.0 | 0.12 | | |
| Combined ≥1 of the Light criteria | 97% | 85% | 5.2 | 0.04 | | |
| Pleural protein >3 g/dL | 88% | 86% | 5.1 | 0.14 | | |
| Pleural LDH >2/3 upper limit of normal | 88–89% | 93– 100% | 1.7–13 | 0.23–0.26 | | |
| Serum: pleural albumin gradient <1.2 mg/dL | 86–95% | 42– 100% | 1.5–36 | 0.06-0.32 | | |

APPROACH—pleural effusions meeting none of the Light criteria are most likely transudative. However, if the effusion meets the Light criteria or if the effusion has a pleural cholesterol >55 mg/ dL, pleural LDH >200 U/L, or ratio of pleural cholesterol to serum cholesterol >0.3, the effusion is likely exudative

Wilcox et al. JAMA 2014;311(23)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, LDH, total protein, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, albumin
- IMAGING—bedside US necessary to examine pleural effusion for size, presence of loculations, CXR (PA, lateral), consider CT chest
- · THORACENTESIS—send pleural fluid for cell count and differential, Gram stain, C&S, AFB and fungal cultures, LDH, total protein, pH, and cytology. Under special circumstances, also consider amylase, glucose, cholesterol, adenosine deaminase (for TB), albumin

SPECIAL

 вюряу—closed pleural biopsy (useful in diffuse pleural disease such as tuberculosis), medical thoracoscopy, surgical biopsy (video-assisted thoracic surgery); referral to Pulmonary Medicine or Thoracic Surgery necessary

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

OVERALL APPROACH—generally, if the effusion is >1/4 of hemithorax, enough fluid is present for diagnostic thoracentesis. US-guided thoracentesis is standard of care. If only a small amount of fluid is present (<10 mm [<0.4 in.]) and/or HF suspected, start with diuresis or continue to monitor with bedside ultrasound. If no improvement, perform thoracentesis to distinguish between transudative and exudative causes

THE LIGHT CRITERIA FOR EXUDATIVE **EFFUSION**—any one of the following criteria would suggest exudative effusion: fluid/serum total protein ratio >0.5, fluid/serum LDH ratio >0.6, fluid LDH >2/3 upper limit of normal serum level

PLEURAL FLUID ANALYSIS

- FLUID ACIDOSIS (pH <7.2)—complicated parapneumonic, TB, malignancy, rheumatoid arthritis, SLE, hemothorax, esophageal rupture, paragonimiasis
- LOW FLUID GLUCOSE (<3.3 mmol/L [<60 mg/dL])parapneumonic, TB, malignancy, rheumatoid arthritis, eosinophilic granulomatosis with polyangiitis, hemothorax, paragonimiasis
- FLUID EOSINOPHILIA (>10%)—paragonimiasis, malignancy, eosinophilic granulomatosis with polyangiitis, asbestos, drug reaction, pulmonary embolism, hemothorax, pneumothorax, idiopathic (20%)
- CYTOLOGY FOR MALIGNANCY—yield for diagnosis with single attempt is 60%, two attempts is 85%, three attempts is 90–95%; obtain as much fluid as possible to increase diagnostic yield
- FLUID FOR AFB—obtain as much fluid as possible and ask laboratory to centrifuge collection and to culture sediment to increase diagnostic yield; if high positive predictive value for TB, consider referral to Pulmonary Medicine for closed pleural biopsy

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL-O2, diuresis (furosemide), drainage (thoracentesis, pigtail catheter, indwelling pleural catheter, chest tube), pleurodesis (talc slurry or poudrage), surgery (talc slurry, pleuroperitoneal shunt, pleural abrasion, pleurectomy)

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

PARAPNEUMONIC EFFUSION

UNCOMPLICATED—exudative effusion that resolves with resolution of pneumonia. Generally disappears with antibiotics alone

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- COMPLICATED—persistent bacterial invasion and fluid collection. Characterized by pleural fluid acidosis but sterile fluid. Pleural loculation may occur as fibrin gets deposited from inflammation. Treated the same as empyema
- EMPYEMA—presence of bacteria in Gram stain or pus in drainage (culture not necessary). pH often <7.2. For unloculated fluid, chest tube/smallbore catheter drainage usually adequate. Consider referral to Pulmonary/Thoracic Surgery early. Regardless of degree of loculations, consider use of thrombolytics TPA 10 mg with DNase 5mg instillation into chest tube BID × 3 days. If patient still unwell after several days of antibiotic treatment, consider referral to Thoracic Surgery for consideration of VATS/decortication

Rahman NM et al. *N Engl J Med* 2011; 365:518–526

Chronic Cough

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

NON-PULMONARY—GERD, reflux-cough syndrome, ACE inhibitors, occult congestive heart failure

PULMONARY

- AIRWAY—post-nasal drip/upper airway cough syndrome, asthma, chronic bronchitis, non-asthmatic eosinophilic bronchitis, bronchiectasis, neoplasm, foreign body, post-viral
- PARENCHYMA—occult infection, occult aspiration, interstitial lung disease, lung abscess
- vascuLar—early pulmonary hypertension

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF CHRONIC COUGH—>3 weeks; unexplained chronic cough is defined as cough persisting >8 weeks

COMPLICATIONS OF CHRONIC COUGH exhaustion, insomnia, anxiety, headaches, dizziness, hoarseness, musculoskeletal pain, urinary incontinence, abdominal hernias

COUGH REFLEX

- AFFERENT—chemical or mechanical stimuli → cough receptors in the epithelium of the upper and lower respiratory tracts, pericardium, esophagus, diaphragm, and stomach → afferent nerves (vagus, glossopharyngeal, trigeminal, and phrenic) → cough center in the medulla
- EFFERENT—cough center with cortical input → efferent signals travel down the vagus, phrenic, and spinal motor nerves → expiratory muscles → cough

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

TRAPPED LUNG—stable chronic effusion, especially with history of pneumonia, pneumothorax, thoracic surgery or hemothorax. Diagnosis is established by measuring negative change in intrapleural pressure during thoracentesis. Depending on chronicity, treat by lung reexpansion. Thoracotomy with decortication sometimes required in infectious cases

HEPATOHYDROTHORAX—suspect if cirrhosis and portal hypertension, even in the absence of ascites. Pleural effusion results from passage of peritoneal fluid into pleura because of negative intrathoracic pressures and diaphragmatic defects. Do not insert chest tube. Treat with diuresis, salt restriction, and consider liver transplantation/TIPS procedure

Gibson et al. Chest 2016;149(1

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- місковіоLogy—sputum Gram stain/AFB/C&S
- INDUCED SPUTUM ANALYSIS FOR EOSINOPHIL COUNT
- IMAGING—CXR (order inspiratory and expiratory views if foreign body aspiration or endobronchial lesion suspected); consider CT chest if indicated

SPIROMETRY/PFT

SPECIAL

- SINUS IMAGING
- BRONCHOPROVOCATION TESTING (I.E. METHACHO-LINE CHALLENGE)
- ESOPHAGEAL PH MONITORING

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—switch to ARB if ACE inhibitor suspected as cause of chronic cough; smoking cessation if chronic bronchitis SYMPTOM CONTROL

SYMPTOM CONTROL

- PHARMACOLOGIC MEASURES—benzonatate 100 mg PO q8h PRN, codeine 7.5–60 mg PO BID, dihydrocodeine 5–10 mg PO TID, hydrocodone
 5 mg PO BID, morphine 7.5–15 mg PO BID, dextromethorphan 10–30 mg PO q8h, sodium cromoglycate 10 mg NEB QID, levodropropizine 75 mg PO TID, guaifenesin
 200–400 mg PO q4h or 600 mg PO BID, gabapentin 100–300 mg PO TID
- NON-PHARMACOLOGIC MEASURES—consider endobronchial therapy for cancer airway lesions, high intrathoracic vagotomy in refractory severe cases

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

POST-NASAL DRIP/UPPER AIRWAY COUGH SYNDROME

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—secretions in the upper airway stimulate cough receptors within the pharyngeal or laryngeal mucosa
- causes—allergic, perennial non-allergic rhinitis, vasomotor rhinitis, acute nasopharyngitis, sinusitis
- DIAGNOSIS—non-specific findings; consider sinus imaging

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

 TREATMENTS—reduce irritant exposure, antihistamine-decongestant combinations (diphenhydramine 25–50 mg PO q4–6 h PRN, pseudoephedrine, ipratropium nasal spray 0.03% 2 sprays/nostril BID–TID, nasal corticosteroids, nasal saline rinses BID), surgical correction for anatomical abnormalities

Hemoptysis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

NON-CARDIOPULMONARY—epistaxis, upper GI bleed, coagulopathy CARDIAC—HF, mitral stenosis PULMONARY

- AIRWAY—bronchitis (acute, chronic), bronchiectasis, malignancy, foreign body, trauma
- PARENCHYMA
 - MALIGNANCY—lung cancer, metastasis
 - INFECTIONS—necrotizing pneumonia (Staphylococcus, Pseudomonas), abscess, septic emboli, TB, fungal
 - ALVEOLAR HEMORRHAGE—granulomatosis with polyangiitis, eosinophilic granulomatosis with polyangiitis, anti-glomerular basement membrane disease, pulmonary capillaritis, connective tissue disease
- vascuLar—pulmonary embolism, pulmonary hypertension, AVM, iatrogenic

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

MASSIVE HEMOPTYSIS—100–600 mL blood in 24h. Patients may die of asphyxiation (rather than exsanguination)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—characterize hemoptysis (amount, frequency, previous history), cough (productive), dyspnea, chest pain, epistaxis, hematemesis, weight loss, fever, night sweats, exposure, travel, joint inflammation, rash, visual changes, past medical history (smoking, lung cancer, TB, thromboembolic disease, cardiac disease), medications (warfarin, ASA, NSAIDs, natural supplements)

PHYSICAL—vitals, weight loss, clubbing, cyanosis, lymphadenopathy, Horner syndrome, respiratory and cardiac examination, leg swelling (HF or DVT), joint examination, skin examination

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, INR, PTT, urinalysis, type and screen, crossmatch
- MICROBIOLOGY—blood C&S, sputum Gram stain/C&S/AFB/fungal/cytology
- IMAGING—CXR, CT chest (warranted in most patients unless obvious explanation)
- BRONCHOSCOPY—warranted in most patients unless obvious explanation

SPECIAL

- ETIOLOGY WORKUP—ANA, p-ANCA (myeloperoxidase MPO antibodies), c-ANCA (antiproteinase-3 PR3 antibodies), anti-GBM antibody, rheumatologic screen (extractable nuclear antigens)
- ABG—if respiratory distress

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O₂, IV, intubation to protect airway if significant hemoptysis (consider selective intubation down unaffected side, double lumen tube if anesthesia expertise available), position patient in lateral decubitus position with affected lung on bottom to preserve non-affected lung. Urgent interventional bronchoscopy (cold saline, topical epinephrine, tranexamic acid instillation, cautery, airway blocker, double lumen endotracheal tube). Discuss with interventional radiology for consideration of angiographic bronchial artery embolization (<5% risk of spinal cord ischemia due to the inadvertent embolization of a spinal artery), lung resection TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—patients on anticoagulation should be reversed. Consider tranexamic acid 500 mg/5 mL inhaled × 5 days for non-massive hemoptysis. Correct coagu**lopathy** (*vitamin K* 10 mg SC/IV × 1 dose or FFP); antibiotics: radiation for tumors: diuresis for HF; immunosuppression for vasculitis

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

SYMPTOM CONTROL—cough suppressants, sedatives, stool softeners, transfusions

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

ANTI-GLOMERULAR BASEMENT MEMBRANE DISEASE (GOODPASTURE DISEASE)

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—anti-glomerular basement membrane antibodies → attack pulmonary and renal basement membrane

Solitary Pulmonary Nodule

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

MALIGNANT—bronchogenic, carcinoid, metastatic cancer

BENIGN—healed infectious granuloma, benign tumors (hamartoma), AVM, rheumatoid nodule, granulomatosis with polyangiitis (GPA), hydatid cyst, rounded atelectasis, intra-pulmonary lymph nodes, pseudotumor

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION—≤3 cm well-defined lesion, completely surrounded by lung parenchyma

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—most patients are asymptomatic unless lesion is central; dyspnea, cough, hemoptysis, wheezing, chest pain, weight loss, fever, night sweats, rheumatologic screen, past travel history, occupational exposures, medical history (smoking, lung cancer or other malignancies, TB, infections, rheumatoid arthritis), medications

PHYSICAL—vitals, weight loss, clubbing, cyanosis, Horner syndrome, SVC syndrome, lymphadenopathy, respiratory examination, abdominal examination (hepatomegaly), bony tenderness

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, LDH, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT
- IMAGING—old films (2 years earlier for comparison), CXR, CT chest

SPECIAL

- ABG
- SCREENING FOR INFLAMMATORY DISORDERS— ESR, CRP, ANA, ANCA
- вюряу—bronchoscopy or CT guided
- **PET/CT** scan—if moderate to high suspicion of lung cancer

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- CLINICAL FEATURES—hemoptysis and hematuria, with respiratory and renal failure if severe
- DIAGNOSIS—lung/kidney biopsy
- TREATMENTS—steroids, cyclophosphamide, plasmapheresis

McWilliams et al. NEJM 2013;369(10)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

FINDINGS SUGGESTIVE OF MALIGNANCY ★ABCD★

- age >50
- BORDER—irregular, nodular cavity with thick wall, or spiculated, corona radiata
- calcification—eccentric or noncalcified
- DIAMETER DEFINITION OF PULMONARY MASS >3 CM DIAMETER [>1.2 IN]. If <3 CM, 20–50% malignant. If ≥3 cm, 50% malignant

TIMING—if malignant, usually able to detect an increase in size of SPN between 30 days and 2 years. Unlikely to be malignant if significant change in <30 days or no change in 2 years

CALCIFICATION CLUES

- MALIGNANCY—eccentric calcification or noncalcified
- TUBERCULOSIS OF HISTOPLASMOSIS—central/complete calcification
- BENIGN HAMARTOMA—classic appearance but only present <10% of the time

BROCK UNIVERSITY CANCER PREDICTION EQUATION

- VARIABLES—age, sex, family history of lung cancer, emphysema, nodule size, nodule type (nonsolid or ground-glass, partially solid, solid), upper lung involvement, nodule count, spiculation
- оитрит—probability of cancer within 2–4 years

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—if low probability (<5%), observation with serial CT scans. If moderate probability, consider tissue sampling by bronchoscopy. If high probability, consider referral to pulmonary/interventional pulmonary medicine or thoracic surgery for staging and diagnosis

TREATMENT ISSUES

FLEISCHNER GUIDELINES FOR FOLLOWUP

SOLID PULMONARY NODULES

| Nodule size | Low malignancy risk (<5%) | Moderate (5–65%) or high (>65%) malignancy risk | | |
|---|---|---|--|--|
| Solitary | | | | |
| <6 mm | No routine follow-up | CT at 12 mo | | |
| 6-8 mm | CT at 6-12 mo, then consider CT at 18–24 mo | CT at 6-12 mo, then CT at 18–24 mo | | |
| >8 mm | CT at 3 mo, then at 9 and 24 mo | PET/CT, biopsy or resection | | |
| Multiple (evaluation based on largest nodule) | | | | |
| <6 mm | No routine follow-up | Optional CT at 12 mo | | |
| ≥6 mm | CT at 3-6 mo, then consider CT at 18–24 mo | CT at 3–6 mo, then CT at 18–24 mo | | |

NOTE—not applicable to patients <35 years, in lung cancer screening, with immunosuppression, known pulmonary disease, or symptoms of active primary cancer; CT chest performed without contrast as contiguous 1 mm sections using low dose; nodules unchanged >2 years are considered benign

SUB-SOLID PULMONARY NODULES

Nodule

size Recommendations

Solitary pure ground-glass

- <6 mm No routine follow-up If high risk, consider CT at 2 and 4 y ≥6 mm CT at 6−12 mo; if unchanged, CT g2
- 20 mm Craco 2 m, mananged, Crac years until 5 y Growing nodules should undergo resection

Solitary part-solid

<6 mm No routine follow-up

≥6 mm CT at 3–6 mo; if unchanged and solid component remains < 6 mm, annual CT chest for 5 y Nodules with solid component >8 mm or growing should undergo resection

Multiple

<6 mm CT at 3–6 months; if stable, no routine follow-up If high risk, consider CT at 2 and 4 y

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

Nodule

size Recommendations

≥6 mm CT at 3–6 mo; if stable, subsequent evaluation is based on most suspicious nodule

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

PANCOAST TUMOR

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—superior sulcus tumors (mostly squamous cell carcinoma) invading and compressing the paravertebral sympathetic chain and brachial plexus
- CLINICAL FEATURES—shoulder and arm pain (C8, T1, T2 distribution), Horner syndrome (upper lid ptosis, lower lid inverse ptosis, miosis, anhidrosis, enophthalmos, loss of ciliaryspinal reflex), and neurological symptoms in the arm (intrinsic muscles weakness and atrophy, pain and paresthesia of 4th and 5th digit). Other associated findings include clubbing, lymphadenopathy, phrenic or recurrent laryngeal nerve palsy, and superior vena cava syndrome
- DIAGNOSIS—CXR, CT chest, percutaneous core biopsy
- **TREATMENTS**—concurrent chemoradiotherapy

THORACIC OUTLET OBSTRUCTION

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—obstruction of the neurovascular bundle supplying the arm at the superior aperture of the thorax. Common structures affected include the brachial plexus (C8/ T1 > C5/C6/C7, 95%), subclavian vein (4%), and subclavian artery (1%)
- cAUSES—anatomic (cervical ribs, congenital bands, subclavicular artery aneurysm), repetitive hyperabduction/trauma (hyperextension injury, painters, musicians), neoplasm (supraclavicular lymphadenopathy)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—triad of numbness, swelling and weakness of the affected upper limb, particularly when carrying heavy objects. Brittle finger nails, Raynaud phenomenon, thenar wasting and weakness, sensory loss, decreased radial and brachial pulses, pallor of limb with elevation, upper limb atrophy, drooping shoulders, supraclavicular and infraclavicular lymphadenopathy. Specific maneuvers include Roos test (repeatedly clench and unclench fists with arms abducted and externally rotated), modified Adson maneuver (Valsalva maneuver with the neck fully extended, affected arm elevated,

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

and the chin turned away from the involved side), costoclavicular maneuver (shoulders thrust backward and downward), hyperabduction maneuver (raise hands above head with elbows flexed and extending out laterally from the body), and **Tinel** maneuver (light percussion of brachial plexus in supraclavicular fossa reproduces symptoms)

Pulmonary Hypertension

WHO CLASSIFICATION OF PULMONARY HYPERTENSION

GROUP I. PULMONARY ARTERIAL HYPERTENSION

IDIOPATHIC—primary

- FAMILIAL DISORDERS
- DRUG AND TOXIN INDUCED
- PAH associated with specific disorders connective tissue disease, HIV, portal hypertension, congenital heart disease, schistosomiasis
- PAH LONG TERM RESPONDERS TO CALCIUM CHANNEL BLOCKERS
- PAH with significant venous or capillary involvement—pulmonary veno-occlusive disease, pulmonary–capillary hemangiomatosis

 PERSISTENT PULMONARY HYPERTENSION OF NEWBORN GROUP II. PULMONARY VENOUS HYPERTENSION DUE TO LEFT HEART DISEASE—heart disease with preserved LVEF, heart disease with reduced LVEF, valvular heart disease, cardiovascular conditions leading to postcapillary PH

GROUP III. PULMONARY HYPERTENSION DUE TO LUNG DISEASE AND/OR HYPOXEMIA—obstructive lung disease, restrictive lung disease, mixed restrictive/obstructive disease, including obstructive sleep apnea and obesity hypoventilation syndrome, developmental lung disease

GROUP IV. PULMONARY HYPERTENSION DUE TO PULMONARY ARTERY OBSTRUCTIONS—chronic thromboembolic, other pulmonary artery obstructions (i.e. tumor, parasites, foreign material)

GROUP V. PULMONARY HYPERTENSION WITH UNCLEAR AND/OR MULTIFACTORIAL MECHANISMS—hematological (pulmonary Langerhans cell histiocytosis, lymphangiomatosis), systemic and metabolic disorders (sarcoidosis),

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- DIAGNOSIS—cervical spine films, CXR, MRI
- TREATMENTS—conservative (keep arms down at night, avoiding hyperabduction), surgery

Related Topics

Lung Cancer (p. 205) SVC Syndrome (p. 244)

Hirani et al. Can J Cardiol 2020;36(7)

WHO CLASSIFICATION OF PULMONARY HYPERTENSION (CONT'D)

complex congenital heart disease, others (compression of pulmonary vessels by tumor, fibrosing mediastinitis)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF PULMONARY HYPERTENSION—mean pulmonary arterial pressure (PAP) >25 mmHg at rest or mean PAP >30 mmHg with exercise measured with right heart catheterization

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—unexplained dyspnea on exertion, cough, chest pain, hemoptysis, dizziness, syncope, hoarseness, past medical history (cardiac and respiratory diseases, thromboembolic diseases, HIV, cirrhosis, autoimmune and rheumatologic disorders), medications (amphetamine, diet pill such as dexfenfluramine)

PHYSICAL—vitals (tachypnea, tachycardia, atrial fibrillation, hypoxemia), peripheral cyanosis, small pulse volume, elevated JVP (prominent a wave or absent if atrial fibrillation, large v wave), right ventricular heave, loud or palpable P2, right-sided S4, tricuspid regurgitation murmur, Graham-Steell murmur (high-pitched, decrescendo diastolic rumble over LUSB), crackles, congestive liver, ascites, ankle edema

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, albumin, ANA, RF, anti-CCP, anti-Scl-70, anticentromere antibody, ESR, HIV serology, TSH
- IMAGING—CXR, CT chest, V/Q scan or CT chest PE protocol, echocardiogram

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

- ECG
- **OVERNIGHT POLYSOMNOGRAPHY**—if suspect OSA
- ABG
- PFT
- SPECIAL
- RIGHT HEART CATHETERIZATION WITH VASOREAC-TIVITY TESTING

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL—diuretics, O₂, anticoagulation, calcium channel blockers if positive vasoreactivity test (in high doses), endothelin receptor antagonists (bosentan,

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

ambrisentan), **phosphodiesterase type-5 inhibitors** (sildenafil), prostacyclin analogues (epoprostenol, iloprost, selexipag), soluble guanylate cyclase stimulators (riociguat)

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE ATRIAL SEPTOSTOMY LUNG TRANSPLANT REFERRAL TO A SPECIALIZED PULMONARY HYPERTENSION CLINIC

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

EISENMENGER SYNDROME—left-to-right shunt leading to pulmonary hypertension and eventually right-to-left shunt

Interstitial Lung Disease

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PRIMARY (idiopathic)—usual interstitial pneumonia (UIP), respiratory bronchiolitis-associated interstitial lung disease (RBILD), desquamative interstitial pneumonia (DIP), acute interstitial pneumonia (AIP), non-specific interstitial pneumonia (NSIP), lymphoid interstitial pneumonia (LIP), cryptogenic organizing pneumonia (COP)

SECONDARY **★**DICE**★**

- DRUGS—chemotherapy (bleomycin), sulfa, penicillin, sulfonylurea, gold, penicillamine, phenytoin, amiodarone, nitrofurantoin
- INFILTRATIVE—lymphangitic carcinomatosis, sarcoidosis
- INFECTIONS—TB, histoplasmosis, coccidioidomycosis
- INFLAMMATORY—rheumatoid arthritis, SLE, scleroderma, ankylosing spondylitis, myositis
- CONGESTIVE HEART FAILURE
- ENVIRONMENT—organic dust (hypersensitivity pneumonitis), inorganic dust (asbestos, silica, beryllium, coal worker's pneumoconiosis)
- EOSINOPHILIA-ASSOCIATED PULMONARY INFIL-TRATES—allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis (ABPA), parasitic, drugs
- ETC—pulmonary histiocytosis X, idiopathic pulmonary hemosiderosis, lymphangioleiomyomatosis, radiation

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—dyspnea (duration, progression), cough, hemoptysis, wheezes, chest pain, impaired exercise tolerance, occupational history (details of all previous jobs, exposure to gases or chemicals

Raghu et al. AJRCCM 2018;198(5)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

particularly important), environmental exposure (home setting, air-conditioning, pets, hobbies), rash, joint swelling, past medical history (smoking), medications, family history

PHYSICAL—vitals (tachypnea, hypoxemia), cyanosis, clubbing (idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis, asbestosis, rheumatoid lung, fibrosing NSIP), decreased chest expansion, crackles (fine), wheezes, cor pulmonale. Note that sarcoidosis and silicosis may have a normal lung examination

Related Topics

Allergic Bronchopulmonary Aspergillosis (p. 4) Restrictive Lung Disease (p. 26) Rheumatoid Arthritis (p. 297) Sarcoidosis (p. 483) Tuberculosis (p. 267)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, ANA, RF, anti-CCP antibody, anti-Scl-70, anticentromere antibody, anti-Jo-1 antibody
- IMAGING—CXR, CT chest (high resolution), echocardiogram (if suspect pulmonary hypertension)
- ABG
- PFT
- SPECIAL
- вюряч—bronchoscopy (transbronchial biopsy), referral to thoracic surgery for VATS lung biopsy

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

CHARACTERISTIC CXR PATTERNS FOR INTERSTITIAL LUNG DISEASE

- UPPER LOBE PREDOMINANCE—sarcoidosis, hypersensitivity pneumonitis, pneumoconiosis, silicosis, histiocytosis X, PJP, ankylosing spondylitis, ABPA, TB
- LOWER LOBE PREDOMINANCE—idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis, asbestosis, rheumatoid arthritis, scleroderma, drugs
- BILATERAL HILAR/MEDIASTINAL ADENOPATHY WITH INTERSTITIAL INFILTRATES—Sarcoidosis, berylliosis, lymphangitic carcinomatosis, TB, fungal, lymphoma
- EGGSHELL CALCIFICATION OF HILAR/MEDIASTINAL LYMPH NODES—silicosis (other pneumoconiosis), TB, fungal
- CALCIFIED PLEURAL PLAQUES—asbestos
- PLEURAL EFFUSIONS WITH INTERSTITIAL INFILTRATES— HF, lymphangitic carcinomatosis, rheumatoid arthritis, SLE

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—sarcoidosis (if stage ≥II or symptomatic, consider glucocorticoids for several months with tapering dose) LUNG TRANSPLANT

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

IDIOPATHIC PULMONARY FIBROSIS (IPF)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—unknown. Fibrotic rather than inflammatory process; associated with histopathological and/or radiological pattern of usual interstitial pneumonia (UIP)
- DIAGNOSIS—high resolution CT chest may show patterns of UIP (honeycombing, interlobular septal thickening, traction bronchiectasis, peripheral, sub-pleural, lack of ground glass pattern), probable UIP, indeterminate for UIP or alternate diagnosis; bronchoscopy (to rule out other causes, mostly infectious); consider open lung biopsy if CT is not consistent with above
- TREATMENTS—multidisciplinary discussion for diagnosis and treatment. Referral for lung

Obstructive Sleep Apnea

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF SLEEP DISORDERS

HYPERSOMNOLENCE

- SLEEP DISRUPTION—obstructive sleep apnea (OSA), periodic limb movement disorder
- INADEQUATE SLEEP TIME—medicine residents, shift workers

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

transplantation should be done early; consider palliative care involvement, pulmonary rehabilitation, vaccinations, supplemental oxygen; consider pirfenidone or nintedanib for mild to moderate disease. Systemic steroids ineffective

HYPERSENSITIVITY PNEUMONITIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—inhaled organic antigens → immune response → acute, subacute, or chronic granulomatous pneumonia
- DIAGNOSIS—major criteria (compatible symptoms, antigen exposure, imaging findings, lavage lymphocytosis, histologic findings [poorly formed granulomas], re-exposure triggers symptoms); minor criteria (bilateral crackles, ↓ DLCO, hypoxemia). Combination of major and minor criteria will help raise suspicion of hypersensitivity pneumonitis. Serology may be helpful
- TREATMENTS—cessation of exposure, steroids

ORGANIZING PNEUMONIA (OP)—previously known as bronchiolitis obliterans organizing pneumonia (BOOP)

- CAUSES—idiopathic (80%, also known as cryptogenic organizing pneumonia [COP]), post-infectious (CMV, influenza, adenovirus, *Chlamydia*), drugs (amiodarone, bleomycin, gold, sulfasalazine, cephalosporin, cocaine), connective tissue disease (RA, SLE, scleroderma, Sjögren syndrome, dermatomyositis), immunologic (essential mixed cryoglobulinemia), transplantation (bone marrow, lung, kidney), malignancy (MDS, lymphoproliferative diseases, radiation)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—about 50% of cases preceded by viral-like respiratory infection. Symptoms include dyspnea on exertion, persistent non-productive cough, and weight loss
- DIAGNOSIS—characteristic findings on CXR and CT chest include bilateral, diffuse, ill-defined alveolar opacities distributed peripherally. PFT shows mainly restrictive lung disease pattern
- TREATMENTS—prednisone 1 mg/kg PO daily for several months with slow taper

Fleetham et al. Can Respir J 2011;18(1)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF SLEEP DISORDERS (CONT'D)

 INCREASED SLEEP DRIVE—narcolepsy, primary CNS hypersomnolence, head injury, severe depression, medications

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF SLEEP DISORDERS (CONT'D)

INSOMNIA

- ACUTE—stress, travel through time zones, illness, medications (steroids), illicit drugs (stimulants)
- CHRONIC—conditioned, psychiatric disorders, poor sleep hygiene, medical disorders, pain, restless leg syndrome, circadian rhythm disorder

PARASOMNIA—sleep walking, sleep terrors, nocturnal seizures, rapid eye movement behavior disorder

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

ABNORMAL PHARYNX ANATOMY decreased upper airway muscle tone and reduced reflexes protecting pharynx from collapse, increased hypercapnic set point \rightarrow airway collapse with hypoxemia and hypercapnia \rightarrow partial collapse leads to snoring and hypopnea, full collapse leads to apnea \rightarrow terminated with arousal \rightarrow repeated arousals lead to hypersomnolence. Severe chronic hypoxemia leads to pulmonary hypertension

ASSOCIATIONS—obesity, hypothyroidism, acromegaly, amyloidosis, neuromuscular disease, vocal cord paralysis, nasopharyngeal carcinoma, Down syndrome (macroglossia)

COMPLICATIONS—hypertension, pulmonary hypertension, CAD, CVA, increased motor vehicle accidents

Related Topics

CPAP (p. 113) Hypertension (p. 70) Pulmonary Hypertension (p. 20)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—daytime sleepiness, habitual snoring, witnessed apneic episodes, poor sleep hygiene, morning headaches, fall asleep while driving, dyspnea, cough, exercise capacity, short-term memory loss, excessive caffeine intake, alcohol intake, past medical history (weight gain, thyroid disease, neurological disease), and medications. The Epworth Sleepiness Scale and STOP-Bang Questionnaire may be used as screening tools

PHYSICAL—vitals (hypertension, hypoxia). Obtain weight and height (BMI often >30 kg/m²). Asterixis and plethora secondary to hypercapnia. Check for low-hanging soft palate, large uvula,

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

enlarged tonsils, retrognathia, micrognathia, \uparrow neck circumference (>42 cm [>16.5 in.] for σ , >39 cm [>15.4 in.] for Q), and acanthosis nigricans. Perform respiratory and cardiac examination (hypertension and pulmonary hypertension, restrictive lung disease). Inspect for potential causes such as nasopharyngeal carcinoma, hypothyroidism (goiter), acromegaly (course facial structures), and amyloidosis (periorbital infiltrate, shoulder pad sign)

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE OBSTRUCTIVE APNEA?

| | LR+ | LR– |
|---|---------|-----------|
| Symptoms | | |
| Nocturnal choking/ gasping | 3.3 | 0.57 |
| Morning headache | 1.5–3.8 | 0.73-0.93 |
| Reported apnea | 1.4 | 0.47 |
| Excessive daytime sleepiness | 1.3–1.4 | 0.80–0.81 |
| Snoring | 1.1–1.5 | 0.12-0.60 |
| Signs | | |
| Mallampati Class 3 or 4 | 1.6 | 0.60-0.68 |
| Pharyngeal narrowing | 1.4 | 0.63 |
| Combination | | |
| of Findings | | |
| Overall clinical | 1.7 | 0.67 |
| impression | | |
| STOP-Bang | 1.4–1.8 | 0.20-0.23 |
| Questionnaire | | |
| Snoring Severity Scale | 1.6 | 0.07 |
| \geq 4 and BMI \geq 26 | | |
| Sleep Apnea Clinical | 5.2 | - |
| Score (SACS) >15 | | |
| Sleep Apnea Clinical Score (SACS) ≤ 5 | 0.25 | - |

APPROACH—obstructive sleep apnea is common (2–14% in community screened patients) and is associated with HTN, HF, diabetes and arrhythmia. Individual signs and symptoms lack diagnostic accuracy and are insufficient to rule in/ rule out OSA. Snoring is non-specific but patients with a normal BMI who do not snore are unlikely to have OSA. Multi-item questionnaires (e.g. STOP-Bang Questionnaire) may identify patients at low risk of OSA. The Sleep Apnea Clinical Score requires further validation before use for screening in primary care

Myers et al. JAMA 2013;310(7)

POLYSOMNOGRAPHY ABG PFT

MANAGEMENT

LIFESTYLE CHANGES—sleep hygiene (avoid daytime napping, avoid caffeine, reduce alcohol intake, exercise regularly but not immediately before sleep, maintain regular sleep schedule, ensure comfortable sleep environment without noises or bright light), restrict body position during sleep

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—for patients with obstructive sleep apnea, recommend weight loss (diet, exercise, weight management program; consider referral for bariatric surgery if BMI >40 kg/m² or >35 kg/m² with serious comorbid disease), avoidance of alcohol/sedatives. CPAP is the gold standard for therapy. Other options include orthodontic devices to hold lower jaw forward and surgical procedures such as tracheostomy, tonsillectomy, nasal surgery, uvulopalatopharyn-goplasty; however, therapies other than CPAP are not generalizable. Thus, every effort should be made to treat with CPAP

TREATMENT ISSUES

PATIENTS WITH OBSTRUCTIVE SLEEP APNEA AND HF—optimization of HF therapy first, then consider trial of CPAP therapy for 3 months if OSA still persists; CPAP can ↑ ventilation during sleep, ↓ hypoxemia, ↑ sleep quality, and ↑ cardiac function (↓ LV transmural pressure and improves cardiac output)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

OBESITY HYPOVENTILATION SYNDROME (OHS)—also known as Pickwickian syndrome. Defined by hypoventilation (awake PaCO₂ >45 mmHg) in the absence of other causes of hypoventilation. OHS patients have sleep disordered breathing, and most have OSA. BMI is usually >35 kg/m². Treatment options include respiratory stimulants, ventilatory support (non-invasive ventilation), oxygen therapy, and weight loss

NARCOLEPSY—severe daytime hypersomnolence, cataplexy (loss of postural tone, usually with emotions), sleep paralysis (usually happens after sleep–wake transition), hypnagogic hallucinations (visual or auditory hallucinations during drowsiness)

RESTLESS LEG SYNDROME

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—associated with iron deficiency, hypoparathyroidism, uremic neuropathy, diabetic neuropathy, rheumatoid arthritis, and fibromyalgia
- CLINICAL FEATURES—desire to move extremities, associated with paresthesias, dysesthesias, and motor restlessness (floor pacing, leg rubbing). Symptoms tend to be worse at rest, particularly in the evenings and at night. Relieved by activity
- TREATMENTS—dopamine agonists (pergolide, pramipexole, or ropinirole), levodopa/carbidopa, gabapentin, clonazepam, and oxycodone if precipitated by pain. A trial of iron therapy is indicated in all patients even in the absence of overt iron deficiency

Respiratory Acidosis: Hypoventilation

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

CNS (respiratory center depression)—brain stem injury (tumor, stroke), sleep apnea, obesity, medications (opioids)

RESPIRATORY

- UPPER AIRWAY OBSTRUCTION—epiglottitis, laryngospasm
- LOWER AIRWAY OBSTRUCTION—COPD, asthma, sleep apnea

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

- DEAD SPACE VENTILATION—infection, pleural effusion
- NEUROMUSCULAR—myasthenia gravis, Guillain–Barré syndrome, myopathy, ALS, hypophosphatemia, hypokalemia
- CHEST WALL RESTRICTION—kyphosis, scoliosis, ankylosing spondylitis

PHYSIOLOGIC COMPENSATION—secondary to metabolic alkalosis
PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF RESPIRATORY ACIDOSIS—

 $PaCO_2 > 40$ mmHg (or upper limit of normal), which is synonymous with hypoventilation

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, CK
- IMAGING—CXR
- ABG

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O₂, IV, non-invasive ventilation, intubation

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

Related Topics

Approach to ABG (p. 95) Metabolic Acidosis (p. 94) Metabolic Alkalosis (p. 97)

Respiratory Alkalosis: Hyperventilation

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

CARDIOPULMONARY—hypoxia, pneumonia, early restrictive disease, mild HF, pulmonary embolism, mechanical ventilation

NON-CARDIOPULMONARY—fever, sepsis, CNS, anxiety, hyperthyroidism, drugs, pregnancy, liver failure

PHYSIOLOGIC COMPENSATION—secondary to metabolic acidosis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF RESPIRATORY ALKALO-SIS—PaCO₂ <40 mmHg (or lower limit of normal), which is synonymous with hyperventilation

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, TSH, urinalysis, βhCG in women of reproductive age
- IMAGING—CXR, CT chest

• ABG

SPECIAL

- septic workup—blood C&S, urine C&S
- D-DIMER—if suspect PE but low probability

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O₂, IV, sedation (use with great caution as patients may experience respiratory decompensation)

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

Hypoxemia

Ventilation Issues

See VENTILATION ISSUES (p. 113)

Approach to Pulmonary Function Tests

OVERALL APPROACH TO PFT INTERPRETATION

STEP 1. ID AND DEMOGRAPHICS—name, date/time, age, height, weight, BMI, smoking history

STEP 2. ANALYZE FLOW VOLUME LOOP AND SPIROMETRY—identify obstructive or restrictive pattern

STEP 3. ANALYZE SPIROMETRY—identify obstructive defect, reversibility, and severity. Note that restrictive defect cannot be diagnosed without knowledge of lung volumes

OVERALL APPROACH TO PFT INTERPRETATION (CONT'D)

STEP 4. ANALYZE LUNG VOLUMES—identify restrictive defect, severity

STEP 5. ANALYZE DLCO AND DLCO ADJUSTED FOR ALVEOLAR VOLUME (VA)—a measure of gas exchange; if abnormal, suggests disease even if spirometry and lung volumes are normal

CLASSIFICATION OF PULMONARY DISEASES

OBSTRUCTIVE—asthma, COPD, bronchiectasis, cystic fibrosis, bronchiolitis obliterans

RESTRICTIVE

- PARENCHYMAL—sarcoidosis, idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis, pneumoconiosis, other interstitial lung diseases
- EXTRAPARENCHYMAL—neuromuscular (diaphragmatic paralysis, myasthenia gravis, Guillain–Barré syndrome, muscular dystrophies), chest wall (kyphoscoliosis, obesity, ankylosing spondylitis)

TERMINOLOGIES

DLCO—carbon monoxide diffusion capacity

FEF25-75%—forced expiratory flow during the middle of an FVC maneuver, represents flow of small airways

FEV1—forced expiratory volume during the first second of an FVC maneuver

FVC—forced vital capacity, maximum volume exhaled after maximum inhalation

MEP—maximum expiratory pressure

MIP—maximum inspiratory pressure

TLC—total lung capacity at maximal inhalation

FLOW-VOLUME LOOP PATTERNS

NORMAL



OBSTRUCTIVE DISEASE—scooped appearance of expiratory curve seen in COPD. Variable extrathoracic obstruction (e.g. paralyzed vocal cords) appears as flattening of inspiratory curve. Variable intrathoracic obstruction (e.g. tracheal tumor) appears as flattening of expiratory curve. Flattening of the inspiratory curve (i.e. negative portion of the flow-volume loop) represents

FLOW-VOLUME LOOP PATTERNS (CONT'D)

extrathoracic obstruction; intrathoracic obstruction affects the expiratory curve (i.e. positive portion of the flow–volume loop)

RESTRICTIVE DISEASE—expiratory portion of curve appears relatively tall (preserved flow rates), but narrow (\downarrow lung volumes)

SPIROMETRY AND LUNG VOLUME PATTERNS

OBSTRUCTIVE DISEASE—↓ FEV1/FVC ratio (↓ FEV1 out of proportion to ↓ FVC); definitions vary but GOLD criteria define ↓ FEV1/FVC as <0.7 or less than lower limit of normal. If improvement >12% and 200 mL post-bronchodilator, consider diagnosis of asthma (reversibility). Note that mild obstructive (small airways) disease may have normal FEV1/FVC with ↓ FEF 25–75%

RESTRICTIVE DISEASE—↓ TLC, defined as <80% predicted (only applies to plethysmography); 70–79% = mild; 60–69% = moderate; <60% = severe. Note that patients may have both obstructive and restrictive disease

NOTE—general rule for the lower limit of normal for most PFT results is 80% of predicted (FEV1, FVC, DLCO, TLC) but less accurate for FEV1/FVC ratio and for patients of extremes of age

OVERALL APPROACH

| | FEV1/ | | | |
|---|--------------|--------------|-----|-----|
| | TLC | FVC | MIP | MEP |
| Obstructive | N/↑ | \downarrow | Ν | Ν |
| Restrictive | | | | |
| Parenchymal | \downarrow | N/↑ | Ν | Ν |
| Extraparenchymal (inspiratory) | \downarrow | Ν | N/↓ | Ν |
| Extraparenchymal (inspiratory + expiratory) | Ļ | ↓/N/↑ | N/↓ | N/↓ |

ANALYZING DLCO

REFERENCE VALUES FOR DLCO

| | % predicted |
|-------------------|-------------|
| High | >140% |
| Normal | 81-140% |
| Borderline low | 76-80% |
| Mild decrease | 61-75% |
| Moderate decrease | 41-60% |
| Severe decrease | <40% |

ANALYZING DLCO (CONT'D)

OBSTRUCTIVE DISEASE PRESENT—DLCO usually normal in asthma and chronic bronchitis but ↓ in emphysema

RESTRICTIVE DISEASE PRESENT—DLCO adjusted for alveolar volume usually \downarrow in interstitial lung diseases and atelectasis and normal in neuromuscular diseases, chest wall abnormalities, and obesity

ANALYZING DLCO (CONT'D)

ISOLATED DLCO ABNORMALITY (WITHOUT OBVIOUS OBSTRUCTIVE OR RESTRICTIVE DISEASE)—↓ DLCO may result from anemia, ↑ carboxyhemoglobinemia, PE, and pulmonary hypertension; ↑ DLCO may result from pulmonary hemorrhage, obesity, left-to-right shunts, and polycythemia





Aortic Dissection

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

CARDIAC

- MYOCARDIAL—myocardial infarction, angina, myocarditis
- VALVULAR—aortic stenosis, aortic regurgitation
- PERICARDIAL—pericarditis
- VASCULAR—aortic dissection

RESPIRATORY

- PARENCHYMAL—pneumonia, cancer
- **PLEURAL**—pneumothorax, pneumomediastinum, pleural effusion, pleuritis
- vascuLar—pulmonary embolism, pulmonary hypertension

GI—esophagitis, esophageal cancer, GERD, peptic ulcer disease, Boerhaave syndrome, cho-lecystitis, pancreatitis

OTHERS—musculoskeletal, shingles, anxiety

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

ANATOMY—layers of aorta include intima, media, and adventitia. Majority of tears found in ascending aorta at right lateral wall where the greatest shear force is produced

AORTIC TEAR AND EXTENSION—aortic intimal tear leads to blood extravasation into aortic media creating a false lumen; this may produce a tearing, ripping sudden chest pain radiating to the back. Aortic regurgitation can occur if false lumen disrupts aortic leaflet producing a diastolic murmur. Pericardial tamponade may occur with dissection into the aortic root, leading to hypotension or syncope. Extension of a false lumen along the aorta may also occlude blood flow into any of the following vascular structures:

- coronary—acute myocardial infarction (usually RCA)
- BRACHIOCEPHALIC, LEFT SUBCLAVIAN, DISTAL AORTA—absent or asymmetric peripheral pulse, limb ischemia
- RENAL—anuria, renal failure

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

- **CAROTID**—syncope/hemiplegia/death
- ANTERIOR SPINAL—paraplegia/quadriplegia, anterior cord syndrome

CLASSIFICATION SYSTEMS

- STANFORD—A = any ascending aorta involvement, B = all others
- DEBAKEY—I = ascending and at least aortic arch, II = ascending only, III = originates in descending and extends proximally or distally

RISK FACTORS

- соммом—hypertension, age, male
- vasculitis—Takayasu arteritis, giant cell arteritis, rheumatoid arthritis, Behçet syndrome, syphilitic aortitis
- COLLAGEN DISORDERS—Marfan syndrome, Ehlers–Danlos syndrome, Loeys-Dietz, cystic medial necrosis
- VALVULAR—bicuspid aortic valve, aortic coarctation, Turner syndrome, aortic valve replacement
- OTHERS—cocaine, trauma, pregnancy, iatrogenic (e.g. cardiac catheterization)

CLINICAL FEATURES

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE AN ACUTE THORACIC AORTIC DISSECTION?

| | LK+ | LK– |
|----------------------------|----------|-----------|
| History | | |
| Hypertension | 1.6 | 0.5 |
| Sudden chest pain | 1.6 | 0.3 |
| Tearing or ripping pain | 1.2-10.8 | 0.4-0.99 |
| Physical | | |
| Pulse deficit | 5.7 | 0.7 |
| Focal neurological deficit | 6.6–33 | 0.71-0.87 |
| Diastolic murmur | 1.4 | 0.9 |
| | | |

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CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

| | LR+ | LR– |
|------------------------|---------|----------|
| CXR/ECG | | |
| Enlarged aorta or wide | 2.0 | 0.3 |
| mediastinum | | |
| LVH on ECG | 0.2-3.2 | 0.84-1.2 |

APPROACH—presence of tearing, ripping, or migrating pain may suggest dissection. Pulse deficit or focal neurological deficits greatly increase likelihood of dissection. Absence of pain of sudden onset decreases likelihood of dissection. Normal aorta and mediastinum on CXR help to exclude diagnosis

Klompas JAMA 2002;287(17)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, troponin/CK×3, glucose, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, albumin, lipase, INR/PTT
- IMAGING—CXR, echocardiogram (TEE), CT chest or MRI chest
- ECG

SPECIAL

AORTOGRAPHY

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

CXR FINDINGS—wide mediastinum (>6 cm [2.4 in.]), indistinct aortic knuckle, pleural cap, difference in diameter between ascending and descending aorta, blurring of aortic margin secondary to local extravasation of blood, pleural

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

effusion or massive hemothorax, displaced calcification (separation of the intimal aortic calcification from the edge of the aortic shadow >1 cm [0.4. in.])

PROGNOSIS

- TYPE A—with surgery, 1-month survival 75–80%, 10-year survival 55%
- TYPE B—with aggressive hypertensive treatment, 1-month survival >90%, 10-year survival 56%

MANAGEMENT

ABC—**O**₂ to keep sat >95%, IV, **antihypertensive therapy** (keep HR <60 bpm and SBP <120 mmHg. *Labetalol* 2 mg/min IV loading drip, then 2–8 mg/min (target heart rate 55–60 bpm) or 20–80 mg IV q10 min, maximum 300 mg, then 200–400 mg PO BID. If SBP still >120 mmHg, *sodium nitroprusside* 0.25–0.5 μ g/kg/min IV initially, then 0.25–3 μ g/kg/min, maximum 10 μ g/kg/min)

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—**Type A** (emergent surgical repair, endovascular stenting, longterm blood pressure control). **Type B** (medical blood pressure control; surgical repair if complicated by occlusion of branch arteries). Monitor over time with serial CT/MR chest

Related Topics

Acute Coronary Syndrome (p. 30) Stroke (p. 321)

Acute Coronary Syndrome

2015 ACC/AHA/SCAI STEMI Guidelines 2014 AHA/ACC UA/NSTEMI Guidelines 2012 ACCF/AHA UA/NSTEMI Focused Update 2019 CCS/CAIC STEMI Focused Update 2018 CCS Atrial Fibrillation Focused Update

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF CHEST PAIN

CARDIAC

- MYOCARDIAL—myocardial infarction, angina (atherosclerosis, vasospasm, anomalous origin or intramural segment of coronary arteries), myocarditis
- VALVULAR—aortic stenosis
- PERICARDIAL—pericarditis
- vascular—aortic dissection, vasculitis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF CHEST PAIN (CONT'D)

RESPIRATORY

- PARENCHYMAL—pneumonia, cancer
- PLEURAL—pneumothorax, pneumomediastinum, pleural effusion, pleuritis
- vascuLar—pulmonary embolism, pulmonary hypertension

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF CHEST PAIN (CONT'D)

GI—esophageal spasm, esophagitis, esophageal cancer, GERD, peptic ulcer disease, Boerhaave syndrome, cholecystitis, pancreatitis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF CHEST PAIN (CONT'D)

OTHERS—musculoskeletal (costochondritis), shingles, anxiety

| PATHOPHYS | IOLOGY | |
|--------------------|-------------------------------|---|
| | Pathologic changes | Clinical presentation |
| Pre-clinical | Atherosclerosis | Asymptomatic |
| Angina | Luminal narrowing | Central chest discomfort; worsened by exertion, emotion, and eating; relieved by rest and nitroglycerine |
| Unstable angina | Plaque rupture or thrombus | Worsening pattern or rest pain; no elevation in troponin, with or without ECG changes of ischemia |
| NSTEMI | Partial occlusion | Non-ST elevation MI; elevation in troponin, with or without ECG changes of ischemia (ST segment and or T wave changes) |
| STEMI | Complete occlusion | ST elevation MI; elevation in troponin, with distinct ST segment elevation in ≥2 contiguous leads, new LBBB, or posterior wall MI with reciprocal ST depression in precordial leads on ECG |

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

THIRD UNIVERSAL DEFINITION OF MYOCARDIAL INFARCTION (MI)

- TYPE 1—spontaneous MI due to a primary coronary event (atherosclerotic plaque rupture or erosion with acute thromboembolism)
- TYPE 2—MI secondary to an ischemic imbalance (supply demand mismatch)
- TYPE 3—MI resulting in death when biomarker values are unavailable (sudden unexpected cardiac death before serum biomarkers collected for measurement)
- TYPE 4—MI related to PCI (4A) or stent thrombosis (4B)
- туре 5—MI related to CABG

RISK FACTORS

- MAJOR—diabetes, hypertension, dyslipidemia, smoking, family history of premature CAD, advanced age, male gender
- ASSOCIATED—obesity, metabolic syndrome, sedentary lifestyle, high-fat diet
- EMERGING—lipoprotein abnormalities, inflammation (↑ CRP), chronic infections, chronic kidney disease

POST-MI COMPLICATIONS—arrhythmia (VT/ VF, bradycardia), sudden death, papillary muscle rupture/dysfunction, myocardial rupture (ventricular free wall, interventricular septum), ventricular aneurysm, left ventricular thrombus, valvular

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

disease (especially acute mitral regurgitation), heart failure/cardiogenic shock, peri-infarction pericarditis, post-cardiac injury pericarditis (Dressler syndrome)

CLINICAL FEATURES

CHEST PAIN EQUIVALENTS—dyspnea, syncope, fatigue, particularly in patients with diabetic neuropathy who may not experience chest pain

NEW YORK HEART ASSOCIATION (NYHA) CLASSIFICATION FOR EXERTIONAL TOLERANCE

- I = no symptoms with ordinary physical activity
- II = mild symptoms with normal activity (walking >2 blocks or 1 flight of stairs)
- III = symptoms with minimal exertion
- IV = symptoms at rest

CANADIAN CARDIOVASCULAR SOCIETY (CCS) CLASSIFICATION FOR ANGINA

- I = angina with strenuous activity
- II = slight limitation, angina with meals/ cold/stress
- III = marked limitation, angina with walking <1-2 blocks or 1 flight of stairs
- IV = unable to perform any physical activity without angina and symptoms may be present at rest

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

KILLIP CLASS CLASSIFICATION FOR HEART FAILURE

- **I** = no evidence of heart failure
- II=mild to moderate heart failure (S3, lung rales less than half way up, or jugular venous distension)
- III = overt pulmonary edema
- IV = cardiogenic shock

History

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: IS THIS PATIENT HAVING A MYOCARDIAL INFARCTION?

LR+

| Pain radiation to the shoulder or | 4.1 |
|---|----------|
| both arms | |
| Pain radiation to right arm | 3.8 |
| Radiation to left arm | 2.2 |
| Radiation to both arms | 9.7 |
| Vomiting | 3.5 |
| Ex-smoker | 2.5 |
| Diaphoresis | 2.0 |
| Pleuritic chest pain | 0.2 |
| Sharp or stabbing chest pain | 0.3 |
| Positional chest pain | 0.3 |
| Chest pain reproducible by | 0.2-0.4 |
| palpation | |
| Physical | |
| Hypotension | 3.1 |
| S3 | 3.2 |
| Pulmonary crackles | 2.1 |
| ECG | |
| New ST elevation $\geq 1 \text{ mm}$ | 5.7-53.9 |
| New Q wave | 5.3-24.8 |
| Any ST elevation | 11.2 |
| New conduction defect | 6.3 |
| New ST depression | 3.0-5.2 |
| Any Q wave | 3.9 |
| Any ST depression | 3.2 |
| T wave peaking or inversion $\geq 1 \text{ mm}$ | 3.1 |
| New T wave inversion | 2.4–2.8 |
| Any conduction defect | 2.7 |
| Multivariate Prediction Models | |
| ACI-TIPI (Acute Cardiac Ischemia | 3.9–12 |
| Time Insensitive Predictive | |
| Instrument) | |
| Goldman Protocol | 2.9–3.6 |
| | |

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

APPROACH—radiation of chest pain, diaphoresis, hypotension, and S3 suggest acute MI. Chest pain that is pleuritic, sharp or stabbing, positional or reproduced by palpation decreases likelihood of acute MI. On ECG, any ST ↑, new Q waves, or new conduction changes make acute MI very likely. Normal ECG is very powerful to rule out MI

UPDATE—"After clinical symptoms are used to identify patients with possible ischemia, the ECG and troponin results take precedence in making the diagnosis." The presence of diabetes, HTN, or dyslipidemia "should not affect clinician's probability estimate that an episode of chest pain represents an ACI."

Panju et al. JAMA 1998;280(14) Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination. McGraw-Hill; 2009

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, troponin/CK (at presentation and 3–6 hours after symptom onset), BNP or NT-pro-BNP, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR/PTT, Mg, Ca, PO₄, albumin, lipase, fasting lipid profile, random and fasting qlucose, HbA1C
- IMAGING—CXR, echocardiogram (first 72 h), ECG—q8h×3 or q15–30min in the first hour with chest pain
- STRESS TESTS—ECG, echocardiogramStress tests, MIBI once stable (>48 h post-MI)
- CORONARY CATHETERIZATION

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

RISK STRATIFICATION FOR STABLE CORONARY DISEASE

- ECG EXERCISE STRESS TEST
 - ABSOLUTE CONTRAINDICATIONS—recent myocardial infarction (<4 days), unstable angina, severe symptomatic LV dysfunction, life-threatening arrhythmia, acute pericarditis, aortic dissection, acute PE, severe symptomatic aortic stenosis

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

- GOAL—keep on treadmill until subject reaches ≥85% of age-predicted heart rate (220–age)
- ISCHEMIA CRITERIA—≥1 mm horizontal or down-sloping ST depression over multiple leads, or ST elevation → myocardial ischemia (sens 68%, spc 77%) → consider more acurate screening modality (MIBI, stress echo, or angiogram)
- INCONCLUSIVE—premature termination due to chest pain/poor exercise tolerance (inability to reach target heart rate) → proceed to pharmacological stress test
- DIPYRIDAMOLE/ADENOSINE MIBI—dipyridamole (Persantine) causes vasodilation. In CAD, the coronary artery is already maximally dilated to compensate, so addition of dipyridamole will not change perfusion to diseased vessel(s) further. This results in a relative perfusion mismatch compared to areas with normal dilatory reaction. Contraindicated in asthma/ COPD. Antidote is aminophylline or caffeine
- DOBUTAMINE ECHOCARDIOGRAPHY—assesses wall motion abnormalities. Compared to MIBI, echocardiogram is more specific and less sensitive. Contraindicated in severe hypertension and arrhythmias

APPROACH TO DIAGNOSIS OF STABLE CAD—start with history, physical, rest ECG, and CXR. If low probability, do not investigate further. If high probability, proceed with management. If intermediate probability \rightarrow stress test \rightarrow cardiac CT, MIBI or stress echo \rightarrow angiography

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF TROPONIN ELEVATION

- CARDIAC—myocardial infarction, myocarditis, congestive heart failure, ventricular hypertrophy, pericarditis, vasospasm, tachycardia with supply–demand mismatch, drug/cocaine ingestion, stress (takotsubo) cardiomyopathy, vasculitis
- PULMONARY—pulmonary embolism, pulmonary hypertension, COPD exacerbation
- нератіс—liver failure
- RENAL—chronic kidney disease

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

- NEUROLOGIC—stroke, intracranial hemorrhage
- sysтемic—sepsis, prolonged strenuous exercise

SERUM MARKERS

- TROPONIN I/T—rises within 4–6 h, peaks at 18–24 h, remains elevated 7–10 days (sens 40% at presentation, 40–70% after 6–9 h of symptoms)
- CK/CKMB—rises within 4–6 h, peaks at 18–24 h, remains elevated 3–4 days (sens 35–50% at presentation, 90% after 3 h in ER)
- муодьовим—rises within 1–2 h, peaks in few hours

Therefore, measure markers (e.g. troponin) at least twice separated by 6–8 h with serial ECG. Despite all appropriate investigations, missed MI rate is 2–5%

ECG CHANGES IN ACUTE MI—see APPROACH TO ECG p. 78

TIMI SCORE FOR PATIENTS WITH UNSTABLE ANGINA/NSTEMI

- scoring (out of 7)—age ≥65, ≥3 CAD risk factors, known CAD (stenosis >50%), ASA use within prior 7 days, ≥2 angina episodes within 24 h, ↑ cardiac markers, ST deviation ≥0.5 mm
- RISK GROUPS—low = 0-2, intermediate = 3-4, high = 5-7. Consider anticoagulation and early angiography with revascularization in intermediate or high-risk groups
- RISK OF DEATH, MI OR REVASCULARIZATION IN 14 DAYS-0/1=4.7%, 2=8.3%, 3=13.2%, 4=19.9%, 5=26.2%, 6/7=40.9%

GRACE RISK SCORE FOR PATIENTS WITH UNSTABLE ANGINA/NSTEMI

 scoring (based on regression model)—age, SBP, HR, creatinine, Killip class, cardiac arrest at admission, presence of ST segment deviation, elevation in serum cardiac enzymes/markers. Risk score calculated using online software: Grace ACS Risk Score 2.0

| Risk | GRACE risk | In-hospital |
|--|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| category | score | death (%) |
| Low | ≤108 | <1 |
| Intermediate | 109-140 | 1–3 |
| High | >140 | >3 |
| | | |
| Risk | GRACE | 6-month |
| Risk category | GRACE risk score | 6-month death (%) |
| Risk category Low | GRACE risk score ≤88 | 6-month death (%) <3 |
| Risk category Low Intermediate | GRACE risk score ≤88 89-118 | 6-month death (%) <3 3-8 |

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

TIMI SCORE FOR PATIENTS WITH STEMI

- SCORING (out of 14)—age (3 points = \geq 75, 2 points = 65–74), any of diabetes, hypertension, or angina (1 point), systolic BP \leq 100 mmHg (3 points), HR >100 (2 points), Killip class II–IV (2 points), weight <67 kg (1 point), anterior ST elevation or LBBB (1 point), time to reperfusion >4 h (1 point)
- **RISK OF DEATH IN 30 DAYS**-0=0.8%, 1=1.6%, 2=2.2%, 3=4.4%, 4=7.3%, 5=12.4%, 6=16.1%, 7=23.4%, 8=26.8%, >8=35.9%

IN-HOSPITAL OUTCOMES

| | NSTEMI (%) | STEMI (%) |
|---|------------|-----------|
| Death | 4 | 6 |
| Reinfarction | 0.9 | 1.1 |
| Cardiogenic shock | 2.8 | 6.4 |
| Stroke | 0.7 | 0.8 |
| Major bleeding | 10 | 12 |
| ACTION registry [®] 2008/2009 data | | |

ACUTE MANAGEMENT

ABC—avoid routine administration of supplemental O₂ if saturations \geq 90%, IVs, inotropes, consider balloon pump or ventricular assist devices if hemodynamically unstable

PAIN CONTROL-nitroglycerin (nitro drip 25 mg in 250 mL D5W, start at 5 µg/min IV, then ↑ by 5–10 μ g/min every 3–5 min to 20 μ g/min, then \uparrow by 10 µg/min every 3–5 min up to 200 µg/min, or until relief of pain, stop titration if SBP is <100 mmHq. Nitro patch 0.4 mg/h daily. Nitro spray 0.4 mg SL g5min×3. Beware if suspect right ventricular infarction or if patients on sildenafil as the addition of nitroglycerin in these scenarios could cause significant hypotension). Morphine 2-4 mg IV every 5-15 min PRN for severe pain (avoid routine use of IV opioids as they can cause nausea and delay gastric emptying which may compromise absorption of antiplatelet drugs)

CLOT CONTROL

 ANTIPLATELET—ASA 162–325 mg PO chew×1 dose, then 81 mg PO daily indefinitely. P₂Y₁₂ receptor blockade with clopidogrel 300–600 mg×1 dose then 75 mg PO daily for 1 year; or ticagrelor 180 mg×1 dose, then 90 mg PO BID for 1 year; or prasugrel (with PCI

ACUTE MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

- only; do not give if history of CVA or TIA, or age \geq 75 years) 60 mg × 1 dose then 10 mg daily for 1 year. Combination ASA plus P₂Y₁₂ receptor blocker for minimum of 1 month (ideally 1 year)-post PCI with bare-metal stent, or minimum 6–12 months (possibly indefinitely) for drug-eluting stents. Consider **GPIIb/IIIa inhibitor** for patients who have not received oral antiplatelets pre-PCI or when there is thrombotic complications post-PCI (e.g. large residual thrombus burden)
- ANTICOAGULATION—options include LMWH (enoxaparin 30 mg IV bolus, then 1 mg/kg SC BID for STEMI [no IV bolus for NSTEMI], caution if renal failure or age >75) or **unfractionated** heparin (unfractionated heparin 70 U/kg [up to 4,000 U] IV bolus, then 18 U/kg/h [up to 1,000 U/h] and adjust to $1.5-2.5 \times normal PTT$ for 48 h or until PCI completed). Factor Xa inhibitors (fondaparinux 2.5 mg SC daily until discharge or 8 days, caution if renal failure). Direct thrombin inhibitors (bivalirudin 0.1 mg/kg IV bolus then 0.25 mg/kg/h initially, followed by second 0.5 mg/kg bolus before PCI and 1.75 mg/kg/h during PCI, then continue infusion for up to 4 h post-PCI, if needed)
- REPERFUSION THERAPY—see PCI for details. Fibrinolytics for STEMI (alteplase 15 mg IV over 2 min, then 0.75 mg/kg over 30 min [maximum 50 mg], then 0.5 mg/kg over 60 min [overall maximum 100 mg]; or tenecteplase IV bolus over 5 sec, weight-based dosing: 30 mg for weight <60 kg, 35 mg for 60–69 kg, 40 mg for 70–79 kg, 45 mg for 80–89 kg, 50 mg for ≥90 kg])</p>

RATE CONTROL—start with metoprolol tartrate [immediate release] 25 mg PO g6-12 h. Titrate as tolerated up to maximum dose of metoprolol tartrate [immediate release] 100 mg PO q12h. Alternatively, carvedilol 6.25 mg PO BID and titrate as tolerated up to 25 mg PO BID. The goal heart rate is 50-60 with normal activity. If ongoing ischemia or refractory hypertension at the time of presentation, may also consider metoprolol tartrate 5 mg IV a5min, up to 3 doses. Avoid if acute HF, low-output state, presence of prolonged first-degree or high-grade AV block, history of reactive airways disease, or MI precipitated by cocaine use. If β-blocker contraindicated, consider non-dihydropyridine calcium channel blockers (diltiazem 30-120 mg PO QID or

ACUTE MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

verapamil 80–120 mg PO TID [contraindicated if LV dysfunction])

LIPID CONTROL—high-intensity statin such as *atorvastatin* 80 mg PO daily or *rosuvastatin* 40 mg PO daily

OVERALL APPROACH

ACUTE MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

BLOOD PRESSURE SUPPORT—for patients with cardiogenic shock, consider IV fluids, inotropes (dobutamine/dopamine), balloon pump, ventricular assist devices, and early revascularization

| | | Unstable angir | na or |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|------------------|------------------|
| | Stable angina | NSTEMI | STEMI |
| ASA | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Nitrates | ✓ | 1 | 1 |
| Morphine | ± | ± | ± |
| β-blockers | ✓ | 1 | 1 |
| ACE inhibitors or ARBs | \checkmark | \checkmark | 1 |
| HMG-CoA inhibitors | \checkmark | \checkmark | 1 |
| Heparin or antithrombin | NO | 1 | 1 |
| P2Y ₁₂ inhibitors | NO | 1 | 1 |
| GPIIb/IIIa inhibitors | NO | ± | ± |
| Fibrinolytics or PCI ^a | NO | NO | 1 |
| Cardiology consult | Outpatient ^b | CCU ^c | CCU ^c |

^aIf initial presentation is to a PCI-capable hospital, then primary PCI should be performed within 90 min from time of first medical contact (FMC). If initial presentation is to a non-PCI-capable hospital, then arrange urgent transfer to PCI-capable hospital if primary PCI can be performed within 120 min from time of FMC. If timely PCI cannot be provided, administer fibrinolytic within 30 min of FMC. Urgent CABG is also an option post-catheterization

^bOutpatient cardiology for stress test

^cCCU consult for risk stratification, monitoring, PCI, and/or CABG

ACUTE MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

CAUTIONS IN TREATMENT OF ACUTE MYOCARDIAL INFARCTION—avoid negative inotropic agents such as β-blockers and nondihydropyridine calcium channel blockers if acute or decompensated heart failure. Avoid administration of nitroglycerin, morphine, and diuretics to patients with right ventricular infarction as these medications can cause venodilation and decrease preload, leading to hypotension

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT OF CORONARY ARTERY DISEASE

ANTIANGINAL—nitroglycerin (nitro patch 0.4–0.8 mg/h daily; nitro spray 0.4 mg SL q5 min×3; isosorbide mononitrate 30 mg PO daily, maximum 240 mg), β-blocker (metoprolol tartrate [immediate release] 25–100 mg PO BID, metoprolol succinate [extended release] 50–200 mg PO daily, carvedilol 6.25–25 mg PO BID, bisoprolol 5–10 mg PO daily), calcium

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT OF CORONARY ARTERY DISEASE (CONT'D)

channel blocker (amlodipine 5–10 mg PO daily)

ACE INHIBITOR—ramipril 2.5–10 mg PO BID, lisinopril 2.5–10 mg PO daily, trandolapril 0.5–4 mg PO daily, perindopril 2–8 mg PO daily. If ACE inhibitor not tolerated. use ARB

ANTIPLATELET—*ECASA* 81 mg PO daily indefinitely. **P₂Y₁₂ receptor blockade** (*clopidogrel* 75 mg PO daily; *ticagrelor* 90 mg PO BID, or *prasugrel* 10 mg PO daily) generally for 1 year after ACS. Combination ASA plus clopidogrel for minimum of 1 month (ideally 1 year)-post PCI with bare-metal stent, or minimum 6–12 months (possibly indefinitely) for drug-eluting stents. Consider ticagrelor or prasugrel if received PCI

ANTICOAGULATION—controversial especially in combination with ASA and/or P_2Y_{12} inhibitor. May be considered for patients post-STEMI or NSTEMI with one of the following criteria: (1) atrial

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT OF CORONARY ARTERY DISEASE (CONT'D)

fibrillation (AF), (2) left ventricular thrombus, (3) significant left ventricular dysfunction with extensive regional wall motion abnormalities. In patients with AF that have an indication for anticoagulation for stroke prevention (see ATRIAL FIBRILLATION p. 48) in addition to having had a recent ACS with PCI, triple therapy with oral anticoagulation + ASA + P_2Y_{12} inhibitor is recommended for the first 1-6 months (duration depends on risk of stroke, stent thrombosis, and bleeding risk) followed by a step down to dual therapy with oral anticoagulation $+ P_2 Y_{12}$ inhibitor for up to 12 months post PCI; beware of bleeding risk on dual and triple therapy. Following the 12 month period, patients with AF and stable CAD who have an indication for anticoagulation for stroke prevention can discontinue the antiplatelet agent and remain on oral anticoagulation only; an antiplatelet agent can be continued with oral anticoagulation in these patients if there is an additional indication for its use (e.g. in patients with a mechanical valve + AF). If possible, minimize duration of triple therapy and consider GI protection with proton-pump inhibitor; if warfarin is used instead of a novel anticoagulant, target lower INR (e.g. 2.0-2.5)

RISK REDUCTION ★ABCDEFG★

- ASA/ACE INHIBITOR/ARB
- BLOOD PRESSURE CONTROL (see HYPERTENSION p. 70)
- CHOLESTEROL CONTROL (see DYSLIPIDEMIA p. 75)
- DIABETIC CONTROL (see DIABETES p. 365)
- EXERCISE (30 min of moderate-intensity exercise 3–4 ×/week)
- FAT REDUCTION (see OBESITY ISSUES p. 449)
- GET GOING TO QUIT SMOKING! (see SMOKING ISSUES p. 490)

DRIVINGPOST-MYOCARDIALINFARCTION see p. 492 for details

TREATMENT ISSUES

RIGHT VENTRICULAR INFARCTION—evidence of inferior MI should automatically trigger one to check right-sided leads (V4R) to assess for the possibility of RV infarction, which occurs in about 50% of patients with inferior MI. May see increased JVP, Kussmaul sign, and clear lungs clinically. ST elevation in V4R is diagnostic and prognostic. Hypotension should be treated with fluid bolus to ensure good preload. Inotropic support can also be considered (e.g. dobutamine)

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

POSTERIOR INFARCTION—ST depression in V1–V2 in a regular ECG should automatically trigger one to request for posterior (V7–V9) leads to check for posterior MI. Posterior infarct may be associated with inferior infarcts (90%) and lateral infarcts (10%) as the PDA may be supplied by the right or left circumflex coronary artery

POTENTIAL COMPLICATIONS POST-MI ventricular septal defiect (typically in elderly patients with a large infarct), free wall rupture (typically in elderly patients with large infarct), acute mitral regurgitation due to papillary muscle rupture (more common in inferior vs. anterior infarct), heart failure, heart block (may be transient if early reperfusion), atrial fibrillation, ventricular arrhythmias (VT and/or VF)

POST-MI RISK STRATIFICATION

- EXTENT OF INFARCT/RESIDUAL FUNCTION—assessment is based on clinical factors (↑ HR, ↓ BP, Killip class, diabetes, renal failure, ↑ WBC, GRACE risk score, TIMI risk score), ECG, biomarkers (CK, troponin), imaging (echocardiogram, MIBI, cardiac MRI), and angiography. Early measurement of LV function, although of prognostic importance, is misleading as myocardium function may improve in first 2 weeks. Medical management according to risk
- EXTENT OF MYOCARDIUM AT RISK—assessment is based on exercise stress test, stress echocardiogram, stress sestamibi (ischemic tissue), thallium scan (viable tissue), PET scan, cardiac MRI, angiography. Angioplasty or CABG should be considered
- RISK OF ARRHYTHMIA—high risk of VF/VT within the first 48 h, therefore monitor with telemetry. If it occurs after 48 h, consider antiarrhythmics and early ICD, especially if the arrhythmia is monomorphic VT (suggestive of scar substrate)

BALLOON PUMP—a long balloon in the descending aorta that deflates during systole and inflates during diastole to augment coronary perfusion and cardiac output as well as decrease afterload. Considered for severe refractory ischemia and hemodynamic instability. May be used in conjunction with inotropes. Contraindicated in aortic regurgitation, AAA, aortic dissection, uncontrolled sepsis bleeding disorder, and severe PVD. Intraaortic balloon pump not in common use because it has no effect on mortality (Intraaortic Balloon Pump in Cardiogenic Shock II trial)

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

FIBRINOLYTICS USE

- INDICATIONS—>120 min anticipated delay from first medical contact to primary PCI, ≥30 min of chest pain, patient presentation within 12 h (ideal door to needle time <30 min), ECG criteria (>1 mm ST ↑ in ≥2 contiguous leads, or new LBBB with suggestive history, age <75)
- ABSOLUTE CONTRAINDICATIONS—any intracranial hemorrhage; ischemic stroke within 3 months (except acute ischemic stroke within first 4.5 h); structural cerebral vascular lesion; malignant intracranial neoplasm; closed-head or facial trauma within 3 months; intracranial or intra spinal surgery within 2 months); severe uncontrolled hypertension (unresponsive to emergency therapy); suspected aortic dissection; bleeding diathesis or active bleeding (excluding menses)
- RELATIVE CONTRAINDICATIONS—chronic, poorlycontrolled, severe hypertension; severe hypertension on presentation (>180/110 mmHg); ischemic stroke >3 months; dementia; other intracranial pathology (not already specified above); internal bleeding within 2–4 weeks; active peptic ulcer; major surgery within 3 weeks; non-compressible vascular punctures; use of anticoagulation therapy; pregnancy; traumatic CPR >10 min; prior exposure to streptokinase (if planning to use this fibrinolytic again)
- PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS—effective fibrinolysis requires adequate coronary perfusion. As such, maintaining mean arterial pressure >60 mmHg with vasopressors after fibrinolysis is advised
- RISK OF BLEEDING—average risk of severe bleed is 1.8%. Increased risk with women, BP >165/95 mmHg, age >65, weight <70 kg [<154 lbs], and lysis with TPA (+0.5% absolute risk/factor)
- PERSISTENT ST ELEVATION—look for resolution of symptoms and ST elevation to decrease by >50% within 90 min of fibrinolytic therapy. Persistent ST elevation may suggest failed fibrinolytic therapy, and requires urgent rescue catheterization. Other causes of ST elevation include pericarditis, ventricular aneurysm, hyperkalemia, LBBB, and early repolarization abnormality

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

Related Topics

Aortic Dissection (p. 29) Asystole (p. 499) Diabetes Mellitus (p. 365) ECG (p. 78) Hyperlipidemia (p. 75) Hypertension (p. 70) Pericarditis (p. 38) Shock (p. 116) Smoking Cessation (p. 490)

PERCUTANEOUS CORONARY INTERVENTION (PCI, PTCA)

- INDICATIONS FOR ACUTE STEMI—patient presents within 12 h of chest pain (at a PCI-capable hospital, ideal time from first medical contact to device or "FMC-to-device time" ≤90 min; if at a non-PCI-capable hospital requiring transfer for primary PCI, then ideal "FMC-to-device time" ≤120 min), ECG criteria (>1 mm ST ↑ in ≥2 contiguous leads, new or presumed new left bundle branch block), contraindications to fibrinolysis, or in patients in cardiogenic shock irrespective of time of MI onset
- INDICATIONS FOR CHRONIC STABLE CAD—single/ double vessel disease refractory to medical therapy. Decision for revascularization (PCI vs. CABG) should follow assessment by heart team (interventional cardiology and cardiac surgery)
- ADVERSE EVENTS—access site (bleeding, hematomas, arteriovenous fistulae, pseudoaneurysms), contrast nephropathy, arrhythmia (VT, VF), stroke, dissection, myocardial infarction, death
- BARE METAL STENTS VS. DRUG-ELUTING STENTS—instent restenosis is due to fibrosis of coronary vasculature and usually happens 3 months post-procedure. Drug-eluting stents (sirolimus, paclitaxel, everolimus, or zotarolimus) are designed to inhibit cell proliferation and decrease the risk of in-stent restenosis. There has been some controversy regarding higher adverse events in patients with first generation drug-eluting stents (sirolimus or paclitaxel). The most recent outcomes research analysis suggests that newer-generation drug-eluting stents (everolimus or zotarolimus) are associ-

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

ated with a decreased rate of repeat revascularization, stent thrombosis, and no significant difference in mortality

• BENEFITS—primary PCI is generally preferred given the superior outcomes compared to fibrinolysis, particularly if (1) fibrinolysis contraindicated, (2) previous history of CABG, or (3) cardiogenic shock. However, patients who are able to seek medical attention within 1 h of chest pain onset, have allergy to contrast dye, or do not have access to PCI in a timely fashion should consider fibrinolytics

OUTCOMES FOR FIBRINOLYTICS VS. PRIMARY PCI

| | Fibrinolytics (%) | PrimaryPCI (%) |
|--|-----------------------|-------------------|
| Non-fatal reinfarction | 7 | 3 |
| Stroke | 2 | 1 |
| Death (4–6 weeks) | 7–9 | 5–7 |
| Combined endpoint of death-fatal reinfarctionand stroke | 14 | 8 |
| | A STATE AND AND AND A | 007.05((1) |

Keeley et al. NEJM 2007;356(1) Lagerqvist et al. NEJM 2007;356(10) Nallamothu et al. NEJM 2007;357(16)

CORONARY ARTERY BYPASS GRAFT SURGERY

- CORONARY ANATOMY
 - RIGHT CORONARY (RCA)—gives rise to right marginal (RMA), right posterior descending (RPDA), and right posterolateral branches (RPL 1, 2, 3)
 - LEFT MAIN (LM)—gives rise to left anterior descending (LAD) → diagonal (D1, 2 3) and septals; ramus intermediate (Ram Int); and left circumflex (LCX) → obtuse marginal (OM 1, 2, 3)

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- DOMINANT ARTERY—defined as the artery that supplies PDA and at least one posterolateral (PL) artery
- INDICATIONS—Studies suggest CABG provides mortality benefit for specific subgroups, including patients with (1) left main disease >50% occlusion, (2) two vessel disease with significant involvement of proximal left anterior descending, and (3) diffuse triple vessel disease. Diabetic patients and those with reduced left ventricular function derive more benefit from bypass surgery. Angiographic disease severity should be assessed using the SYNTAX score. Decision for revascularization (PCI vs. CABG) should follow assessment by heart team (interventional cardiology and cardiac surgery)
- MORBIDITY BENEFIT—95% have improvement of symptoms immediately after surgery, 75% symptom free at 5 years. Recurrent disease more common in vein grafts than artery grafts
- GRAFTS—saphenous veins from calf or thigh (SVG), internal mammary arteries (LIMA/RIMA), radial arteries (RA), and gastroepiploic artery from stomach (GA). A total of 90% of arterial graft and 50% of vein graft remain patent by 10 years
- COMPLICATIONS
 - cARDIAC—MI 2–4%, arrhythmia (AF 40%, sustained VT/VF 2–3%), AV block requiring pacemaker 0.8–4%, pericarditis/tamponade, aortic dissection
 - NEUROLOGICAL—stroke, postoperative delirium, cognitive impairment, depression, phrenic nerve damage, intercostal nerve damage
 - отнекs—renal failure, bleeding, infection, pleural effusions, death
- MEDICATIONS—hold clopidogrel or ticagrelor 5–7 days prior to CABG. Continue ASA before and after surgery

Pericardial Diseases: Pericarditis and Tamponade

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

★MINT★

METABOLIC—uremia, dialysis, hypothyroidism MEDICATIONS—procainamide, hydralazine, INH, phenytoin, penicillin

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

INFARCTION—MI (early, late) INFECTIOUS—viral (e.g. HIV, Coxsackie, echovirus, adenovirus), bacterial (e.g. TB, Staphylococcus aureus, Streptococcus

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

pneumoniae), fungal (e.g. Candida species, histoplasmosis)

INFLAMMATORY—psoriatic arthritis, enteric arthritis, rheumatoid arthritis, SLE, mixed connective tissue disease, scleroderma

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

IDIOPATHIC

NEOPLASTIC—primary (mesothelioma), metastasis (breast, lung, melanoma), leukemia, lymphoma

TRAUMA—stab, gunshot wound, blunt, CPR, postpericardiotomy, radiation

CLINICAL FEATURES

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT WITH A PERICARDIAL EFFUSION HAVE CARDIAC TAMPONADE?

| | Sens (%) |
|---|----------|
| History | |
| Dyspnea | 87-89 |
| Fever | 25 |
| Chest pain | 20 |
| Cough | 7–10 |
| Physical | |
| Tachycardia | 77 |
| Pulsus paradoxus >10 mmHg ^a | 82 |
| Elevated JVP | 76 |
| ↓ heart sounds | 28 |
| Hypotension | 26 |
| Hypertension | 33 |
| Tachypnea | 80 |
| Peripheral edema | 21–28 |
| Pericardial rub | 19–29 |
| Hepatomegaly | 28–55 |
| Kussmaul sign | 26 |
| ECG | |
| Low voltage | 42 |
| Atrial arrhythmia | 6 |
| Electrical alternans | 16–21 |
| ST elevation | 18–30 |
| PR depression | 18 |
| ^a Pulsus paradoxus LR+ 3.3, LR– 0.03 | |

APPROACH—"Among patients with cardiac tamponade, a minority will not have dyspnea, tachycardia, elevated JVP, or cardiomegaly on chest radiograph. A pulsus paradoxus >10 mmHg among patients with a pericardial effusion helps distinguish those with cardiac tamponade from those without. Diagnostic certainty of the presence of tamponade requires additional testing."

Roy et al. JAMA 2007;297(16)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES OF ACUTE TAMPONADE AND CHRONIC CONSTRICTIVE PERICARDITIS

| | Acute tamponade |
|----------------|---|
| Vitals | Tachycardia, hypotension +++, |
| | pulsus paradoxus |
| JVP | Elevated, Kussmaul (rare) |
| | Prominent x' descent but blunted y |
| | descent |
| Apex beat | Impalpable |
| Heart sounds | Distant |
| Other features | Dullness and bronchial breath sounds over left base (Ewart sign) |

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, troponin, CK
- IMAGING—CXR (calcification if constrictive disease), echocardiogram
- ECG—may have sinus tachycardia, low voltages, and electrical alternans in tamponade/effusion; diffuse ST elevation (concave up) and PR depression may be seen in pericarditis

SPECIAL

- PERICARDIOCENTESIS—diagnostic or therapeutic (for tamponade, TB/bacterial pericarditis, or large persistent effusion)
- PERICARDIOSCOPY
- CT/MRI CHEST—if suspect constrictive pericarditis

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE PERICARDITIS—NSAIDs (indomethacin 25–50 mg PO TID, ibuprofen 600–800 mg PO TID×2–4 weeks, or until resolution of pain) for most cases of idiopathic or viral pericarditis, but avoid after acute MI. If post-MI, **ASA** 650 mg PO TID×3–4 weeks. Adjuvant **colchicine** 0.6 mg PO BID×3 months in addition to NSAID/ASA to reduce risk of recurrence. **Prednisone** 0.25–0.5 mg/kg PO daily×2 weeks (followed by taper) may be considered for connective tissue-mediated disease, although symptoms may recur upon withdrawal

RECURRENT PERICARDITIS—*ASA* 650 mg PO TID×4–8 weeks or **NSAIDs** (*indomethacin* 25–50 mg PO TID, *ibuprofen* 600–800 mg PO TID×4–8 weeks). Add *colchicine* (0.6 mg PO BID×3–6 months) for longterm prophylaxis. **Constrictive pericarditis** Hypotension, pulsus paradoxus (rare)

Elevated, **Kussmaul** Prominent x' and y descent (Friedrich sign

Impalpable Distant, early S3/knock Hepatosplenomegaly, edema

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

Avoid anticoagulation as risk of hemopericardium. **Prednisone** 0.25–0.5 mg/kg PO daily may also be useful, although symptoms may recur upon withdrawal

TAMPONADE—ABC, O₂, IVs, bolus IV fluids, pericardiocentesis (subxyphoid blind approach, echocardiogram-guided parasternal or apical approach), pericardiectomy, pericardial window if recurrent/malignant effusion. Avoid nitroglycerin and morphine if tamponade as they may decrease preload, leading to worsening of cardiac outout

CONSTRICTIVE PERICARDITIS—consider diuresis if evidence of volume overload. Severe, medically-refractory cases may require surgical pericardiectomy

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

ACUTE PERICARDITIS—may be preceded by upper respiratory tract infection. Diagnosis is based on any two of the following inflammatory signs (LR+ 5.4): fever, pericardial friction rub (three components), characteristic chest pain (better with upright position and leaning forward, or pleuritic), PR depression, and diffuse ST elevation. Large effusion without inflammatory signs or tamponade suggests chronic idiopathic pericardial effusion (LR+ 20)

RECURRENT PERICARDITIS—returns in days to weeks upon stopping medications. Likely causes include rheumatologic disorders, Dressler syndrome, and post-pericardiotomy syndrome

TAMPONADE—a *clinical* diagnosis based on dyspnea, tachycardia, hypotension, pulsus paradoxus, and elevated JVP. Tamponade causes

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

restriction in left or right ventricular diastolic filling. Tamponade with inflammatory signs suggests malignant effusion (LR+ 2.9)

CONSTRICTIVE PERICARDITIS—contraction of pericardium due to chronic inflammation,

Heart Failure

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

leading to left and/or right heart failure. May follow pericarditis or radiation. May be difficult to distinguish from restrictive cardiomyopathy clinically

Jessup et al. *NEJM* 2003;348(20) 2006 CCS Heart Failure Guidelines Canadian Heart Failure Guidelines Updates 2013–2020

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF HF EXACERBATION/DYSPNEA

CARDIAC

- MYOCARDIAL—HF exacerbation, myocardial infarction
- valvular—aortic stenosis, acute aortic regurgitation, mitral regurgitation/stenosis, endocarditis
- PERICARDIAL—tamponade, constrictive pericarditis
- DYSRHYTHMIA

RESPIRATORY

- AIRWAY—COPD exacerbation, asthma exacerbation, acute bronchitis, bronchiectasis, foreign body obstruction
- PARENCHYMA—pneumonia, cryptogenic organizing pneumonia, ARDS, interstitial lung disease exacerbation
- vascuLar—pulmonary embolism, pulmonary hypertension
- PLEURAL—pneumothorax, pleural effusion
 SYSTEMIC—sepsis, ARDS, metabolic acidosis, anemia, neuromuscular, psychogenic, anxiety

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

ANATOMIC/PHYSIOLOGIC CLASSIFICATION OF CARDIOMYOPATHY

- DILATED (dilatation and impaired contraction of one or both ventricles)—idiopathic, ischemic, valvular, viral, genetic, late manifestation of hypertrophic heart disease, tachycardia induced, alcohol induced, peripartum
- HYPERTROPHIC (disorder with disproportionate hypertrophy of the left ventricle and occasionally right ventricle)—idiopathic (autosomal dominant inheritance with incomplete penetrance), storage disease (Fabry disease, Pompe disease, Hurler syndrome, Noonan syndrome), athlete's heart (usually reversible), obesity, amyloid

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

- RESTRICTIVE (non-dilated ventricles with impaired ventricular filling)—idiopathic familial, infiltrative (amyloidosis, hemochromatosis, sarcoidosis), drugs, radiation, endomyocardial fibrosis
- ARRHYTHMOGENIC RIGHT VENTRICULAR DYSPLASIA (replacement of right ventricular free wall with fatty tissue)
- UNCLASSIFIABLE—endocardial fibroelastosis, left ventricular non-compaction

ETIOLOGIC CLASSIFICATION OF CARDIOMYOPATHY

- ISCHEMIC CARDIOMYOPATHY (mostly dilated) varying degrees of persistent ischemia, infarction, and left ventricular remodeling
- VALVULAR CARDIOMYOPATHY (mostly dilated) abnormal loading conditions and secondary left ventricular remodeling and dysfunction
- HYPERTENSIVE CARDIOMYOPATHY (dilated, restrictive)—left ventricular hypertrophy and dysfunction
- DIABETIC CARDIOMYOPATHY (dilated)—left ventricular dysfunction in the absence of atherosclerosis or hypertension
- INFLAMMATORY CARDIOMYOPATHY (mostly dilated)-infectious (e.g. diphtheria, rheumatic fever, scarlet fever, typhoid fever, meningococcal, TB, Lyme disease, Leptospirosis, RMSF, poliomyelitis, influenza, mumps, rubella, rubeola, variola, varicella, EBV, Coxsackie virus, echovirus, CMV, hepatitis, rabies, mycoplasma, psittacosis, arboviruses, histoplasmosis, cryptococcosis, Chagas disease), autoimmune, idiopathic myocardial inflammatory diseases METABOLIC CARDIOMYOPATHY (dilated, restrictive, and/or hypertrophic)—endocrine (thyrotoxicosis, hypothyroidism, acromegaly, pheochromocytoma), storage diseases (glycogen storage disease, Fabry disease, Gaucher dis-

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

ease, Niemann–Pick disease), **nutritional** deficiencies (Beriberi, Kwashiorkor, pellagra), deposition (amyloidosis, hemochromatosis, sarcoidosis)

- MUSCULAR DYSTROPHIES (mostly dilated)— Duchenne, Becker, myotonic dystrophy
- NEUROMUSCULAR—Friedreich ataxia (hypertrophic), Noonan syndrome, lentiginosis
- GENERAL SYSTEMIC DISEASE (mostly dilated) connective tissue diseases (rheumatoid heart disease, ankylosing spondylitis, SLE, scleroderma, dermatomyositis), granulomatous (sarcoidosis, granulomatosis with polyangiitis, granulomatous myocarditis), other inflammatory (giant cell myocarditis, hypersensitivity myocarditis), neoplasm (primary, secondary, restrictive pattern)
- SENSITIVITY AND TOXIC REACTIONS (mostly dilated)—alcohol, amphetamine, arsenic, catecholamines, cocaine, anthracyclines, zidovudine, radiation (restrictive as well)
- PERIPARTUM (dilated)—see p. 467

FUNCTIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF HEART FAILURE

 SYSTOLIC DYSFUNCTION (HFMEF [heart failure with a mid-range ejection fraction; LVEF 41-49%] and HFrEF [heart failure with reduced ejection fraction; LVEF ≤40%])—S3 (dilated ventricle with

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

volume overload). Mechanisms include decreased contractility and increased afterload. Causes include MI, cardiomyopathy (dilated, infiltrative), valvular (aortic regurgitation, mitral regurgitation, "burned out" aortic stenosis), "burned out" hypertension and myocarditis

- DIASTOLIC DYSFUNCTION (HFpEF [heart failure with preserved ejection fraction; normal LVEF])—S4 (stiff ventricle), LVH, ↓ ventricular relaxation, normal LVEF, ↑ chamber pressures). Mechanisms include decreased active relaxation and passive relaxation (stiff ventricle). Causes include ischemia, hypertension, valvular (aortic stenosis), cardiomyopathy (restrictive, hypertrophic), and pericardial disease
- MIXED DYSFUNCTION—in many cases, diastolic dysfunction is present with systolic heart failure

PRECIPITANTS OF HF ★ FAILURE★

- FORGET TO TAKE MEDICATIONS (non-adherence)
- ARRHYTHMIA, ANEMIA
- INFECTION, ISCHEMIA, INFARCTION
- LIFESTYLE CHANGE (e.g. high salt and/or fluid intake)
- UPREGULATORS (thyroid, pregnancy)
- RHEUMATIC HEART DISEASE, ACUTE VALVULAR DISEASE
- EMBOLISM

CLINICAL FEATURES

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN COPD AND HEART FAILURE

| | COPD | Heart Failure |
|----------------|-------------------------------------|---|
| History | Previous COPD | Previous HF |
| | Medications | Medications |
| Inspect | Nicotine stain, barrel chest | |
| | Laryngeal height <4 cm | |
| Cardiac exam | Subxyphoid cardiac pulse | Elevated JVP, S3, S4 |
| Resp. exam | Hyperresonance | Bilateral crackles |
| | Prolonged expiratory time | |
| Investigations | CXR shows hypeinflation | CXR shows redistribution and cardiomegaly |
| | ABG shows hypercapnia and hypoxemia | ABG shows hypoxemia |
| | | Elevated BNP |

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

LEFT HEART FAILURE—left-sided S3, rales, wheezes, tachypnea. Causes include previous MI, aortic stenosis, and left-sided endocarditis **RIGHT HEART FAILURE**—right-sided S3, † JVP, ascites, hepatomegaly, peripheral edema. Causes include left heart failure, pulmonary hypertension, right ventricular MI, mitral stenosis, and

right-sided endocarditis

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

GRADING OF PITTING EDEMA—**0**=no edema, **1**=trace edema, **2**=moderate edema disappears in 10–15 s, **3**=stretched skin, deep edema disappears in 1–2 min, **4**=stretched skin, fluid leaking, very deep edema present after 5 min

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS DYSPNEIC PATIENT IN THE EMERGENCY DEPARTMENT HAVE CONGESTIVE HEART FAILURE?

| | Sens (%) | Spc (%) | LR+ | LR– |
|-------------------------------|----------|---------|------|------|
| History | | | | |
| Initial clinical judgment | 61 | 80 | 4.4 | 0.45 |
| Hx heart failure | 60 | 90 | 5.8 | 0.45 |
| Myocardial infarction disease | 40 | 87 | 3.1 | 0.69 |
| Coronary artery | 52 | 70 | 1.8 | 0.68 |
| Dyslipidemia | 23 | 87 | 1.7 | 0.89 |
| Diabetes | 28 | 83 | 1.7 | 0.86 |
| Hypertension | 60 | 56 | 1.4 | 0.71 |
| Smoker | 62 | 27 | 0.84 | 1.4 |
| COPD | 34 | 57 | 0.81 | 1.1 |
| PND | 41 | 83 | 2.6 | 0.70 |
| Orthopnea | 50 | 77 | 2.2 | 0.65 |
| Edema | 51 | 76 | 2.1 | 0.64 |
| Dyspnea on exertion | 84 | 34 | 1.3 | 0.48 |
| Fatigue and weight gain | 31 | 70 | 1.0 | 0.99 |
| Cough | 36 | 61 | 0.93 | 1.0 |
| Physical | | | | |
| S3 | 13 | 99 | 11 | 0.88 |
| AJR | 24 | 96 | 6.4 | 0.79 |
| JVD | 39 | 92 | 5.1 | 0.66 |
| Rales | 60 | 78 | 2.8 | 0.51 |
| Any murmur | 27 | 90 | 2.6 | 0.81 |
| Lower extremity edema | 50 | 78 | 2.3 | 0.64 |
| Valsalva maneuver | 73 | 65 | 2.1 | 0.41 |
| SBP <100 mmHg | 6 | 97 | 2.0 | 0.97 |
| S4 | 5 | 97 | 1.6 | 0.98 |
| SBP ≥150 mmHg | 28 | 73 | 1.0 | 0.99 |

| CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D) | | | | |
|---|---------------------------|---------------------|------|------|
| | Sens (%) | Spc (%) | LR+ | LR- |
| Wheezing | 22 | 58 | 0.52 | 1.3 |
| Ascites | 1 | 97 | 0.33 | 1.0 |
| CXR | | | | |
| Pulmonary venous congestion | 54 | 96 | 12 | 0.48 |
| Interstitial edema | 34 | 97 | 12 | 0.68 |
| Alveolar edema | 6 | 99 | 6.0 | 0.95 |
| Cardiomegaly | 74 | 78 | 3.3 | 0.33 |
| Pleural effusions | 26 | 92 | 3.2 | 0.81 |
| Any edema | 70 | 77 | 3.1 | 0.38 |
| Pneumonia | 4 | 92 | 0.50 | 1.0 |
| Hyperinflation | 3 | 92 | 0.38 | 1.1 |
| ECG | | | | |
| Atrial fibrillation | 26 | 93 | 3.8 | 0.79 |
| New T wave changes | 24 | 92 | 3.0 | 0.83 |
| Any abnormal finding | 50 | 78 | 2.2 | 0.64 |
| ST elevation | 5 | 97 | 1.8 | 0.98 |
| ST depression | 11 | 94 | 1.7 | 0.95 |
| BNP | | | | |
| $BNP \ge 250 pg/mL$ | | | 4.6 | |
| $BNP \ge 100 pg/mL^a$ | | | 2.7 | |
| $BNP \ge 50 pg/mL$ | | | 1.7 | 0.06 |
| an anti-anti-anti-anti-anti-anti-anti-anti- | ··· / /··· /1 72 ···· ? - | thus the state of a | 01 | . I |

^aFor patients with an estimated GFR of 15–60 mL/min/1.73 m², a threshold of 201 pg/mL can be used **APPROACH**—"The features evaluated in more than one study with the highest LRs (>3.5) for diagnosing heart failure were the following: the overall clinical judgment, history of heart failure, S3, jugular venous distension, pulmonary venous congestion or interstitial edema on CXR, and atrial fibrillation on ECG. The features evaluated in more than one study with the lowest LRs (<0.60) for diagnosing heart failure were the following: the overall clinical judgment, no prior history of heart failure, no dyspnea on exertion, the absence of rales, and the absence of radiographic pulmonary venous congestion, or cardiomegaly. The single finding that decreased the likelihood of heart failure the most was a BNP <100 pg/mL."While the findings of this study are useful when assessing dyspneic patients suspected of having have failure, "no individual feature is sufficiently powerful in isolation to rule heart failure in or out. Therefore, an overall clinical impression based on all available information is best. If the appropriate constellation of findings with high LRs for heart failure are present, that may be sufficient to warrant empirical treatment without further urgent investigations."

Wang et al. JAMA 2005;294(15) Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination. McGraw-Hill; 2009

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE ABNORMAL CENTRAL VENOUS PRESSURE?

JVP VS. CAROTID—JVP has biphasic waveforms, is non-palpable, is occludable, decreases with inspiration, changes with position, and increases with abdominojugular reflux (AJR). To perform the AJR, the blood pressure cuff is pumped $6 \times$ and then pressed against the abdomen at 20–35 mmHg for 15–30 s. Normal = no change in JVP, or transient increase of >4 cm that returns to baseline before 10 s, or sustained increase <3 cm throughout. Positive AJR occurs when abdominal compression causes a sustained increase in JVP >4 cm (sens 24%, spc 96%, LR+ 4.4)

Cook et al. JAMA 1996;275(8) UPDATE—a JVP height \geq 3 cm above the sternal angle in any position indicates an abnormal CVP. Clinical assessment of high JVP has a LR+ for high CVP of 3.1. An assessment of low JVP has a LR+ for low CVP of 3.4

Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination. McGraw-Hill; 2009

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, troponin/CK×3, BNP or NT-pro-BNP, D-dimer, TSH, albumin
- IMAGING—CXR, echocardiogram (check E/A ratio if diastolic dysfunction)

• ECG

SPECIAL

- FURTHER IMAGING—MIBI, MUGA, cardiac MRI
- stress test—to assess ischemic heart disease
- CARDIAC CATHETERIZATION
- ABG—if severe dyspnea

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

B-TYPE NATRIURETIC PEPTIDE/N--TERMINAL PROHORMONE OF BRAIN NATRIURETIC PEPTIDE

 DIAGNOSIS—BNP and NT-proBNP levels are elevated with HF, PE, pulmonary hypertension, LVH, ACS, AF, renal failure, overload, and sepsis. Generally, can rule-out HF if BNP <100 pg/mL or NT-proBNP <300 pg/mL; may rule-in if BNP >500 pg/mL, NT-proBNP >900 pg/mL (if age 50–75 years), or NT-proBNP >1,800 pg/mL (if

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

age >75 years). Best used in combination with clinical scoring system when diagnosis is uncertain

- BAGGISH CLINICAL SCORING SYSTEM—elevated NTproBNP [>450 pg/mL if age <50 years, or >900 pg/mL if age ≥50 years] (+4), interstitial edema on CXR (+2), orthopnea (+2), lack of fever (+2), age >75 years (+1), lack of cough (+1), use of loop diuretic prior to presentation (+1), rales (+1). If score 0–5, low likelihood of HF; if 6–8, intermediate likelihood of HF; if 9–14, high likelihood of HF
- PROGNOSIS—BNP >80th percentile is associated with a >50% increase in long-term mortality

HF PROGNOSIS—33% 1-year mortality, 75% 6-year mortality

ACUTE MANAGEMENT

ABC— O_2 to keep sat >95%, IVs

SYMPTOM CONTROL—★LMNOP★ Lasix/ furosemide 20–120 mg IV PRN, Morphine 2–5 mg IV PRN, Nitroglycerin 0.4 mg SL PRN, O₂, Position (upright)

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT

DIET—low salt (<100 mmol/day, 1.5–2 g/day), fluid restriction (1.5–2 L/day)

DIURETICS—furosemide 20–120 IV/PO daily-BID with daily adjustments (try to use smallest dose possible to allow ACE inhibitor)±metolazone 2.5–5 mg PO 30 min before furosemide, spironolactone 12.5–50 mg PO daily or eplerenone 25–50 mg PO daily

VASODILATORS—ACE inhibitor (captopril 6.25–50 mg PO TID, enalapril 1.25–10 mg PO BID, ramipril 2.5–10 mg PO BID, lisinopril 2.5–20 mg PO daily, perindopril 2–8 mg PO daily). ARB (valsartan 40–160 mg PO BID, candesartan 8–32 mg PO daily). Hydralazine 10–50 mg PO QID and nitrates (nitropatch 0.4 mg topical daily or isosorbide mononitrate 30–90 mg PO daily)

RATE CONTROL— β -blockers (metoprolol tartrate 50–100 mg PO BlD, carvedilol 3.125–25 mg PO BlD, bisoprolol 2.5–10 mg PO daily). **HCN** (hyperpolarization-activated cyclic nucleotide-gated) channel blocker (ivabradine 5–7.5 mg PO BlD) can be considered in patients with sinus rhythm and heart rate \geq 70 bpm on maximal tolerated dose of β -blocker or in whom a β -blocker is contraindicated

DIGITALIS—digoxin 0.0625–0.25 mg PO daily

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

SGLT2 inhibitors—empagliflozin, canagliflozin, or dapagliflozin. May be beneficial, especially in patients with type 2 diabetes and/or atherosclerosis

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—CAD (PCI/ CABG), aortic stenosis (AV replacement), sleep apnea (CPAP)

DEVICES—if ejection fraction <30–35%, consider **cardiac resynchronization therapy** (CRT/biventricular pacing)±**implantable cardioverter defibrillators** (ICD). Percutaneous mitral valve repair can be considered for symptomatic heart failure with reduced EF and severe MR if refractory to medical therapy. **Ventricular assist devices** may also be considered in selected cases of refractory HF

TREATMENT ISSUES

ACE INHIBITOR (Garg, JAMA 1995)—hazard ratios for total mortality 0.77 and mortality/hospitalization 0.65 for any patients with LVEF <40%. Target dose = maximum tolerated. Contraindications include SBP <80 mmHg, bilateral renal artery stenosis, severe renal failure, and hyperkalemia

ARB (CHARM)—consider substitution with ARB if ACE inhibitor *not tolerated* (e.g. cough). May also be used as adjunct to ACE inhibitor if β -blocker not tolerated. Contraindications similar to ACE inhibitor

HYDRALAZINE/NITRATES (VHEFT I and II, A-HeFT)—less effective than ACE inhibitor. Particularly useful for pregnant patients, Black patients, or those who developed renal insufficiency while on ACE inhibitor, or as add-on therapy ANGIOTENSIN RECEPTOR-NEPRILYSIN INHIBITOR (ARNI) (McMurray NEJM 2014, PARADIGM-HF)—combination sacubitrilvalsartan demonstrated 16% reduction in diath from cardiovascular causes, and 21% reduction heart failure hospitalizations compared to enalapril

IVABRADINE (SHIFT 2010)—26% relative risk reduction of heart failure hospitalization. Useful for patients with LVEF \leq 40%, NYHA II-IV, and sinus rhythm with HR \geq 70 bpm despite β -blocker

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

optimization or intolerance. Only useful if patients are in sinus rhythm given its direct effect on the sinus node and is therefore not indicated if patients are in atrial fibrillation or if develop atrial fibrillation while on ivabradine

SPIRONOLACTONE (RALES 1999, EPHESUS 2003, EMPHASIS-HF 2011)—hazard ratios for allcause mortality 0.7 and hospitalization for HF, 0.65 for patients with NYHA III–IV, LVEF <35%, and already on maximum medical therapy. Hazard ratios for cardiovascular death/HF hospitalization 0.63 and cardiovascular mortality 0.76 for patients with NYHA II and LVEF \leq 30% (or LVEF 31–35% *plus* QRS duration >130 msec), and already on maximum medical therapy. Caution in elderly and renal failure patients as higher risk of hyperkalemia

DIGOXIN (DIG 1997)—hazard ratios for total mortality 0.99 and mortality/hospitalization 0.92. Particularly useful for patients with both HF and atrial fibrillation, or symptomatic HF despite maximum medical therapy

OVERALL APPROACH—treat underlying cause if possible. Non-pharmacological treatments (diet, exercise, smoking cessation) \rightarrow add ACE inhibitor if LVEF ≤40% (or hydralazine/nitrates if renal failure, ARB if cough secondary to ACE inhibitor) \rightarrow add β -blocker when euvolemic if LVEF \leq 40% \rightarrow if NYHA II-IV and sinus rhythm with HR \geq 70 bpm despite β-blocker optimization or intolerance add ivabradine \rightarrow add spironolactone/eplerenone if NYHA II-IV if LVEF <30% (or <35% and QRS duration >130 msec) \rightarrow if ongoing symptoms with NYHA II-IV despite optimization of ACE inhibitor, β-blocker, ivabradine, and mineralocorticoid receptor antagonists dose optimization, consider switching ACE inhibitor or ARB to ARNI \rightarrow add digoxin ± ARB if still symptomatic. If ejection fraction is <30–35% despite optimal medical therapy, consider revascularization, implantable cardioverter defibrillator, and cardiac resynchronization (if QRS is wide with underlying LBBB). For end stage cases consider ventricular-assist device/heart transplant. Consider palliative care referral for symptomatic patients with advanced heart failure

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

CAUSES OF FLASH PULMONARY EDEMA cardiac (ischemic heart disease, acute aortic regurgitation, acute mitral regurgitation, mitral stenosis/obstruction, arrhythmia), pulmonary (pulmonary embolism, pneumonia), renal (bilat eral renal artery stenosis), systemic (hypertension crisis, fever, sepsis, anemia, thyrotoxicosis)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

HYPERTROPHIC OBSTRUCTIVE CARDIOMYOPATHY (HOCM)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—autosomal dominant condition with mutated cardiac sarcomere, leading to massive ventricular hypertrophy (particularly septum). This results in left ventricular outflow tract obstruction, mitral regurgitation, diastolic dysfunction, and subsequently myocardial ischemia and overt heart failure. Cardiac arrhythmias may lead to sudden death (<1%/year). Other complications include atrial fibrillation and infective endocarditis
- RISK FACTORS FOR SUDDEN DEATH—major risk factors include history of cardiac arrest (VF), sustained VT, unexplained syncope, non-sustained VT on Holter, abnormal BP response on exercise test, left ventricular wall thickness >30 mm, and family history of sudden death. Minor risk factors include left ventricular out flow obstruction (gradient ≥30 mmHg), diastolic dysfunction, microvascular obstruction, late gadolinium enhancement on cardiac MRI, and high-risk genetic defect

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- CLINICAL FEATURES—most are asymptomatic although dyspnea, chest pain, syncope, and sudden death may develop. Family history should be obtained. Physical findings include brisk carotid upstroke, bifid carotid pulse, double apical impulse, systolic ejection murmur (LLSB, louder with standing and Valsalva)±mitral regurgitation murmur
- DIAGNOSIS—echocardiogram (septal thickening, systolic-anterior motion of mitral valve).
 Further workup includes 48 h Holter monitor and exercise testing annually
- TREATMENTS—avoidance (dehydration and strenuous exercise), medical (β-blockers and non-dihydropyridine calcium channel blockers as first line, disopyramide as second line), interventional/surgical (septal myomectomy, alcohol septal ablation, dual-chamber pacing), prophylaxis (implantable cardioverter defibrillator for high-risk patients to prevent sudden cardiac death, anticoagulation if atrial fibrillation)

Nishimura et al. NEJM 2004;350(13)

Digoxin Intoxication

CAUSES

OVERDOSE—intentional, accidental (digoxin, foxglove, yellow oleander)

DRUG INTERACTIONS—quinidine, amiodarone, verapamil, diltiazem, tetracycline, erythromycin, rifampin, cyclosporine, SSRIs

- PHARMACOKINETICS (see precipitants below)
- OLD AGE
- RENAL FAILURE
- CARDIAC—ischemia, myocarditis, cardiomyopathy, amyloidosis, cor pulmonale
- METABOLIC—hypokalemia, hypomagnesemia, hypernatremia, hypercalcemia, hypoxemia, acid–base imbalance

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DIGOXIN LEVEL—measurement of serum levels is not routinely necessary as dosing can usually be titrated according to clinical and hemodynamic effects. When measured, serum level should be collected at 12–24 h after the last dose (postdistribution phase). While the upper normal limit is 2.6 nmol/L [2.0 ng/mL], higher digoxin levels may be seen in asymptomatic patients. Low-dose Gheorghiade et al. *Circulation* 2004;109(24)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

digoxin, resulting in serum levels 0.5–0.9 nmol/L [0.4–0.7 ng/mL] is associated with possible survival benefit compared to \geq 1 nmol/L [\geq 0.78 ng/mL] in HF patients

MECHANISM—digitalis acts by inhibiting the membrane-bound Na/K ATPase transport system. This leads to intracellular loss of K and gain of Na. Increase in intracellular Ca leads to ↑ cardiac contractility. Digoxin also exerts a vagotonic action, which slows conduction through the SA and AV node and helps to control heart rate

PRECIPITANTS OF DIGOXIN TOXICITY—toxicity is not merely related to serum levels, but also digoxin dosing (e.g. acute overdose), other medications (e.g. non-potassium sparing diuretics), and conditions (e.g. renal insufficiency, acute coronary syndromes, cardiac amyloidosis, hypothyroidism). For instance, hypokalemia, hypernatremia, hypomagnesemia and acidosis predispose to toxicity even at low-serum digoxin levels because of their depressive effects on the Na/K ATPase pump. In contrast, hyperkalemia occurs in acute toxicity and is directly related to prognosis

CLINICAL FEATURES

SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS

- NEUROLOGICAL—delirium, hallucination, blurred vision with altered color perception, headaches, dizziness
- CARDIAC—bradycardia, high-degree AV block, paroxysmal atrial tachycardia (often 2:1 AV conduction), unifocal or multifocal PVCs, bidirectional ventricular tachycardia, accelerated junctional tachycardia
- GI—anorexia, N&V, diarrhea, abdominal pain
- метавошс—hyperkalemia

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, Ca, Mg, albumin, serum digoxin level
- ECG
- ABG

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

ECG CHANGES ASSOCIATED WITH DIGOXIN

- THERAPEUTIC LEVELS—sagging of ST segments, flattened T waves, U waves, and shortened QT. Not to be confused with digoxin toxicity
- TOXIC LEVELS—first degree heart block, paroxysmal atrial tachycardia (often 2:1 AV conduction), regularized atrial fibrillation (i.e. with complete heart block), unifocal or multifocal PVCs, ventricular bigeminy, bidirectional VT

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O₂, IV, treat arrhythmia TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—observe, cardiac monitoring, activated charcoal (if ingestion within 4 h). Correct electrolyte disturbances

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

and reverse acidosis. Atropine for bradycardia. Digibind/purified antidigoxin FAB fragments (if acute ingestion of 10 mg or more in adults, or digoxin level >13 nmol/L [10 ng/mL], K >5 mM and life-threatening arrhythmia, hemodynamic instability, unstable arrhythmia [e.g. symptomatic bradycardia], or end-organ hypoperfusion [e.g. acute renal failure]). May see response in 20 min and complete response up to 4 h. Monitor potassium levels after treatment with Digibind)

TREATMENT ISSUES

AVOID

- IV CALCIUM—indicated for other causes of severe hyperkalemia, calcium may precipitate VT/sudden death and should *not* be given for hyperkalemia of digoxin toxicity
- CARDIOVERSION—relatively contraindicated because asystole or ventricular fibrillation may be precipitated
- TRANSVENOUS PACING—can precipitate arrhythmias and deterioration

HALF-LIVES—plasma t_{y_2} for digoxin 1.6 days, digitoxin 5 days

INDICATIONS FOR DIGOXIN THERAPY—in patients with symptomatic systolic HF and sinus rhythm (digoxin may be especially useful in patients with severe symptoms despite standard medical therapy, LVEF <25%, or cardiomegaly), diastolic HF (with rapid atrial fibrillation or severe symptoms despite standard medical therapy), and rapid atrial fibrillation (with or without heart failure). Use with extreme caution or avoid in the elderly, patients with severe conduction abnormalities, acute coronary syndromes, or renal failure

Atrial Fibrillation

Ozcan et al. *NEJM* 2001;344(14) Alboni et al. *NEJM* 2004;351(23) 2019 AHA/ACC/HRS Focused Update Atrial Fibrillation 2018 CCS Focused Update Atrial Fibrillation

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF PALPITATIONS

PPP

PHYSIOLOGIC (high output states)—anemia, pregnancy, fever, exercise, stress PATHOLOGIC★CDE★

 CARDIAC—arrhythmia (see tachycardia below), myocardial (cardiomyopathy, atrial myxoma, shunts), valvular, transplanted heart

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF PALPITATIONS (CONT'D)

- DRUGS—sympathomimetic agents, vasodilators, anticholinergic agents, β-blocker withdrawal, illicit (cocaine, amphetamines)
- ENDOCRINE—hypoglycemia, hyperthyroidism, pheochromocytoma

PSYCHIATRIC—panic attack/disorder, generalized anxiety disorder, somatization disorder

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF NARROW COMPLEX TACHYCARDIA

REGULAR NARROW COMPLEX TACHYCARDIA—sinus tachycardia, atrial flutter with fixed block, supraventricular tachycardia (atrial tachycardia, AV nodal reentry, orthodromic AV reentrant/WPW), accelerated junctional tachycardia

IRREGULAR NARROW COMPLEX TACHYCARDIA—sinus tachycardia/arrhythmia, premature atrial contractions, multifocal atrial tachycardia, atrial flutter with variable block, atrial tachycardia with variable block, atrial fibrillation

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF IRREGULARLY IRREGULAR RHYTHM

ATRIAL—sinus arrhythmia (rate 60–100), wandering pacemaker (rate 60–100), premature atrial rhythm/beat, multifocal atrial tachycardia (rate >100), ectopic atrial tachyarrhythmia with variable block, atrial flutter with variable block, atrial fibrillation

VENTRICULAR—premature ventricular contraction, polymorphic ventricular tachycardia, ventricular fibrillation

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CAUSES OF ATRIAL FIBRILLATION

- CARDIOVASCULAR—myocardial (hypertension, CAD, HF, hypertrophic cardiomyopathy, dilated cardiomyopathy, myocarditis, infiltration [amyloidosis, sarcoidosis, hemochromatosis], ASD), valvular (rheumatic, acquired, endocarditis), arrhythmia (WPW), pericardial (pericarditis), cardiac surgery
- PULMONARY—COPD, pulmonary embolism, pleural effusion, pulmonary hypertension, obstructive sleep apnea
- METABOLIC—thyrotoxicosis, obesity
- DRUGS—theophylline, adenosine, digitalis, β-agonists, alcohol, caffeine, cocaine
- IDIOPATHIC (10%)

CLASSIFICATION OF ATRIAL FIBRILLATION

- PAROXYSMAL ATRIAL FIBRILLATION—episodes of AF last <7 days (usually <24 h). Terminates spontaneously or with intervention. May variably recur
- PERSISTENT ATRIAL FIBRILLATION—CONTINUOUS AF sustained >7 days
- LONG-STANDING PERSISTENT ATRIAL FIBRILLATION continuous AF >12 months
- PERMANENT ATRIAL FIBRILLATION—a classification determined by clinician and patient to stop further attempts to restore and/or maintain sinus

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

rhythm. A therapeutic attitude rather than inherent pathophysiological attribute of AF

- NONVALVULAR ATRIAL FIBRILLATION—AF in the absence of moderate or severe rheumatic mitral stenosis, mechanical or bioprosthetic heart valve, or mitral valve repair
- LONE ATRIAL FIBRILLATION—AF in patients <60 years, no structural heart disease or risk factors, including hypertension

CLINICAL FEATURES OF NARROW COMPLEX TACHYCARDIA

HISTORY—palpitations, chest pain, dyspnea, dizziness, syncope, past medical history (AF, SVT, WPW, CAD, HF, hypertension, diabetes, stroke, TIA, thyroid dysfunction), medications (antihypertensives, antiarrhythmics), DVT/PE risk factors

PHYSICAL—vitals (pulse rate and rhythm, BP), cardiac and pulmonary examination for heart failure

CAROTID SINUS MASSAGE, VALSALVA, OR ADENOSINE—SVT may spontaneously terminate, while the ventricular response in AF or atrial flutter may slow down allowing better analysis of the atrial rhythm. Avoid adenosine if suspect preexcitation syndrome (atrial fibrillation or atrial flutter with WPW)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, Mg, TSH, INR, PTT, D-dimer, troponin
- IMAGING—CXR, echocardiogram (enlarged left atrium)
- ECG
- 24-H HOLTER
- EXERCISE STRESS TEST

SPECIAL

- ELECTROPHYSIOLOGY STUDIES
- URINARY OR PLASMA METANEPHRINES—if suspect pheochromocytoma

ACUTE MANAGEMENT

ABC-O₂ to keep sat >95%, IV

AV NODAL BLOCKING AGENTS ★ ABCD ★

 AMIODARONE—amiodarone 150 mg IV bolus over 10 min, q10–15 min. Alternatively, infu-

ACUTE MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

sion 60 mg/h over 6 h, then 30 mg/h over 18 h. Maximum 2.2 g/day

- β-BLOCKERS—metoprolol 5 mg IV over 1 min q5min×3 PRN, esmolol 500 µg/kg IV over 1 min, maintenance dose 50–200 µg/kg/min IV
- CALCIUM CHANNEL BLOCKERS—diltiazem 15–20 mg IV over 2 min, repeat in 15 min at 20–25 mg PRN, maintenance dose 5–20 mg/h IV; verapamil 2.5–5.0 mg IV over 1–2 min, followed by 5–10 mg in 15–30 min PRN with maximum of 30 mg, maintenance dose 0.05–0.2 mg/min IV
- DIGITALIS—digoxin 0.25–0.5 mg IV q6h to a total dose of 1 mg, maintenance dose 0.125–0.25 mg PO/IV daily

OVERALL APPROACH

- UNSTABLE ATRIAL FIBRILLATION—perform cardioversion immediately
- STABLE ATRIAL FIBRILLATION <48 H—rate control (β-blockers, calcium channel blockers, digoxin) and consider rhythm control (DC cardioversion, amiodarone, propafenone, flecainide); immediate initiation of anticoagulation prior to cardioversion preferred and anticoagulate at least ×4 weeks post-cardioversion. Anticoagulation for 3 weeks prior to cardioversion is recommended for patients with recent stroke or TIA even if AF duration is <48 h
- STABLE ATRIAL FIBRILLATION >48 H OR UNKNOWN DURATION—rate control (β-blockers, calcium channel blockers, digoxin) and consider rhythm control. IV unfractionated heparin → TEE to exclude atrial thrombus → cardioversion within 24 h → anticoagulate × 4 weeks; ALTERNATIVELY anticoagulate × 3 weeks → cardioversion → anticoagulate at least × 4 weeks
- TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE/PRECIPITANT—infection, myocardial infarction, ischemia, drugs, pulmonary embolism, thyrotoxicosis

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT

RATE CONTROL—target resting HR <80 and exercise HR <110 in patients with significant symptoms. (Consider target resting HR <110 in asymptomatic patients with preserved LVEF). β -blocker (metoprolol tartrate [immediate release] 50–100 mg PO BID, metoprolol succinate [extended release] 100–200 mg PO daily, carvedilol 6.25–50 mg PO BID, bisoprolol 5–10 mg PO daily). **Calcium channel blockers** (diltiazem CD 120–480 mg PO daily, verapamil ER 180-540 mg PO daily). **Digitalis** (digoxin 0.5 mg PO×1 dose, then 0.25 mg×2 doses q6–12 h, then 0.0625–0.25 mg daily)

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

RHYTHM CONTROL—elective cardioversion (only after a 3-week course of therapeutic anticoagulation or atrial thrombus excluded by TEE. Cardioversion should be followed by 4 weeks of anticoagulation). Antiarrhythmics (amiodarone 200–400 mg PO daily, sotalol 40–160 mg PO BID, especially if CAD; flecainide 50 mg PO q12h, especially if no structural heart disease; propafenone 150 mg PO q8h, especially if no structural heart disease)

STROKE PREVENTION

- LOWEST RISK (e.g. nonvalvular disease, CHADS65=0, and absence of CAD or arterial vascular disease)—no antithrombotic therapy
- LOW RISK (e.g. nonvalvular disease, CHADS65=0, and presence of CAD or arterial vascular disease)—ASA 81 mg daily
- MODERATE TO HIGH RISK-anticoagulation (warfarin 5 mg PO daily to target INR between 2-3, dabigatran 110-150 mg PO BID, rivaroxaban 15–20 mg PO daily, apixaban 2.5–5 mg PO bid, or edoxaban 60 mg PO daily). Direct oral anticoagulants (DOACs) preferred over warfarin except for valvular AF (e.g. moderate to severe mitral stenosis) or patients with mechanical valves. In patients with moderate to severe CKD, a reduced dose of dabigatran, rivaroxaban, apixaban, or edoxaban is recommended; in patients with end-stage CKD or on dialysis, the use of dabigatran, rivaroxaban, or edoxaban is not recommended. Patients at higher risk of bleeding may require lower doses. Bridging anticoagulation (for initiation/ interruption of warfarin therapy) not routinely required but should be considered in those at high risk for acute thrombosis (e.g. mechanical heart valves). Percutaneous left atrial appendage occlusion may be considered in patients with contraindication for anticoagulation but who would still benefit from stroke prevention

PROCEDURES—radiofrequency ablation for AF includes isolation of the pulmonary veins along with other complex ablation approaches. If this approach is unsuccessful, radiofrequency ablation of the AV node with insertion of a permanent pacemaker to activate the ventricles may be considered as a last resort. AF ablation is mainly associated with symptom improvement. In patients who also have heart faiure and left ventricular systolic dysfunction, there may be addimortality benefit. tional Long-term anticoagulation based on stroke risk needs to be considered in all patients regardless of the rate or rhythm strategy that is used. Surgical (corridor

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

and maze procedures can be considered but longterm success unclear)

> Wyse et al. NEJM 2002;347(23) Connolly et al. NEJM 2009;361(12) Van Gelder et al. NEJM 2010;362(15) Patel et al. NEJM 2011;365(10) Mega NEJM 2011;365(11)

TREATMENT ISSUES

STROKE RISK FACTORS IN PATIENTS WITH ATRIAL FIBRILLATION

★CHADS65★

- CHF (any history, 1 point)
- нуректемым (any history, 1 point)
- AGE ≥65 (1 point)
- DIABETES (1 point)
- stroke or TIA (2 points)

★CHADS₂★

- CHF (any history, 1 point)
- HYPERTENSION (any history, 1 point)
- AGE ≥75 (1 point)
- DIABETES (1 point)
- stroke or TIA (2 points)
- RISK OF STROKE (IF UNTREATED)—0 points = 1.9%/ year, 1=2.8%, 2=4.0%, 3=5.9%, 4=8.5%, 5=12.5%, 6=18.2%

★CHA₂DS₂-VASc★

- CHF (any history, 1 point)
- HYPERTENSION (any history, 1 point)
- AGE ≥75 (2 point)
- DIABETES (1 point)
- stroke or TIA (2 points)
- VASCULAR DISEASE (coronary, aortic, or peripheral) (1 point)
- AGE 65–74 (1 point)
- sex, female (1 point)
- RISK OF STROKE (IF UNTREATED)—0 points=0%/ year, 1=1.3%, 2=2.2%, 3=3.2%, 4=4.0%, 5=6.7%, 6=9.8%, 7=9.6%, 8=6.7%, 9=15.2%
- MAIN INDICATIONS FOR ANTICOAGULATION—CHADS₂ score ≥1, CHADS65 score ≥1, CHA₂DS₂-VASc score ≥2 in men, or CHA₂DS₂-VASc score ≥3 in women
- OTHER RISK FACTORS—CAD, echocardiography abnormalities (atrial size >5 cm, LV dysfunction), thyrotoxicosis, rheumatic valvular disease (RR 17). All moderate to severe mitral stenosis and HOCM patients with AF should have chronic anticoagulation (regardless of CHADS₂, CHADS65, or CHA₂DS₂-VASc score)
- RISK REDUCTION—anticoagulation decreases risk of stroke by ~60%

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- FACTORS INCREASING RISK OF BLEEDING WITH WARFA-RIN USE—advanced age, female sex, diabetes, prior hemorrhage, uncontrolled hypertension, alcoholism or liver disease, cancer, bleeding disorder, chronic kidney disease, ASA/clopidogrel/NSAIDs (including COX-2 inhibitors). Note that risk of fall by itself is not a contraindication to warfarin use
- RISK OF BLEEDING ON ANTICOAGULATION—as CHADS₂ score increases so does risk of major bleeding (but risk of stroke usually remains higher than risk of bleeding). Benefit-to-risk ratio for anticoagulation generally become even more favorable as risk factors for stroke accumulate. Risk calculation for bleeding usually unnecessary. Existing risk models do not reliably predict individual risk. Use clinical judgment

★HASBLED★

- HYPERTENSION, SBP >160 mmHg (1 point)
- ABNORMAL LIVER FUNCTION (1 point)
- ABNORMAL RENAL FUNCTION (1 point)
- STROKE (1 point)
- BLEEDING TENDENCY/PREDISPOSITION (1 point)
- LABILE INR ON WARFARIN (1 point)
- ELDERLY, age >65 (1 point)
- DRUGS (ASA, clopidogrel, NSAIDS) (1 point)
- DRUGS (alcohol abuse) (1 point)
- RISK OF BLEEDING—0=1.13 bleeds/100 patientyears, 1 = 1.02, 2 = 1.88, 3 = 3.74, 4 = 8.70, 5 = 12.50, insufficient data for scores ≥ 6

IMPORTANT TOXICITIES OF AMIODARONE

- cardiac (5%)—sinus bradycardia and AV nodal block. QT prolongation leading to torsades de pointes may rarely occur
- THYROID—amiodarone-induced thyrotoxicosis (3%). Type 1 from increased thyroid hormone synthesis from excess iodine (usually with underlying multinodular goiter or Graves' disease). Type 2 from destructive thyroiditis and thyroid hormone release. Doppler US showing goiter and ↑ vascularity favors type 1 (hyperthyroidism), but normal sized gland and normal/↓ vascularity favor type 2 (thyroiditis). Presence of (any) radioiodine uptake favors hyperthyroidism (type 1), but absence of uptake does not reliably differentiate between type 1 or type 2. Patients on amiodarone may not develop classic symptoms of thyrotoxicosis. Treatment includes anti-thyroid drugs (for type 1) and steroids (for type 2). Hypothyroidism also common (20%)

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- PULMONARY (<3%)—chronic interstitial pneumonitis (most common), cryptogenic organizing pneumonia, ARDS, and solitary pulmonary nodule. Histologically characterized by foamy macrophages in the air space. DLCO is often decreased. CT chest may show diffuse/localized interstitial or alveolar opacities. Treat with steroids and stop amiodarone
- HEPATIC (15%)—non-alcoholic steatohepatitis which in severe cases may lead to cirrhosis
- NEUROLOGIC (30%)—ataxia, tremor, peripheral polyneuropathy, insomnia, and impaired memory
- vision (100%)—corneal microdeposits may result in halo vision, photophobia, and blurred vision. Optic nerve injury (1–2%) may cause blindness

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- DERMATOLOGIC (25–75%)—photosensitivity, gray-bluish discoloration (blue man syndrome), and alopecia. This is reversible upon discontinuation of amiodarone, but may take a few years
- MONITORING—baseline TSH, LFTs, PFT and CXR. TSH and LFTs every 6 months, CXR yearly, and PFT as needed

Zimetbaum NEJM 2007;356(9)

Related Topics ACLS (p. 499) Digoxin (p. 47) ECG (p. 78) Wolff-Parkinson-White Syndrome (p. 81)

Syncope

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

★SVNCOPE★

SITUATIONAL—micturition, defecation, coughing, laughing

VASOVAGAL—painful, emotional stimulus, head turning

NEUROGENIC—vestibular stroke, seizures, autonomic insufficiency

CARDIOGENIC

- сонристюм—VT, AV block/Stokes–Adams, prolonged QT, carotid sinus hypersensitivity (shaving, tight collars)
- VALVULAR—aortic stenosis, mitral stenosis, pulmonary stenosis, tricuspid stenosis
- vascular—pulmonary hypertension, pulmonary embolism
- PERICARDIAL—tamponade
- MYOCARDIAL—myocardial infarction, hypertrophic cardiomyopathy

ORTHOSTATIC

PSYCHOGENIC

ETC—drugs

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—N&V before collapse, syncope with exertion, seizure features (tongue biting, incontinence, post-collapse disorientation), last meal, history of cardiac disease (arrhythmias, heart failure, ischemic heart disease, aortic stenosis), previous syncope, seizures, or psychiatric problems, current medications, family history of unexplained syncope or sudden death

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

PHYSICAL—orthostatic hypotension, irregular or slow-rising pulse, apical-carotid delay, soft or paradoxically split S2, presence of S4, murmurs (particularly aortic stenosis), carotid sinus massage, injuries, decreased level of consciousness, any focal neurological signs

OVERALL—history is most useful for diagnosis especially from reliable witness, revealing causes in ~45% of cases. Despite different investigations, cause of syncope remains undiagnosed in 50%. Mostly benign (e.g. vasovagal), but 1-year mortality up to 30% in high-risk patients. Highest diagnostic yield from postural BP measurement. Lowest diagnostic yields from head CT, carotid ultrasound, EEG, and cardiac enzymes

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, Cr, CK, troponin
- IMAGING—CXR, echocardiogram, carotid dopplers, CT head
- отнекs—ECG, 24 h Holter

SPECIAL

- EEG—if suspect seizures
- STRESS TEST
- TILT TABLE TEST—to confirm vasovagal syncope

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O₂, IV TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

REFLEX SYNCOPE—consists of situational syncope, vasovagal syncope, and carotid sinus syndrome

NEUROCARDIOGENIC (VASOVAGAL) SYNCOPE

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—prolonged standing, vigorous exercise, emotional distress, severe pain → excessive peripheral venous pooling → decreased venous return → compensation with cardiac hypercontractile state → activation of mechanoreceptors (and this is seen by brain as hypertension-like) causing paradoxical reflex bradycardia and drop in peripheral vascular resistance → decreased output to brain → syncope
- CLINICAL FEATURES—pre-syncope symptoms may include weakness, light-headedness, diaphoresis, visual blurring, headache, nausea, and feeling warm or cold. Syncope lasts about 30 s to 5 min. Recovery is rapid with minimal postictal state
- DIAGNOSIS—tilt-table test (spc 90%), implantable loop recorders
- TREATMENTS—lie down if pre-syncope, adequate fluids and salt intake, SSRI (*paroxetine* 20 mg PO daily), vasoconstrictor (*midodrine* 2.5–10 mg PO TID), permanent cardiac pacing if recurrent

NEJM 2005;352:10

SITUATIONAL SYNCOPE—similar to vasovagal syncope in pathophysiology, but due to mechanoreceptors in esophagus, lungs, bladder, and rectum triggered by coughing, swallowing, urination, and defecation, respectively

NEUROGENIC ORTHOSTATIC HYPOTEN-SION

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—standing leads to pooling of blood (500–1000 mL) in legs → decreased venous return to right atrium → decreased cardiac output. Normally, this triggers the autonomic response via baroreceptors in carotid

Cardiac Examination

PULSE

PULSUS TARDUS ET PARVUS (low carotid upstroke and amplitude)—aortic stenosis BRISK PULSE (rapid carotid upstroke)—hyper-

trophic cardiomyopathy

BOUNDING PULSE (rapid carotid upstroke and descent)—↑ left ventricular volume (aortic regurgitation, mitral regurgitation, VSD, PDA, severe bradycardia), ↓ peripheral resistance (fever, anemia, thyrotoxicosis, rigid arteries, pregnancy)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

sinus and aortic arch, resulting in increased peripheral vascular resistance and cardiac output. In orthostatic hypotension, this response is dampened or lost with autonomic failure, leading to hypoperfusion of various organs \rightarrow lightheadedness, dizziness, syncope, weakness, fatigue, angina, orthostatic dyspnea. Typically happens in older individuals and exacerbated by prolonged standing, strenuous exercises, high temperature, and meals

- causes—physical deconditioning, medications (alpha-blockers, antihypertensives, diuretics), Parkinson disease, Lewy body dementia, multisystem atrophy, pure autonomic failure
- CLINICAL FEATURES—pre-syncope symptoms may include weakness, light-headedness, diaphoresis, visual blurring, headache, nausea and feeling warm or cold. Syncope lasts about 30 s to 5 min. Recovery is rapid with minimal postictal state
- DIAGNOSIS—SBP drop of ≥20 mmHg or DBP drop of ≥10 mmHg during first 3 min of standing, or a head-up tilt on tilt table. Autonomic failure may be assessed by heart rate variability testing
- TREATMENTS—gradual staged movements with postural changes, exercises, increase salt/fluid intake, elastic stockings, and minimize antihypertensive medication use. Medications include *fludrocortisone* 0.05–0.1 mg PO daily, midodrine, pseudoephedrine, ephedrine, and potentially pyridostigmine

Freeman NEJM 2008;358(6)

Related Topics

Arrhythmia (p. 48) Dizziness (p. 341) Falls (p. 425) Stroke (p. 321) Valvular Heart Disease (p. 58)

PULSE (CONT'D)

PULSUS BISFERIENS (double-peaked)—combination aortic stenosis and regurgitation REGULARLY IRREGULAR PULSE—sinus arrhythmia, pulsus bigeminus (PVC, PAC) IRREGULARLY IRREGULAR PULSE—atrial fibrillation, premature atrial or ventricular contractions

BLOOD PRESSURE

CORRECT CUFF SIZE—width of bladder \geq 40% of arm circumference and length of bladder \geq 80% of arm circumference

AUSCULTATORY GAP—defined as the gap between the first Korotkoff sound (which may disappear briefly) and its reappearance. Missing the higher reading can lead to an underestimation of systolic blood pressure. Thus, the systolic blood pressure should always be palpated first before auscultation

WIDE PULSE PRESSURE—isolated systolic hypertension, aortic regurgitation, hyperdynamic states (sympathetic hyperactivity, fever/sepsis, anemia, thyrotoxicosis, large AV fistula, PDA, beriberi, pregnancy)

PSEUDOHYPERTENSION—false elevation of systolic blood pressure secondary to rigid arteries. The Osler maneuver may be useful for determining the presence of pseudohypertension

PULSUS ALTERNANS (alternating fluctuation in pulse pressure)—initially hear only the more prominent beats. As cuff pressure decreases, start to hear the less intense beats (1:1 ratio). This may be detected in severe LV dysfunction and aortic stenosis

PULSUS PARADOXUS—inspiratory drop in systolic blood pressure >10 mmHg. Causes include asthma, COPD, **tamponade**, restrictive cardiomyopathy, constrictive pericarditis, hypovolemic shock, and rarely pulmonary embolism, SVC obstruction, and morbid obesity

JUGULAR VENOUS PRESSURE

A WAVE—atrial contraction

- PROMINENT A WAVE—tricuspid stenosis, pulmonary stenosis, pulmonary hypertension, hypertrophic cardiomyopathy, and Ebstein anomaly
- CANNON A WAVE—AV dissociation (complete heart block, ventricular tachycardia) (right atrium contracts against closed tricuspid valve)
- DECREASED A WAVE—dilated right atrium
- ABSENT A WAVE—atrial fibrillation

X DESCENT—atrial relaxation. S1 starts

DECREASED X DESCENT—atrial fibrillation

 x DESCENT DEEPER THAN Y DESCENT—tamponade
 C WAVE—bulging of tricuspid valve into right atrium during ventricular isometric contraction
 X' DESCENT—descent of the base of the heart

during systole

V WAVE—atrial filling. S2 just before peak of v

• **DOMINANT V WAVE**—tricuspid regurgitation (cv wave), right heart failure, atrial septal defect

JUGULAR VENOUS PRESSURE (CONT'D)

Y DESCENT—opening of tricuspid valve/atrial emptying

- RAPID STEEP Y DESCENT—constrictive pericarditis (square root sign), severe right heart failure
- DECREASED Y DESCENT—tricuspid stenosis
- BLUNTED/ABSENT Y DESCENT—tamponade

ABDOMINOJUGULAR REFLUX (AJR)—blood pressure cuff pumped 6 ×, then pressed against abdomen at 20–35 mmHg for 15–30 s. Positive AJR occurs when abdominal compression causes a sustained increase in JVP >4 cm [>1.6 in.] and predicts elevated left atrial pressure (\geq 15 mmHg, LR+ 8.0, LR- 0.3)

KUSSMAUL SIGN—paradoxical increase in JVP during inspiration. Causes include right ventricular failure, restrictive cardiomyopathy, constrictive pericarditis, SVC obstruction, and pulmonary embolism

PRECORDIAL EXAMINATION

INSPECTION—apex, right ventricular heave **PALPATION**—apex, heaves, thrills, palpable heart sounds

- **DISPLACED APICAL BEAT** (lateral to mid-clavicular line)—left ventricular dilatation, LR+ 8.0
- ENLARGED APICAL BEAT (≥2.5 cm)—left ventricular dilatation, LR+ 4.7
- SUSTAINED APICAL BEAT (outward impulse extends to, or past, S2)—left ventricular pressure overload (aortic stenosis), volume overload (aortic regurgitation, VSD), severe cardiomyopathy, or ventricular aneurysm
- RETRACTING APICAL BEAT (retraction during systole; inward motion begins at S1, outward impuse after S2)—constrictive pericarditis (up to 90%), tricuspid regurgitation
- SUSTAINED LEFT PARASTERNAL MOVEMENT ("lift/ heave")—tricuspid regurgitation, mitral regurgitation
- PALPABLE P2—pulmonary hypertension in mitral stenosis, LR+ 3.6

HEART SOUNDS

TECHNIQUE—S1, S2, and physiological splitting of S2 are best heard over the base. Identification of S3 and S4 requires conscious effort listening for low pitched sounds over the apex (using the bell) DISTINGUISHING S1 FROM S2—time with carotid pulse, diastole longer than systole, S2 louder than S1 at the base, S1 is low pitched and longer while S2 is high pitched and shorter, S2 often split

HEART SOUNDS (CONT'D)

INTENSITY OF S1 AND S2

- LOUD P2 >A2 AT PULMONIC AREA—increased pulmonary pressure (left ventricular failure, mitral stenosis, pulmonary hypertension), increased pulmonary flow (atrial septal defect)
- LOUD S2 AT AORTIC AREA—hypertension, hyperdynamic states (fever, hyperthyroidism, anemia)
- SOFT S2 OVER AORTIC AREA—severe aortic stenosis
- LOUD S1 AT MITRAL AREA—mitral stenosis
- soft S1—mitral regurgitation, left bundle branch block, short PR interval

HEART SOUNDS (CONT'D)

SPLITTING OF S2

- FIXED SPLITTING (splitting same degree during both inspiration and expiration)—atrial septal defect, right ventricular failure
- WIDE SPLITTING (splitting greater during inspiration than expiration)—right bundle branch block, pulmonary stenosis, pulmonary hypertension
- PARADOXICAL (REVERSED) SPLITTING (splitting only during expiration)—left bundle branch block, severe aortic stenosis, RV pacing

| NORMAL AND EXTRA HEART SOUNDS | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|-------|-------|----------------------|--|--|--|--|
| Sound | Heard | Pitch | Others | | | | |
| S1 | LUSB | High | | | | | |
| Early systolic click | RUSB | High | Aortic stenosis | | | | |
| Mid-systolic click | Apex | High | MVP, louder standing | | | | |
| S2 | LUSB | High | Splitting | | | | |
| Opening snap (early diastolic) | Apex | High | Mitral stenosis | | | | |
| S3 (early diastolic) | Apex | Low | Heart failure | | | | |
| S4 (late diastolic) | Apex | Low | HTN, aortic stenosis | | | | |

Note: high pitch sounds are best heard with the diaphragm, while low pitch sounds are best heard with the bell

HEART SOUNDS (CONT'D)

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN P2 AND OPENING SNAP

- 1. P2 is best heard at LUSB while opening snap is best heard at the apex
- P2 separates from A2 on inspiration, while opening snap tends to move closer to S2 on inspiration

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN S4 AND S1

- 1. S4 is usually best heart at apex with the bell while S1 is best heard at base
- S4 is usually more widely separated from S1 than splitting of S1
- S4 is loudest at the start of expiration, softest at mid-inspiration
- S4 may be accentuated by lying down, exercise, or forced inspiration with closed glottis
- 5. S4 has a lower pitch than S1

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN S3 AND OPENING SNAP

- 1. S3 has a lower pitch than opening snap
- 2. S3 occurs later than opening snap

HEART SOUNDS (CONT'D)

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN S3 AND S4

- 1. S3 has a lower pitch than S4
- 2. S3 is closer to S2 while S4 is closer to S1
- Left ventricular S3 is louder at the apex while right ventricular S3 or S4 is usually best heart at left sternal border or at the base

MURMURS

TIMING

- MID-SYSTOLIC—aortic stenosis, aortic sclerosis, pulmonary stenosis, hypertrophic obstructive cardiomyopathy, atrial septal defect, flow murmurs (fever, pregnancy, hyperthyroidism, anemia, aortic regurgitation due to high flow)
- PANSYSTOLIC—mitral regurgitation, tricuspid regurgitation, ventricular septal defect, aortopulmonary shunts

MURMURS (CONT'D)

- LATE SYSTOLIC—mitral valve prolapse, papillary muscle dysfunction
- EARLY DIASTOLIC—aortic regurgitation, pulmonary regurgitation
- MID-DIASTOLIC—mitral stenosis, tricuspid stenosis, atrial myxoma, Austin Flint murmur of aortic regurgitation, Carey Coombs murmur during acute phase of rheumatic fever
- PRE-SYSTOLIC—mitral stenosis, tricuspid stenosis, atrial myxoma
- CONTINUOUS MURMURS—patent ductus arteriosus, arteriovenous fistula, aortopulmonary connection, venous hum, mammary souffle

INTENSITY—grade I (barely audible), grade II (faint but can be heard immediately), grade III (easily heard), grade IV (loud *and* associated with palpable thrill), grade V (very loud, can be heard with the stethoscope half off chest), grade VI (very loud, can be heard with stethoscope off chest wall) **QUALITY**—depends on the pitch, may be musical, harsh, blowing, rumbling, scratchy, grunting, or squeaky

CONFIGURATION—crescendo, decrescendo, crescendo–decrescendo, plateau, holosystolic

LOCATION—aortic valve (RUSB), pulmonary valve (LUSB), tricuspid valve (LLSB), mitral valve (apex)

RADIATION—aortic valve (carotids), pulmonary valve (left shoulder), tricuspid valve (xyphoid, right of sternum), mitral valve (axilla)

MANEUVERS

 RESPIRATION—right-sided murmurs typically increase with inspiration (except pulmonic click) or sustained abdominal pressure (↑ venous return), while left-sided murmurs are generally louder during expiration

MURMURS (CONT'D)

- VALSALVA MANEUVER (↓ venous return and ↑ systemic arterial resistance)—most murmurs decrease in length and intensity during the Valsalva maneuver. Two exceptions are the systolic murmur of hypertrophic cardiomy-opathy, which usually becomes much louder, and the systolic murmur of mitral valve prolapse, which becomes longer and often louder (click moves closer to S1)
- POSITIONAL CHANGES—most murmurs diminish with standing due to reduced preload. However, the murmur of hypertrophic cardiomyopathy becomes louder and the murmur of mitral valve prolapse lengthens and often is intensified. Squatting (or usually passive leg raising, both ↑ venous return and ↑ systemic arterial resistance) produces opposite effect
- ISOMETRIC EXERCISE (↑ systemic arterial resistance)—murmurs caused by blood flow across normal or obstructed valves (e.g. mitral or pulmonic stenosis) become louder. Murmurs of mitral and aortic regurgitation and ventricular septal defect also increase with handgrip exercise
- TRANSIENT ARTERIAL OCCLUSION († systemic arterial resistance)—transient external compression of both arms by bilateral cuff inflation to 20 mmHg greater than peak systolic pressure augments the murmurs of mitral regurgitation, aortic regurgitation, and ventricular septal defect, but not murmurs due to other causes

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES AMONG COMMON SYSTOLIC AND DIASTOLIC MURMURS

| Systolic murmurs | | | | | Diastolic murmurs | | | | | |
|-----------------------|---|--|------------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------|--|---|
| Findings ^a | Tricuspid Regurgitation | Mitral valve Prolapse | Mitral Regurgita- tion | Aortic Sclero- sis | Aortic Stenosis | Hypertrophic Cardiomy- opathy | Tricuspid Stenosis | Pulmonary Regurgita- tion | Mitral Stenosis | Aortic Regurgitation |
| Inspection | Dyspnea Cyanosis Cachexia Jaundice | Pectus excavatum Marfan scoliosis | Dyspnea | Normal | Dyspnea Sustained apex | Dyspnea Double apex | Normal | Dyspnea | Mitral facies Cyanosis Dyspnea | Argyll Robertson Marfan Ank. spond |
| Radial pulse | Irregular (AF) | Normal | Irregular (AF) | Normal | Brachio- radial delay | Brisk | Irregular (AF) | Normal | Irregular (AF) | Water- hammer |

MURMURS (CONT'D)

| Systolic m | urmurs | | | | | | Diastolic n | nurmurs | | |
|---|--|---|--|---|--|--|--|---|--|--|
| BP | Normal | Normal | Normal | Normal | Narrow PP | Normal | Normal | Normal | Narrow PP | Wide PP |
| Carotid | Normal | Normal | Bounding Irregular (AF) | Normal | Pulsus parvus et tardus | Brisk bifid | Irregular (AF) | Normal | Irregular (AF) | Bounding/ collapsing pulse |
| JVP | Increased V wave Prominent a wave PAH, no a wave (AF) | Normal | Absent a wave (AF) | Normal | Normal | Prominent a wave | Promi- nent a wave, slow y descent, absent a wave (AF) | Prominent a wave PAH | Absent a wave (AF) Prominent a wave PAH, cv wave (TR) | Normal |
| Palpation | Palpable P2 PAH, thrill RV heave | Normal | Enlarged, displaced apex, thrill RV heave | Normal | Sustained apex, thrill LV heave | Double apical impulse Thrill LV heave | Normal | Palpable P2 PAH, thrill RV heave | RV heave Palpable P2 PAH | Sustained, displaced apex, thrill LV heave |
| S1 ^b | Soft | Normal | Soft | Normal | Normal | Normal | Wide splitting S1 | Normal | Loud S1 | Split (chronic) Absent (acute |
| 52 ^b | Loud PAH | Normal | Normal | Normal | Paradoxi- cal split, soft | Paradoxical split | Normal | Loud PAH | Palpable P2 PAH | Soft |
| S3 | R sided | Normal | L sided | Normal | Normal | L sided | Normal | R sided | Absent | L sided |
| S4 | None | Normal | Normal | Normal | L sided | L sided | Normal | R sided | Normal | L sided |
| Clicks or snaps | None | Mid- systolic click | None | None | Early systolic click | None | Opening snap (LLSB) | None | Opening snap (apex) | None |
| Murmur ^c | LLSB High pitch Holosystolic | Apex High pitch Late systolic | Apex High pitch Holo sys- tolic | RUSB High pitch Mid- systolic | RUSB High pitch Mid-systolic | LLSB, apex High pitch Mid-systolic | LLSB Low pitch Mid- diastolic | LUSB High pitch Early diastolic | Apex Low pitch Mid- diastolic ^e | RUSB High pitch Early diastolic |
| Radiation | Xyphoid | None | Axilla | None | Clavicle Carotids | Base of heart | None | None | None | Apex Sternum |
| Maneuvers | ↑ inspiration, sustained abdominal pressure | ↑ standing, Valsalva ^d ↓ squatting | ↑ isometric, transient art. occlusion | None | ↑ squatting, leg raise ↓ standing, Valsalva, isometric | ↑ standing, Valsalva ↓ squatting | ↑ inspiration | ↑ inspiration | † isometric ↓ standing, Valsalva | ↑ isometric, transient art. occlusion Best heard sitting up in end expiration |
| Other associated murmurs/ clinical features | Graham Steell murmur PAH Ascites, pulsatile liver, edema | Mitral regurgita- tion (holosystolic at apex) | Pulmonary edema | None | Galla- vardin phenom- enon (mid-systolic murmur at apex) | Mitral regurgitation (mid-systolic at apex) | Mitral stenosis may also be present | PR murmur called Graham Steell m. if secondary to PAH | Pulmo- nary and tricuspid regurg. Murmurs PAH | Austin Flint Murmur (mid-diastolic over apex) Mid-systolic flow m Other signs ^f |

Not all findings listed for each condition may be present on examination

"Loud heart sounds are usually due to mild-moderate stenotic lesions, while light heart sounds are usually due to regurgitant or severe stenotic lesions

Regurgitant murmurs usually start early, while stenotic murmurs tend to start mid-way

^dFor mitral valve prolapse, maneuvers that increase murmur intensity also move both the click and murmur closer to S1

°For mitral stenosis, the murmur is classically described as mid-diastolic with presystolic accentuation

All the following special signs for aortic regurgitation are related to increased pulse pressure. These include Quincke sign (pulsatile refin] in capillary bed of finger nails), Becker sign (pulsatile retinal artery), deMusset sign (head bob), Mueller sign (pulsatile uvula), Mayne sign (DBP 1 15 mmHg with arm raised), Gerhardt sign (pulsatile spleen), Rosenbach sign (pulsatile liver), Traube sign (pistol shot sound over femoral arteries), Durzizez sign (femoral artery bruit with compression), Hill sign (poplited ISBP > brachial SBP by 60 mmHg)

MURMURS (CONT'D)

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE AN ABNORMAL SYSTOLIC MURMUR?

AORTIC STENOSIS—presence of any of following significantly increases the likelihood of aortic stenosis: effort syncope, slow carotid upstroke, late or mid peaking systolic murmur, decreased or absent 52, apical-carotid delay, brachioradial delay."The presence of AS requires detection of a systolic murmur, generally radiating to the right clavicle."

Update for Clinical Signs for Detecting Aortic Stenosis

| | LNT | LU- |
|-----------------------------------|-----|------|
| Slow carotid upstroke | 9.2 | 0.56 |
| Murmur radiating to right carotid | 8.1 | 0.29 |
| Reduced or absent S2 | 7.5 | 0.50 |
| Murmur over the right clavicle | 3.0 | 0.10 |
| Reduced carotid volume | 2.0 | 0.64 |

Simel et al. *The Rational Clinical Examination*. McGraw-Hill; 2009

MITRAL REGURGITATION—"For cardiologists, absence of a mitral area murmur or a late systolic/holosystolic murmur significantly reduces the likelihood of mitral regurgitation, except in the setting of acute MI. Cardiologists can accurately distinguish left-sided regurgitant murmurs, such as mitral regurgitation and ventricular septal defect, using transient arterial occlusion."

TRICUSPID REGURGITATION—"Cardiologists can accurately detect the murmur of tricuspid regurgitation. Cardiologists can accurately rule in and rule out tricuspid regurgitation using the quiet inspiration and sustained abdominal pressure maneuvers."

MURMURS (CONT'D)

HYPERTROPHIC CARDIOMYOPATHY— "Cardiologists can rule in or rule out hypertrophic cardiomyopathy by evaluating for decreased murmur intensity with passive leg elevation or increased murmur intensity when the patient goes from a squatting to standing position."

MITRAL VALVE PROLAPSE—"A systolic click, with or without systolic murmur, is sufficient for the diagnosis of mitral valve prolapse.... The absence of both a systolic click and murmur significantly reduces the likelihood of echocardiographic mitral valve prolapse. In patients with echocardiographic mitral valve prolapse, a holosystolic murmur without a systolic click significantly increases the likelihood of long term complications, whereas absence of both a systolic click and murmur significantly reduces the likelihood of long term complications"

Etchells et al. JAMA 1997;277(7)

INNOCENT MURMURS—in otherwise healthy younger patients. Systolic murmurs tend to be mid-systolic, grade 1 or 2 (possibly 3), loudest over LUSB, and do not radiate. Murmurs that are associated with systolic thrill (LR+ 12), holosystolic (LR+ 8.7), loud (LR+ 6.5), or plateau-shaped (LR+ 4.1) are more likely to be significant. Diastolic murmurs are always abnormal

INVESTIGATIONS

ECHOCARDIOGRAM—if cardiac symptoms, murmur grade ≥3, diastolic murmur, or when other cardiac findings are present

Aortic Stenosis

2014 AHA/ACC Valvular Heart Disease Guideline 2017 AHA/ACC Focused Update Valvular Heart Disease Carabello et al. *Lancet* 2009;373(9667) Carabello *NEJM* 2002;346(9)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

VALVULAR

- congenital malformations—unicuspid, bicuspid
- calcification—degenerative or senile, atherosclerosis, Paget disease, chronic renal failure

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

- INFECTIONS—rheumatic fever, Chlamydia pneumoniae
- RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

SUBVALVULAR

- DISCRETE LESIONS—membranous diaphragm, fibromuscular ring
- obstructive—hypertrophic cardiomyopathy
 SUPRAVALVULAR—localized or discrete narrowing of the ascending aorta (Williams
 syndrome)

LOW GRADIENT AORTIC STENOSIS—resulting from low cardiac output

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

COMPLICATIONS ★ BEE ★

- BLEEDING (angiodysplasia + aortic stenosis + acquired vWD type IIa = Heyde syndrome)
- ENDOCARDITIS
- емволсе events (cerebral, systemic)

CLINICAL FEATURES

PHYSICAL—tachypnea, decreased pulse pressure, brachioradial delay, pulsus parvus et tardus (slow rise and low amplitude), apical-carotid delay, hyperdynamic apical beat, systolic thrill at the base of heart, narrowly split or paradoxical splitting of S2 or absent S2, harsh mid-systolic ejection murmur (radiation to carotids), Gallavardin phenomenon

GALLAVARDIN PHENOMENON—aortic stenosis murmur is usually harsh and loudest over the right upper sternal border, whereas a Gallavardin murmur is musical and may be heard over apex. It is due to radiation of the highfrequency components of the aortic stenosis murmur to the apex

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN AORTIC SCLEROSIS AND AORTIC STENOSIS MURMUR

| | Aortic sclerosis | Aortic stenosis |
|-----------------|---|---------------------------------------|
| Pathophysiology | Abnormally thickened valve leaflets but | Decreased functional area of valve to |
| | minimal outflow obstruction | cause decreased outflow |
| Carotid pulse | Normal | Pulsus parvus et tardus |
| S2 | Normal | Soft single S2 (P2) |
| Murmur | Mid-systolic murmur | Late peaking of systolic murmur |

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN AORTIC STENOSIS, MITRAL REGURGITATION, AND HYPERTROPHIC CARDIOMYOPATHY

| | Aortic stenosis | Mitral regurgitation | НОСМ |
|------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|----------------|
| Carotid upstroke | Slow, low amplitude | Normal or low amplitude | Brisk |
| S1 | Normal | Soft | Normal |
| S2 | Single if severe | Normal | Often reversed |
| S3 | No | Loud | No |
| S4 | If severe | No | Yes |
| Loudest murmur | RUSB | Apex | LLSB and apex |
| Maneuvers | | | |
| Standing | \downarrow | \downarrow | 1 |
| Squatting | 1 | 1 | \downarrow |
| Valsalva | \downarrow | \downarrow | 1 |

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- CXR
- ECHOCARDIOGRAM—TTE to evaluate etiology and assess severity
- ECG—left ventricular hypertrophy
- **EXERCISE TESTING**—may help quantify symptoms but contraindicated in severe AS

SPECIAL

 CARDIAC CATHETERIZATION—to assess valve area and hemodynamics

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

AORTIC VALVE AREA AND SEVERITY

- NORMAL = peak velocity <2 m/s, area = 3-4 cm²
- MILD = peak velocity 2.0–2.9 m/s, mean gradient <20 mmHg, area = 1.5–2 cm²
- MODERATE = peak velocity 3.0–3.9 m/s, mean gradient 20–39 mmHg, area = 1–1.5 cm²
- severe = peak velocity ≥4 m/s, mean gradient >40 mmHg, area = ≤1 cm² (or indexed area ≤0.6 cm²/m²)
- syмpтомs—usually do not appear until valve ≤1 cm². The significance of valve area depends on patient size (larger patient=more severe for same valve area)
- PROGRESSION—valve area decreases by ~0.1 cm²/year and the mean gradient increases by 7 mmHg/year (particularly if cardiac risk factors)

PROGNOSIS OF AORTIC STENOSIS \star ASH \star

(Angina, Syncope, Heart failure)

- SEVERE AORTIC STENOSIS WITH NO SYMPTOMS— 1–2% die in short period
- SEVERE AORTIC STENOSIS WITH ANGINA PRESENTA-TION—50% die in 5 years
- SEVERE AORTIC STENOSIS WITH SYNCOPE PRESENTA-TION—50% die in 3 years
- SEVERE AORTIC STENOSIS WITH HEART FAILURE PRE-SENTATION—50% die in 2 years
- SEVERE AORTIC STENOSIS AFTER VALVE REPLACE-MENT—survival similar to normal individuals

MANAGEMENT

MILD OR MODERATE AORTIC STENOSIS-

follow clinically and with echocardiogram (every 3–5 years for mild, every 1–2 years for moderate, every year for severe)

SEVERE OR SYMPTOMATIC AORTIC STENOSIS—aortic valve replacement (transcatheter or surgical, see criteria below), balloon valvuloplasty (offers no survival benefit and is only a temporizing measure until surgical or percutaneous aortic valve replacement can be performed)

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

VASODILATORS—use with caution in the setting of hypertension or HF. ACE inhibitors preferred over β -blockers because of risk of reduced inotropy; start low dose and titrate slowly; risk of hypotension and syncope

TREATMENT ISSUES

AORTIC VALVE REPLACEMENT (AVR)

- RECOMMENDED INDICATIONS (CLASS I)—if severe AS with symptoms of HF, syncope, exertional dyspnea, angina, or presyncope (by history or on exercise testing); asymptomatic severe AS and LVEF <50%; or severe AS and undergoing cardiac surgery for other reasons
- REASONABLE INDICATIONS (CLASS II a)—if asymptomatic but very severe AS (i.e. peak velocity ≥5 m/s or mean gradient ≥60 mmHg); severe AS and exercise test with ↓ exercise tolerance or ↓ in SBP; symptomatic low-flow/low-gradient severe AS (i.e. valve area ≤1 cm²) with LVEF <50%, and severe/high gradients on dobutamine stress test; symptomatic low-flow/low-gradient severe AS (i.e. valve area ≤1 cm²) with LVEF <50% and valve obstruction as most likely cause of symptoms (based on clinical, hemodynamic, and anatomic data); or moderate AS and undergoing cardiac surgery for other reasons
- POSSIBLE INDICATIONS (CLASS II b)—if severe AS and rapid disease progression and low surgical risk
- PREOPERATIVE CONSULT—AVR should be done before elective non-cardiac surgeries in symptomatic patients
- RISK OF AVR—mortality 1–2%, morbidity 1%/ year (venous thromboembolic disease, bleeding, deterioration of prosthetic valve, endocarditis)

SURGICAL VS. TRANSCATHETER VALVE transcatheter aortic valve replacement (TAVR) should be considered for patients with an indication for AVR who have intermediate-to-high or prohibitive risk for surgical AVR. A multidisciplinary heart valve team should collaborate in the decision making process

MECHANICAL VS. BIOPROSTHETIC VALVE compared to human tissue valves, mechanical valves have prolonged durability, but higher chance of thromboembolism and bleeding from chronic anticoagulation. Overall, long-term outcomes are better with a mechanical valve. Main indications for bioprosthesis valve include patients who cannot or will not tolerate warfarin or for whom compliance is uncertain, patients ≥65 years of age who do not have risk factors for thromboembolism, and women of childbearing age

Aortic Regurgitation

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

VALVE ABNORMALITY—rheumatic heart disease, infective endocarditis, SLE, calcifications, congenital (bicuspid or unicuspid aortic valve), flail leaflet, osteogenesis imperfecta, drugs (fenfluramine)

AORTIC DILATION—aortic dissection, ankylosing spondylitis, syphilis, Marfan, Ehlers Danlos, hypertension, bicuspid aortic valve, cystic medial necrosis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—leaky aortic valve \rightarrow initial compensation with left ventricular dilatation and eccentric hypertrophy (palpitations, atypical chest pain), wide pulse pressure (due to increased stroke volume with elevation in SBP and regurgitation with rapid collapse of the arteries and a low diastolic blood pressure) \rightarrow eventually decompensation leading to left ventricular dysfunction (heart failure)

CLINICAL FEATURES

PHYSICAL

- GENERAL APPEARANCE—Marfan syndrome, ankylosing spondylitis, Quincke sign (pulsatile refill in capillary bed of finger nails), digital throb, Becker sign (visible pulsations of the retinal arteries and pupils), deMusset sign (head bob occurring with each heart beat), Müller sign (systolic pulsations of the uvula)
- vITALS—wide pulse pressure, "water hammer" or Corrigan pulse (tapping impulse in forearm, especially when arm is raised vertically due to rapid rise and fall in pressure), Mayne sign (>15 mmHg decrease in diastolic

2014 AHA/ACC Valvular Heart Disease Guideline

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

blood pressure with arm elevation above the head)

- CARDIAC—soft S1, left-sided S3 (heart failure), diastolic murmur (early diastolic or holodiastolic, blowing, over left upper sternal border), Austin Flint murmur (mid/late diastolic rumble, over apex) and mid-systolic flow murmur
- OTHERS—Gerhardt sign (systolic pulsations of the spleen), Rosenbach sign (systolic pulsations of the liver), Traube sign (pistol shot pulse with systolic and diastolic sounds heard over the femoral arteries when compressed distally), Duroziez sign (systolic and diastolic bruit heard when the femoral artery is partially compressed), Hill sign (popliteal cuff systolic pressure exceeding brachial pressure by >60 mmHg). Note that all the special signs are due to increased pulse pressure

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN AORTIC REGURGITATION AND PULMO-NARY REGURGITATION MURMUR

- PULMONARY REGURGITATION MURMUR—high pitch decrescendo diastolic murmur (Graham Steell murmur) loudest over left upper sternal border. Increases with inspiration. May be associated with signs of pulmonary hypertension
- AORTIC REGURGITATION MURMUR—early diastolic decrescendo murmur loudest over right and/or left upper sternal border. No change or decreases with inspiration. May be associated with Austin Flint murmur and the other signs of aortic regurgitation

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN AUSTIN FLINT AND MITRAL STENOSIS MURMUR

Sex Hemoptysis Rhythm M1 P2 Ventricular gallop/S3 Diastolic murmur

Opening snap CXR ECG M > F Almost never Sinus Usually faint Normal or ↑ Always present Usually early or mid-diastolic

Austin Flint

Absent Boot shaped Sinus, LVH, prolonged PR Mitral stenosis F > M Likely mitral stenosis Atrial fibrillation Usually loud Usually loud Absent Often presystolic accentuation (if in sinus rhythm) Present LAE Atrial fibrillation, P mitrale
INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- **CXR**—cardiomegaly ± aortic root dilatation
- ECHOCARDIOGRAM—TTE to evaluate etiology and assess severity
- ECG—LVH
- ECG—LVH
- EXERCISE TESTING—may help quantify symptoms

SPECIAL

 CARDIAC CATHETERIZATION—to assess valve area and hemodynamics

PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

ASYMPTOMATIC WITH NORMAL LV SYSTOLIC FUNCTION

 PROGNOSIS—development of symptoms and/or LV dysfunction <6%/year; asymptomatic LV dysfunction <3.5%/year; sudden death <0.2%/year

ASYMPTOMATIC WITH LV DYSFUNCTION

 PROGNOSIS—progression to cardiac symptoms >25%/year

SYMPTOMATIC

PROGNOSIS—mortality >10%/year

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE CONSIDERATIONS—with acute AR, immediate priority is to rule out life-threatening etiologies (e.g. aortic dissection, myocardial infraction, and severe valvular endocarditis)

LIFESTYLE CHANGES—salt restriction/diuretics

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

MEDICATIONS—afterload reduction with vasodilators (nifedipine, ACE inhibitors, ARBs) indicated for severe AR with symptoms, LV dysfunction, or LV dilatation, but not for long-term management of asymptomatic mild to moderate AR and normal LV function. Vasoconstricting agents should be avoided as they can worsen the degree of AR

FOLLOW-UP—asymptomatic mild AR with normal LV function and little/no LV dilatation can be followed annually with clinical exam and echocardiogram every 2–3 years (sooner if symptoms emerge). Asymptomatic severe AR with normal LV function and LV dilatation (>60 mm) should be seen every 6 months with echocardiogram every 6–12 months **PROCEDURES**—intraaortic balloon pumps

should be avoided

AORTIC VALVE REPLACEMENT (AVR)

- RECOMMENDED INDICATIONS (CLASS I)—if symptomatic severe AR; asymptomatic chronic severe AR (regurgitant fraction ≥50%, regurgitant volume ≥60 mL/beat, Doppler jet width ≥65% of LVOT) and LVEF <50%; or severe AR and undergoing cardiac surgery for other reasons
- REASONABLE INDICATIONS (CLASS IIa)—if asymptomatic severe AR with normal LVEF ≥50% but severe LV dilatation (LVESD >50 mm); or moderate AR and undergoing other cardiac surgery
- POSSIBLE INDICATIONS (CLASS IIb)—if asymptomatic severe AR and normal LVEF ≥50% but with progressive severe LV dilatation (LVEDD >65 mm) and low surgical risk

Mitral Stenosis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

RHEUMATIC HEART DISEASE MITRAL ANNULAR CALCIFICATION CONGENITAL ENDOCARDITIS ATRIAL MYXOMA PROSTHETIC VALVE DYSFUNCTION COR TRIATRIATUM

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

STENOTIC MITRAL VALVE—left ventricular inlet obstruction \rightarrow left atrial overload and left ventricle output failure \rightarrow atrial fibrillation, pulmonary hypertension and eventually right heart failure

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—symptoms related to pulmonary hypertension (dyspnea, hemoptysis, chest pain), symptoms related to right heart failure (hepatomegaly,

Gerber et al. *Circulation* 2009;119(11) 2014 AHA/ACC Valvular Heart Disease Guideline

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

ascites, edema), hoarseness (Ortner syndrome, due to enlarged left atrium compressing on recurrent laryngeal nerve), complications (endocarditis, thromboembolism), past medical history (congenital valvular heart disease, rheumatic fever, connective tissue diseases [e.g. lupus]), medications

PHYSICAL

- GENERAL APPEARANCE—tachypnea, peripheral cyanosis, mitral facies (purple patches on cheeks secondary to vasoconstriction)
- vitals—decreased pulse volume
- JVP—prominent a wave (pulmonary hypertension), absent a wave (atrial fibrillation), cv wave (tricuspid regurgitation)
- CARDIAC—right ventricular heave, palpable P2 (pulmonary hypertension), loud S1 (valve cusps widely apart at the onset of systole) in early disease, soft S1 in severe disease (valves

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

rigid), loud S2, absent S3, opening snap (over apex and left lower sternal border; the earlier the opening snap, the more severe the stenosis), low pitch diastolic rumble (over apex, left decubitus position in expiration) \pm pre-systolic accentuation, tricuspid regurgitation

ABDOMINAL—hepatomegaly, ascites, edema

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- CXR—signs of left atrial enlargement (splaying of carina, double density sign, prominent left atrial appendage, narrowing of the esophagus with barium swallow)
- ECHOCARDIOGRAM—TTE to evaluate etiology and assess severity. TEE to exclude left atrial thrombus before treatment
- **ECG**—left atrial enlargement, ± RVH or atrial fibrillation

SPECIAL

 CARDIAC CATHETERIZATION—to assess valve area and hemodynamics

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

MITRAL STENOSIS AND SEVERITY

- PROGRESSIVE—evidence of mitral stenosis but not significant; mitral valve area (MVA) remains >1.5 cm², diastolic pressure half-time <150 ms
- SEVERE—MVA ≤1.5 cm² (MVA ≤1.0 cm² with very severe MS), diastolic pressure half-time ≥150 ms (diastolic pressure half-time ≥220 ms with very severe MS); associated with severe left atrial enlargement and pulmonary artery systolic pressure >30 mmHg. Note: transmitral mean gradient often >5–10 mmHg but mean pressure gradient varies greatly according to heart rate
- syмpтомs—often present when MVA ≤1.5 cm² (i.e. with severe MS). Onset of symptoms may be precipitated by exercise, emotional stress, infection, pregnancy, or rapid atrial fibrillation

PROGRESSION—approximately 0.1–0.3 cm²/ year. Initially slow stable course (latent period) of 20–40 years between rheumatic fever and symptoms. From onset of symptoms (accelerated period), around 10 years until disability. Overall 10-year survival is 50–60% in untreated symptomatic MS, >80% in asymptomatic. Median survival <3 years with severe pulmonary hypertension

MANAGEMENT

LIFESTYLE CHANGES—salt restriction/diuretics MEDICATIONS—negative chronotropic agents and HR control to prolong diastolic filling (β-blockers, non-dihydropyridine calcium channel blockers). Anticoagulation for patients with

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

moderate-severe MS and concomitant atrial fibrillation (irrespective of CHADS₂ score), left atrial thrombus, or prior embolic event (even if in sinus rhythm). **Prophylaxis for rheumatic fever** (secondary prevention)

FOLLOW-UP—any change in symptoms warrant reevaluation and echocardiogram. Otherwise, yearly evaluation in asymptomatic patients including CXR and ECG. Yearly echocardiogram for severe MS

PROCEDURES—indicated when symptomatic severe mitral stenosis. Percutaneous balloon mitral valvuloplasty (particularly for patients with non-calcified mitral valve, no left atrial thrombus, mild mitral regurgitation, and no other cardiac interventions) is equivalent to surgical valvuloplasty in terms of success; surgical repair or replacement favoured if percutaneous approach contraindicated. Average increase in valve area is 1.0 cm²

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

ACUTE RHEUMATIC FEVER AND RHEU-MATIC HEART DISEASE

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—group A Streptococcus infection → non-suppurative inflammation with cardiac, joints, and CNS manifestations 2–4 weeks later. Post-Streptococcus glomerulonephritis and scarlet fever may also occur separately as complications of group A Streptococcus infection
 - JONES CRITERIA for acute rheumatic fever
 - MAJOR CRITERIA ★J♥NES★
 - JOINT-MIGRATORY POLYARTHRITIS
 - VCARDITIS (pericarditis, myocarditis, valvulitis)
 - NODULES (subcutaneous)
 - ERYTHEMA MARGINATUM
 - SYDENHAM CHOREA
 - MINOR CRITERIA—clinical (fever, polyarthralgias), laboratory (↑ ESR, prolonged PR interval)
 - DIAGNOSIS—either two major criteria or one major criterion and two minor criteria, plus evidence of antecedent streptococcal infection (e.g. positive throat culture or rapid antigen detection test or elevated streptococcal antibody test)
- INVESTIGATIONS—anti-streptolysin O antibodies, anti-DNase B, antihyaluronidase, positive throat culture, echocardiogram
- TREATMENTS—patients with rheumatic disease are at high risk of recurrent rheumatic fever. Recurrent disease causes additional valve damage, and thus these patients should receive secondary prophylaxis for rheumatic fever (benzathine penicillin G 1.2 M U IM

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

q4weeks, *penicillin V* 250 mg PO BID, or *azithryomycin* 250 mg PO daily if allergic to penicillin). For patients with valvular involvement, therapy should continue for at least 10

Mitral Regurgitation

 persistent valvular disease, treat for 10 years, or until age 21 (whichever is longer)

years, or until age 40 (whichever is longer).

With a history of carditis in the absence of

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

2014 AHA/ACC Valvular Heart Disease Guideline 2017 AHA/ACC Focused Update Valvular Heart Disease

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PRIMARY MR (VALVE ABNORMALITY) rheumatic heart disease, infective endocarditis, mitral valve prolapse, myxomatous degeneration (Barlow valve), fibroelastic deficiency disease, mitral annular calcification, ruptured chordae tendineae, drugs (fenfluramine), congenital, iatrogenic

SECONDARY MR (LEFT VENTRICULAR DILATATION)—myocardial infarction, dilated cardiomyopathy

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

LEAKY MITRAL VALVE—left atrial and ventricle volume overload → atrial fibrillation and left heart failure

CLINICAL FEATURES

CLINICAL FEATURES—exertional dyspnea, fatigue, decreased S1, widely split S2, S3, holosystolic murmur (over apex), displaced and enlarged apex

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- CXR—cardiomegaly, LAE
- ECHOCARDIOGRAM—TTE to evaluate etiology and assess severity
- ECG—LAE, LVH ± atrial fibrillation
- SPECIAL
- CARDIAC CATHETERIZATION—to assess valve area and hemodynamics

MANAGEMENT

MEDICATIONS—in acute decompensated MR, priority is to identify and treat the underlying etiology (e.g. acute myocardial infarction, infectious endocarditis), reducing afterload (e.g. nitroprusside), and avoiding vasoconstrictive agents. Treat concomitant atrial fibrillation if present

FOLLOW-UP—asymptomatic mild MR with normal LV function and no LV dilatation can be followed annually. Asymptomatic severe MR should be seen every 6–12 months with echocardiogram at the time of assessment

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

PROCEDURES—mitral valve repair (generally better outcome if technically possible) or replacement if symptomatic, atrial fibrillation, pulmonary hypertension, end-systolic dimension ≥40 mm, or LVEF 30–60%. Transcatheter mitral valve repair may be considered for severely symptomatic, severe primary MR with prohibitive surgical risk

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

TRICUSPID REGURGITATION

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—leaky tricuspid valve → right atrium and ventricle volume overload → eventually decompensation leading to right heart failure (hepatosplenomegaly, ascites, peripheral edema)
- CAUSES—right ventricular dilatation (left heart failure, pulmonary hypertension, Eisenmenger syndrome, pulmonic stenosis), valve abnormality (rheumatic heart disease, infective endocarditis, Ebstein anomaly, tumor). Rarely is it due to isolated tricuspid valve abnormality
- CLINICAL FEATURES—cachexia, jaundice (congestive hepatomegaly), JVP cv wave, RV heave, S3 (with dilated RV), S4 (with stiff RV), holosystolic murmur (over left lower sternal border), edema
- INVESTIGATIONS—ECG (right atrial enlargement, RVH ± atrial arrhythmias), CXR (cardiomegaly), echocardiogram (TTE to evaluate etiology and assess severity), cardiac catheterization (to assess valve hemodynamics and rule out intracardiac shunts)
- TREATMENTS—valve repair or replacement especially if severe and symptomatic

MITRAL VALVE PROLAPSE

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—prevalence 0.6–2.5% of population. May be sporadic or familial connective tissue disorder with morphologic abnormalities of the mitral valve (increased leaflet thickness and redundancy, chordal elongation, and sagging of the leaflets into the left atrium in systole)
- TREATMENTS—consider anticoagulation for AF based on stroke risk (see ATRIAL FIBRILLATION, p. 48)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

TWO SUBTYPES OF MITRAL VALUE PROLAPSE

| | Mild subtype | Severe subtype |
|-------------------|--------------------------------------|--|
| Demographics | Mainly women (age 20–50) | Mainly men (age 40–70) |
| Pathology | Mild leaflet abnormalities | Myxomatous disease |
| | Minimal MR | Considerable leaflet thickening and MR |
| Symptoms | Orthostatic hypotension | Atrial fibrillation |
| | Palpitations | |
| Physical findings | Mid-systolic click with or without a | MR murmur |
| | late systolic murmur | Chordal rupture may lead to sudden worsening of MR |
| Prognosis | Few patients have progressive MR | Progressive MR requiring surgery Increased risk of sudden death |

Endocarditis

2015 AHA Scientific Statement Infective Endocarditis 2017 AHA/ACC Focused Update Valvular Heart Disease Mylonakis et al. *NEJM* 2001;345(18)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

INFECTIVE ENDOCARDITIS

- COMMON—Streptococcus viridans (S. sanguinis, S. mutans, S. mitis), S. pneumoniae, Streptococcus bovis, Enterococcus (E. faecalis, E. faecium), S. aureus, Gram-negative bacilli
- LONG INCUBATION TIME (7–21) days ★HACEK★
 - HAEMOPHILUS
 - ACTINOBACILLUS
 - CARDIOBACTERIUM
 - EIKENELLA
 - KINGELLA
- SPECIAL MEDIA—Mycoplasma, Chlamydia, Legionella, Brucella, Bartonella, Coxiella burnetii (Q fever), Histoplasma, Tropheryma whippelei, fungi

MARANTIC ENDOCARDITIS—non-bacterial thrombotic endocarditis secondary to malignancy (usually adenocarcinoma) or SLE (Libman–Sacks endocarditis)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

SUBTYPES—classified as acute vs. subacute, native valve vs. prosthetic valve, and right sided vs. left sided

- NATIVE HEART VALVE—usually S. viridans, S. bovis, enterococci
- PROSTHETIC HEART VALVE—<2 months (usually coagulase negative staphylococci, may need to treat surgically), >1 year (usually S. viridans, S. bovis, enterococci)
- INJECTION DRUG USE—usually S. aureus and Gramnegative rods. Can also have fungal endocarditis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

(especially if immunocompromised). Tricuspid valve most commonly affected

 cancer—about 50% of patients with S. bovis endocarditis also have neoplasms of the GI tract

RISK FACTORS FOR ENDOCARDITIS

- HIGH RISK—complex cyanotic congenital heart disease (unrepaired or incompletely repaired cyanotic congenital heart disease, including palliative shunts and conduits; completely repaired congenital heart defect with prosthetic material or device, whether placed by surgery or by catheter intervention, during the first 6 months after the procedure; repaired congenital heart disease with residual defects at the site or adjacent to the site of a prosthetic patch or prosthetic device), surgically constructed systemic pulmonary shunts, previous infective endocarditis, prosthetic heart valve, cardiac transplantation recipients who develop cardiac valvulopathy
- MODERATE RISK—most other congenital heart diseases, acquired valvular disease (rheumatic heart disease, mitral/aortic/pulmonary/tricuspid stenosis or regurgitation), mitral valve prolapse with valvular regurgitation or leaflet thickening, hypertrophic cardiomyopathy
- LOW OR NO RISK—secundum ASD or surgically repaired ASD, VSD, PDA, mitral valve prolapse with thin leaflets in the absence of regurgitation, ischemic heart disease, previous CABG
- NON-CARDIAC—IDU, poor dental hygiene, longterm hemodialysis, long-term indwelling catheter, procedures (GU, GI, surgical wound infection), diabetes, HIV, immunocompromise

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—fever, murmur, dyspnea, chest pain, anorexia, weight loss, malaise, night sweats, complications (painful nodules, rash, stroke, myocardial infarction, any infections), past medical history (structural heart disease, recent procedures [dental, Gl, GU], IDU, SLE, malignancy, immunocompromised state), medications

PHYSICAL—fever, splinter hemorrhages, clubbing, Osler nodes (tender, subcutaneous nodules in pulp of digits or thenar eminence), Janeway lesions (nontender, erythematous, hemorrhagic pustular lesions on palms or soles), needle track marks, petechiae over conjunctivae and oral mucosa, Roth spots (pale areas surrounded by hemorrhage on fundoscopic examination), lymphadenopathy, respiratory examination (HF), murmur (regurgitant), splenomegaly, petechiae over legs

HIGH INDEX OF SUSPICION—always consider endocarditis in the differential when dealing with fever of unknown origin, persistent bacteremia, HF, MI, myocarditis, pericarditis, stroke, pneumonia, pulmonary embolism, splenic infarction, glomerulonephritis, septic arthritis, and osteomyelitis. All patients with *S. aureus* bacteremia should undergo echocardiography (25% have IE)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, LDH, ESR, ANA, serology (HBV, HCV, HIV), urinalysis
- MICROBIOLOGY—blood C&S×3 (endocarditis protocol and blood C&S×2 daily until culture negative), sputum Gram stain/AFB/C&S, urine C&S, stool C&S, O&P, C. diff toxin A/B
- IMAGING—CXR, echocardiogram (TEE >TTE), CT chest/abd
- ECG—heart block

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

MODIFIED DUKE'S CRITERIA

- MAJOR—positive blood culture × 2 (or, if *C. burnetii*, then positive blood culture × 1 or antiphase 1 IgG antibody titer ≥1:800), echocardiographic evidence (oscillating intracardiac mass, abscess, new partial dehiscence of a prosthetic valve), new murmur
- MINOR—fever (>38 °C [100.4 °F]), risk factor (cardiac conditions, IDU), vascular phenomena (major arterial emboli, septic pulmonary infarcts, mycotic aneurysm, intracranial hemorrhage, conjunctival hemorrhages, Janeway lesions), immunologic phenomena (glo-

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

merulonephritis, Osler nodes, Roth spots, rheumatoid factor), **positive blood culture** not meeting major criteria

 DIAGNOSIS—likely endocarditis if 2 major, 1 major plus 3 minor, or 5 minor criteria

ECHOCARDIOGRAM—transesophageal echocardiogram (TEE sens 90–100%, spc 95–100%) preferred over transthoracic echocardiogram (TTE sens 50–80%, spc 90%) for detecting vegetations, perivalvular extension of infection and abscesses, diagnosing prosthetic valve endocarditis, and for differentiating between uncomplicated *S. aureus* bacteremia and endocarditis

PROGNOSIS—mortality of 25–50% for prosthetic valve endocarditis, 35% for staphylococcal endocarditis and 10% for streptococcal endocarditis

Related Topics

Aortic Regurgitation (p. 61) Mitral Regurgitation (p. 64) Tricuspid Regurgitation (p. 64)

MANAGEMENT

EMPIRIC ANTIBIOTIC THERAPY—native valve and non-IDU (ampicillin 2 g IV q4h or cloxacillin 2 g IV q4h plus gentamicin 1 mg/kg IV q8h, or vancomycin 1 g IV q12h plus gentamicin 1 mg/kg IV q8h), native valve and IDU (cloxacillin 2 g IV q4h plus gentamicin 1 mg/kg IV q8h or vancomycin 1 g IV q12h plus gentamicin 1 mg/kg IV q8h), prosthetic valve (vancomycin 1 g IV q12h plus gentamicin 1 mg/kg IV q8h plus rifampin 600 mg PO daily)

TARGETED ANTIBIOTIC THERAPY (please refer to the Sanford Guide to Antimicrobial Therapy for up-to-date recommendations)-Streptococci (penicillin G 2-3MU IV q4h or ceftriaxone 2 g IV/IM q24h×4 weeks. Gentamicin 1 mg/kg IV g24h \times 2 weeks may be added in certain circumstances to shorten the course by 2 weeks). Penicillin-sensitive enterococci (ampicillin 2 g IV g4h or vancomycin 1 g IV g12h×4-6 weeks, plus gentamicin 1 mg/kg IV g8h×4-6 weeks for native valve). Penicillin-resistant enterococci (vancomycin 1 g IV q12h×6 weeks, plus gentamicin 1 mg/kg IV g8h \times 6 weeks for native valve); linezolid or daptomycin can be considered in the setting of vancomycin resistance. S. aureus (cloxacillin 2 q IV q4h, or nafcillin or oxacillin 2 q IV q6h, or cefazolin 2 g IV q8h×2-6 weeks

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

[depending on right- or left-sided valve]). MRSA (vancomycin 1 g IV g12h×6 weeks for native valve). HACEK (ceftriaxone 2 g IV/IM g24h or ampicillin-sulbactam 3 g IV g6h or ciprofloxacin 500 mg PO BID×4 weeks). For prosthetic valve infection, therapy is usually longer (by 2-4 weeks) with gentamicin

SURGERY—valvular replacement (<10% reinfection rate. See indications below)

TREATMENT ISSUES

INDICATIONS FOR SURGERY—in the acute period, refractory congestive heart failure due to valve dysfunction secondary to endocarditis is the most important indication. Other indications include perivalvular extension of infection with abscess, fistula, or heart block; failure of antibiotic therapy with persistent bacteremia; infection with fungi or untreatable pathogens; Staphylococci on a prosthetic valve; or recurrent embolic events with persistent vegetation(s) despite appropriate antibiotic therapy. Consider early surgical consult for mobile vegetation(s) >10 mm with or without emboli

OVERALL RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ENDOCARDITIS PROPHYLAXIS—only given to patients with the highest risk of developing endocarditis, which include the following:

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- HIGH-RISK CONDITIONS-prosthetic valve, pros-. thetic material used for valve repair, unrepaired cyanotic congenital heart defect, repaired cyanotic congenital heart defect with residual defects at the site or adjacent to the site of the prosthetic device, completely repaired cyanotic congenital heart defect with prosthetic material or device during first 6 months after procedure. cardiac transplant recipients with valvulopathy. previous endocarditis
- PROCEDURES
 - ORAL CAVITY—dental procedures that involve manipulation of gingival or peripical region of teeth, perforation of oral mucosa
 - RESPIRATORY TRACT—tonsillectomy, adenoidectomy, bronchoscopy with a rigid bronchoscope, or flexible bronchoscopy if biopsied
 - GI/GU TRACT—prophylaxis generally not rec-_ ommended unless have ongoing GI or GU infection at time of instrumentation
- PROPHYLAXIS REGIMENS-give one of the following 30-60 min prior to procedure: amoxicillin 2 a PO, ampicillin 2 a IM/IV, cefazolin 1 a IV/IM, ceftriaxone 1 g IV/IM, cephalexin 2 g PO, clindamycin 600 mg PO/IM/IV, azithromycin 500 mg PO, clarithromycin 500 mg PO

White *NEJM* 2007;356(12)

Peripheral Vascular Disease 2016 AHA/ACC Guideline Peripheral Artery Disease (see also 2005, 2013)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF CLAUDICATION

ARTERIAL

- ATHEROSCLEROSIS
- INTRALUMINAL OCCLUSION-embolism, thrombosis, dissection, adventitial cystic disease, arterial fibrodysplasia, arterial tumor, occluded limb aneurysm
- vasculitis—Takayasu arteritis, temporal arteritis, thromboangiitis obliterans
- VASOSPASM
- **DRUGS**—ergot
- FIBROSIS—iliac endofibrosis, radiation fibrosis, retroperitoneal fibrosis
- TRAUMA

VENOUS-DVT, thrombophlebitis, venous congestion

NEUROPATHIC—spinal stenosis, peripheral neuropathy

OTHERS—arthritis (hips, knees), compartment syndrome, symptomatic Baker cyst

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY-pain, discomfort, or fatigue that occurs in leg muscle with exercise and improves with resting (ischemic intermittent claudication is not sensitive for peripheral vascular disease), age, maximum walking distance, non-healing wounds, trauma, DVT risk factors, past medical history (CAD, HF, AF, stroke, TIA, renal disease, hypertension, cholesterol), medications

PHYSICAL—comprehensive pulse examination of lower extremity

ANKLE BRACHIAL INDEX (ABI)—abnormally high measurement >1.40 associated with noncompressible calcified vessel (and unreliable), 1.00-1.40 normal, 0.91-0.99 borderline, and ≤0.90 abnormal. If ≤0.90 significant narrowing of one or more blood vessels in the legs likely present, <0.8 intermittent claudication, <0.4 resting claudication, <0.25 critical limb ischemia. An ABI that 1 by 20% following exercise

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

is diagnostic of peripheral vascular disease, while a normal ABI following exercise eliminates the diagnosis

 BUERGER TEST—raise legs to 90° with patient in supine position. Check for return of rubor as the legs are lowered. Abnormal if angle of circulation <0° i.e. legs below table)

 DE WEESE TEST—disappearance of previously palpable distal pulses after walking or exercise
 VENOUS INSUFFICIENCY EXAMINATION hemosiderin deposit, pitting edema, dermatitis, cellulitis, ulcer (with prominent granulation tissue over medial malleolus), superficial venous

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

collaterals (DVT), varicose vein (palpate for tenderness or hardness that may suggest thrombophlebitis), Trendelenburg test (helps to determine whether venous reflux is related to the superficial or deep venous system. Occlude a collapsed superficial vein just below the site of suspected reflux from deep to superficial system. With patient standing, observe refilling of vein. Rapid refilling despite occlusion suggests incompetence of valves in the deep venous system, while slow refilling with occlusion and rapid refilling after occlusion is removed suggests incompetence of valves in the superficial venous system)

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THE CLINICAL EXAMINATION PREDICT LOWER EXTREMITY PERIPHERAL ARTERIAL DISEASE?

| | LR+ | LR– |
|--|-----|------|
| History | | |
| Claudication | 3.3 | 0.89 |
| Inspection | | |
| Wounds (ischemic ulcers and gangrene over lateral malleolus, tips of toes, metatarsal heads, bunion) | 5.9 | 0.98 |
| Discolouration | 2.8 | 0.74 |
| Atrophy | - | - |
| Absence of hair | - | - |
| Palpation | | |
| Any palpable pulse abnormality (femoral, popliteal, posterior tibial, dorsalis pedis) | 4.7 | 0.38 |
| Coolness | 5.9 | 0.92 |
| Capillary refill time (firm pressure to planter aspect of great toe for 5 s. Abnormal if >5 s for normal skin) | 1.9 | - |
| Auscultation | | |
| Any bruit (iliac, femoral, popliteal) | 5.6 | 0.39 |

SPECIAL TESTS—**ankle brachial index** (ankle SBP by palpation/Doppler of posterior tibial or dorsalis pedis pulse divided by brachial SBP), **venous filling time** (raise leg to 45° for 1 min with patient supine position for vein to collapse. With patient then sitting up and legs dangling, determine the time for vein to refill. Abnormal if >20 s) (LR+ 3.6, LR- 0.8)

APPROACH—for screening patients who require further testing to diagnose peripheral arterial disease, the most useful individual symptoms and signs are: claudication, femoral bruit, and a pulse abnormality on palpation. The absence of claudication and the presence of normal pulses decrease the likelihood of moderate to severe disease. When considering patients who are symptomatic with leg complaints, the most useful individual findings are the presence of cool skin, the presence of at least 1 bruit, and any palpable pulse abnormality. The absence of any bruit (iliac, femoral and popliteal) and the presence of normal peripheral pulses reduce the likelihood of peripheral arterial disease

Khan et al. JAMA 2006;295(5)

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES OF COMMON CAUSES OF LEG PAIN

Claudication

Spinal stenosis

Lower back pain

 Pain
 Cramp, tiredness

 Sites
 Buttock, hip, thigh, calf, foot

 Worse
 Walking

 Better
 Rest

 Others
 Vascular dx, ↓ pulse

Cramp, tiredness, tingling Buttock, hip, thigh Walking, standing Sitting or change in position

Venous congestion

Tightness, bursting Groin, thigh Walking Leg elevation History of DVT

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, fasting glucose, lipid panel, HbA1C
- ANKLE BRACHIAL INDEX—with or without exercise
- DUPLEX ULTRASOUND
- ECG
- SPECIAL
- CT/MR angiography
- ANGIOGRAPHY

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

DIAGNOSTIC APPROACH—ABI < 0.90 is sufficient for the diagnosis of peripheral arterial disease as it suggests >50% stenosis of peripheral vasculature (sens 90%, spec 98%). Patients with large vessel disease (distal aorta or iliac arteries) may only have abnormal ABI after exercise. Patients with non-compressible vessels (as suggested by ABI >1.30-1.40) should have toebrachial index done. Perform duplex US or CT/MR angiogram if the diagnosis is uncertain or if revascularization is being considered. Digitalsubtraction angiograph remains the aold standard; do not perform invasive or non-invasive anatomic assessment for asymptomatic patients

MANAGEMENT

RISK REDUCTION ★ABCDEFG★

- ASA
- BLOOD PRESSURE CONTROL (see HYPERTENSION p. 70)
- CHOLESTEROL CONTROL (see DYSLIPIDEMIA p. 75)
- DIABETIC CONTROL (see DIABETES p. 365)
- EXERCISE (30–45 min of moderate-intensity exercise 3–4 ×/week)
- FAT REDUCTION (see OBESITY ISSUES p. 449)
- GET GOING TO QUIT SMOKING! (see SMOKING ISSUES p. 490)

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

MEDICAL—**antiplatelet** (ASA 75–325 mg PO daily, *clopidogrel* 75 mg PO daily), high-intensity **statin** (*atorvastatin* 80 mg PO daily), *rosuvas-tatin* 40 mg PO daily). Consider *cilostazol* 100 mg PO BID for life-limiting claudication (in the absence of heart failure). Anticoagulation is not recommended for peripheral vascular disease unless there is another clinical indication for its use (e.g. atrial fibrillation); the benefit of anticoagulation in patients requiring bypass grafting for peripheral vascular disease is uncertain

SURGICAL—revascularization (surgery or percutaneous transluminal angioplasty)

TREATMENT ISSUES

REVASCULARIZATION—indicated for patients with significant functional limitations (lifestyle or jobs) despite maximal lifestyle and medical treatment. Not optimal for patients <40 with atherosclerosis obliterans, with non-disabling symptoms, diabetes, significant coronary risk factors, or other diseases associated with high mortality

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

VASCULAR DISEASE FAMILY—CAD, CVD, PVD, AAA, renal artery stenosis, chronic mesenteric ischemia

ABDOMINAL AORTIC ANEURYSM— U.S. Preventative Services Task Force recommends one-time screening with abdominal US for men 65-75 who have smoked 100 cigarettes or more in their lifetime. Repair is controversial for 4-5 cm [1.6-2 in.]; >5 cm [>2 in.] warrants surgical intervention (risk of spontaneous rupture is 22%/year). Monitor lesions $\leq 5 \text{ cm} [\leq 2 \text{ in.}]$ with ultrasound regularly (every 6 months if lesions 4 cm [1.6 in.], more frequent for bigger lesions). Operative mortality is 4-6% for elective repair, 19% for urgent repair, and 50% for repair of a ruptured aneurysm. No driving if AAA >6 cm [2.4 in.] in men, >5.5 cm [2.2 in.] in women

Hypertension

2020 Hypertension Canada Guidelines 2017 ACC/AHA Hypertension Guideline

2014 JNC8 Hypertension Guidelines

August NEJM 2003;348(7); Moser et al. NEJM 2006;355(4); Chobanian NEJM 2007;357(8)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

ESSENTIAL HYPERTENSION RENAL

- RENAL PARENCHYMAL DISEASE—chronic renal failure, polycystic kidney disease
- RENAL VASCULAR DISEASE—atherosclerosis, fibromuscular dysplasia, scleroderma, vasculitis

ENDOCRINE

- ADRENAL—primary aldosteronism, Cushing syndrome, pheochromocytoma
- "PSEUDO-ADRENAL"—Liddle syndrome, apparent mineralocorticoid excess syndrome, Gordon syndrome, reninoma
- ACROMEGALY
- HYPERPARATHYROIDISM
- тнукою—hyperthyroidism, hypothyroidism DRUGS—NSAIDs, corticosteroids, anabolic steroids, estrogen-containing oral contraceptives, cocaine, amphetamines, MAO inhibitors, SNRIs, SSRIs, levo-dopa, erythropoietin, cyclosporine, tacrolimus, midodrine, alcohol excess, licorice root ANATOMIC
- AORTA—coarctation, aortic dissection NEUROGENIC
- BARORECEPTOR MALFUNCTION—lateral medullary syndrome, posterior fossa lesion
- cushing TRIAD—increased ICP with hypertension, bradycardia, and respiratory depression

OTHER

- GESTATIONAL HYPERTENSION
- OBSTRUCTIVE SLEEP APNEA
- POLYCYTHEMIA VERA

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION

- HYPERTENSION—there is a log-linear relationship between BP and cardiovascular risk with an increase in risk at a threshold of ~115/75 mmHg. Specific cutoff for "high" BP varies according to different guidelines, measurement techniques (attended vs. unattended), devices (e.g. automated vs. unattended), devices (e.g. automated vs. manual), settings (e.g. ambulatory vs. office), and underlying conditions (e.g. absence vs. presence of diabetes). See below for diagnostic algorithm
- ISOLATED SYSTOLIC HYPERTENSION—younger people tend to have isolated diastolic hypertension (50–60% of patients under 40). With age, large

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

arteries tend to stiffen with decreased elasticity secondary to a combination of atherosclerosis, calcification, and elastin degradation. Thus, isolated systolic hypertension predominates with age (over 90% of patients over 70)

- RESISTANT HYPERTENSION—uncontrolled hypertension despite 3 different antihypertensive agents (of which one is a diuretic), or hypertension irrespective of control on 4 or more antihypertensive agents
- MASKED HYPERTENSION—BP consistently elevated with out-of-office measurements, but normotensive when measured in office; associated with ↑ cardiovascular risk
- WHITE COAT HYPERTENSION—BP consistently elevated with office measurements, but normotensive when out-of-office; possible slight ↑ cardiovascular risk (but still less than masked or sustained hypertension)
- HYPERTENSIVE EMERGENCY—severe hypertension (usually SBP ≥180 and/or DBP ≥120 mmHg) with end organ damage such as pulmonary edema, aortic dissection, myocardial infarction, cerebrovascular hemorrhage, papilledema, fundoscopic hemorrhages or exudates, acute renal failure, eclampsia of pregnancy, and hypertensive encephalopathy
- HYPERTENSIVE URGENCY—severe hypertension (usually SBP ≥180 and/or DBP ≥120 mmHg) without findings of hypertensive emergency

HYPERTENSIVE END ORGAN DAMAGE ischemic heart disease, peripheral arterial disease, left ventricular hypertrophy, stroke, TIA, microalbuminuria or proteinuria, and chronic kidney disease

HYPERTENSIVE RETINOPATHY

 MILD—focal arteriolar narrowing (vasospasm), generalized arteriolar narrowing (increased vascular tone due to autoregulation, mild intimal hyperplasia, and hyaline degeneration in sclerotic stage). Subsequently, arteriovenous nicking (venous compression by a thickened arteriole, leading to dilation of vein around intersection), and opacity of arteriolar wall (widening and accentuation of the central light reflex leading to socalled copper wiring appearance)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

- MODERATE—hemorrhages (blot, dot, or flame shaped due to disruption of the blood–retina barrier), microaneurysms (necrosis of the smooth muscles and endothelial cells), hard exudates (exudation of blood and lipids), and soft exudates (cotton wool spots, retinal ischemia)
- MALIGNANT—signs of moderate retinopathy plus swelling of the optic disc
- UTILITY—the retina provides a window of cerebral circulation. Risk of stroke (and death) increases with degree of retinopathy. Note that the stages may not be sequential

Wong et al. NEJM 2004;351(22)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—blood pressure levels, ambulatory/ home monitoring, complications and hypertensive end organ damage, other cardiac risk factors (smoking, diabetes, dyslipidemia, obesity), past medical history (thyroid, renal, or adrenal disorders), medications (antihypertensives, steroids, illicit drugs)

PHYSICAL—vitals (heart rate, blood pressure), obesity (sleep apnea), moon facies and thoracocervical fat pad (Cushing syndrome), low-pitched voice and acral enlargement (acromegaly), upper body better developed and continuous murmur over precordium/back (coarctation), narrowed oropharynx and † neck circumference (OSA), goiter (hyperthyroidism), aortic regurgitation (aortic dissection), striae, renal bruits (renal artery stenosis), abdominal masses (polycystic kidney disease, adrenal tumors), radiofemoral delay and weak femoral pulses (coarctation). Assess complications including retinopathy, stroke, HF, AAA, and PVD. See references below on proper techniques to measure blood pressure

Williams et al. *NEJM* 2009;360(e6) 2020-2022 Highlights Hypertension Canada

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—lytes, urea, creatinine, fasting glucose, HbA1C, lipid panel, urinalysis, urine microalbumin
- 24-H AMBULATORY BLOOD PRESSURE MONITOR • ECG

SECONDARY CAUSES WORKUP

 HYPERALDOSTERONISM WORKUP—if clinical features present (i.e. spontaneous hypokalemia <3.5 mmol/L; diuretic-induced hypokalemia <3.0 mmol/L; resistance to ≥3 antihypertensive drugs; adrenal incidentaloma with hypertension), consider screening aldosterone/renin ratio

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

- PHEOCHROMOCYTOMA WORKUP—if clinical features present (i.e. paroxysmal and/or severe hypertension refractory to usual antihypertensive drugs; symptoms of catecholamine excess; hypertension triggered by β-blockers, MAO inhibitors, micturition, or Valsalva maneuver; adrenal incidentaloma with hypertension; genetic syndrome [MEN2A, MEN2B, von Hippel-Lindau, neurofibromatosis]), consider 24-h urine metanephrine or plasma fractionated metanephrines
- отнея емоские workup (guided by clinical suspicion)—Ca, albumin, PTH, TSH, free T4, 24-h urine cortisol, 1 mg dexamethasone suppression test, late night salivary cortisol, IGF-1
- RENOVASCULAR WORKUP—if ≥2 clinical features present (i.e. sudden-onset or worsening hypertension and age >55 or <30 years; presence of abdominal bruit; resistance to ≥3 antihypertensive drugs; ↑ serum Cr ≥30% with ACEi or ARB; other atherosclerotic disease; or recurrent flash pulmonary edema), consider renal Doppler US, CT/MR angiogram, renal angiogram
- SLEEP OXIMETRY TEST—if suspect sleep apnea

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

MEASUREMENT TECHNIQUES, DEVICES, AND SETTINGS

- AUTOMATED OFFICE BLOOD PRESSURE (AOBP) office measurement using an automated device with multiple readings with the patient alone in a private room
- OFFICE BLOOD PRESSURE MEASUREMENT (OBPM) office measurement performed with the patient and provider in the room at the same time
- AMBULATORY BLOOD PRESSURE MEASUREMENT (ABPM)—ambulatory 24-h monitor with measurements collected at 20- to 30-minute intervals throughout the day and night
- HOME BLOOD PRESSURE MEASUREMENT (HBPM) self-monitored home-based measurement, preferably using a validated device

OVERALL APPROACH TO DIAGNOSIS OF HYPERTENSION

- 1. Hypertensive urgency or emergency during first visit?
 - Yes → hypertension diagnosed
 - * No \rightarrow proceed to step 2
- 2. What is the blood pressure during initial visit?
 - Using AOBP or OBPM, SBP ≥180 mmHg and/or DBP ≥110 mmHg → repeat BP at least 2 more times at the same visit (discard

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

first reading and average latter 2 readings). If mean BP 180/110 mmHg or greater, diagnosis of hypertension is confirmed

- For patients without diabetes, using AOBP, if SBP 135–179 mmHg and/or DBP 85–109 mmHg (or using OBPM, SBP 140–179 mmHg and/or DBP 90–109 mmHg), then obtain outof-office readings before next visit
- For patients with diabetes, using OBPM, if SBP 130–179 mmHg and/or DBP 80–109 mmHg for at least 3 measurements, then consider out-of-office readings before second visit → if BP remains elevated on multiple days, diagnosis of hypertension probable/confirmed
- 3. Out-of-office readings can be measured using 24-h ABPM (preferred) or a HBPM series. Further information on how to perform these can be found at www. HYPERTENSION.CA
- 4. What is the average blood pressure from the 24-h ABPM?
 - Mean awake SBP ≥135 mmHg or DBP ≥85 mmHg → hypertension diagnosed
 - Mean 24-h SBP ≥130 mmHg or DBP ≥80 mmHg → hypertension diagnosed
- 5. What is the average blood pressure from the HBPM series?
 - Average SBP ≥135 or DBP ≥85 mmHg → hypertension diagnosed

Average SBP <135 or DBP <85 mmHg \rightarrow repeat HBPM series (to confirm average BP <135/85

mmHg), or consider 24-h ABPM monitoring2020 Hypertension Canada Guidelines

ACUTE MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O₂, IV

HYPERTENSIVE EMERGENCY—*labetalol* 20 mg IV bolus initially, then 20–80 mg q10min, or 2 mg/ min IV infusion (loading) then 2–8 mg/min, maximum total dose of 300 mg. *Nitroprusside* 0.25–0.5 µg/kg/min IV initially, increase by 0.5 µg/kg/min increments, to usually target 3 µg/kg/min (rarely >4 µg/kg/min, maximum 10 µg/kg/min). *Nicardipine* 5 mg/h IV initially, titrate to a maximum of 15 mg/h. *Fenoldopam* 0.1 µg/kg/min IV initially, titrate dose q15 min. Consider ICU admission. Workup and treatment of underlying causes once stabilized

HYPERTENSIVE URGENCY—furosemide 20–40 mg PO/IV×1 dose if in pulmonary edema or heart failure. *Clonidine* 0.1–0.3 mg PO BID. *Captopril* 25–50 mg PO TID. *Labetalol* 5–20 mg IV q15min or *hydralazine* 5–20 mg IV q15min to keep SBP <170 mmHg. Lower BP over hours to days, 25–30% lower than baseline; avoid lowering BP too rapidly (risk of stroke or MI if BP dropped to below minimum level

ACUTE MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

required to maintain tissue perfusion). Workup and treatment of underlying cause once stabilized

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT

LIFESTYLE CHANGES—healthy diet (high in fresh fruits, vegetables, and low fat dairy products; low in saturated fat and salt <100 mmol/day). Physical activity (optimum 30–60 min of moderate cardiopulmonary activity 4–7 ×/week). Reduction in alcohol (<2 drinks/day in men and <1 drink/day in women). Weight loss (in those with BMI >25 kg/m², lose >5 kg). Smoke free environment

ANTIHYPERTENSIVES ★ABCD★

- ACE INHIBITOR—ramipril 2.5–10 mg PO daily-BID, enalapril 5–20 mg PO daily-BID, perindopril 2–8 mg PO daily, lisinopril 2.5–10 mg PO daily, trandolapril 1–8 mg PO daily
- ARB—candesartan 8–32 mg PO daily, losartan 50–100 mg PO daily, irbesartan 150–300 mg PO daily, valsartan 80–320 mg PO daily, telmisartan 40–80 mg PO daily
- β-BLOCKERS—not recommended as first-line agent for uncomplicated hypertension in those ≥60-years old. *Metoprolol* 50–100 mg PO BID, *atenolol* 50–100 mg PO daily, *labetalol* 100–400 mg PO TID, *bisoprolol* 5–10 mg PO daily, *carvedilol* 6.25–25 mg PO BID
- CALCIUM CHANNEL BLOCKERS—amlodipine 2.5–10 mg PO daily, nifedipine ER 30-90 mg PO daily, diltiazem CD 180–360 mg PO daily, verapamil SR 240-480 mg PO daily
- THIAZIDE (AND THIAZIDE-LIKE) DIURETICS chlorthalidone 12.5–25 mg PO daily, indapamide 1.25–2.5 mg PO daily, hydrochlorothiazide 12.5–25 mg PO daily
- **POTASSIUM-SPARING DIURETICS**—spironolactone 12.5–50 mg PO daily
- α1 BLOCKERS—TERAZOSIN 1–20 mg PO daily, doxazosin 1–16 mg PO daily
- CENTRAL α2 AGONIST—clonidine 0.1–0.5 mg PO BID
- отнекs—minoxidil, hydralazine

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

TREATMENT ISSUES

ACE INHIBITORS/ANGIOTENSIN RECEPTOR BLOCKERS

- INDICATIONS—HF, post-MI, diabetes, proteinuria, renal failure (with caution), LVH
- contraindications—pregnancy, ESRD, bilateral RAS
- ADVERSE EFFECTS—cough (with ACE inhibitor), angioedema, hyperkalemia

β -BLOCKERS

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- INDICATIONS—resting tachycardia, HF, migraine, glaucoma, CAD/post-MI
- CONTRAINDICATIONS—asthma, severe PVD, Raynaud phenomenon, depression, bradycardia, second or third degree heart block, and hypoglycemia-prone diabetics
- ADVERSE EFFECTS—depression, ↓ exercise tolerance, bradycardia, hypotension

CALCIUM CHANNEL BLOCKERS

- DIHYDROPYRIDINE (potent vasodilators)—nifedipine, amlodipine, felodipine, nicardipine
- NON-DIHYDROPYRIDINE (heart rate control)—verapamil (cardiac depressant activity), diltiazem (some cardiac depressant, some vasodilator)
- INDICATIONS—angina pectoris, recurrent SVT (verapamil), Raynaud phenomenon (dihydropyridine), migraine, heart failure due to diastolic dysfunction, esophageal spasm
- CONTRAINDICATIONS—second or third degree heart block (non-dihydropyridine), HF with moderate to marked systolic dysfunction
- ADVERSE EFFECTS—nifedipine (dizziness, headache, flushing, and peripheral edema), verapamil (‡ cardiac contractility, conduction, and constipation), diltiazem (both side effects but a lot less severe)

THIAZIDE (AND THIAZIDE-LIKE) DIURETICS

- INDICATIONS—most patients (particularly Black patients)
- contraindications—allergy

Condition

 ADVERSE EFFECTS—↓ K, ↑ Ca, hyperuricemia, ↑ cholesterol, ↑ glucose, ↑ insulin resistance, impotence

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

BLOOD PRESSURE TREATMENT TRIGGERS AND TARGETS

| Population | BP Thresholds for Drug Therapy (SBP/DBP, mmHg) | BP Treatment Targets (SBP/DBP, mmHg) |
|---|---|--|
| High risk (10-year Framingham risk score \geq 15%, or cardiovascular disease, or CKD, or age \geq 75 years)* | SBP ≥130 | SBP <120 |
| Moderate risk | ≥140/90 | <140/90 |
| Low risk (no other cardiovascular risk factors or target organ damage) | ≥160/100 | <140/90 |
| Comorbid diabetes mellitus | ≥130/80 | <130/80 |

* Intensive SBP target based on AOBP measurement. Intensive SBP target not recommended for institutionalized elderly adults; limited (or no) evidence for patients with HF, diabetes, stroke, or eGFR <20 mL/min/1.73 m².

Hypertension Canada 2020 Guidelines

OVERALL APPROACH TO CHOICE OF INITIAL THERAPY

Drug of Choice

| HTN without other | $A/B/C/D \to AC/AD/BC/BD \to ABC/ACD/BCD/ABD \to ABCD$ |
|----------------------------------|--|
| indications | Avoid B as first line if age ≥60 |
| | ACEi may be less effective in those of African descent |
| Isolated systolic | ARB/C1/D \rightarrow ARB plus either C1 or D \rightarrow ARB plus C1 plus D |
| hypertension | Avoid B |
| Angina | $ACEi/B \rightarrow ACEi \ plus \ B \rightarrow add \ C1$ |
| Prior myocardial infarction | $AB \rightarrow ABC$ |
| Heart failure | $AB \to ABD$ (including spironolactone) $\to ACEi/ARB/B/D.$ Avoid hydralazine and minoxidil if LVH |
| Prior cerebrovascular disease | $AD \rightarrow add other agents$ |
| Peripheral vascular disease | A/B/C/D plus ASA. |
| | Avoid B if severe PVD |
| Diabetes without nephropathy | $A/C1/D \rightarrow AC1/AD \rightarrow add B \text{ or } C2$ |
| Diabetes with nephropathy | $A \rightarrow AC/AB/AD$ |
| CKD ± proteinuria | $A \rightarrow AD \rightarrow add$ other agents |
| Asthma | A/C/D. Avoid B |

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

| Condition | Drug of Choice |
|----------------------|---|
| BPH | α-blockers |
| Migraine | β |
| Thyrotoxicosis | β |
| Essential tremor | β |
| Postural hypotension | Avoid vasodilators and diuretics |
| Raynaud phenomenon | C (dihydropyridine) |
| Gout | Avoid D |
| Hyperkalemia | C/D. Avoid ACE inhibitors, ARBs, and spironolactone |
| Hyponatremia | A/B/C. Avoid D |
| Hyponatremia | A/B/C. Avoid D |
| Pregnancy | Labetalol/methyldopa/nifedipine. Avoid ACE inhibitors and ARB (teratogenic) |
| | |

where A = ACE inhibitors/ARBs, $B = \beta$ -blockers, C = calcium channel blockers, C1 = long-acting dihydropyridine CCB, C2 = non-dihydropyridine CCB, D = diuretics

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

RENAL ARTERY STENOSIS (RAS)

- ратнорнузюLоду—causes include atherosclerosis and fibromuscular dysplasia
- CLINICAL FEATURES—systemic atherosclerosis, uncontrolled hypertension, flash pulmonary edema, asymmetrical kidneys, renal failure with ACE inhibitor, and renal bruits
- DIAGNOSIS—CT or MR angiogram (preferred as non-invasive and high sensitivity/specificity), duplex US (anatomic and functional information), contrast angiogram (gold standard)
- TREATMENTS—medical (cornerstone of management of atherosclerotic disease; risk factor reduction with blood pressure control [avoidance of ACE inhibitors/ARBs in severe bilateral renal artery stenosis], statin therapy, and antiplatelet agent), angioplasty (not routinely recommended for atherosclerotic disease because outcomes similar to medical therapy alone; consider if fibromuscular dysplasia, severe or refractory hypertension, recurrent flash pulmonary edema, or acute decline in renal function due to renal artery stenosis. Unlikely to restore renal function if small kidneys or high creatinine >300 µmol/L [3.4 mg/dL]), surgery

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF ABDOMINAL BRUITS

- CARDIOVASCULAR—abdominal aortic aneurysm, aortocaval fistula
- RENAL VASCULAR—renal artery stenosis
- GI vascuLar—celiac artery compression syndrome, mesenteric ischemia
- HEPATIC VASCULAR—cirrhosis, hepatoma, AV malformation, arterioportal fistula, Cruveilhier–Baumgarten sign (cirrhosis, portal hypertension, and caput medusa)
- SPLENIC VASCULAR—splenic AV fistula, splenic artery dissection, splenic enlargement
- PANCREATIC VASCULAR—pancreatic carcinoma

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: IS LISTENING FOR ABDOMINAL BRUITS USEFUL IN THE EVALUATION OF RENOVASCULAR HYPERTENSION?

| | LR+ | LR– |
|----------------------------------|-----|-----|
| Systolic and diastolic abdominal | 39 | 0.6 |
| bruit | | |
| Any epigastric or flank bruit, | 6.4 | 0.4 |
| including isolated systolic | | |
| bruit | | |
| Systolic bruit | 43 | 05 |

History of atherosclerotic disease 2.2 0.5

APPROACH—given the high prevalence (7–31%) of innocent abdominal bruits in younger age groups, it is recommended that "if a systolic abdominal bruit is detected in a young, normotensive, asymptomatic individual, no further investigations are warranted. In view of the low sensitivity, the absence of a systolic bruit is not sufficient to exclude the diagnosis of renovascular hypertension. In view of the high specificity, the presence of a systolic bruit (in particular a systolic– diastolic bruit) in a hypertensive patient is suggestive of renovascular hypertension.... In view of the lack of evidence to support characterizing bruits as to pitch, intensity and location, bruits should be reported only as systolic or systolic/diastolic."

> Turnbull JAMA 1995;274(16) Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination. McGraw-Hill; 2009

Related Topics

Aortic Dissection (p. 29) Hyperaldosteronism (p. 382) Pheochromocytoma (p. 383)

Hyperlipidemia

2013 ACC/AHA Guideline Blood Cholesterol 2019 ACC/AHA Guideline Primary Prevention Cardiovascular Disease 2016 Canadian Cardiovascular Society Guidelines Dyslipidemia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF HYPERCHOLESTEROLEMIA

PRIMARY—polygenic, familial hypercholesterolemia (Ila; suspect when total cholesterol >6 mmol/L [>232 mg/dL], LDL >5 mmol/L [>193 mg/dL]), sitosterolemia

SECONDARY—obesity, diabetes, hypothyroidism, nephrotic syndrome, medications (thiazides), cholestatic liver disease (e.g. primary biliary cirrhosis)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF HYPERTRIGLYCERIDEMIA

PRIMARY—dietary, familial hypertriglyceridemia (IV; suspect when TGL >5 mmol/L [>440 mg/ dL]), LPL deficiency (I), dysbetalipoproteinemia (III), ApoCII deficiency

SECONDARY—obesity, diabetes, nephrotic syndrome, hypothyroidism, alcoholism, Cushing syndrome, and drugs (estrogen, tamoxifen, β-blockers, glucocorticoids, cyclosporine, glucocorticoids, novel antipsychotics, protease inhibitors, isotretinoin)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF COMBINED HYPERCHOLESTEROLEMIA AND HYPERTRIGLYCERIDEMIA

PRIMARY—familial combined hyperlipidemia (IIb), mixed hypertriglyceridemia (V), dysbetalipoproteinemia (III)

SECONDARY—diabetes, nephrotic syndrome, hypothyroidism, drugs (glucocorticoids, immunosuppressives, protease inhibitors), lipodystrophies

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF LOW HDL

PRIMARY—familial hypoalphalipoproteinemia, Tangiers disease, apoA1 mutation, LCAT deficiency

SECONDARY—drugs (anabolic steroids, isotretinoin)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—past medical history (diabetes, CAD, HF, stroke, TIA, renal disease, hypertension, liver disease, gallstones, hypothyroidism, HIV), medications

 HYPERTRIGLYCERIDEMIA—pancreatitis, chylomicronemia syndrome (nausea, vomiting, dyspnea, confusion), hyponatremia, transaminitis, milky plasma (with blood work)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

 HYPERCHOLESTEROLEMIA—premature atherosclerosis, aortic sclerosis/stenosis

PHYSICAL

- нуректизисискиоемиа—lipemia retinalis (when TGL ≥22.6 mmol/L [>2000 mg/dL]), eruptive xanthomas (commonly on buttocks, extensor surfaces of arms, back; when TGL 11.3-22.6 mmol/L [1000-2000 mg/dL]), hepatosplenomegaly
- HYPERCHOLESTEROLEMIA—tendon xanthomas (most commonly in Achilles tendon and extensor surfaces of hands), xanthelasmas, tuberous xanthomas (over areas susceptible to trauma), corneal arcus (premature when <40-years of age)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—lipid profile (fasting optional if no hypertriglyceridemia), glucose, HbA1C, Cr, TSH, ALP, urine albumin/creatinine ratio ± apoB (if hypertriglyceridemia)

SPECIAL

- CORONARY ARTERY CALCIUM SCORE—for risk stratification
- LIPOPROTEIN(a)—for risk stratification (e.g. intermediate risk patients where treatment decisions are uncertain, or for selective lowrisk individuals with a family history of premature coronary heart disease) and prognosis

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

WHOM TO SCREEN FOR DYSLIPIDEMIA-

men \geq 40 years, women \geq 40 years, or patients with any of the following conditions (irrespective of age): clinical evidence of atherosclerosis, abdominal aortic aneurysm, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, current smoker, stigmata of dyslipidemia, family history of premature cardiovascular disease or dyslipidemia, CKD, obesity, inflammatory disease, HIV, erectile dysfunction, COPD, gestational hypertension

MANAGEMENT

HYPERCHOLESTEROLEMIA — dietary modification (e.g. increased fruits and vegetables, avoiding organ meats). Pharmaological firstline treatment is statin, then add-on with ezetimibe ± bile-acid sequestrant if needed. If LDL-cholesterol remains above target, use PCSK9 inhibitor, especially in high-risk patients

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

with clinical atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease and/or heterozygous familial hypercholesterolemia. Target LDL-cholesterol <1.8 mmol/L [70 mg/dL] (or 50% reduction), apoB <0.80 g/L (80 mg/dL), or non-HDL-cholesterol <2.6 mmol/L (100 mg/dL)

HYPERTRIGLYCERIDEMIA—dietary modification (e.g. reduced fat, simple sugars, and calories) and alcohol abstinence. Severe cases (TG >11.3 mmol/L [1,000 mg/dL]) should be treated pharmacologically because of associated risk of pancreatitis. Target uncertain

TREAT SECONDARY CAUSES/METABOLIC SYNDROME IF PRESENT

TREATMENT ISSUES

LIFESTYLE—healthy lifestyle for all patients. **Diet** (\uparrow fruit and vegetable intake, \uparrow mono- and polyunsaturated fats, \downarrow saturated fats and transfatty acid to <7% of calories, \uparrow omega-3 fatty acid from fish and plant sources, *salmon oil* 3–9 g can \downarrow TGL), **regular exercise**, **smoking and alcohol avoidance**, **maintenance of healthy weight**

INDICATIONS FOR PHARMACOTHERAPY

- MAJOR INDICATIONS FOR CHOLESTEROL TREATMENT clinical atherosclerotic disease (e.g. Ml, angina, stroke, TIA, PAD), abdominal aortic aneurysm (>3 cm or prior surgery), diabetes mellitus (age ≥40 years, or >15 years duration for age ≥30 years [e.g. type 1 diabetes], or with any microvascular disease), CKD (eGFR <60 mL/ min/1.73m² or urine albumin/creatinine ratio >3.0 mg/mmol), LDL-cholesterol ≥5 mmol/L, or history of familial hypercholesterolemia
- OTHER INDICATIONS—perform risk assessment with adjusted Framingham Risk Score for 10-year risk of cardiovascular disease and treat all patients at high risk (≥20%). Consider treatment in those at intermediate risk (10–19%) with any one of the following: LDL-cholesterol ≥3.5 mmol/L (or apoB ≥1.2 g/L or non-HDLcholesterol ≥4.3 mmol/L); men ≥50 years and women ≥60 years with at least 1 additional cardiovascular risk factor (e.g. low HDL-cholesterol, impaired fasting glucose, increased wasist circumference. smoking. and hypertension)

MAJOR CHOLESTEROL-LOWERING DRUG CLASSES

 STATINS (HMG-COA REDUCTASE INHIBITORS; ↓↓ LDL ↑ HDL, ↓ TGL)—considered first-line for hypercholesterolemia; *atorvastatin* 10–80 mg

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

PO daily, *rosuvastatin* 5–40 mg PO daily, *simvastatin* 10–80 mg PO daily, *pravastatin* 10–40 mg PO daily. Main side effects include myalgias, myopathy, and transaminitis

- **NPC1L1 TRANSPORTER** INHIBITOR (↓ LDL) *ezetimibe* 10 mg PO daily
- BILE-ACID SEQUESTRANTS (↓ LDL, ↑ cholesterol synthesis)—colesevelam 1.25–1.875 g PO BID, cholestyramine 2–24 g PO daily, colestipol 5–30 g PO daily in divided doses. Main side effects include constipation, vitamin K deficiency, and drug interactions (bind to other drugs and prevent absorption)
- PCSK9 INHIBITOR (↓↓↓ LDL)—evolocumab 140 mg SC q2weeks (or 420 mg SC q4weeks) or alirocumab 75–150 mg SC q2weeks (or 300 mg SC q4weeks). Inhibit PCSK9 from binding to LDL receptor on hepatocytes, thus facilitating removal of LDL from circulation

MAJOR TRIGLYCERIDE-LOWERING DRUG CLASSES

- FIBRATES (↓ LDL ↑ HDL, ↓↓ TGL)—fenofibrate nanocrystallized tablet 145 mg PO daily without regard to meals (best oral absorption), fenofibrate micronized tablet 160–200 mg PO with dinner (moderate oral absorption and modestly improved with food), fenofibrate micronized capsule 200 mg PO with dinner (poor oral absorption but improved with food), gemfibrozil 600 mg PO daily (safe in pregnancy beginning in second trimester). Main side effects include rash, pruritis, Gl upset, and gallstones
- OMEGA-3 FATTY ACIDS (↓ TGL, ↑ LDL)—icosapent ethyl 2 g PO bid with food (an ethyl ester of eicosapentaenoic acid that reduces cardiovascular risk) for patients with ↑ triglyceride plus atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease, or diabetes and ≥1 cardiovascular risk factor. Other omega-3 fatty acids not associated with cardiovascular benefit, but may be considered for triglyceride-lowering (e.g. eicosapentaenoic acid/docosahexaenoic acid [EPA/DHA] 3–4 g PO daily) but may be limited by fishy odour

SPECIAL CASES

 FAMILIAL HYPERCHOLESTEROLEMIA—lifestyle modification and pharmacologic therapy with potent statin (atorvastatin, rosuvastatin) plus add-on therapy with ezetimibe or bile-acid sequestrant, or both. Consider PCSK9 inhibitor when available. Homozygotes may require LDL apheresis. Consider genetic counseling for affected family members

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- FAMILIAL COMBINED HYPERLIPIDEMIA—lifestyle modification (weight reduction and dietary changes) and pharmacologic therapy with statin plus add-on therapy with ezetimibe or fibrate
- DYSBETALIPOPROTEINEMIA—identify and treat comorbidities (diabetes, obesity, hypothyroidism). Pharmacologic therapy often unnecessary, but when needed, consider statin or fibrates. Consider genetic counseling (for apoE2 gene) for affected family members
- CHYLOMICRONEMIA SYNDROME—dietary modification (total fat restriction initially until TG <11.3 mmol/L [1,000 mg/dL] then fat-limited diet), alcohol abstinence, optimize glycemic control, and discontinue offending medications. Pharmacologic therapy with fibrate plus addon therapy with statin or orlistat

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

METABOLIC SYNDROME (Syndrome X or insulin resistance syndrome)—National Cholesterol Education Program's Adult Treatment Panel (ATP) III report criteria ≥3 of the following five features:

- \uparrow **TGL**— \geq 1.7 mmol/L [\geq 150 mg/dL]
- ↓ **HDL**—♀ <1.30 mmol/L [<50 mg/dL], ♂ <1.04 mmol/L [<40 mg/dL]
- INSULIN RESISTANCE—fasting glucose ≥5.6 mmol/L [≥100 mg/dL] (modified; originally defined as fasting glucose ≥6.1 mmol/L [≥110 mg/dL])
- WAIST CIRCUMFERENCE— $\vec{\sigma} > 102 \text{ cm} [>40 \text{ in.]}, \varphi > 88 \text{ cm} [>35 \text{ in.]}. May consider ethnic-specific cut-offs where appropriate (Europid <math>\vec{\sigma} \ge 94 \text{ cm} [\ge 37 \text{ in.]}, \varphi \ge 80 \text{ cm} [\ge 31.5 \text{ in.]}; \text{ South Asian/ Chinese: } \vec{\sigma} \ge 90 \text{ cm} [\ge 35.5 \text{ in.]}, \varphi \ge 80 \text{ cm} [31.5 \text{ in.]}, \text{ Japanese: } \vec{\sigma} \ge 85 \text{ cm} [33.5 \text{ in.]}, \varphi \ge 90 \text{ cm} [35.5 \text{ in.]})$
- HYPERTENSION—≥130/85 mmHg or on treatment

FAMILIAL DYSLIPIDEMIAS (FREDRICKSON CLASSIFICATION)

| Туре | Mechanism | Lipid profile | Tendon xanthoma | Palmar xanthoma | Eruptive xanthoma | Xanthelasma | Tuberous xanthoma | Cardiac risk |
|---|--|------------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|----------------------|-------------|----------------------|-----------------|
| Type I . Hyperchylomicronemia (LPL deficiency) | LPL deficiency resulting in chylomicron accumulation | ↑↑ TGL | | | 1 | 1 | | - |
| Type IIa . Familial hypercholesterolemia | LDL receptor defect | ↑ TC (LDL) +/ ↑ TG +/ ↑ apoB | 1 | | | 1 | 1 | ++ |
| Type IIb . Familial combined hyperlipidemia | ↑ hepatic production of VLDL | ↑ apoB +/ ↑ TG +/ ↑ TC (LDL) | | | | 1 | (sometimes) | + |
| Type III . Dysbetalipoproteinemia | ApoE △ (apoE2/E2); ↑ clearance of chylomicron and VLDL remnants | ↑ TGL ↑ TC (VLDL, IDL) | (sometimes) | 1 | | 1 | 1 | + (and PVD) |
| Type IV . Hypertriglyceridemia | ↑ hepatic production of VLDL | ↑ TC (VLDL) ↑ TGL ↓ HDL | | | 1 | 1 | | + |
| Type V. Mixed hypertriglyceridemia | ↑ production and ↓ clearance of VLDL and chylomicrons | ↑ TGL ↑ TC (VLDL) | | | 1 | 1 | | - |

Smoking Issues

Approach to ECG

TEN STEPS TO ECG

- 1. **ID**—name and age, date, technique (12 lead, calibration, paper speed)
- 2. **RATE**—normal 60–100 beats/min. 300/150/100/75/60/50 rule
- RHYTHM—regular/irregular, wide/narrow complex, sinus, atrial, atrioventricular, ventricular
- 4. AXIS—deviation, rotation
- PR INTERVAL—normal 120–200 ms; first, second, third degree AV block
- QRS INTERVAL—normal 80–110 ms, intraventricular conduction delay 110–120 ms, RBBB, LBBB, LAFB, LPFB
- QT INTERVAL—QT <50% of RR interval; normal QTc 390–480 ms (women), 390–460 ms (men)
- 8. hypertrophy/enlargement—RAE, LAE, RVH, LVH
- 9. ISCHEMIA—ST elevation/depression, T wave inversion
- 10. INFARCTION—Q waves
- 11. SPECIAL CONDITIONS

CHEST LEADS PLACEMENT

- V1—4th intercostal space, right sternal border
- V2—4th intercostal space, left sternal border
- V3—halfway between V2 and V4
- V4—5th intercostal space, left mid-clavicular line
- V5—5th intercostal space, left anterior axillary line
- V6—5th intercostal space, left mid-axillary line

RATE AND RHYTHM

SINUS—P before QRS, QRS after P, P upright I + II, P down aVR. Normal (rate 60–100), tachycardia (rate >100), bradycardia (rate <60), arrhythmia (variable)

ATRIAL—rate 60–80 normally, variable P wave, short PR interval

JUNCTIONAL (mid and distal region of AV node)—rate 40–60, no P wave or inverted P wave VENTRICULAR (His bundle, bundle branches, ventricle)—rate 20–40, no P wave 2009 AHA/ACCF/HRS Recommendations Standardization/Interpretation ECG Kligfield et al. *Circulation* 2007;115(10) Wagner et al. *Circulation* 2009;119(10)

TACHYCARDIA

mia), artifact

REGULAR NARROW COMPLEX TACHYCARDIA—sinus tachycardia, atrial flutter with fixed block, supraventricular tachycardia (atrial tachycardia, AV nodal reentry, orthodromic AVRT [WPW], accelerated junctional tachycardia) IRREGULAR NARROW COMPLEX TACHYCARDIA—sinus tachycardia/arrhythmia, premature atrial contractions, multifocal atrial tachycardia, ectopic atrial tachyarrhythmia with variable block, atrial flutter with variable block, atrial fibrillation **REGULAR WIDE COMPLEX TACHYCARDIA** ventricular tachycardia, supraventricular tachycardia with aberrant conduction, pacemaker-mediated tachyarrhythmia, antidromic AVRT (WPW), metabolic abnormality (e.g. TCA overdose, hyperkale-

IRREGULAR WIDE COMPLEX TACHYCARDIA—monomorphic ventricular tachycardia (during "warm-up phenomenon"), polymorphic ventricular tachycardia, atrial fibrillation with pre-excitation (WPW), irregular supraventricular tachycardia with aberrant conduction, coarse ventricular fibrillation. artifact

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES SUGGESTIVE OF VT RATHER THAN SVT WITH ABERRANT CONDUCTION—older age, history of coronary artery disease (>90% pre-test probability), history of structural heart disease (>90% pre-test probability), AV dissociation (dissociated P waves, fusion beats, capture beats), atypical bundle branch block morphology, concordance of precordial leads, QRS width >160 ms in LBBB or >140 ms in RBBB, extreme LAD (-90° to -180°). Hemodynamic stability (or instability) is not a useful distinguishing feature

BRADYCARDIA AND PROLONGED PR

SINUS—sinus bradycardia, sick sinus syndrome/ sinus node dysfunction, sinus exit block, tachycardia-bradycardia syndrome (SSS+AF usually)

AV BLOCK—prolonged PR interval

- FIRST DEGREE—PR >200 ms constantly
- SECOND DEGREE

See SMOKING ISSUES (p. 490)

BRADYCARDIA AND PROLONGED PR (CONT'D)

- мовит түре I (Wenckebach)—PR progressively longer and then dropped QRS
- мовит түре II—PR constant and then sudden dropped QRS. When any but not all ventricular beats are dropped, second degree block exists
- THIRD DEGREE—complete blockage with independent atrial and escape rhythms (junctional or ventricular escape)

PROLONGED QRS—BUNDLE BRANCH BLOCK AND HEMIBLOCK

ANATOMY—SA node (RCA 59%, LAD 38%, both 3%) \rightarrow AV node (RCA 90%, LCX 10%) \rightarrow bundle of His (RCA) \rightarrow right bundle (LAD), left anterior fascicle (LAD, RCA), and left posterior fascicle (RCA, LAD)

RBBB—QRS \geq 120 ms, slurred S wave in I and V6 and rSR' in V1–3 with R' taller than r. May also see QR' complex in V1 (suggestive of old or new infarct). QRS polarity positive in V1–2. Causes include LAD involvement/anterior infarction, may be benign in young people

LBBB—QRS ≥120 ms, broad notched or slurred R in I, aVL, V5, and V6, with no Q waves; broad monomorphic S in V1, may have small r wave. QRS polarity negative in V1–2. Causes include hypertension, CAD, dilated cardiomyopathy, rheumatic heart disease, infiltrative diseases, benign or idiopathic

LEFT ANTERIOR FASCICULAR BLOCK—QRS <120 ms, left axis deviation -45° to -90°, qR in aVL, R-peak time in aVL of 45 ms or more. May be benign, LAD involvement/anterior infarction. Shortcut to diagnosis—I up, II down, aVF down

LEFT POSTERIOR FASCICULAR BLOCK right axis deviation 90–180°, QRS <120 ms, rS in I and aVL, and qR in III and aVF

PROLONGED QT

NORMAL—QTc=square root (QT in seconds/RR interval in seconds); QT <50% of RR interval; normal QTc 390–480 ms (women), 390–460 ms (men) CAUSES—genetic, metabolic (hypokalemia, hypomagnesemia, hypocalcemia), antiarrhythmics (quinidine, procainamide, amiodarone, sotalol), antibiotics (macrolide, trimethoprimsulfamethoxazole, fluoroquinolone), psychotropics (TCA, SSRI, haloperidol, risperidone), analgesics (methadone), structural heart disease (HF, LVH, acute ischemia), others (HIV, anorexia nervosa, stroke, brain injury)

PROGRESSION—may result in torsades de pointes, VT, and sudden death (amiodarone less likely)

PROLONGED QT (CONT'D)

TREATMENTS—remove offending agent(s), overdrive pacing, isoproterenol infusion, magnesium

HYPERTROPHY CRITERIA

RAE—tall peaked P in II and aVF (>2.5 mm high); large initial component of biphasic P in V1 (p pulmonale)

LAE—wide notched P in II (>2.5 mm long); biphasic P in V1 with broad negative phase; (p mitrale)

LVH—tall R in aVL (>11 mm); R in V5 or V6 (whichever is taller) plus S in V1 >35 mm (Sokolow-Lyon criteria); R in V5 or R in V6 > 27 mm; poor R wave progression in precordial leads; ST depression and T wave inversion in lateral leads (I, aVL, V5–6) suggestive of ventricular strain; R in aVL plus S in V3 >28 mm in male or >20 mm in female (Cornell criteria). Diagnosis difficult with LBBB, consider LVH if S in V1+R in V5 >45 mm (Klein criteria)

RVH—right axis deviation (>110°); R > S wave in V1 and R >7 mm; persistent S waves V5–6; ST depression and T wave inversion V1–3

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS FOR DOMINANT R WAVE IN V1—RV hypertrophy, right bundle branch block, posterior myocardial infarction, preexcitation (Wolff-Parkinson-White), dextrocardia, Duchenne muscular dystrophy, hypertrophic cardiomyopathy, normal variant, incorrect lead placement, juvenile pattern

ISCHEMIA/INFARCT MORPHOLOGY

HYPERACUTE T WAVES—starts in seconds

ST ELEVATION—transmural injury, starts in minutes

ST DEPRESSION—subendocardial infarction. Consider posterior infarct if in V1/V2

T WAVE INVERSION—starts in hours, stays for weeks, and flips back in months

Q WAVES—starts in 8 h. If no reperfusion, stays forever. Considered significant if >1 block wide and height >1/3 of QRS

ACCELERATED IDIOVENTRICULAR RHYTHM—suggests reperfusion post-infarction (HR <100, intermittent)

VOLTAGE CRITERIA

NORMAL—QRS >5 mm high in limb leads, QRS >10 mm high in precordial leads

LOW—thick chest wall, COPD, pericarditis, pleural effusion, amyloidosis, myxedema, hemochromatosis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF ST ELEVATION

NORMAL MALE PATTERN—1–3 mm elevation, concave, most marked in V2

ST ELEVATION OF NORMAL VARIANT seen in V4–5, short QT, high QRS voltage

BENIGN EARLY REPOLARIZATION—most marked in V4 with notching at J point, upright T waves. Reciprocal ST depression in aVR, not in aVL, when limb leads are involved

ACUTE MI—ST segment with a plateau of shoulder or upsloping, reciprocal changes can be seen in opposite leads

PRINZMETAL ANGINA—same as MI but transient

ACUTE PERICARDITIS—diffuse ST elevation, ST depression in aVR. Elevation seldom >5 mm, PR segment depression (best seen in II)

ACUTE MYOCARDITIS—diffuse ST elevation, may simulate acute MI/pericarditis

AORTIC DISSECTION—obstruction of right coronary artery by dissection flap

LV ANEURYSM—persistent ST elevation after MI

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF ST ELEVATION (CONT'D)

PULMONARY EMBOLISM—changes simulating MI seen often in both inferior and anteroseptal leads

STRESS (TAKOTSUBO) CARDIOMYOPA-THY—transient apical and/or mid LV systolic dysfunction that mimics myocardial infarction, in the absence of obstructive CAD

LBBB—concave, ST segment deviation discordant from QRS. In the presence of LBBB, features suggestive of infarction include concordant ST segment changes (ST elevation ≥ 1 mm in leads with positive QRS complex and ST depression ≥ 1 mm in V1–3), disconcordant ST-segment changes (ST elevation ≥ 5 mm in leads with negative QRS complex) (Sgarbossa criteria)

LVH—concave, other features of LVH

HYPERKALEMIA—see below

HYPOTHERMIA—Osborne waves may be seen Wang et al. NEJM 2003;349(22)

INFARCTION ZONES

| Territory | Leads | Artery | Comment |
|-----------|-------------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|
| Inferior | II, III, aVF ^a | RCA, LCX ^b | RV, SA, AV nodes |
| Lateral | I, aVL, V5, V6 | LCX, RCA | |
| Posterior | V1i, V2i, V8, V9 ^c | RCA | |
| Anterior | V1-V4 ^d | LAD | May be massive LV |
| RV | R leads (V1), V4R | RCA | Preload |

^aEvidence of inferior MI should trigger one to automatically check V4R for RV infarction, which occurs in up to 40% of patients with inferior MI. May see increased JVP and clear lung fields clinically. ST elevation in V4R is diagnostic and prognostic

^bInferior infarcts may be related to either RCA (ST elevation in III > II and ST depression in I, aVL, or both >1 mm) or LCX (ST elevation in I, aVL, V5–6 and ST depression in V1–3)

 $^{\rm G}$ = inverted. ST depression in V1–V2 in a regular ECG should trigger one to automatically request for posterior leads to check for posterior MI. Posterior infarct may be associated with inferior and lateral infarct as these territories are all supplied by RCA

^dV1–V2 = septal, V3–V4 = anterior

SPECIAL CONDITIONS

HYPERTHYROIDISM—tachycardia, nonspecific ST-T changes, biphasic T in V2–V6

DIGITALIS EFFECT—slowing SA, AV. Gradual downward sloping/scooping of ST. ST depression in I, II, aVF, V2–V6

DIGITALIS TOXICITY—unifocal or multifocal PVCs, first degree heart block, ventricular bigeminy, paroxysmal atrial tachycardia (often with 2:1 AV conduction), bidirectional VT, atrial

SPECIAL CONDITIONS (CONT'D)

fibrillation with complete heart block (regular escape rhythm)

HYPERKALEMIA—tall, peaked T wave (especially precordial leads. Definitions of "tall T wave" include a height >5 mm in limb lead or 10 mm in precordial lead or a T wave height >50% of the entire QRS excursion in same lead), widened QRS, wide and flat P wave

SPECIAL CONDITIONS (CONT'D)

HYPOKALEMIA—flattened T wave/inversion, U wave

COPD—RAD, ↓ amplitude, multifocal atrial tachycardia

HYPERCALCEMIA-short QT

HYPOCALCEMIA—prolonged QT

WOLFF-PARKINSON-WHITE SYNDROME-

short PR (<120 ms), delta wave, prolonged QRS (>120 ms), symptomatic tachycardia. Pharmacological treatments include amiodarone and procainamide. **AV nodal blocking drugs**

SPECIAL CONDITIONS (CONT'D)

(adenosine, β-blockers, verapamil/ diltiazem, digoxin) are contraindicated in patients with WPW and AF as they may precipitate VF. Consider catheter ablation if symptomatic arrhythmias, AF, or atrial flutter. If failed, consider surgical ablation

BRUGADA SYNDROME—type 1: high take-off and cove-shaped ST-segment elevation (≥ 2 mm) in V1–V2. Type 2: saddle-back ST-T pattern in V1–V2





Acute Renal Failure: Pre-renal

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

TRUE INTRAVASCULAR FLUID LOSS

- HEMORRHAGE
- GI LOSS—diarrhea, vomiting
- RENAL LOSS—diuretic, osmotic
- SKIN LOSS—increased insensible losses, sweating, burns

DECREASED EFFECTIVE CIRCULATING FLUID

- HEART FAILURE
- HYPOALBUMINEMIA—protein-losing enteropathy, nephrotic, cirrhosis, malnutrition
- THIRD SPACING
- SEPSIS

ALTERED RENAL HEMODYNAMICS

- AFFERENT—renal artery stenosis (RAS), fibromuscular dysplasia, ASA, NSAIDs, cyclosporin, tacrolimus, cocaine, hypercalcemia (vasospasm)
- EFFERENT—ACE inhibitors, ARB, renal vein thrombosis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

RISK FACTORS—patients with advanced age, hypertension, chronic kidney disease, renal artery stenosis, or on medications (NSAIDs, ACE inhibitors, ARBs) are particularly susceptible to ischemic insults due to impaired auto-regulation

Related Topic

Renal Artery Stenosis (p. 74)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, Ca, urinalysis, urine lytes, urine Cr
- місковіогоду—blood C&S, urine C&S

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

SPECIAL

 RENAL ARTERY STENOSIS WORKUP—renal Doppler, CT/MR renal angiogram (use with caution in renal failure), captopril renogram (used less frequently due to lower sensitivity and specificity)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE EPIDEMIOLOGY COLLABORATION (CKD-EPI)

- ESTIMATED GFR = 141 × min(serum creatinine in mg/dL / kappa, 1)^{alpha} × max(serum creatinine in mg/dL / kappa, 1)⁻¹²⁰⁹ × 0.993^{Age} × sex × race
- For males, sex=1, alpha=-0.411, kappa=0.7; for females, sex=1.018, alpha=-0.329, kappa=0.7. Race=1.159 if patient is Black
- NOTE—only valid in steady state creatinine and not valid for extremes of weight

COCKCROFT-GAULT FORMULA (less often used nowadays)

- CREATININE CLEARANCE (SI UNITS)—CrCl=(140– age) × (weight in kg)/(Cr in μ mol/L), multiply by 1.2 if male
- CREATININE CLEARANCE (US UNITS)—CrCl = (140– age) × (weight in lbs × 0.37)/(Cr in mg/dL × 88.4), multiply by 1.2 if male
- NOTE—creatinine is used to estimate GFR, but 5% of creatinine is secreted and thus overestimates GFR. At low GFR, proportion of creatinine secreted becomes higher, so overestimates even more

FEATURES SUGGESTING PRE-RENAL CAUSES

- UREA:CR RATIO—(urea in mmol/L×10)>Cr in μmol/L (or in US units: [urea in mg/dL/20]>Cr in mg/dL). Urea reabsorption increases during pre-renal failure, resulting in a disproportionally high serum urea level
- 10–20–30 RULE—urine Na⁺ 30 mmol/L
- FENA—(U_{Na}/P_{Na})/(U_{Cr}/P_{Cr})×100%, <1%

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DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

• URINALYSIS—bland, high specific gravity

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN PRE-RENAL FAILURE AND ATN

Pre-renal ATN

| Urea:Cr ratio (SI) | (Urea × 10) > Cr | (Urea \times 20) < Cr |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Urea:Cr ratio (US) | Urea > (Cr \times 20) | Urea < (Cr \times 10) |
| Increase in Cr | Variable | <44 µmol/L/day [<0.5 mg/dL/day] |
| Urinalysis | Normal | Heme granular casts |
| Urine Na | <20 mmol/L | >30 mmol/L |
| FE _{Na} | <1% | >2% |
| Urine osmo | >500 mOsm/kg | <350 mOsm/kg |

Acute Renal Failure: Renal

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

VASCULAR

- EMBOLI—atherothrombotic, cholesterol
- MICROANGIOPATHIC HEMOLYTIC ANEMIA—TTP, HUS, scleroderma, malignant hypertension
- vasculitis—PAN, Takayasu syndrome
- HYPERTENSION—hypertensive emergency

TUBULAR

- ACUTE TUBULAR NECROSIS (ATN)—ischemia, sepsis, contrast dye, aminoglycosides, amphotericin, acyclovir, myoglobin, hemoglobin, uric acid
- INTRA-TUBULAR OBSTRUCTION—uric acid, indinavir, calcium oxalate, acyclovir, methotrexate, light chains (myeloma)

INTERSTITIAL (ACUTE INTERSTITIAL NEPHRITIS, AIN)

- IATROGENIC—proton pump inhibitors, penicillins, cephalosporins, sulfonamides, rifampin, NSAIDs, diuretics
- INFECTIONS—pyelonephritis
- INFILTRATE—Sjögren syndrome, sarcoidosis
- IDIOPATHIC

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—fluid resuscitation (consider 0.5–1 L IV bolus over 2–4 h, then 100–200 mL/h with frequent volume reassessments; buffered crystalloid should be used preferentially if there are no contraindications since this has been shown to reduce AKI risk)

RENAL REPLACEMENT—dialysis (peritoneal, hemodialysis). If needed, usually temporary

TREATMENT ISSUES

ACUTE INDICATIONS FOR DIALYSIS *AEIOU*

- ACIDOSIS—persistent despite medical treatment
- ELECTROLYTES—persistent severe hyperkalemia despite medical treatment
- INTOXICATION—ASA, Li, methanol, ethylene glycol, or other dialyzable toxins
- overload—persistent fluid overload despite medical treatment
- икеміа—pericarditis, encephalopathy

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

GLOMERULAR

- NEPHROTIC—MCD, MGN, FSGS, MPGN (rarely if ever cause acute renal failure on their own)
- NEPHRITIC—IgA, MPGN, mesangial proliferative GN, RPGN
 - ANTI-GBM ANTIBODY—Goodpasture syndrome, anti-GBM antibody nephritis
 - IMMUNE COMPLEX—SLE, HBV, HCV, endocarditis, post-strep/infectious GN, IgA, cryoglobulinemia, shunt nephritis
 - PAUCI-IMMUNE—granulomatosis with polyangiitis (GPA), eosinophilic granulomatosis with polyangiitis (EGPA), microscopic polyarteritis (MPA)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—duration (previous Cr), N&V, diarrhea, blood loss, obstructive urinary symptoms (frequency, urgency, hesitancy, slow stream, incontinence), hemoptysis, hematuria, edema, contrast dye, nephrotoxins, past medical history

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

(recent infections, HBV, HCV, HF, diabetes, hypertension, malignancy, connective tissue disease), medications (ACE inhibitors, ARB, NSAIDs, ASA, cyclosporine, penicillins, cephalosporins, acyclovir, amphotericin, chemotherapy)

PHYSICAL—orthostatic vitals especially heart rate and blood pressure, respiratory and cardiac examination (JVP, heart failure), abdominal examination (masses, renal bruit), ankle edema, cholesterol emboli

Related Topic

Glomerulonephritis (p. 87)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, urinalysis, urine lytes, urine Cr
- ETIOLOGY WORKUP—ANA, anti-dsDNA, ENA, p-anca, c-anca, anti-GBM antibody, C3, C4, CK, uric acid, ASO-titer, HBV/HCV serology, RF, cryoglobulin, quantitative Ig, serum protein electrophoresis, urinary protein electrophoresis, urinary eosinophil (of questionable clinical value because it is neither sensitive nor specific for AIN)
- місковіоLogy—blood C&S, urine C&S if suspect infection
- имадимд—US renal

SPECIAL

- IMAGING—CXR, echocardiogram
- special—renal biopsy

INVESTIGATION ISSUES

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN VARIOUS RENAL ETIOLOGIES

| | Urinalysis findings | Further tests |
|--------------|-------------------------------------|--|
| Vascular | Bland Urinary eosinophils | Peripheral smear (TTP) Anti-MPO (p-ANCA) |
| | (cholesterol emboli) | ANA (lupus), ENA |
| Tubular | Muddy brown casts (ATN) | CK (rhabdomyolysis) Uric acid (gout) |
| Interstitial | WBC casts, urinary eosinophil | Systemic eosinophilia |

INVESTIGATION ISSUES (CONT'D)

| | Urinalysis | |
|------------|---------------|---------------------|
| | findings | Further tests |
| Glomerular | RBC casts | Anti-PR3 (c-ANCA) |
| | Acanthocyte | Anti-MPO (p-ANCA) |
| | (dysmorphic | Eosinophilia (EGPA, |
| | RBC) | AIN) |
| | Oval fat body | Anti-GBM |
| | Fatty cast | (Goodpasture |
| | | syndrome) |
| | | ANA, anti-dsDNA |
| | | (SLE) |
| | | ASO titer (PSGN) |
| | | Blood C&S, echo |
| | | (infectious |
| | | endocarditis) |
| | | HBV/HCV serology, |
| | | SPE, UPE (multiple |
| | | myeloma) |
| | | Cryoglobulins, |
| | | rheumatoid factor |
| | | (cryoglobulinemia) |

MANAGEMENT

PREVENTION—avoid contrast dye, nephrotoxins if possible

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—nephrotic syndrome (low-salt diet and furosemide for volume regulation if needed; statin if needed to correct hyperlipidemia)

RENAL REPLACEMENT—dialysis (peritoneal, hemodialysis)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

PSEUDO-RENAL FAILURE—cimetidine and trimethoprim may reduce tubular secretion of creatinine causing a small but significant increase in serum creatinine in the absence of \downarrow GFR

MULTIPLE MYELOMA AND RENAL FAILURE

- PRE-RENAL—N&V, renal vein thrombosis, calcium-induced vasospasm, nephrogenic diabetes insipidus (secondary to hypercalcemia)
- RENAL—secondary amyloidosis (λ), light chain cast nephropathy (myeloma kidney), monoclonal immunoglobulin deposition disease (MIDD) including light chain deposition disease (κ) and heavy chain deposition disease, plasma cell infiltration, cryoglobulinemia, pyelonephritis, sepsis
- POST-RENAL—renal stones (hypercalcemia), neurogenic bladder

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

NSAID-INDUCED RENAL FAILURE

- PRE-RENAL—inhibition of prostaglandin synthesis leading to afferent vasoconstriction, hypertensive nephropathy
- RENAL—acute interstitial nephritis, nephrotic syndrome (minimal change disease, membranous)

ACUTE TUBULAR NECROSIS (ATN)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—tubular damage from either ischemia or toxins → decreased reabsorption of Na→vasoconstriction → decreased GFR. Also may be related to tubular blockage from damaged epithelial cells. Risk factors include elderly (GFR ↓ by 1 mL/min/year after age 40), pre-existing renal dysfunction, decreased cardiac function, diabetes, dehydration, and multiple nephrotoxins
- TREATMENTS—after the insults are stopped, may start to recover in 3–5 days. Generally takes 7–21 days (some up to 8 weeks) for full recovery

CONTRAST NEPHROPATHY

• PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—contrast-induced vasospasm, hyperosmolar load, oxygen free radical generation or direct tubular toxicity → acute

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- tubular injury \rightarrow ↑ Cr or \downarrow GFR by 25%. Usually develops immediately after exposure to contrast, peaks in 48–72 h. Risk factors and recovery time course same as ATN. Key differential diagnosis is renal atheroemboli after arterial catheterization (usually delayed onset of renal failure and may see other signs of arterial ischemia)
- RISK FACTORS—patient risk factors (pre-existent renal failure, multiple myeloma, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, volume contraction [diuretics], HF, exposure to nephrotoxins such as NSAIDs or aminoglycosides, recent acute coronary syndrome), procedural risk factors (increased dye load, increased osmolar dye load)
- PREVENTION—avoid contrast dye, nephrotoxins/ diuretics, and volume depletion if possible. If contrast absolutely required, use low (iohexol) or iso-osmolal (iodixanol) non-ionic agents. Hydration options include (1) IV 1/2 NS at 1 mL/kg/h starting 12 h before until 12 h after contrast exposure; (2) IV NS 154 mmol/L at 3 mL/kg/h starting 1 h before until 6 h after contrast exposure (note: NS and NaHCO3 are felt to be equivalent)

Acute Renal Failure: Post-renal

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

URETHRA—stricture, stenosis

PROSTATE—BPH, prostatitis, cancer

- **BLADDER**—cancer, stones, clots, neurogenic **URETERS** (esp. bilateral involvement)
- INTRALUMINAL—cancer, stones, clots, papillary necrosis
- EXTRALUMINAL—cancer, retroperitoneal fibrosis, pregnancy

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, Cr/urea, urinalysis
- имадімд—US abd/pelvis

SPECIAL

 POST-RESIDUAL VOLUME—>200 mL suggests obstruction

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

- CT ABD/KUB/IVP—if suspect stones or tumors
- DIURESIS RENOGRAPHY OR UROGRAPHY

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

RENAL US—hydronephrosis suggests post-renal causes. However, retroperitoneal fibrosis and acute post-renal obstruction may not show hydronephrosis

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—Foley catheter. For BPH (*tamsulosin* 0.4 mg PO daily or TURP) **RENAL REPLACEMENT—dialysis** (peritoneal, hemodialysis)

Glomerulopathies

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF GLOMERULOPATHIES

AUTOIMMUNE PHENOMENON—antibodies binding to structural components of glomeruli (more glomerular basement membrane and podocytes involvement in nephrotic syndrome, more mesangium and endothelium involvement in nephritic syndrome), circulating antigen–antibody complexes, and/or cell-mediated immunity — further immune activation and damage to glomeruli

PATHOLOGY TERMS—focal = 50% of glomeruli, segmental = segment of glomerulus, global = entire glomerulus

CLINICAL FEATURES

CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS OF GLOMERU-LAR DISEASES

| Clinical | Examples |
|---|---|
| · | Examples |
| Asymptomatic proteinuria | FSGS, mesangial proliferative GN, diabetic nephropathy |
| Nephrotic syndrome | MCD, FSGS, MGN, MPGN, amyloidosis, light chain deposition disease, diabetic nephropathy |
| Asymptomatic | Thin basement |
| hematuria | membrane disease, IgA nephropathy, Alport syndrome |
| Recurrent gross | Thin basement |
| hematuria | membrane disease, IgA nephropathy, Alport syndrome |
| Acute nephritis | Post-infectious GN, IgA nephropathy, lupus nephritis, MPGN |
| Rapidly progressive glomerular nephritis (RPGN) | See text |
| Pulmonary-renal syndrome | Antiglomerular basement membrane antibody disease, immune complex vasculitis, pauci-immune (ANCA) vasculitis |
| Chronic renal failure | Sclerosed glomerular disease |

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN NEPHROTIC AND NEPHRITIC SYNDROMES

| | Nephrotic | Nephritic |
|-------------------|--|--|
| Onset | Slower | Faster |
| Edema | ++++ | ++ |
| Blood pressure | N/↓/↑ | ↑ |
| Volume/ JVP | N/↓/↑ | ↑ |
| Proteinuria | >3 g/day | May be <3 g/day |
| Hematuria | May occur | +++ |
| Urine sediment | Hyaline casts, lipid droplets (oval fat body) | Dysmorphic RBC, WBC, RBC casts, granular casts |
| Albumin | $\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow$ | N/mild ↓ |
| Creatinine | N/↑ | Usually ↑ |
| Serum Na | May be ↓↓ | N/mild ↓ |

NOTE—nephrotic syndrome ≠ nephrotic range proteinuria, which is defined as proteinuria >3 g/day without other symptoms and signs

NEPHROTIC SYNDROME

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS—minimal change disease, membranous GN, focal segmental glomerulosclerosis, MPGN, diabetes, amyloidosis, IgA nephropathy, HIV, drug-associated (NSAIDs, gold, pamidronate)

CLINICAL FEATURES—proteinuria (>3 g/day), edema, hypoalbuminemia, hyperlipidemia, lipiduria, hypercoagulability

INVESTIGATIONS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, 24-h urine for protein and Cr, spot urine protein/Cr ratio, albumin/Cr ratio, renal biopsy (simplification/effacement of visceral podocyte foot processes, classically non-inflammatory), lipid profile **POOR PROGNOSTIC FACTORS**—male, age >50, \uparrow creatinine, proteinuria >10 g/day, proteinuria >6 months, hypertension

TREATMENTS—Na restriction, blood pressure control, ACE inhibitor/ARB, treatment of dyslipidemia, treatment of underlying glomerular disease, anticoagulate if high risk

COMPLICATIONS—AKI/hypovolemia, malnutrition, hyperlipidemia, infections (especially encapsulated bacteria), arterial/venous thrombosis (30–40%), renal vein thrombosis, edema

NEPHRITIC SYNDROME

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS—MPGN, rapidly progressive/crescentic GN (anti-GBM, immune, pauci-immune), IgA nephropathy

CLINICAL FEATURES—hematuria, proteinuria, hypertension, azotemia

INVESTIGATIONS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, ANA, anti-dsDNA, ENA, anti-MPO (p-anca), anti-PR3 (c-anca), anti-GBM, C3, C4 (complements low except for IgA nephropathy), CK, uric acid, ASO titer, HBV serology, HCV serology, cryoglobulin, quantitative Ig, serum protein electrophoresis, renal biopsy

TREATMENTS—steroid, cyclophosphamide, mycophenolate mofetil, rituximab

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

MINIMAL CHANGE DISEASE (MCD)

- ратнорнузюLogy—T-cell abnormality → ↑ glomerular permeability
- causes—primary, secondary (NSAIDs, Li, interferon, NHL, Hodgkin lymphoma, leukemia, HIV, mononucleosis)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—pure nephrotic (minimal hematuria, no RBC casts, creatinine not elevated)
- PATHOLOGY—light microscopy (normal), immunofluorescence (no immune complexes), electron microscopy (effacement of podocyte foot processes)
- TREATMENTS—steroid, cyclophosphamide, cyclosporine
- PROGNOSIS—90% steroid responsive, 10% steroid resistant, end-stage renal disease rare

MEMBRANOUS GN (MGN)

- CAUSES—primary, secondary (gold, penicillamine, captopril, solid tumors [breast, colon, and lung], Hodgkin lymphoma, SLE, rheumatoid arthritis, autoimmune thyroiditis, syphilis, HBV, HCV, chronic transplant rejection)
- clinical FEATURES—pure nephrotic (minimal hematuria, no RBC casts)
- PATHOLOGY—light microscopy (basement membrane thickening, spikes), immunofluorescence (immune complexes IgG, and complements in subepithelial space), electron microscopy (same as immunofluorescence)
- TREATMENTS—steroid, cyclophosphamide, cyclosporine or tacrolimus, rituximab

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

 PROGNOSIS—40% remission, 30% stable, 30% end-stage renal disease over 10–20 years

FOCAL SEGMENTAL GLOMERULOSCLERO-SIS (FSGS)

- CAUSES—primary, secondary (Li, heroin, lymphomas, HIV. May also be associated with sickle cell disease, hypertension, and obesity)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—pure nephrotic (minimal hematuria, no RBC casts)
- PATHOLOGY—light microscopy (segmental areas of sclerosis), immunofluorescence (no immune complexes), electron microscopy (effacement of podocyte foot processes)
- TREATMENTS—steroid, cyclosporine or tacrolimus, mycophenolate mofetil, rituximab
- PROGNOSIS—large percentage with end-stage renal disease over 15–20 years

MEMBRANOPROLIFERATIVE GN (MPGN)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—(1) immune complexmediated due to the deposition of immunoglobulins in the kidney and subsequent complement activation, or (2) complementmediated (known as C3GN) due to either hereditary or acquired abnormalities of the complement system such as C3 nephritic factor and individual complement gene mutations
- CAUSES—primary, secondary (HCV, HBV, endocarditis, abscess, infected shunts, CLL, lymphomas, SLE, cryoglobulinemia, partial lipodystrophy, sickle cell, complement deficiency, complement system abnormalities [hereditary or acquired])
- cLINICAL FEATURES—50% nephrotic, 20% asymptomatic proteinuria/hematuria, 30% acute nephritic
- PATHOLOGY—light microscopy (basement membrane thickening, mesangial cell hypercellularity), immunofluorescence (complements along capillary walls), electron microscopy, immune complex mediated will have staining of immunoglobulins and complement, complement mediated will have staining of complement with minimal or no immunoglobulins.
- TREATMENTS—steroid, mycophenolate mofetil, cyclophosphamide, cyclosporine, complement system inhibitors (e.g. eculizumab for C3GN)
- PROGNOSIS—40–75% end-stage renal disease over 10–15 years

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

RAPIDLY PROGRESSIVE GN (RPGN)—ANTI-GLOMERULAR BASEMENT MEMBRANE ANTIBODY DISEASE

- **PATHOPHYSIOLOGY**—antibody against α3 chain of type IV collagen
- causes—Goodpasture syndrome, anti-GBM antibody nephritis
- CLINICAL FEATURES—nephritic (hematuria, proteinuria, AKI). Goodpasture syndrome also has lung involvement whereas anti-GBM antibody nephritis affects kidney alone
- PATHOLOGY—immunofluorescence (linear staining)
- TREATMENTS—plasmapheresis with IV pulse steroids followed by PO steroids with PO cyclophosphamide

RAPIDLY PROGRESSIVE GN (RPGN)— IMMUNE COMPLEX

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—deposition of circulating immune complex in glomeruli, usually in subendothelial location
- causes—SLE, HBV, HCV, endocarditis, poststrep GN, post-infectious GN, IgA nephropathy, cryoglobulinemia, shunt nephritis
- CLINICAL FEATURES—nephritic (hematuria, proteinuria, AKI)
- PATHOLOGY—immunofluorescence (granular staining)
- TREATMENTS—treat any underlying conditions if present (e.g. infections). Specific treatment of primary diseases will depend on the underlying glomerular disease. Treatments may include IV pulse steroids followed by PO steroids with IV/PO cvclophosphamide, rituximab

RAPIDLY PROGRESSIVE GN (RPGN)— PAUCI-IMMUNE COMPLEX

- causes—granulomatosis with polyangiitis (anti-PR3 [c-anca]), microscopic polyangiitis (anti-MPO [p-anca]), eosinophilic granulomatosis with polyangiitis (EGPA)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—nephritic (hematuria, proteinuria, AKI). May have lung involvement

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- PATHOLOGY—immunofluorescence (no staining)
- TREATMENTS—IV pulse steroids followed by PO steroids with PO cyclophosphamide, rituximab

IGA NEPHROPATHY

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—abnormal regulation of production or structure of IgA in response to environmental antigens → illness triggers production of IgA and/or IgA immune complex → deposit in mesangium
- CAUSES—primary, secondary (IgA vasculitis, celiac disease, dermatitis herpetiformis, cirrhosis, HIV, malignancies, seronegative spondyloarthropathies)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—50% recurrent macroscopic hematuria with URTI, 30–40% persistent microhematuria and proteinuria, 10% rapidly progressive renal failure, <10% nephrotic syndrome
- PATHOLOGY—light microscopy (focal or diffuse mesangial hypercellularity and matrix expansion), immunofluorescence (extensive IgA deposition in mesangium and capillary walls), electron microscopy (mesangial deposits). Patients presenting with nephrotic syndrome may also have nephrotic histologic picture. Note: most of the time IgA nephropathy is a clinical diagnosis. No biopsy unless AKI or severe symptoms
- TREATMENTS—ACE inhibitors for greater than 300 mg/day of albumin. Steroids, cytotoxic agents for those not controlled by ACE inhibitors
- PROGNOSIS—20–40% end-stage renal disease over 20 years. Risk depends on amount of proteinuria

Related Topics

Acute Renal Failure (p. 83) Chronic Kidney Disease (p. 89)

Chronic Kidney Disease

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

CAUSES OF ACUTE RENAL FAILURE—pre-renal, renal, post-renal (see ACUTE RENAL FAILURE p. 83) CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASES

 RENOVASCULAR DISEASE—atherosclerosis, hypertensive nephropathy, glomerulosclerosis (with age)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

- DIABETES—proteinuria
- GLOMERULONEPHRITIS
- POLYCYSTIC KIDNEY DISEASE
- MULTIPLE MYELOMA
- NEPHROTOXINS—NSAIDs

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE—>3 months of abnormal renal function, suggests irreversible component

STAGING OF CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE GLOMERULAR STAGE

- stage GI (GFR ≥90 mL/min/1.73 m², proteinuria)—observe, consider ACE inhibitor if albuminuria >30 mg/mmol or diabetes
- stage GII (GFR 60–89 mL/min/1.73 m²)—consider ACE inhibitor if albuminuria >30 mg/mmol or diabetes
- STAGE GIIIa (GFR 45–59 mL/min/1.73 m²) consider statin if more than 50 years old or high risk (e.g. diabetes), see below for ACE indications
- stage GIIIb (GFR 30–44 mL/min/1.73 m²) consider statin if more than 50 years old or high risk (e.g. diabetes), see below for ACE indications
- stage GIV (GFR 15–29 mL/min/1.73 m²)—consider statin if older than 50 years old or high risk of diabetes, see below for ACE indications
- STAGE GV (GFR <15 mL/min/1.73 m²)—dialysis (if indications for hemodialysis. Most do not start above GFR of 5–10 mL/min/1.73 m² although there is no strict GFR cutoff), transplantation, or palliation

ALBUMINURIA STAGE

- stage AI (albumin-to-creatinine ratio [ACR] <3 mg/mmol)
- stage All (ACR 3–30 mg/mmol)—ACE inhibitor for diabetes, consider statin
- stage AIII (ACR >30 mg/mmol)—ACE inhibitor for all, SGLT2 inhibitor for diabetes, consider statin

RISK FACTORS FOR CHRONIC KIDNEY DIS-EASE DEVELOPMENT AND PROGRES-SION—old age, hypertension, proteinuria (not just a surrogate marker), high-protein diet, dyslipidemia, smoking

CLINICAL FEATURES

SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS OF CHRONIC KID-NEY DISEASE

- VOLUME OVERLOAD
- ELECTROLYTE/ACID—BASE BALANCE—hyperkalemia
- METABOLIC ACIDOSIS
- NORMOCYTIC ANEMIA
- CALCIUM/PHOSPHATE BALANCE—↓ 1,25(OH)₂ vitamin D3 synthesis in kidney, ↑ PO₄ due to

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

- decreased filtration $\rightarrow \downarrow$ Ca $\rightarrow \uparrow$ PTH \rightarrow chronic kidney disease-mineral bone disease (pathological descriptions include **osteitis fibrosa** with increased bone resorption from secondary hyperparathyroidism; **osteomalacia** with decreased bone resorption and unmineralized bone due to aluminum binder use [now uncommon]; **adynamic bone disease** with decreased bone resorption due to oversuppression of PTH; **mixed uremic osteodystropy** either high or low bone turnover with abnormal mineralization)
- UREMIC SYMPTOMS
 - constitutional—fatigue, generalized weakness
 - NEUROLOGIC—decreased memory and concentration, slow and slurred speech, myotonic jerks, seizures, altered smell and taste, peripheral neuropathy, sleep disturbances, restless leg syndrome
 - GASTROINTESTINAL—anorexia, nausea and vomiting, gastritis
 - нематоLogic—anemia, platelet dysfunction, and bleeding
 - MUSCULOSKELETAL—bone disorders, arthropathy, muscle cramps
 - DERMATOLOGIC—pruritus, uremic frost, sallow
 - sexual—amenorrhea, sexual dysfunction, infertility

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, HbA1C, Ca, PO₄, Mg, PTH, albumin, fasting lipid profile, urinalysis, 24-h urinary albumin collection, 24-h urinary protein collection

SPECIAL

 MYELOMA WORKUP—serum protein electrophoresis, urinary protein electrophoresis, consider serum free light chains

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN CHRONIC AND ACUTE KIDNEY INJURY previous creatinine (>3 months of elevated creatinine suggests CKD), anemia, small kidneys from renal US (except diabetes, amyloidosis, acromegaly, renal vein thrombosis, HIV nephropathy), renal osteodystrophy consistent with CKD. Renal biopsy is also helpful

MANAGEMENT

SLOW PROGRESSION

- LIMIT PROTEIN INTAKE-0.8-1 g/kg/day
- ACE INHIBITION—blood pressure and proteinuria control (ramipril 1.25–10 mg PO daily), renoprotective (see below) indicated for patients with diabetes or patients with chronic kidney disease with albuminuria greater than 300 mg/day or 500 mg/day or total proteinuria
- LIPID CONTROL
- AVOID NEPHROTOXINS
- SMOKING CESSATION
- DIABETES MELLITUS—SGLT2 inhibitors for patients with GFR >30 ml/min/1.73 m² and >300 mg/day of albuminuria (stage A3).
- TREAT HYPERTENSION—see Hypertension: Acute and Long-term Management (p. 70)

TREAT COMPLICATIONS

- VOLUME OVERLOAD—low-sodium diet, diuretics
- HYPERKALEMIA (K >5.5 mmol/L)—low-potassium diet, hydrochlorothiazide 12.5 mg PO daily (if GFR >30 mL/min/1.73 m²), furosemide 20 mg PO daily (if GFR less than 30 mL/min/1.73m²), kayexalate 30 g PO daily, decrease ACE inhibitor, consider newer novel potassium binders (sodium zirconium cyclosilicate, patiromer)
- METABOLIC ACIDOSIS—consider NaHCO₃ if low pH or HCO₃
- ANEMIA (Hb <95 g/L [Hb <9.5 g/dL])—epoetin alfa 50-200 U/kg/week SC/IV div 2-3 ×/week, darbepoetin alfa 0.45 µg/kg SC every week, ferrous fumarate 600 mg PO nightly, goal to keep Hb 95-115 g/L [9.5-11.5 g/dL]. Ensure that iron stores are adequate before starting erythropoietin
- CALCIUM/PHOSPHATE BALANCE—keep Ca normal, PO₄ < 1.5 mmol/L [<4.6 mg/dL], PTH <2-3 × normal, dietary phosphate restriction, phosphate binder CaCO₃ 500 mg PO TID, calcitriol 0.25–1 μg PO daily, parathyroidectomy

RENAL REPLACEMENT—dialysis (peritoneal, hemodialysis at home and/or in-center), renal transplant

TREATMENT ISSUES

CRITERIA FOR DIALYSIS IN CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE—uremic symptoms, any acute indications, GFR <6 mL/min/1.73 m²

ACE INHIBITORS IN RENAL FAILURE—ACE inhibition leads to vasodilation of efferent arterioles $\rightarrow \downarrow$ intraglomerular pressure $\rightarrow \downarrow$ long-term remodeling/stress \rightarrow slow progression of chronic kidney disease. Other positive effects of ACE inhibition include \downarrow blood pressure, \downarrow proteinuria, and \downarrow mediators of glomerular tubule hypertrophy and fibrosis. Should start in all patients with chronic kidney disease \pm hypertension \pm proteinuria. If <30% rise in creatinine after starting ACE inhibitor, should continue as long-term benefit important. Expect GFR to return to pre-ACE inhibitor baseline after 3–4 months due to remodeling

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

DIABETIC NEPHROPATHY

- STAGE AI ALBUMINURIA (<30 mg/day)—lasts 8–10 years, treatment with glycemic/blood pressure/lipid control, smoking cessation
- STAGE All ALBUMINURIA (30–300 mg/day)—lasts 5–10 years, same treatment as above plus ACE inhibitor, protein restriction
- STAGE AIII ALBUMINURIA (>300 mg/day)—CrCl declines by 2–20 mL/min/year, same treatment as above, add SGLT2 inhibitor
- PERCENTAGES—25–40% of type 1 or 2 diabetics develop nephropathy: 99% of type 1 diabetics with chronic kidney disease are related to diabetes, while this is true only for 30% of type 2 diabetics

Related Topics

Acute Renal Failure (p. 83) Diabetes Mellitus (p. 365) Glomerulonephritis (p. 87) Hypertension (p. 70) Multiple Myeloma (p. 199) Polycystic Kidney Disease (p. 93)

Proteinuria

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

FUNCTIONAL OR TRANSIENT (<1 g/day) infection, fever, exercise, orthostatic

TUBULAR (0.5–1 g/day)—interstitial nephritis, ATN, proximal tubular dysfunction (Fanconi syndrome)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

GLOMERULAR (1–3 g/day, usually >3 g/day) nephrotic syndrome, nephritic syndrome, early diabetes

OVERFLOW (any amount but usually >1 g/day)—multiple myeloma

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF PROTEINURIA—>150 mg/day of protein in urine. Physiologically, <150 mg of protein is secreted per day (Tamm-Horsfall mucoprotein mainly, with <30 mg albumin)

PROTEIN FILTRATION—based on size and charge. Large proteins such as albumin are usually retained by glomerular basement membrane (affected in glomerular proteinuria), while small proteins such as β_2 microglobulin filter through but are reabsorbed at proximal tubules (affected in tubular proteinuria)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—ankle swelling, fever, strenuous exercise, urinary tract infections (dysuria, frequency), past medical history (myeloma, diabetes, glomerulonephropathies, lupus), medications (antibiotics, NSAIDs)

PHYSICAL—vitals particularly blood pressure, abdominal examination (cystic kidney), ankle edema, periorbital edema

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, HbA1C, fasting glucose, albumin
- URINALYSIS—inaccurate and dependent on urine volume, detects mainly negative charged proteins such as albumin and less so light chains

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

- SULFOSALICYLIC ACID TEST—detects all proteins
- SPOT PROTEIN /CR RATIO (SI units)—to estimate daily protein excretion in mg
 - ♂=ratio×0.14–0.16 mg/kg/day×weight in kg
 - Q = ratio × 0.18–0.20 mg/kg/day × weight in kg
- 24-H URINARY PROTEIN—most accurate but cumbersome method to quantify urinary protein

SPECIAL

- муеLOMA workup—urinary protein electrophoresis, serum protein electrophoresis
- KIDNEY BIOPSY

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—observe if <1 g/day, urine benign and creatinine normal. Consider biopsy otherwise.

SLOW PROGRESSION—ACE inhibitors, SGLT2 inhibitors (if type 2 diabetes and ACR >30 mg/mmol)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

ORTHOSTATIC/POSTURAL PROTEINURIA mainly in healthy young people. Split upright and recumbent urine collections could reveal protein loss mainly with upright position. Usually disappears with time and is of no clinical significance

Hematuria

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PIGMENTS—beets, myoglobinuria, hemoglobinuria, porphyrin, rifampin, food coloring **TRANSIENT**—menstruation, urinary tract infections, fever, exercise (march hematuria), trauma, endometriosis, renal vein thrombosis **GLOMERULAR**

- NEPHRITIC SYNDROME—MPGN, RPGN, IgA nephropathy (see GLOMERULOPATHIES p. 87)
- HEREDITARY DISORDERS—Alport syndrome, thin basement membrane disease, loin pain hematuria syndrome

EXTRA-GLOMERULAR

- тимокs—kidneys, ureters, bladder, urethra
- STONES
- CYSTIC KIDNEY DISEASE—polycystic kidney disease, medullary cystic kidney disease, medullary sponge kidney

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF HEMATURIA—>1-2 RBC/ high-power field

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—blood clots, other sources of bleeding (Gl, hemoptysis, epistaxis), beets, fever, strenuous exercise, urinary tract infections (dysuria, frequency), last menstrual period, past medical history (tumors, renal stones, cystic kidney disease, lupus, Alport syndrome), medications (ASA, NSAIDs, anticoagulants), ANCA (sinus, hemoptysis, neuropathy, hearing problems, asthma)

PHYSICAL—vitals (particularly blood pressure), check hearing, abdominal examination (cystic kidney)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, INR, PTT, urinalysis, urine C&S, urine cytology, GN serology (if you suspect GN)
- IMAGING—KUB, US abd, IVP, CT abd

SPECIAL

- сузтовсору—if suspect extra-glomerular bleed
- кірнеу віоруу—if suspect glomerular pathology
- URINE TESTS—24-h urine calcium, oxalate, citrate, phosphate, sodium and urate (if stones suspected)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

DIFFERENTIATING FEATURES FOR SOURCE OF BLEEDING

- GLOMERULAR—cola urine, proteinuria, dysmorphic RBC (acanthocytes), RBC casts, no clot
- EXTRA-GLOMERULAR—bright red urine, no proteinuria, no dysmorphic RBC, clots, no RBC casts

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

ISOLATED PERSISTENT HEMATURIA—predisposition to stones, IgA nephropathy, Alport syndrome, thin basement membrane disease, loin pain-hematuria syndrome

ALPORT SYNDROME

- **PATHOPHYSIOLOGY**—X-linked defect in α5 chain of type IV collagen
- CLINICAL FEATURES—hematuria without proteinuria, may have hearing loss. End-stage renal disease by age 30–45 in males. Persistent microhematuria but rarely renal failure in female carriers

THIN BASEMENT DISEASE

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—autosomal dominant; defect of type IV collagen (usually α3 or α4 chain)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—hematuria without proteinuria. Normal GFR

Related topics

Glomerulonephritis (p. 87) Polycystic Kidney Disease (p. 93)

Cystic Kidney Diseases

CAUSES

SIMPLE CYST MALIGNANT CYST AUTOSOMAL DOMINANT POLYCYSTIC KIDNEY DISEASE MEDULLARY SPONGE KIDNEY AUTOSOMAL DOMINANT TUBULOINTER-STITIAL KIDNEY DISEASE (previously known as MEDULLARY CYSTIC KIDNEY DISEASE)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, Cr/urea, urinalysis
- IMAGING—US renal, IVP (medullary sponge kidney)

MANAGEMENT

TREAT COMPLICATIONS—infections, stones, dialysis if end-stage renal disease

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

AUTOSOMAL DOMINANT POLYCYSTIC KIDNEY DISEASE

★THE RULE OF 60'S★

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—autosomal dominant, affecting 1/400–1/1000 persons. 85% PKD1 (polycystin) mutation and 15% PKD2 mutation → multiple cysts formation in kidneys, liver, pancreas, ovaries, and spleen → cysts in renal cortex and medulla enlarge in size over years, cysts are prone to bleeding and infections. Risk factors for progression include younger age at diagnosis, male, Black, hypertension, and PKD1
- CLINICAL FEATURES—symptoms may include abdominal pain/fullness, microscopic hematuria (gross hematuria if cyst hemorrhages), hypertension, renal stone disease, recurrent UTI (cyst infections). Extrarenal involvements include cysts in other organs (liver 60%),

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

abdominal wall hernias (45%), colonic diverticuli, mitral valve prolapse (25%), and intracranial aneurysms (5–10%). Progression to end-stage renal disease <2% by age 40, 25% by age 50, 50% by age **60**, and 75% by age 70

- DIAGNOSIS—radiologic based on multiple cyst in kidneys (age 2 cysts; age 30–60, 2 cysts in each kidney; age >60, ≥4 cysts in each kidney) in patients with a family history of PKD. No radiologic criteria exist for patients without a family history.
- TREATMENTS—tolvaptan (vasopressin 2 receptor antagonist, indicated for patients with a high risk of progression), blood pressure control, ACE inhibitors, dialysis if end-stage renal disease

AUTOSOMAL DOMINANT TUBULOINTER-STITIAL KIDNEY DISEASE (previously known as MEDULLARY CYSTIC KIDNEY DISEASE)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—genetic abnormality with diffuse tubulointerstitial cysts at corticomedullary border; cysts may be absent altogether
- clinical FEATURES—symptoms include precocious gout, family history of CKD
- Frequently progress to end-stage renal disease by age 20–50

• TREATMENTS—dialysis if end-stage renal disease MEDULLARY SPONGE KIDNEY

- ратнорнузюLоду—malformation of terminal collecting ducts bilaterally
- CLINICAL FEATURES—usually asymptomatic, but may see kidney stones, microscopic hematuria, or infections. Renal failure not likely. May see "brush-like" appearance of calyces in IVP
- **TREATMENTS**—treatment of stones and infections as needed

SIMPLE CYSTS

- **PATHOPHYSIOLOGY**—30% of men, 15% of women by age 70
- CLINICAL FEATURES—cortex affected. May be single or multiple. Usually round, well demarcated, smooth walls, no echoes within cyst, strong posterior wall echo. Asymptomatic and renal failure unlikely

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

 DIAGNOSIS—US renal every 6–12 months to help distinguish from cystic malignancy based on US appearance of worrisome cysts

MALIGNANT RENAL CYSTS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—3–5% of all malignancies
- CLINICAL FEATURES—>50% incidentally found, classic triad (flank pain, hematuria and fever), hypercalcemia, erythrocytosis, Stauffer syndrome (features of cholestasis without kidney stone unrelated to metastasis)
- DIAGNOSIS—US or CT. MR typically used to further characterize cysts
- BOSNIAK CLASSIFICATION
 - BOSNIAK I—simple cyst (thin walled, no septae, no calcification, low density, no solid component and does not enhance). No further imaging required
 - возмык и—thick septae, mild calcification, or uniformly attenuated lesion less than 3cm. Consider CT scan to characterize lesion
 - BOSNIAK IIF—well marginated, multiple septae or minimal smooth thickening, thick or nodular calcification, total enhancement in lesions >3cm. Consider CT scan to characterize lesion. Risk of malignancy is higher and monitoring in 6–12 months is advised
 - BOSNIAK III—thickened or irregular smooth walls and measurable enhancement. Risk of malignancy is 40–60%. High risk. Needs referral for assessment by urology
 - BOSNIAK IV—findings of Bosniak III with soft tissue component. Risk of malignancy is 85–100%. Referral to urology
- MANAGEMENT—rule out genetic syndromes (von Hippel Lindau, tuberous sclerosis). Surgical management via partial or radical nephrectomy is mainstay for non-metastatic cancers. Ablative therapies are possible for localized disease. Biopsy is not pursued unless ablative therapy or for chemotherapy in metastatic disease due to risk of seeding peritoneum. Adjuvant chemotherapy is considered for higher risk cancers or metastatic lesions (see KIDNEY CANCER p. 227)

Metabolic Acidosis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

HIGH ANION GAP (NORMOCHLOREMIC) ★MUDPILE CATS★

- METHANOL
- UREMIA
- · DKA
- PARALDEHYDE
- ISONIAZID AND IRON
- LACTIC ACIDOSIS
- ETHYLENE GLYCOL
- CYANIDE
- ARSENIC/ACETAMINOPHEN
- TOLUENE
- SALICYLATES
- **★KULT★**
- KETONES
- UREMIA
- LACTIC ACIDOSIS
- TOXINS

NORMAL-ANION GAP (HYPERCHLOREMIC)

- HCL GAIN—drinking HCl
- HCO₃Loss—renal (proximal RTA, acetazolamide), GI (diarrhea, ostomy loss)
- HCO₃PRODUCTION—distal RTA, aldo-sterone deficiency/resistance

★HARD POPS★

- HYPERALIMENTATION (resulting from amino acid load in TPN)
- AMPHOTERICIN, ACETAZOLAMIDE
- RENAL FAILURE, RTA (type I, II, IV)
- DIARRHEA
- PANCREATITIS, PANCREATIC FISTULA
- obstructive uropathy (RTA IV)
- PEE (ureteroenteric drain/ileal conduit)
- SALINE

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, lactate, ketone, serum alcohol/methanol, serum osmolality, urinalysis, urine lytes

• ABG

SPECIAL

 URINE OXALATE CRYSTALS—if suspect ethylene glycol ingestion

Related Topics

Osmolar Gap (p. 123) Overdose (p. 120) Respiratory Acidosis (p. 24) Respiratory Alkalosis (p. 25)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

APPROACH TO ARTERIAL BLOOD GAS (ABG)

- Check accuracy of data. H⁺=24× PCO₂/HCO₃ (modified Henderson–Hasselbalch formula). Recollect ABG and lytes if discrepancy found
- 2. Identify primary acid/base disturbance
 - Acidemia—pH <7.35
 - Alkalemia—pH >7.45
 - Acidosis/alkalosis—disturbance in PCO₂ or HCO₃, irrespective of pH, that may result in acidemia/alkalemia, respectively
 - Metabolic—initiated by change in HCO₃
 - Respiratory—initiated by change in PCO₂
- 3. Check compensation

| | Primary change | Compensation |
|------|------------------|-------------------------|
| | HCO ₃ | pCO ₂ |
| MAc | ↓10 | ↓ 10–13 |
| MAlk | ↑ 10 | ↑ 5–7 |
| | pCO ₂ | HCO ₃ |
| RAIk | ↓ 10 | ↓ 5 (chronic) 2 (acute) |
| RAc | ↑ 10 | ↑ 3 (chronic) 1 (acute) |

Normal pCO₂=40 mmHg, HCO₃=24 mmol/L

 Calculate anion gap (↑ anion gap in MAc, ↓ anion gap may be due to hypoalbuminemia [10:2.5 ratio], paraproteinemia [e.g. myeloma], halide ingestion [e.g. lithium] or laboratory error) ANION GAP = Na – Cl – HCO₃; normal is between 8 and 12 mmol/L

4a. If anion gap metabolic acidosis, calculate osmolar gap to differentiate between causes OSMOLAR GAP = (Glucose + Urea + Na⁺×2) – observed osmolality \star GUN2 \star (see p. 123 for more details)

4b. **Calculate "delta ratio"** (also known as "delta-delta") to check for any superimposed metabolic disorder

 $\Delta AG/\Delta HCO_3 = (AG - 10)/(24 - HCO_3)$

 Any superimposed respiratory disorder? After adjusting pCO₂ to account for HCO₃ changes (see compensation table above), is there evidence of hypoventilation (↑ pCO₂) or hyperventilation (↓ pCO₂)?

$\Delta AG/\Delta HCO3$ Interpretation

| <0.4 | Combined \uparrow AG MAc + non-AG MAc (i.e. \downarrow HCO3 >> \uparrow AG) |
|---------|--|
| 0.4–0.8 | Possible ↑ AG MAc + non-AG MAc; typical for renal failure |

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

ΔAG/ΔHCO3 Interpretation

| 1.0-2.0 | Isolated ↑ AG MAc |
|--------------|---|
| | Lactic acidosis usually 1.6 |
| | DKA usually 1.0 |
| >2.0 | Combined \uparrow AG MAc + MAlk, or |
| | Pre-existing compensated RAc |
| | (i.e. \uparrow AG >> \downarrow HCO3) |
| NOTE—be wary | of over interpretation, use |

clinical judgment

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O_2 , IV, intubation, NaHCO₃ 1–2 amp IV bolus if pH <7.0

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

LYTES AND URINE LYTES

- ANION GAP METABOLIC ACIDOSIS—serum chloride normal
- URINE NET CHARGE (UNC, also known as urine anion gap)—urine Na + K – Cl. In the presence of acidosis and normal renal ammonium secretion, UNC would be negative because NH₄⁺ is excreted as the unmeasured cation (i.e. type II RTA, not type I RTA); remember to look for GI losses (neGUTive)

RENAL TUBULAR ACIDOSIS - TYPE I (distal)

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—inability of intercalated cells to make/secrete NH₄⁺ in distal tubule. Causes include H⁺/ATPase mutation (associated with hypokalemia), back leakage of hydrogen ions due to increased luminal membrane permeability (amphotericin B), non-functional H⁺/ATPase (Sjögren syn-

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

drome, rheumatoid arthritis), cirrhosis; urine pH elevated because of \downarrow H⁺ in urine. Serum K \downarrow in most cases

- DIAGNOSIS—positive UNC, urine pH inappropriately high despite metabolic acidosis
- TREATMENTS—treat underlying cause. HCO₃ and K supplement, or potassium citrate

RENAL TUBULAR ACIDOSIS – TYPE II (proximal)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—inability to reabsorb HCO₃ at the proximal tubule. Causes include Fanconi syndrome (multiple myeloma, carbonic anhydrase inhibitor, ifosfamide), genetic disorders (Wilson disease, cystinosis), vitamin D deficiency, and renal transplant
- DIAGNOSIS—low serum K, negative urine net charge. Confirmation is done by HCO₃ challenge → check urine pH every 2 h → measure serum HCO₃ level when urine pH >7 (expect relatively "low" serum HCO₃ in type II RTA). Urinary pH initially ↑ due to HCO₃ loss, but then ↓ as serum HCO₃ becomes low
- TREATMENTS—usually self-limiting in adults. HCO₃ supplement has limited utility due to HCO₃ wasting and may even lead to hypokalemia

RENAL TUBULAR ACIDOSIS – TYPE IV

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—causes include hyporeninemic hypoaldosteronism (renal failure, frequently diabetic nephropathy and sometimes acute glomerulonephritis, ACE inhibitors, NSAIDs), primary aldosterone deficiency (Addison disease, congenital adrenal hyperplasia), aldosterone resistance (amiloride, spironolactone, tubulointerstitial disease), sickle cell disease
- DIAGNOSIS—high serum K
- TREATMENTS—K restriction in diet, diuretics. Fludrocortisone may be used with caution

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES FOR RENAL TUBULAR ACIDOSIS

| | Type I | Type II | Type IV |
|------------|--------------|----------|---------------------------|
| Pathology | Distal | Proximal | Ald deficiency/resistance |
| Serum K | \downarrow | Ļ | 1 |
| Serum HCO3 | Variable | 10–20 | >17 |
| Urine Ph | >5.3 | Variable | <5.3 |
| UNC | Positive | Negative | Variable/usually positive |

Metabolic Alkalosis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

HCO₃ GAIN—HCO₃ administration (IV/PO), citrate (transfusion), acetate (TPN)

- H⁺ LOSS
- GI LOSS—vomiting, NG suction
- PHYSIOLOGIC ALDOSTERONE-MEDIATED RENAL LOSS
 (volume sensitive)
 - − ↓ FLUID INTAKE
 - RENAL LOSS—diuretics, Bartter syndrome, Gitelman syndrome, hypomagnesemia
 - GI LOSS—vomiting, ileus, villous adenoma, stool CI loss
 - sкin Loss—sweat, burn
 - INTRACELLULAR ACIDOSIS—hypokalemia
- PATHOLOGICAL ALDOSTERONE-MEDIATED RENAL LOSS (volume insensitive)
 - − ↑ RENIN—renal artery stenosis, tumor
 - ↑ ALDOSTERONE—Conn syndrome
 - ↑ ALDOSTERONE-LIKE—Cushing syndrome

★CLEVER PD★

- CONTRACTION
- LICORICE
- ENDOCRINE—Conn syndrome, Cushing syndrome, Bartter syndrome
- VOMITING
- EXCESS ALKALI
- REFEEDING ALKALOSIS
- POST-HYPERCAPNIA
- DIURETICS

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

FACTORS THAT POTENTIATE METABOLIC ALKALOSIS—↓effective circulating fluid volume, hypokalemia, hyperaldosteronism, chloride deficiency

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, serum osmolality, urinalysis, urine lytes, magnesium, urine osmolality
- ABG

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

SPECIAL

SERUM ALDOSTERONE AND RENIN

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

LYTES AND URINE LYTES

| | U-Na | U-K | U-CI | BP |
|------------------------|------|-----|------|----|
| Vomit HCI loss | 1 | 1 | Ļ | Ļ |
| Burn NaCl loss | Ļ | 1 | Ļ | Ļ |
| Physiologic renal loss | 1 | 1 | 1 | Ļ |
| Pathologic renal loss | Ļ | 1 | Ļ | 1 |

URINE CHLORIDE

- INCREASED (>20 mmol/L, "CI resistant") diuretic use (decreased CI reabsorption), Bartter and Gitelman syndrome (decreased CI reabsorption), mineralocorticoid excess (Conn syndrome), Cushing syndrome, licorice, severe hypokalemia (impaired CI transport), hypomagnesemia, alkali load, idiopathic
- DECREASED (<10 mmol/L, "Cl responsive") decreased chloride intake, vomiting, NG drainage, post-diuresis, cystic fibrosis, villous adenoma, laxative abuse, persistent posthypercapnia, RTA (decreased NH₄ excretion)

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O₂, IV

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—volume sensitive (fluids, replete K), volume insensitive (spironolactone, amiloride)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

BARTTER SYNDROME—mutation of the Na–K–2Cl transporter in the thick ascending limb of Henle (similar to inhibition by loop diuretics). Characterized by hypercalciuria

GITELMAN SYNDROME—mutation of the Na-Cl transporter in the distal tubule (similar to inhibition by thiazide diuretics). Characterized by hypocalciuria

Hyponatremia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF HYPOOSMOLAR HYPONATREMIA

HYPOVOLEMIC (VOLUME DEPLETION)

 RENAL LOSS—diuretics, hypoadrenalism, hypomagnesemia, Bartter

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF HYPOOSMOLAR HYPONATREMIA (CONT'D)

- GI LOSS—vomiting, diarrhea, third spacing
- sкin Loss—sweat burns
- BLOOD LOSS

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF HYPOOSMOLAR HYPONATREMIA (CONT'D)

EUVOLEMIC

- NON-SIADH MECHANISMS
- ADRENAL INSUFFICIENCY
- HYPOTHYROIDISM
- PSYCHOGENIC POLYDIPSIA
- LOW-SOLUTE DIET—beer potomania, teaand-toast syndrome
- SIADH MECHANISMS
 - PHYSIOLOGIC RESPONSE—stress, anxiety, pain, nausea
 - CANCER—SCLC, pancreatic, duodenum, thymoma, lymphoma
 - LUNG DISEASE—TB, abscess, empyema, pneumonia, viral pneumonitis
 - CNS PROBLEMS—skull fracture, subarachnoid hemorrhage, subdural hemorrhage, cerebral atrophy, encephalitis, meningitis, Guillain-Barré syndrome, lupus, acute intermittent porphyria
 - DRUGS—morphine, carbamazepine, TCA, chlorpropamide, vincristine, vinblastine, clofibrate, oxytocin, general anesthesia

HYPERVOLEMIC (edema)—cardiac failure, cirrhosis, GI-losing enteropathy, nephrotic syndrome, malnutrition

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF HYPONATREMIA—Na <135 mmol/L. The serum osmolality should be less than 275 mmol/L for hypoosmolar hyponatremia

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, TSH, cortisol, urine lytes, urine Cr, serum and urine osmolality (e.g. to rule out pseudohyponatremia)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

VOLUME STATUS—the patient's volume status (hypovolemia, euvolemic, hypervolemic) helps to narrow the differential diagnosis and dictates the appropriate workup

SIADH CRITERIA—diagnosis of SIADH requires the following: cause available, clinically euvolemic, hyponatremic, increased urine osmolality (>100 mmol/L and usually >300 mmol/L), specific gravity (>1.003), increased urine Na (>30 mmol/L), and low uric acid. Also need to rule out hypothyroidism, adrenal insufficiency, diuretic use, and psychogenic polydipsia.

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

CALCULATING CORRECTION RATE

- CHANGE IN SERUM NA
- = $(Na_{infusate} Na_{serum})/(total body water+1)$ where total body water $\approx 0.5 \times body$ weight (kg) in women and $0.6 \times body$ weight (kg) in men
- VOLUME OF INFUSATE NEEDED (in liters) = intended change in serum Na over a defined period of time (usually 8 mmol/L over 24 h)/change in serum Na
- In patients with chronic hyponatremia, the daily limit of increase in serum Na should be ≤8 mmol/L to minimize the risk of osmotic demyelination syndrome (ODS). The initial rate of correction can still be 1–2 mmol/L per hour for several hours in patients with severe symptoms. In patients with acute hyponatremia, the daily limit can be more flexible
- INFUSATE SODIUM CONTENT—D5W (5% dextrose in water) 0 mmol/L, ½ NS (0.45% NaCl in water) 77 mmol/L, Ringer lactate 130 mmol/L, NS (0.9% NaCl in water) 154 mmol/L, 3% hypertonic saline 513 mmol/L, 5% hypertonic saline 855 mmol/L

MANAGEMENT

HYPOVOLEMIC—**NS** infusion. 3 bouillon cubes/L water daily×3 days. Hypertonic saline or furosemide if severe (be extremely cautious)

EUVOLEMIC—free water restriction <1 L/days. NS or hypertonic saline (3%), plus furosemide if severe. Urea and salt tabs can be considered. Treat underlying cause

HYPERVOLEMIC—Na and free water restriction <1 L/day, bed rest. Treat underlying cause

TREATMENT ISSUES

VAPTANS ("AQUARETICS")—oral V2 receptor antagonists \rightarrow block ADH action \rightarrow water diuresis (for correction of euvolemic and hypervolemic hyponatremia, but requires close monitoring. Generally avoided in acute hyponatremia due to risk of over correction)

INDICATIONS FOR HYPERTONIC SALINE severe symptoms such as seizures

FUROSEMIDE-INDUCED DIURESIS—furosemide can be used to treat hyponatremia, particularly with the concurrent use of normal saline or hypertonic saline. It works by reducing the interstitial gradient and making the urine more dilute. Careful monitoring to avoid Na overcorrection
SPECIFIC ENTITIES

PSEUDOHYPONATREMIA—severe paraproteinemia or hypertriglyceridemia

HYPEROSMOLAR HYPONATREMIA—hyperglycemia (correct Na by adding 3 mmol/L for every 10 mmol/L increase in glucose), hypertonic 3 mmol/L mannitol

ISOOSMOLAR HYPONATREMIA—glycine or sorbitol flushing solutions during transurethral resection

ACUTE HYPONATREMIA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—very different from chronic hyponatremia. Usually develops postop due to ADH release from stress, pain, nausea, meds (morphine, chlorpromazine, carbamazepine), brain natriuretic peptide
- DIAGNOSIS—low Na
- TREATMENTS—compared to chronic hyponatremia, it is acceptable to correct Na rapidly to ~140 mmol/L with little risk of CPM

OSMOTIC DEMYELINATION SYNDROME

 ратнорнузюсову—within first day of hyponatremia, brain swells as water shifts into cells to

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- equilibrate osmotic gradient \rightarrow brain cells extrude Na, K, and osmolytes to balance the gradient and to minimize cerebral edema \rightarrow over next 2–3 days, brain volume returns to normal \rightarrow rapid Na correction can lead to "shrinking" of brain cells or osmotic demyelination, particularly if Na increased by >12 mmol/L per day
- CLINICAL FEATURES—typically delayed 2–6 days (may be weeks) after correction and often irreversible. Symptoms include dysarthria, dysphagia, paraparesis, lethargy, coma, and seizures
- RISK FACTORS—alcohol use disorder, ♀ on thiazide diuretics, patients with low K⁺, elderly, and burn victims
- DIAGNOSIS—CT head, MRI head
- TREATMENTS—dismal prognosis with no effective therapy. Careful avoidance of Na overcorrection is key. If overcorrection occurs, re-lowering sodium is warranted and is likely protective

Hypernatremia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

HYPOVOLEMIC—decreased thirst, decreased water access

EUVOLEMIC (diabetes insipidus)

- NEUROGENIC—trauma, tumors, infections (TB, meningitis, encephalitis), infiltrative (sarcoidosis), vascular, idiopathic
- NEPHROGENIC—renal disorders (polycystic kidneys, infiltration, infection, ischemia), hypercalcemia, medications (lithium, demeclocycline, amphotericin B), genetic (x-linked), idiopathic

HYPERVOLEMIC—drink seawater, excessive IV fluid, primary hyperaldosteronism

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF HYPERNATREMIA—Na >145 mmol/L

CLINICAL FEATURES

SYMPTOMS—may include intense thirst, muscle weakness, confusion, and coma. Brain shrinkage could potentially cause vascular rupture, leading to cerebral bleeding, subarachnoid hemorrhage, permanent neurologic deficit, and death

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, Ca, serum osmolality, urinalysis, urine lytes, urine Cr, urine osmolality

SPECIAL

 DDAVP TEST—to distinguish between nephrogenic and neurogenic diabetes insipidus (DI)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

CALCULATING CORRECTION RATE

- **WATER DEFICIT** (in liters) = $(Na_{current}/Na_{goal} - 1) \times total body water$
- CHANGE IN SERUM Na = (Na_{infusate} - Na_{serum})/(total body water + 1) where total body water ≈0.5 × body weight in women and 0.6 × body weight in men
- VOLUME OF INFUSATE NEEDED (in liters) = intended change in serum Na over a defined period of time (usually 10 mmol/L over 24 h) divided by change in serum Na + 1.5 L to compensate for obligatory daily water losses
- INFUSATE SODIUM CONTENT—D5W (5% dextrose in water) 0 mmol/L, ½NS (0.45% NaCl in water) 77 mmol/L, Ringer lactate 130 mmol/L, NS (0.9% NaCl in water) 154 mmol/L. Avoid using

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

NS for correction of hypernatremia unless hemodynamic instability/fluid resuscitation

OSMOLALITY—urine osmolality is usually lower than serum osmolality in diabetes insipidus, whereas urine osmolality is usually higher than serum osmolality in hypovolemic hypernatremia

Hypokalemia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

↓ INTAKE—rare

SHIFT INTO CELL—metabolic alkalosis, hyperinsulin states, $\uparrow \beta$ -adrenergic states, hypothermia $\uparrow OUTPUT$

- **GI** LOSS—diarrhea, vomiting, tube drainage
- RENAL LOSS—diuretics, hypomagnesemia, type I or II RTA, hyperaldosteronism, Conn syndrome, renal artery stenosis, genetic (Bartter and Gitelman syndrome)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF HYPOKALEMIA—K <3.5 mmol/L

PHYSIOLOGY—daily intake of potassium is usually 40–120 mEq/day (banana contains 1 mEq of K every 2.5 cm [1 in.]), which is mostly excreted by the kidneys. In hypokalemia, renal excretion may decrease to 5–25 mEq/day

POTASSIUM DEFICIT—every 1 mmol/L decrease in serum K represents a loss of approximately 150–300 mmol of total body K. Males, younger age, and higher muscle mass may require replacement at the higher end of this range

HYPERALDOSTERONISM DUE TO HYPOVOLEMIA—usually does not lead to hypokalemia as it is counterbalanced by a decreased distal renal flow (which on its own would lead to decreased K excretion)

CLINICAL FEATURES

SYMPTOMS—usually not present unless K <2.5 mmol/L

 MUSCULAR—weakness or paralysis (periodic hypokalemia paralysis). May include extrem-

MANAGEMENT

HYPOVOLEMIC—**hypotonic fluid** infusion. Treat underlying cause

EUVOLEMIC—**ADH** if central diabetes insipidus. Free water hydration. Treat underlying cause (see POLYURIA p. 381 (diabetes insipidus))

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

ities, respiratory and gastrointestinal muscles. Cramps, paresthesia, tetany, muscle tenderness, atrophy, and rhabdomyolysis may develop

- CARDIAC—arrhythmia includes sinus bradycardia, paroxysmal atrial or junctional tachycardia, AV block, VT, VF, ST depression, small T waves and U waves
- RENAL—impaired urinary concentrating ability (nocturia, polydipsia, polyuria), increased renal bicarbonate reabsorption, increased renal ammonia production due to intracellular acidosis, and hypokalemic nephropathy

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—lytes, magnesium, urea, Cr, glucose, CK, serum osmo, urinalysis, urine lytes, urine osmo
- SPECIAL
- ECG
- HYPERALDOSTERONISM WORKUP—serum aldosterone and plasma renin activity

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE (K <3.0 mmol/L)—KCl 10 mEq in 100 mL D5W IV bolus × 3. For continuous infusion, maximum KCl concentration is 40 mEq/L

K SUPPLEMENT—KCI 20–120 mEq PO divided over once daily to QID. Oral supplementation is preferred over intravenous in general. Need to replete Mg if low to facilitate correction of K ($MgSO_4$ 5 g IV over 4 h)

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

Hyperkalemia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PSEUDOHYPERKALEMIA—hemolysed blood sample, leukocytosis, thrombocytosis ↑ INTAKE—rare

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

SHIFT OUT OF CELL—metabolic acidosis, diabetes (insulin deficit), β-blockade

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

↑ RELEASE—rhabdomyolysis, tumor lysis, strenuous exercise, intravascular hemolysis

↓ OUTPUT

- ↓ DISTAL TUBULAR FLOW—renal failure, ↓ effective circulating fluid volume
- HYPOALDOSTERONISM—↓renin, adrenal insufficiency, type IV RTA, ACE inhibitors, ARBs, spironolactone, NSAIDs

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF HYPERKALEMIA—K >5.0 mmol/L

CLINICAL FEATURES

SYMPTOMS

- MUSCULAR—weakness and even paralysis of extremities, but rarely respiratory muscle involvement
- cardiac—tall, peaked T wave (especially precordial leads), widen QRS, wide and flat P wave, VF

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, CK, serum osmolality, urinalysis, urine lytes, urine osmolarity
- ECG—consider if K >6.0 mmol/L. May see peaked T waves, PR prolongation, widened or absent P waves, widened QRS, VF, sine wave or PEA arrest

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

SPECIAL

- ABG/VBG—quick way to get serum K level
- HYPOALDOSTERONISM WORKUP—serum aldosterone and plasma renin activity

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE (K > 6.0 mmol/L with ECG changes)

- STABILIZE MEMBRANE—calcium chloride 10% 10 mL IV push, calcium gluconate 10% 10 mL IV push, do NOT give if hyperkalemia related to digoxin (can precipitate VF)
- SHIFTING K INTO CELLS (temporizing measure)
 - INSULIN—D50 50 mL IV push followed by Humulin®R 10 U in 50 mL of D50% IV bolus. Consider dextrose drip or second amp of D50W as hypoglycemia occurs up to 70% of cases when only 1 amp of D50 given
 - ALKALOSIS—NaHCO₃ 45 mEq IV over 5 min, repeat in 30 min PRN for acidosis
 - β-AGONIST—salbutamol 10–20 mg via NEB, monitor heart rate

REMOVAL OF K—*kayexalate* 30 g PO daily-QID (avoid if HF/Na retention), each dose followed by lactulose 30 mL PO. *Ca resonium* 30–40 g in 50 mL 20% sorbitol. Newer potassium binders patiromer and sodium zirconium cyclosilicate may be used. **Diuretics** (*furosemide* 40 mg IV, doses up to 200 mg may be needed in AKI). **Dialysis TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE**—discontinue drugs (K supplements, ACE inhibitors, ARBs, spironolactone. NSAIDs. trimethoprim)

Hypomagnesemia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

INTAKE—malnutrition, malabsorption, maldigestion, PPIs

SHIFT INTO BONE—hungry bone syndrome ↑ OUTPUT

- GI LOSS—diarrhea, small bowel bypass surgery, acute pancreatitis
- RENAL LOSS—thiazide, loop diuretics, alcohol, hypercalcemia, tubular dysfunction (alcohol, aminoglycosides, amphotericin B, cisplatin, cyclosporine, acute tubular necrosis in diuretic phase, primary renal magnesium wasting)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF HYPOMAGNESEMIA—Mg <0.7 mmol/L [<1.4 mEq/L]

CLINICAL FEATURES

SYMPTOMS

- LYTES /Ca/PO₄—↓ K, ↓ Ca, PTH resistance, vitamin D deficiency
- HEART—ventricular arrhythmias, widening of the QRS, peaking or diminution (severe) of T waves, prolongation of PR interval, and torsade de pointes

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—lytes, urea, Cr, Ca, Mg, PO₄, serum osmolality, urinalysis, urine Mg, urine Cr

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

FeMg = $(U_{Mg}/U_{Cr})/(0.7 \times P_{Mg}/P_{Cr})$, <3 suggests extrarenal loss

MANAGEMENT

MG SUPPLEMENT—*MgSO*₄ 5 g IV over 5 h, *Mg gluconate* 500 mg PO TID

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—amiloride may be used to prevent amphotericin B induced hypomagnesemia and hypokalemia

Hypophosphatemia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

INTAKE—alcoholism, inadequate intake, antacids

SHIFT INTO CELL—acute respiratory alkalosis (DKA, hyperventilation), hyperinsulin (especially refeeding syndrome), hungry bone syndrome ↑ OUTPUT

- PRIMARY HYPERPARATHYROIDISM
- SECONDARY HYPERPARATHYROIDISM (vitamin D deficiency/resistance)—hereditary hypophosphatemic rickets, oncogenic osteomalacia, Fanconi syndrome, osmotic diuresis, acetazolamide, acute volume expansion, steatorrhea, chronic diarrhea

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF HYPOPHOSPHATEMIA— PO₄ <0.8 mmol/L [<2.5 mg/dL]

CLINICAL FEATURES

SYMPTOMS

- CNS (intracellular ATP falls)—metabolic encephalopathy
- MUSCULAR (intracellular ATP falls)—↓ myocardial contractility, HF, respiratory failure, proximal myopathy, dysphagia, ileus, rhabdomyolysis

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

 нематоLодіс (RBC 2,3 DPG falls)—hemolysis, ↓ WBC activity, ↓ clot retraction, thrombocytopenia

Related Topics

Hypocalcemia (p. 386) Vitamin D Deficiency (p. 387)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—Ca, Mg, PO₄, PTH, CK, 24-h urinary PO₄ collection (<100 mg), urine PO₄, urine Cr

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

 $\textbf{FePO}_{4}\!=\!(U_{PO4}/U_{Cr})/(P_{PO4}/P_{Cr}),$ <5 suggests not due to \uparrow output

MANAGEMENT

PO₄ SUPPLEMENT—potassium phosphate (22 mmol K⁺, 15 mmol PO₄) in 250 mL NS over 4 h, or sodium phosphate (20 mmol Na⁺, 15 mmol PO₄) in 250 mL NS over 4 h, or sodium phosphate 1 g PO TID (replaces ~100 mmol/day)

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—vitamin D deficiency (vitamin D 800 U PO daily)

Ureteral Calculi

CAUSES

CALCIUM (80%)—calcium oxalate or calcium phosphate, radiodense

URIC ACID (10–15%)—20% of patients also have gout, radiolucent

STRUVITE (10–15%)—urea-splitting bacteria (*Proteus, Klebsiella*), infected stone. Staghorn calculi if filled entire renal pelvis, radiodense

CYSTINE (1%)—autosomal recessive disorders of renal tubular absorption of dibasic amino acids, radiodense

DRUGS—protease inhibitors (indinavir, atazanavir)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

STONE FORMATION

- PROMOTERS—low urine volumes, urine cystine, pH (distal RTA), uric acid, Ca/oxalate/ PO₄, anatomic defects (medullary sponge kidney)
- INHIBITORS—high urine volumes, urine citrate, Mg, Tamm-Horsfall proteins, nephrocalcin, uropontin, orthophosphates
- COMPLICATIONS—obstruction, renal failure, infection, urosepsis, ureteral stricture

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, Ca, PO₄, PTH, uric acid, urinalysis (artifact most times)
- IMAGING—unenhanced CT abd/pelvis (sens 96%, spc 100%), KUB (consider EWSL if see stone on film), US abd, IVP

SPECIAL

- URINE TEST—24-h urinary Ca/PO₄, oxalate, urate, Mg, citrate, and Na
- CYSTOSCOPY

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

RADIODENSE STONES—★COLAS★ Calcium, Cystine, Ornithine, Lysine, Arginine, Struvite

RADIOLUCENT STONES—uric acid, matrix (organic substances associated with ureaproducing bacteria), indinavir (radiolucent on X-ray and CT)

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—pain control (ketorolac 30–60 mg IV/ IM, then 15 mg IV/IM q6h or 10 mg PO q6h, diclofenac 50 mg PO BID–TID, or morphine 5 mg SC q4h). N&V (dimenhydrinate 25–50 mg PO/IV/SC q4h PRN, metoclopramide 10 mg PO/IV q4h PRN).

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

Urology consult (if stone does not pass spontaneously or >5 mm, consider shock wave lithotripsy, ureteroscopy, percutaneous nephrolithotomy. If obstructed, infected upper urinary tract, impending renal deterioration, intractable pain/N&V, anuria or high-grade obstruction of solitary kidney, nephrostomy or insert stent). **Infection** (*ciprofloxacin* 500 mg PO q12h, or *ampicillin* and *gentamicin*; urosepsis from obstructing nephrolithiasis requires emergent decompression)

PREVENTION—↑ daily fluid intake (>2 L of urine/day, or water plus 125 mL lemon juice/day). Hypercalciuria (dietary Na and protein restriction, do not restrict calcium intake, hydrochlorothiazide 25 mg PO daily-BID). Hyperoxaluria (diet oxalate restriction with ↓ spinach, chocolate, cocoa, beets, nuts, *Ca citrate* 1 g PO TID with meals). Hypocitraturia (*K citrate* 25 mEq PO BID or *Ca citrate* 1 g PO TID; avoid Na citrate). Evidence suggests citrate likely works even in patients with normal urine citrate levels Hyperuricosuria (dietary uric acid restrictions, *allopurinol* 100 mg PO daily, alkalinization of urine with K citrate or NaHCO₃). Hypomagnesuria (*Mg gluconate* 500 mg PO TID)

Hypertension

See HYPERTENSION (p. 70)

Approach to Dialysis

HEMODIALYSIS

PRINCIPLES OF CLEARANCE—fluid removal (ultrafiltration ± osmotic gradient), **solute removal** (small toxins, middle molecules, electrolytes; dialysis by osmotic gradient). Urea is a surrogate marker and is not toxic itself

FACTORS AFFECTING EFFICIENCY—countercurrent exchange, blood pump speed, dialysate speed (500 mL/min), size of membrane, time (4–6 h $3 \times$ week)

VASCULAR ACCESS—temporary (double lumen internal jugular/femoral. Avoid subclavian placement if possible to minimize risk of central vein stenosis), intermediate (permacath internal jugular), permanent (AV graft, AV fistula)

ORDERS

 GOAL WEIGHT DETERMINATION—symptoms, clinical fluid status, blood pressure

HEMODIALYSIS (CONT'D)

- FILTER—low efficiency for new patients, highflux, high-efficiency filters for most other patients
- BLOOD PUMP SPEED—usually 400–450 mL/min for end-stage renal disease. May start at 200–250 mL/min for new patients
- DIALYSATE FLOW—500 mL/min
- DURATION—usually 4 h. May start at 2.5 h for new patients
- FLUID REMOVAL—net weight gain + fluid given during dialysis. Try to attain dry weight
- Na⁺—ramp, step or intermittent may be used with prescribed sodium of 150–140 mmol/L or 150–135 mmol/L to keep intravascular osmolality high at beginning of run to maintain blood pressure. Otherwise, may simply set Na at 137 mmol/L or 140 mmol/L

HEMODIALYSIS (CONT'D)

throughout the run. If hyponatremia, set Na at 132–135 mmol/L

- K⁺—as a general rule, [dialysate K]=7 mmol/L – [serum K]. Careful with 1 K⁺ bath
- HCO₃—25–40 mmol/L (usually 35 mmol/L)
- ca²⁺—1.25–1.75 mmol/L [5–7 mg/dL]
- **TEMPERATURE**—35.5 °C [95.9 °F]
- HEPARIN—needed if system clotting. 500 U bolus then 500 U/h if first time. Otherwise, 1000 U bolus then 500 U/h. If high risk (active bleed, HITT, anticoagulated), consider no heparin. Citrate is an alternative if HITT. Low molecular weight heparin (tinzaparin) can also be used when dosed for renal function

ADEQUACY—goal KT/V 1.4/session (for 3 ×/week)

COMPLICATIONS OF INTERMITTENT HEMODIALYSIS

- DIALYSIS DISEQUILIBRIUM SYNDROME—high osmolar state in new patients just starting dialysis. With rapid removal of osmolality by dialysis intravascularly, can lead to shifting of fluid intracellularly and cerebral edema. Patients become confused and 1 level of consciousness. See dialysis orders above for preventative measures
- ↓ BLOOD PRESSURE DURING RUN—too rapid removal of fluid, also see SHOCK p. 116 for other causes. Treatments include Trendelenburg position, stopping ultrafiltration, fluid bolus NS 100 mL, and consider ramping Na next time
- MUSCLE CRAMPS—usually due to rapid fluid removal. Give fluid bolus NS 100 mL, re-assess target weight and consider ramping Na next time
- итсника—unknown cause. Diphenhydramine
 50 mg×1 dose or hydroxyzine 10–25 mg×1 dose

CONTINUOUS RENAL REPLACEMENT THERAPY

TYPES—continuous arterial–venous hemofiltration (CAVHD) obsolete, continuous venousvenous hemofiltration (CVVHD), CVVHD + diffusion component

INDICATIONS TO STOP CONTINUOUS RENAL REPLACEMENT—urine output increased, hemodynamically stable (consider switching to intermittent hemodialysis)

CONTINUOUS RENAL REPLACEMENT THERAPY (CONT'D)

ADVANTAGES OF CONTINUOUS RENAL REPLACEMENT THERAPY (CRRT) COMPARED TO INTERMITTENT HEMODIALYSIS—use in hemodynamically unstable patients (less likely sudden blood pressure drop), better in keeping metabolites low and stable, better in removing middle and larger molecules (especially in septic patients), better nutrition for patient can be provided. CRRT has not been shown to provide any survival advantage compared to intermittent HD

DISADVANTAGES OF CONTINUOUS RENAL REPLACEMENT—requires anticoagulation (heparin, citrate, NS flush q30 min), removes more solute, and requires more filter replacement

PERITONEAL DIALYSIS (PD)

ADVANTAGES OF PERITONEAL DIALYSIS COMPARED TO INTERMITTENT HEMODIAL-YSIS—better middle molecular clearance, better control of fluid and blood pressure, preserves residual renal function better, cheaper, increased patient autonomy

METHODS OF CLEARANCE—continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis (4×2 L exchanges/day for 30–40 min during the day, with one indwelling exchange overnight), continuous cycler peritoneal dialysis (reverse timing of CAPD)

FACTORS AFFECTING EFFICIENCY—volume of exchanges, time of exchange, efficiency of peritoneal membrane (high average transporter vs. low average transporter)

DIALYSATE—Dianeal (standard with Na 132 mmol/L, CI95 mmol/L, Mg 0.25 mmol/L [5 mEq/L], osmolality 395 mmol/kg, pH 5.2, dextrose 0.5%, 1.5%, 2.5%, or 4.25%), **Extraneal**® (icodextrin 7.5%), **Nutrineal**® (1.1% amino acid solution. Good nutrition). Concentration of glucose affect fluid removal

ADEQUACY—goal KT/V 1.7/week and creatinine clearance 60 L/week

COMPLICATIONS OF PERITONEAL DIALYSIS

 PERITONITIS—triad of abdominal pain, cloudy dialysate, and >100 WBC/mm³ (>50% PMN). Treat with intraperitoneal antibiotics that cover Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria such as ceftazidime, aminoglycoside, or fluoroquinolones and vancomycin empirically until

PERITONEAL DIALYSIS (PD) (CONT'D)

cultures available (add anti-fungal therapy if Gram stain shows yeast). Local resistance patterns should drive initial empiric therapy

 MECHANICAL—blockage (causes include constipation, omental wrap, tube in wrong position), leak, pleural effusion

PERITONEAL DIALYSIS (PD) (CONT'D)

- METABOLIC—hypokalemia, hyperglycemia (glucose in dialysate)
- MEMBRANE—lasts 6–8 years as glucose toxic to peritoneal membrane





Intensive Care Issues

ICU ADMISSION CRITERIA

NEED FOR FREQUENT OR CONTINUOUS MONITORING—post-high-risk surgery, high risk for clinical deterioration, need for frequent laboratory investigations or monitoring (e.g. ABGs) that cannot be performed in lower acuity setting

HIGH INTENSITY OF NURSING CARE

LIFE SUPPORT THERAPY—mechanical ventilation, vasoactive drugs, continuous renal replacement, artificial liver support, extracorporeal life support

PREVENTATIVE STRATEGIES

VENTILATOR-ASSOCIATED PNEUMONIA-

remove endotracheal tube as soon as possible, orotracheal intubation unless contraindicated, strict hand hygiene, oral and dental hygiene, semi-recumbent positioning (head of bed at 30–45°), subglottic suctioning, drainage of condensate from ventilator circuits, initiate enteral nutrition within 24–48h ICU admission, minimize gastric acid suppression therapy (proton pump inhibitors) when possible

GASTROINTESTINAL STRESS ULCER-ATION—risk factors include mechanical ventilation, coagulopathy. Prophylaxis with H₂ blockers (e.g. *ranitidine* 50 mg IV q8h or 150 mg PO/NG q12h) preferred unless high risk as use of proton pump inhibitors is associated with increased risk of ventilator-associated pneumonia

VENOUS THROMBOEMBOLISM—particularly in patients with trauma and prolonged bed rest. Prophylaxis includes unfractionated heparin SC, LMWH, fondaparinux, or pneumatic compression stockings

SEDATION, ANALGESIA, PARALYSIS IN THE ICU

SEDATION/AMNESIA—propofol 5 mcg/kg/ min initial infusion, titrate by 5–10 mcg/kg/min, typical infusion range 5–50 mcg/kg/min. Rapid

SEDATION, ANALGESIA, PARALYSIS IN THE ICU (CONT'D)

onset, short duration: appropriate for short-term sedation, monitor for acidosis and increased CK with prolonged use. *Midazolam* 0.03 mg/kg loading dose, then 0.02–0.1 mg/kg/h IV infusion, typical infusion range 0–10 mg/h, rapid onset, short duration; *lorazepam* 0.5–10 mg IV q2–4 h PRN, load with 0.5–2 mg q15min, avoid continuous infusion as propylene glycol solvent may accumulate. Use for intermediate to prolonged sedation, longer duration than midazolam, most potent amnestic

ANALGESIA—fentanyl 50–100 mcg q5min IV load to effect, then 1–4 mcg/kg/h by continuous IV infusion, typical infusion range 50–300 mcg/h, 100× more potent than morphine. Used in patients with hemodynamic instability, rapid onset, short duration (but highly lipophilic; may accumulate with prolonged infusion); morphine 0.05 mg/kg IV load, then 4–15 mg/h. May cause hypotension due to histamine release; hydromorphone 0.5 mg IV initially, then 1–2 mg q1h or 0.5–2 mg/h infusion, 5× more potent than morphine

NEUROMUSCULAR BLOCKAGE—rocuronium 0.5 mg/kg IV PRN, onset 1 min, duration 30 min; pancuronium 0.06–0.15 mg/kg IV PRN, onset 2–3 min, duration 60–120 min, may run continuous infusion 0.01–0.05 mg/kg/h, vagolytic effect may cause tachycardia; cisatracurium 0.15–0.2 mg/kg IV PRN, onset 2–3 min, duration 30 min, may run continuous infusion 3 µg/kg/min; succinylcholine 0.5–1.5 mg/kg IV, onset 1 min, duration ~10 min, metabolized by pseudocholinesterase, many contraindications (personal/ family history malignant hyperthermia, neuromuscular disease with denervating injury, muscular dystrophy, rhabdomyolysis, burns, stroke, hyperkalemia)

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DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS FOR WEAKNESS IN THE ICU

ENCEPHALOPATHY—hypoxic/ischemic, septic, hepatic, uremic, hypoglycemic, iatrogenic (drugs) MYELOPATHY—hypoxic/ischemic, traumatic NEUROPATHY—critical illness polyneuropa-

thy, Guillain-Barré syndrome, motor neuron disease, compression, hypophosphatemia

NEUROMUSCULAR JUNCTION—blocking agents, Lambert-Eaton, myasthenia gravis, hypomagnesemia, hypocalcemia, organophosphates, botulism

MYOPATHY—critical illness myopathy, acute necrotizing myopathy, hypokalemia, hypophosphatemia, hypocalcemia, hypomagnesemia, steroid, muscular dystrophy, polymyositis

PROCEDURES

RADIAL ARTERIAL LINE INSERTION Ailon et al. *NEJM* 2014;371(E21)

 LANDMARK—palpate radial artery immediately proximal to scaphoid or use US to localize. Insert 20-gauge catheter at 30°

FEMORAL ARTERIAL LINE INSERTION

 LANDMARK—identify femoral artery midway between ASIS and pubic symphysis, ideally with US. Puncture and insert catheter over the wire, never dilate an artery!

FEMORAL CENTRAL VENOUS CATHETER Tsui et al. NEJM 2008;358(E30)

- LANDMARK—femoral artery is midway between ASIS and pubic symphysis. Femoral vein is medial to artery. Ideally use ultrasound for localization. Insert introducer needle through skin at 45° toward umbilicus, about 1 cm below the inguinal ligament, then use Seldinger technique to place catheter
- COMPLICATIONS—arterial puncture (9–15%), hematoma (4%), infection (6–20%)

INTERNAL JUGULAR CENTRAL VENOUS CATHETER

Ortega et al. NEJM 2010;362(E57)

- LANDMARK—locate carotid pulse. Internal jugular is immediately lateral to carotid. Ideally use
 US to localize and guide placement. Insert
 introducer needle through skin at 20° toward
 ipsilateral nipple, slightly superior to the apex
 of the triangle
- KEY POINTS—place patient in Trendelenburg position, avoid significant contralateral rotation as it may increase incidence of artery/vein overlap and decrease venous return, occlude hubs at all times to prevent air embolism

PROCEDURES (CONT'D)

- COMPLICATIONS—arterial puncture (6.3–9.4%), hematoma (<2.2%), pneumothorax (<0.2%), infections (0.45%)
- REMOVAL—place patient in Trendelenburg position and ask him/her to perform a Valsalva maneuver, or time with inspiration if mechanically ventilated and sedated, when removing the catheter to prevent air embolism

SUBCLAVIAN CENTRAL VENOUS CATHETER Schulman et al. *NEJM* 2018;379(E1)

- LANDMARK—subclavian vein is directly underneath clavicle. Ideally use US to localize and guide placement. Insert introducer needle through skin at 20° 2 cm lateral and 2 cm caudal to the middle third of clavicle aiming toward sternal angle. When needle hits clavicle, apply downward pressure (so needle is parallel to clavicle) and slide it under inferior surface to puncture subclavian vein
- кеу роінтя—place patient in Trendelenburg position and occlude hubs at all times to avoid air embolism
- COMPLICATIONS—arterial puncture (6.3–9.4%), hematoma (<2.2%), pneumothorax (<0.2%), infection (0.12%)
- REMOVAL—place patient in Trendelenburg position and ask him/her to perform a Valsalva maneuver, or time with inspiration if mechanically ventilated and sedated, when removing the catheter to prevent air embolism

CENTRAL VENOUS OXYGEN SATURATION

ARTERIAL OXYGEN CONTENT (C_aO₂)

- C_aO₂ = O₂ carried by hemoglobin + O₂ dissolved in blood
- $C_aO_2 = 1.36 \times Hb \times S_aO_2 + 0.003 \times P_aO_2$ where $S_aO_2 = arterial Hb saturation$

VENOUS OXYGEN CONTENT (C_vO₂)

- $C_v O_2 = O_2$ carried by hemoglobin + O_2 dissolved in blood
- $C_vO_2 = 1.36 \times Hb \times S_vO_2 + 0.003 \times P_vO_2$ where $S_vO_2 = mixed$ venous Hb saturation ($S_{cv}O_2$ if using central venous saturation)

OXYGEN FLUX (DO₂)

- DO₂=amount of oxygen delivered to tissues/min
- $DO_2 = CO \times C_aO_2$, where $C_aO_2 \sim 1.36 \times Hb \times S_aO_2$ since $0.003 \times P_aO_2$ is negligible

OXYGEN CONSUMPTION (VO₂)

- VO₂ = the arteriovenous oxygen content difference multiplied by cardiac output
- VO₂=CO × (C_aO₂ − C_vO₂) ≈ constant (the body normally extracts ~25% of the delivered oxy-

CENTRAL VENOUS OXYGEN SATURATION (CONT'D)

gen except in fever, sepsis, hyperthyroidism, i.e. $VO_2/DO_2 = 0.25$)

INTERPRETATION

- As $CO \times (C_aO_2 C_vO_2) \approx constant$, $\downarrow C_vO_2$ suggests $\downarrow CO$ or $\downarrow O_2$ consumption from end-stage shock
- $S_v O_2$ is about 70–75% saturated. A mixed venous saturation of <50% is alarming, <25% is usually unsustainable

PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

ACUTE PHYSIOLOGIC AND CHRONIC HEALTH EVALUATION (APACHE) IV SCORE predicts hospital mortality, web-based programs are available

- CLINICAL—age, GCS, organ failure (biopsyproven cirrhosis, NYHA class IV, severe COPD, chronic hemodialysis, immunocompromise), procedure (non-surgical, elective, emergency operation)
- VITALS—HR, RR, MAP, temp
- ABG—pH, A-a gradient or PaO₂
- CBC—Hct, WBC
- CHEMISTRY—Na, K, Cr

SEQUENTIAL (SEPSIS-RELATED) ORGAN FAILURE ASSESSMENT (SOFA)—sequential assessment of organ dysfunction severity in critically ill sepsis patients, points assigned based on degree of dysfunction of six organ systems. Calculate score at admission and q24 hours

- CLINICAL—GCS
- vitALS—MAP/administration of vasoactive agent
- ABG—PaO₂, FiO₂
- CBC—platelet count
- снемізтку—bilirubin, creatinine

VENTILATION—95% of patients with acute respiratory failure can be weaned within 7 days of intubation. 5% are unable to be weaned from the ventilator and require tracheostomy and longerterm ventilatory support

CARDIOPULMONARY RESUSCITATION

CONDITIONS ASSOCIATED WITH NEGLIGIBLE CHANCE OF SURVIVING CPR decompensated diseases (cancer, sepsis, prearrest hypotension or hypoxia, anemia, chronic renal failure), poor baseline function (dependent on ADLs), scene of CPR (>10 min of CPR without the return of at least a single vital sign, unwitnessed arrest)

CARDIOPULMONARY RESUSCITATION (CONT'D)

PROGNOSIS—respiratory arrest better than cardiac arrest. VT/VF/bradycardia better than asystole/PEA (patients with VF/VT witnessed arrest and response within 5 min of resuscitation have the highest probability of survival to discharge). Outcomes most favorable if resuscitated promptly; however, many have neurologic impairment, particularly if out-of-hospital arrest

COMA AND BRAIN DEATH

EXAMINATION OF THE UNRESPONSIVE PATIENT

- vitals—including GCS
- 5 N—neurological, noggin (raccoon eyes, Battle sign), neck (C-spine), nose, needle (tracks for recreational drug use)
- EYES—fundoscopy, pupillary reflex, corneal reflex, oculocephalic reflex, oculovestibular reflex
- отнекя—gag reflex, cough reflex, tone, limb reflexes, Babinski

GLASGOW COMA SCALE

- EYES OPENING—1=none, 2=to pain, 3=to voice, 4=voluntary
- LANGUAGE—1 = none, 2 = sounds, 3 = words, 4 = disorganized sentences, 5 = organized sentences/oriented
- мотоя—1 = none, 2 = extension to pain (decerebrate), 3 = flexion to pain (decorticate), 4 = withdraws, 5 = localizes to pain; 6 = obeys commands
- CONSIDER INTUBATION—if GCS <8, unable to protect airway

OCULOCEPHALIC REFLEX

 DOLL'S EYES RESPONSE—avoid this test in patients with suspected cervical spine injury. Move the patient's head from side to side. Conjugate eye movement in the opposite direction to head movement is expected in the comatose patient, while it may be absent/ asymmetric if the patient has brain stem injury or if psychogenic

OCULOVESTIBULAR REFLEX

 CALORIC TESTING—instillation of ice-cold water into the ear canal on one side (ensure tympanic membrane intact prior to performing). Conjugate eye movement to the irrigated side is expected in the comatose patient (without nystagmus), while it may be absent or asymmetric if brain stem injury. In a conscious patient, nystagmus will be seen with the slow phase toward irrigated side and the fast phase

BRAIN DEATH (CONT'D)

toward the opposite side. Warm water instillation produces the opposite effect (★ COWS ★ In conscious patient instilled with Cold water, nystagmus fast phase moves toward Opposite side; with Warm water, nystagmus fast phase moves toward Same side)

ANOXIC BRAIN INJURY SPECTRUM

- 1. Good recovery (mild disability)
- 2. Moderate disability (independent with ADLs)
- 3. Severe disability (dependent for ADLs)
- 4. Persistent vegetative state (unawareness but awake at times)
- Persistent coma (unawareness at all times but potentially reversible)
- 6. Brain death (unawareness at all times and irreversible)

DEFINITION OF BRAIN DEATH

- HISTORY—documentation of cause and irreversibility, absence of drug intoxication or poisoning, absence of hypothermia or metabolic causes for encephalopathy
- PHYSICAL—core temperature ≥34 °C [≥93.2 °F], absence of motor response to painful stimulus, absence of brain stem reflexes (pupillary, corneal, gag, cough, doll's eyes, calorics), apnea testing

BRAIN DEATH (CONT'D)

- IMAGING—perfusion scan (most sensitive test), cerebral angiogram, EEG, transcranial doppler US, somatosensory evoked potentials (SSEPs)
- CRITERIA need history, physical features and apnea testing to confirm brain death clinically. If apnea testing cannot be performed or indeterminate, ancillary testing required (cerebral blood flow most reliable 'stand alone' test)
- BRAIN DEATH MIMICS—locked-in syndrome (focal injury to pons), hypothermia (light reflex lost 28–32°C [82.4–89.6°F], other brain stem reflexes lost <28°C [82.4°F]), drug intoxication, Guillain–Barré syndrome

APNEA TESTING

- 1. Pre-oxygenate and obtain ABG just prior to test
- Pulse oximetry on, ventilator off, 100% oxygen
 L/min into trachea or place patient on bagger
- Observe for respiratory movements. Obtain ABG after 10 min. Reconnect ventilator immediately and draw ABG if SBP <100 mmHg, SpO₂ <85%, or arrhythmia
- Apnea present if respiratory movements are absent, PaCO₂ ≥60 mmHg or increased ≥20 mmHg above baseline

Hypoxemia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

R TO L SHUNT (unresponsive to supplemental O_2 , V/Q <1)—ARDS, heart failure, pneumonia, alveolar hemorrhage, atelectasis, pulmonary arteriovenous malformation, intracardiac shunt (ASD, VSD, PFO)

V/Q MISMATCH (V/Q >1)—asthma, COPD, fibrosis, pulmonary embolism, tumor-filled alveoli, atelectasis, heart failure, pneumonia, ARDS

DIFFUSION DEFECTS—interstitial lung disease, PJP, atypical pneumonia

HYPOVENTILATION (A-a normal)

- CNS—sedating drugs, tumor, stroke, sleep apnea
- NEUROMUSCULAR—botulism, Guillain–Barré syndrome, ALS, myxedema
- UPPER AIRWAY OBSTRUCTION—epiglottitis, laryngospasm
- LOWER AIRWAY OBSTRUCTION—COPD, asthma
- DEAD SPACE VENTILATION—COPD

LOW O₂ PARTIAL PRESSURE (A-a normal) high altitude

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF HYPOXEMIA— $P_aO_2 < 60$ mmHg. Note that hypoxia refers specifically to decreased oxygen supply to tissues and organs

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, troponin/ CK, lactate
- IMAGING—CXR, CT chest
- ABG
- ECG

OTHER

 BNP, D-dimer, echocardiogram, respiratory pathogen panel, sputum culture

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

OXIMETRY

 NORMAL—>90% is normal. Dyspnea may occur ~85%. Pulmonary hypertension may develop from chronic alveolar hypoxia if saturations <80%

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

- ACCURACY—between 70% and 100% saturation error is ±2%. Saturation values <70% may not be valid. Most reliable when applied to wellperfused, warm, and motionless extremities. Nail polish, darkly pigmented skin, carboxyhemoglobin, methemoglobin may all affect readings. Co-oximetry required for accurate results (run ABG). Continuous oximetry is better than spot measurements
- CORRELATION—S_pO₂ 50% = P_aO₂ 27 mmHg, 75% = 40 mmHg, 90% = 60 mmHg, 92% = 80 mmHg, 95% = 90 mmHg. ABG is the gold standard for diagnosing hypoxemia

OVERALL APPROACH TO DETERMINING THE CAUSE OF HYPOXEMIA

- 1. Confirm ABG shows low P_aO₂
- 2. Exclude diffusion defects and low partial pressure of O₂
- Check PaCO₂. If normal or low, then hypoventilation is excluded. This leaves either shunt or V/Q mismatch, which can be distinguished with response to O₂ (absence of response suggests shunt. V/Q mismatch should respond to O₂)
- If high PaCO₂, then hypoventilation is present. Check A-a gradient to determine if co-existing shunt or V/Q mismatch (presence of A-a gradient suggests yes and should check response to O₂ to distinguish between these two possibilities)

ALVEOLAR-ARTERIAL (A-a) O2 GRADIENT

- NORMAL—A-a gradient < age/4+4, or <0.4× age. Usually <15 mmHg in young, up to ~30 mmHg in elderly
- CALCULATION—A-a gradient = $P_AO_2 P_aO_2$ = [(P_8 -47)×0.21- PaCO₂/0.8] - P_aO_2 , where P_8 = barometric pressure \approx 760 mmHg if at sea level

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

 INTERPRETATION—calculation used when FiO₂ is 21% (room air). Normal range changes with supplemental oxygen. If A-a gradient normal, consider hypoventilation or low inspired O₂ as causes of hypoxemia. If A-a gradient high, consider V/Q mismatch, R to L shunt, and/or diffusion defects

 P_aO_2/P_aO_2 **RATIO**—when FiO₂ >21% (i.e. on supplemental O₂ therapy), P_aO_2/P_AO_2 ratio should be used instead of A-a gradient

- NORMAL— $P_aO_2/P_AO_2 \ge 0.99 (0.003 \times age)$, usually >0.82
- INTERPRETATION—unlike A-a gradient, P_aO₂/P_aO₂ ratio decreases in the presence of V/Q mismatch, R to L shunt, or diffusion defects

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

TREATMENT ISSUES

AVOID OVER-CORRECTING O_2 SATURATION IN HYPOVENTILATION— O_2 displaces CO_2 from Hb, causing elevated CO_2 in blood. In addition, O_2 may change V/Q relationship and may decrease hypoxic drive. For patients with chronic hypoventilation († HCO₃), O_2 to keep saturation between 88 and 92% only

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

HYPOXEMIC RESPIRATORY FAILURE (P_aO₂ < 60 mmHg)—failure to oxygenate, see DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF HYPOXEMIA

HYPERCARBIC RESPIRATORY FAILURE (P_aCO₂ greater than baseline with concomitant acidosis)—failure to ventilate, see hypoventilation under DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF HYPOXEMIA

Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PULMONARY EDEMA

- cardiogenic—ischemic cardiomyopathy, valvular disease
- NON-CARDIOGENIC—ARDS, toxic inhalation, drug reaction, aspiration, fat embolism

INFECTION—bacterial, viral, mycobacterial, fungal

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

HEMORRHAGE—pulmonary embolism, pulmonary contusion, bleeding diathesis, DIC, anticoagulation, vasculitis (granulomatosis with polyangiitis, Goodpasture syndrome, SLE)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF ARDS

Ranieri et al. JAMA 2012;307:23

- ACUTE ONSET—new (or worsening) respiratory symptoms <1 week
- BILATERAL ALVEOLAR INFILTRATES—often asymmetric/patchy, peripheral > central
- MODERATE TO SEVERE HYPOXEMIA (WITH PEEP OR CPAP \geq 5 cm H₂O)—mild: PaO₂/FiO₂ > 200 mmHg but \leq 300 mmHg; moderate: PaO₂/FiO₂ >100 but \leq 200 mmHg; severe: PaO₂/ FiO₂ \leq 100 mmHg
- ABSENCE OF CARDIAC FAILURE OR FLUID OVERLOAD objective assessment to exclude hydrostatic pulmonary edema (e.g. echocardiography) required if no risk factors for ARDS present

INFLAMMATION IN ARDS—ARDS is a clinical syndrome of severe lung injury due to systemic inflammation. Cytokine release results in capillary membrane permeability and protein-rich fluid exudation into the alveolar space, impairing oxygenation. Ongoing inflammation may lead to extensive fibrosis

PHASES OF ARDS—<10 days = exudative phase, 10–14 days = fibroproliferative-fibrotic phase

 $\label{eq:HYPOXEMIA IN ARDS} \mbox{--} caused mainly by right to left shunt, thus the P_aO_2/F_IO_2 ratio is low. V/Q mismatch and hypoventilation may also contribute$

CAUSES—over 80% of ARDS caused by infection, aspiration, and trauma

- PULMONARY—pneumonia (bacterial, viral, fungal including PJP, mycobacterial), aspiration, drowning, inhalation injury (O₂, smoke, NO₂), reperfusion injury (post-lung transplant or cardiopulmonary bypass)
- GI—acute pancreatitis
- CNS—neurogenic (intracerebral hemorrhage)
- SYSTEMIC—sepsis, transfusion reaction, major trauma, drugs (heroin, cocaine, aspirin, chemotherapy)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, troponin/CK, urinalysis, lactate, BNP, lipase if abdominal symptoms
- MICROBIOLOGY—blood C&S, respiratory pathogen panel (NP swab and lower resp specimen if intubated), sputum Gram stain/C&S/AFB, urine C&S

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

- IMAGING CXR, CT chest, echocardiogram
- ABG
- ECG

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

PROGNOSIS OF ARDS—overall mortality rate ~45%. Mortality increases with additional organ failure (>99% if three system failures)

MANAGEMENT

ABC—**O**₂ to keep S_pO₂ 88–95%, IV access **MECHANICAL VENTILATION**

Hoo NEJM 2013;368(23)

- LUNG-PROTECTIVE VENTILATION (low tidal volumes to minimize ventilation-induced lung injury) set tidal volume ~4−8 mL/kg, based on ideal body weight, maintain plateau pressure ≤30 cmH₂O
- PEEP—should be employed to keep FiO₂ in non-toxic range (<0.60). Increase PEEP by increments of 3–5 cmH₂O (maximum=24 cmH₂O) to ↑ mean airway pressure, recruit alveoli (preventing alveolar collapse and ventilator-induced lung injury) and ↑ functional residual capacity (may be harmful)
- RECRUITMENT—recruitment maneuvers may be used to keep alveoli open; e.g. 40 cmH₂O PEEP for 40 seconds
- PERMISSIVE HYPERCAPNIA—generally tolerate pH >7.25, may need to run HCO₃ infusion to maintain pH
- SALVAGE/ALTERNATE MODES OF VENTILATION—APRV (airway pressure release ventilation), prone positioning (only salvage technique with mortality benefit), extracorporeal life support

MEDICATIONS—no effective pharmacologic therapy for ARDS. There is limited evidence regarding steroid use for treatment of ARDS and no evidence for prophylaxis. Some clinicians use in non-resolving cases (start 7–14 days after onset. *Methylprednisolone* 2 mg/kg load, then 2 mg/kg/day from days 1 to 14, then taper by 50%/week to 0.125 mg/kg/day, monitor for infection). Inhaled *nitric oxide* or *epoprostenol* selectively dilate pulmonary vessels of ventilated alveoli, improving V/Q matching and oxygenation (but no effect on mortality or ventilation days)

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

| OXYGEN DELIVERY AND VENTILATION ISSUES |
|---|
| OXYGEN DELIVERY DEVICES |

| Device | Flow rates | FiO ₂ (%) | |
|--|------------|----------------------|--|
| Nasal cannula | 1 L/min | 21–24 | |
| | 2 L/min | 25–28 | |
| | 3 L/min | 29–32 | |
| | 4 L/min | 33–36 | |
| | 5 L/min | 37–40 | |
| | 6 L/min | 41-44 | |
| Simple oxygen face mask | 6–10 L/min | 35–60 | |
| Face mask with oxygen reservoir (non-rebreather mask) | 6 L/min | 60 | |
| | | | |

OXYGEN DELIVERY AND VENTILATION ISSUES (CONT'D) Device Flow rates FiO₂ (%) 7 I /min 70 81/min 80 9 L/min 90 10-15 l /min 95+ Venturi mask 4-81/min 24 - 4010-12 L/min 41-50 High flow nasal Up to 60 L/min 21-100 cannula

NOTE—delivered O₂ (FiO₂) is approximate

Ventilation Issues

MECHANICAL VENTILATION

INDICATIONS FOR MECHANICAL VENTILATION

- DECREASED COMPLIANCE (stiff lungs)—pulmonary fibrosis, pulmonary edema, ARDS
- INCREASED RESISTANCE (narrowed airways, air trapping)—status asthmaticus, COPD exacerbations, bronchial tumor, excessive secretions
- MECHANICAL FAILURE—spinal cord injury, Guillain–Barré and other neuromuscular diseases
- LACK OF RESPIRATORY DRIVE—neurologic disease, drug overdose

NON-INVASIVE MECHANICAL VENTILATION (NIMV)

- CONDITIONS IN WHICH NIMV IS USED—COPD, HF, asthma, postoperative respiratory failure, postextubation in select situations. If no improvement after 30 min–1 h, should intubate
- INDICATIONS—pH 7.2–7.3, RR >25, use of accessory muscles, and cooperative
- CONTRAINDICATIONS—↓ level of consciousness (but can consider use if ↓ LOC due to ↑ PCO₂), respiratory arrest, facial trauma/surgery/burn, upper airway obstruction, copious secretions, aspiration risk, GI bleeding, gastroesophageal surgery, esophageal rupture, hemodynamic instability, co-existent organ failure, morbid obesity, extreme anxiety

MECHANICAL VENTILATION (CONT'D)

- MASK TYPES—full face, nose and mouth, nasal only
- VENTILATORY MODES—CPAP or BIPAP. CPAP is mainly used for obstructive sleep apnea; however, can be used in isolated hypoxemia (ventilation adequate). BIPAP is used to assist with oxygenation and ventilation

INVASIVE MECHANICAL VENTILATION

- INDICATIONS—severe hypoxemia, acute hypercapnia, need for airway protection (GCS ≤8), impending airway occlusion, therapeutic hyperventilation. In general, intubate if BIPAP contraindicated or failed, or clinical status severe and likely to require longer term ventilation
- TUBES—endotracheal tube, tracheostomy tube (see ARTIFICIAL AIRWAYS p. 114)

TERMINOLOGY

- RESISTANCE—restriction that inhibits flow of gas in airways. May result in increased P_{peak} or decreased minute volume (V_E)
- сомрыялсе—ease with which lungs expand. Normal ~50 mL/cm H₂O
- TIDAL VOLUME (VT)—amount of air delivered per breath. Normal ~8 mL/kg (500 mL)
- MINUTE VOLUME (V_E)—amount of air delivered per minute. V_E (mL/min) = VT × RR
- POSITIVE END-EXPIRATORY PRESSURE (PEEP) maintenance of positive pressure throughout

MECHANICAL VENTILATION (CONT'D)

exhalation. PEEP improves P_aO₂ mainly by augmenting mean airway pressure. Other potential mechanisms include recruitment of collapsed alveoli, increased functional residual capacity, and improvement in V/Q matching. Usually set at 5–15 cmH₂O

- PEAK AIRWAY PRESSURE (P_{peak})—maximal inspiratory pressure to distend alveoli and to overcome airway resistance. P_{peak} is dependent on inflation volume, airways resistance, and lung/ chest wall compliance. Occurs about halfway through inspiration phase
- PLATEAU PRESSURE (P_{plat})—pressure to prevent lungs from deflating at end inspiration. Related to lung/chest wall compliance. Limit to ≤30 cmH₂O in ARDS
- RAPID SHALLOW BREATHING INDEX (RSBI)—index used for weaning/liberation from mechanical ventilation. RSBI = RR/tidal volume (measured in liters). The lower the better (<70 is excellent, <100 is good).

ASSESSMENT OF AIRWAY

PRIOR TO INTUBATION—assess airway to anticipate difficulty of procedure, establish IV access (for blood pressure control and medication administration), position patient (sniffing position), remove false teeth/dentures, suction and endotracheal tube ready

SUBJECTIVE SIGNS OF DIFFICULT AIRWAY prominent upper incisors, short/thick neck, large tongue, micrognathia

OBJECTIVE SIGNS OF DIFFICULT AIRWAY

- NECK EXTENSION—atlanto-occipital extension ≤35°
- THYROMENTAL DISTANCE—<6 cm [<2.4 in] (3 finger breaths)
- MOUTH OPENING—<4 cm [<1.6 in] (2–3 finger breaths)
- MANDIBULAR LENGTH—<9 cm [3.5 in]
- MALLAMPATI SCORE—III/IV may indicate difficult airway for intubation
 - I = visualization of the soft palate, fauces, uvula, anterior and posterior pillars
 - II = visualization of the soft palate, fauces, and uvula
 - III = visualization of the soft palate and the base of the uvula
 - IV = soft palate is not visible at all

ARTIFICIAL AIRWAYS

ORAL AIRWAYS—used in unconscious patients without a gag reflex to prevent airway collapse/ obstruction. Also allow access for suctioning and stimulation of cough. Sizes 8, 9, 10 cm in length

ARTIFICIAL AIRWAYS (CONT'D)

(Guedel sizes 3, 4, 5). Insert backward along the hard palate and rotate into position. If improperly placed, may push tongue posteriorly and obstruct the airway. Can induce vomiting or laryngospasm if placed in an awake or semiconscious patient

ENDOTRACHEAL TUBES (Kabrhel et al. *NEJM* 2007 356:e15)—inserted nasally or orally, with aid of laryngoscope, bronchoscope, or glidescope. Sizes 6.0–9.0 mm in diameter. Cuff occludes airway surrounding endotracheal tube (cuff pressure <25 mmHg ideally; inflate cuff only to the point when leak disappears, i.e. use minimal occlusion pressure to avoid iatrogenic airway ischemia)

TRACHEOSTOMY TUBES

- INDICATIONS—long-term ventilation (>10–14 days intubation), to facilitate weaning, or to bypass an upper airway obstruction
- турея—Portex[®], Shiley[™] (fenestrated)
- COMPONENTS—fenestrations (openings in tracheostomy tube allowing weaker patients to tolerate plugging trials easier), disposable inner cannula (seal fenestration, allows easier exchange of tracheostomy tube if plugged), cuff (balloon that occludes airway surrounding tracheostomy tube)
- PLUGGING PROCEDURE—provide alternate source of O₂ (via upper airway), suction of upper and lower airways, deflate cuff completely, remove inner cannula if present, insert plug and lock it in place, assess patient for airway patency, increased work of breathing and stridor
- DECANNULATION CRITERIA—breathing spontaneously without ventilator assistance, consistent cough and ability to expectorate secretions, airway protected, on minimal F_iO₂ (<40% or <5–6 L/min), no evidence of upper airway obstruction

TRACHEOSTOMY BUTTONS—to maintain stoma during weaning. Less resistance than plugged tracheostomy tube. Usually left in for <24 h

VENTILATORY SETTINGS

RATE—minimal respiratory rate. Normal = 8–16 **TIDAL VOLUME**—range 5–8 mL/kg of ideal body weight. Normal = 400–600 mL. In volume cycled modes only

PEAK FLOW—determines how fast a positive pressure breath is delivered. In volume cycled modes only

PRESSURE SUPPORT—ranges from 6 cm H_2O (almost no support) to 30 cm H_2O (max support). Normal = 14–16 cm H_2O . In pressure limited modes only

VENTILATORY SETTINGS (CONT'D)

INSPIRATORY TIME—determines duration over which the pressure is delivered. In pressure limited modes only

 F_iO_2 —range 0.21–1.0. Normal=0.4 or to keep $S_pO_2 \ge 92\%$

SENSITIVITY—determines the degree of patient effort required to trigger a positive pressure breath **PEEP/EPAP**—generally start at 5 cm H₂O, usual max 15–20 cm H₂O (can go higher in ARDS)

VENTILATORY MODES

- ASSIST CONTROL (AC)—mandatory ventilator controlled breaths at set rate. Patient may breathe spontaneously (i.e. trigger the ventilator, "assist" breaths) but ventilator augments breath to reach fixed volume or pressure (VC or PC)
- VOLUME CONTROL (VC)—set tidal volume, machine-initiated inspiration
- PRESSURE CONTROL (PC)—set pressure, machineinitiated inspiration
- VOLUME SUPPORT (VS)—set tidal volume, patient-initiated inspiration (no backup rate, ventilator only boosts airflow to predetermined volume)
- PRESSURE SUPPORT (PS)—set pressure, patientinitiated inspiration (no backup rate, ventilator only boosts airflow to pre-determined pressure)
- SYNCHRONIZED INTERMITTENT MANDATORY VENTILA-TION (SIMV)—mandatory positive pressure breaths delivered at a preset rate and breath type (either volume cycled or pressure limited). Any other breaths patient takes are normal spontaneous breaths with or without additional pressure/volume support (i.e. patient determines size of breath)
- PRESSURE-REGULATED VOLUME CONTROL (PRVC) similar to volume control ventilation, with the ventilator monitoring all respiratory parameters (e.g. pressure) to continually maintain the set tidal volume
- AIRWAY PRESSURE RELEASE VENTILATION (APRV)—a form of inverse ratio ventilation using two levels of CPAP (P_{high} and P_{low}). This mode attempts to maximize mean airway pressure and thus alveolar recruitment at P_{high}, while dropping briefly to P_{low} for CO₂ elimination. Used in refractory hypoxemia due to ARDS or massive atelectasis
- HIGH FREQUENCY OSCILLATORY VENTILATION (HFOV)—employs very high respiratory rates and very small tidal volumes. Goal is to maximize alveolar recruitment and to minimize ventilator induced lung injury. Has fallen out of

VENTILATORY SETTINGS (CONT'D)

favor for refractory hypoxemia due to ARDS (lack of benefit and potential harm)

- CONTINUOUS POSITIVE AIRWAY PRESSURE (CPAP) allows a spontaneously breathing patient to breathe at an elevated baseline airway pressure, permitting improved ventilation, decreased work of breathing, reduced atelectasis, and improved gas exchange. May be used as NIMV (more common) or in intubated patients (generally referred to as PEEP with invasive ventilation)
- BILEVEL POSITIVE AIRWAY PRESSURE (BIPAP)—consists of inspiratory positive airway pressure phase (IPAP, start at 12 cmH₂O, up to 20 cmH₂O) and expiratory positive airway pressure phase (EPAP, start at 6 cmH₂O, up to 10 cmH₂O). IPAP leads to ↑ airflow which ↑ V_E and helps to ↓ PCO₂, whereas EPAP leads to ↑ FRC and mainly ↑ PO₂. Commonly used form of NIMV

VENTILATOR WEANING AND LIBERATION

CRITERIA FOR LIBERATION FROM VENTILATOR

- REVERSAL OF INITIAL DISEASE PROCESS—COMplete reversal not necessary. Ideally, stable chest wall and good pain control. Minimal secretions (or strong cough; able to clear secretions), minimal sedation, no metabolic acidosis, adequate hemoglobin, adequate nutrition
- F_iO_2 —effective oxygenation at $F_iO_2 \le 0.5$
- PEEP—effective gas exchange at PEEP ≤7.5 cmH₂O (unless required for triggering to match auto-PEEP e.g. in advanced COPD)
- MINUTE VENTILATION maintain normal pH at V_E 10–12 Lpm or less
- SPONTANEOUS PARAMETERS—while off ventilator, able to generate own parameters. VT >5-7 mL/ kg, Ve <10 L, VC = 12-15 mL/kg, NIF (negative inspiratory force) >-20 cmH₂O, RSBI <105 (even better if <70), cuff leak present

PROCESS FOR WEANING VENTILATED PATIENTS

- MEASURES—PSV trial builds endurance. Cold nebulizer trial builds strength. The less time the patient is on ventilator, the more normal their lung function, the simpler and shorter the weaning process. Daily spontaneous breathing trials significantly shorten the weaning process
- QUICK—switch directly to CPAP, cold neb, or bagger trial. Extubate soon after
- sLow—slowly decrease PSV to low levels, intermittent trials of PSV, CPAP, or cold neb allowing patient to rest on increased or full support

VENTILATOR-ASSOCIATED PNEUMONIA

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

- DEFINITION—pneumonia in patient mechanically ventilated ≥48 h
- RISK FACTORS—prolonged mechanical ventilation, need for reintubation, aspiration of gastric contents, acid suppression therapy, supine positioning, poor oral/dental hygiene
- MICROBIOLOGY—predominantly Staphylococcus aureus (including MRSA), Enterobacteriaceae (Escherichia coli, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Enterobacter spp), Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Other common microorganisms include Stenotrophomonas, Acinetobacter

DIAGNOSIS—diagnosis can be difficult. Look for new lung infiltrate, new onset fever, purulent sputum, leukocytosis, decline in oxygenation

VENTILATOR-ASSOCIATED PNEUMONIA (CONT'D)

TREATMENTS

- EMPIRIC THERAPY—treatment should be informed by local resistance patterns and patient risk factors for MDR pathogens. In general, treat with anti-pseudomonal carbapenem or β-lactam/β-lactamase inhibitor. Add second agent with GN activity if MDR risk factors: aminoglycoside, respiratory fluoroquinolone or polymyxin. Add vancomycin or linezolid if high rates of MRSA. De-escalate therapy as soon as possible when culture results known
- DURATION OF THERAPY—short course therapy (7 days) irrespective of etiology

2016 IDSA/ATS Hospital-Acquired VAP Guidelines

Shock

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

★SHOCK★

DISTRIBUTIVE—septic (pneumonia, bacteremia/line infection, UTI, intraabdominal infection, meningitis, necrotizing fasciitis), drugs, anaphylaxis, hepatic failure, adrenal insufficiency, neurogenic

HYPOVOLEMIC/HEMORRHAGIC—blood loss (trauma, GI bleed, retroperitoneal hemorrhage), GI losses, renal losses, burns

OBSTRUCTIVE—pulmonary embolism, tension pneumothorax, cardiac tamponade

CARDIOGENIC—ischemic, hypertensive, valvular, arrhythmia, peripartum, toxic, infiltrative, idiopathic, familial, autoimmune, myxedema

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION—hypotension leading to cellular hypoperfusion, hypoxia, lactic acidosis, and subsequent organ failure (oliguria, hepatic and GI dysfunction, altered mental status)

IT'S SIMPLE MATH

- BP=CO×SVR=(SV×HR)×SVR, where CO= cardiac output and HR=heart rate
- STROKE VOLUME (SV)—decreases in cardiogenic, hypovolemic, and obstructive shock
- SYSTEMIC VASCULAR RESISTANCE (SVR)—decreases in distributive shock (septic, anaphylactic, neurogenic, hepatic)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—risk factors for sepsis, blood loss, MI, or pulmonary embolism; past medical history; medications

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

PHYSICAL—vitals, warm vs. cool peripheral extremities (warm in distributive shock, cool in hypovolemic, obstructive, cardiogenic shock). Assess volume status, cardiac and respiratory function. Look for evidence of end-organ dysfunction

ASSESSMENT OF VOLUME STATUS

- vitals—heart rate and blood pressure (postural if possible)
- sкin—skin turgor (inner aspect of thigh, sternum), oral mucosa
- CARDIOPULMONARY—JVP or CVP, crackles, S₃
- URINE—urine output
- EXTREMITIES—peripheral pulses, skin temperature, capillary refill

FEET EXAMINATION

- WARM FEET—vasodilation \rightarrow distributive shock \rightarrow give fluids and consider vasopressors
- COLD FEET—vasoconstriction → cardiogenic vs. hypovolemic/obstructive vs. late septic shock → give fluids and consider inotropes especially if suspect cardiogenic cause. Also check troponin and consider echocardiogram

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, INR, PTT, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, Ca, Mg, PO₄, TSH, D-dimer, lactate, CK, troponin, urinalysis, random cortisol
- місковіоLоду—blood C&S, sputum C&S, urine C&S

Shock

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

- IMAGING—depends on suspected source; CXR, AXR, echocardiogram, CT where appropriate (e.g. CT abdomen if intraabdominal source suspected)
- ECG
- ABG

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

PULMONARY ARTERY CATHETERIZATION

- INDICATIONS—diagnosis (shock states, pulmonary artery hypertension, acute valvular disease, intracardiac shunts, cardiac tamponade, pulmonary embolus), hemodynamic monitoring (complicated acute MI, multi-organ system failure, post-cardiac surgery), treatment (aspiration of air emboli). No mortality benefit with use of PA catheter in critically ill patients
- CONTRAINDICATIONS—presence of right ventricular assist device, tricuspid or pulmonary mechanical valve, tricuspid or pulmonary valve endocarditis, right heart mass (thrombus and/ or tumor)
- SITES OF ENTRY (relative preference)—right internal jugular vein (has shortest and straightest path to the heart) > left subclavian vein > right subclavian vein > left internal jugular vein > femoral veins
- NORMAL VALUES
 - CENTRAL VENOUS PRESSURE (CVP) = 5–8 mmHg, may accept higher values in patients ventilated with high PEEP or high baseline LVEDP (e.g. chronic hypertension)
 - **RIGHT ATRIAL PRESSURE** (RAP) = 5–8 mmHg
 - right ventricular pressure (RVP) = 20–30/2–8 mmHg
 - PULMONARY ARTERY PRESSURE (PAP) = 20-30/5-15 mmHg, mean 10-22 mmHg
 - PULMONARY CAPILLARY WEDGE PRESSURE (PCWP) = pulmonary artery occlusion pressure (PAOP) ~ LA pressure = 8–12 mmHg (PCWP >18 mmHg suggests interstitial edema, PCWP >24 mmHg suggests alveolar edema)
 - left ventricular pressure (LVP) = 120/8 mmHg
 - AORTIC PRESSURE = 120/80 mmHg, MAP 70–110 mmHg
 - SYSTEMIC VASCULAR RESISTANCE INDEX (SVRI) = 1970–2390 dynes-sec/cm⁻⁵/m²
 - CARDIAC INDEX = 2.4-4.2 L/min/m², CO = 4-7 L/min
 - DO₂ = 400–650 mL/min/m²
 - VO₂ = 125–175 mL/min/m²

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

 COMPLICATIONS —arterial puncture, hemothorax, pneumothorax, venous or air embolus, sustained ventricular tachycardia, ventricular fibrillation, heart block (most commonly RBBB, or complete heart block in the setting of preexisting LBBB), infection, pulmonary artery thrombosis/embolism/infarction/rupture, knotting of catheter (requires fluoroscopic removal), pulmonary or tricuspid valve insufficiency

| DISTINGUISHING SHOCK STATES | | FEATURES BETWEEN | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------|------------------|--------------|--------------|
| | со | CVP | PCWP | SVR |
| Distributive | 1 | ↓/N | ↓/N | \downarrow |
| Hypovolemic | \downarrow | \downarrow | \downarrow | 1 |
| Cardiogenic | \downarrow | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Isolated RHF | \downarrow | 1 | \downarrow | 1 |
| Isolated LHF | \downarrow | ↓/N | 1 | 1 |
| Tamponade ^a | Ţ | ↑ | 1 | ↑ |

^aIn tamponade or tension pneumothorax, observe equalization of pressures, i.e. CVP=RA=RV-EDP=PCWP; cardiogenic shock gives heart failure picture on CXR, whereas tamponade usually has clear CXR with cardiomegaly only

Related Topics

Anaphylaxis (p. 413) Myocardial Infarction (p. 30) Sepsis (p. 118) Tamponade (p. 38)

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O2, continuous cardiac and oximetry monitoring, IV fluid resuscitation (1–5 L), ICU consult, consider intubation/mechanical ventilation, inotropes or vasopressors (norepinephrine 0.01-0.3 mcg/kg/min IV, up to 1.5 mcg/kg/min in refractory shock; vasopressin 0.01-0.04 U/min IV; epinephrine 0.01-0.7 mcg/ kg/min IV; ephedrine 5-25 mg IV g5-10 min until blood pressure stable; phenylephrine 20-200 µg/ min IV; dobutamine 2.5-20 mcg/kg/min IV; milrinone 0.375-0.75 mcg/kg/min IV; dopamine start 1–4 mcg/kg/min IV, titrate to maximum 20 mcg/ kg/min; midodrine 5-10 mg PO TID). Correct coagulopathy (transfuse PRBC. FFP. cryoprecipitate)

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

TREATMENT ISSUES

INOTROPES/VASOPRESSORS

 PHYSIOLOGY—α1 = peripheral vasoconstriction =↑ systemic vascular resistance = treatment for sepsis; β1 = inotropic and

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

chronotropic effect = \uparrow cardiac output = treatment for heart failure; $\beta 2$ = peripheral vasodilation = counter $\alpha 1$ effect

| Agent | Mechanism of action | Special note |
|--------------------------|---|---|
| Norepinephrine | $\alpha 1$ mainly, $\beta 1 \rightarrow \uparrow$ SVR, \uparrow CO | First line for septic shock |
| Vasopressin | V1, V2 → dilates renal, pulmonary, cerebral, coronary arteries and constricts others | Second line for sepsis; AE:gut ischemia, skin necrosis |
| Epinephrine | β 1, β 2, α 1 \rightarrow \uparrow CO, \uparrow SVR | Salvage for sepsis, first line for anaphylaxis; AE: ischemia |
| Phenylephrine | $\alpha 1 \rightarrow \uparrow SVR$ | Sepsis, counteract spinal/epidural anesthesia |
| Ephedrine | β 1, β 2, α 1 \rightarrow \uparrow CO, \uparrow SVR | Bolus therapy pending CVC placement for continuous vasopressor therapy |
| Dobutamine | β 1, β 2, \rightarrow \uparrow CO, \downarrow SVR | First line for cardiogenic shock |
| Milrinone | Phosphodiesteraseinhibitor $\rightarrow \uparrow$ CO, \downarrow SVR | First line for cardiogenic shock with pulmonary HTN |
| Dopamine1–2 µg/kg/min | $DA \rightarrow$ dilates renal, mesenteric, cerebral arteries and airways | ↑ renal perfusion/GFR (controversial) |
| Dopamine5–10 | DA, $\beta 1 \rightarrow \uparrow CO$ | HF/sepsis; |
| µg/kg/min | | AE: tachycardia |
| Dopamine>10 µg/kg/min | $\alpha 1 \rightarrow \uparrow SVR$ | Sepsis/HF; AE: tachycardia |
| Midodrine | $\alpha 1 \rightarrow \uparrow SVR$ | Sepsis; oral |
| | | |

where AE adverse effects, CO cardiac output, CVC central venous catheter, DA dopamine, HF heart failure, HTN hypertension, SVR systemic vascular resistance

Sepsis and Septic Shock

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

SEPSIS-3 DEFINITIONS (Singer et al. JAMA 2016 315:8)

- SEPSIS—life-threatening organ dysfunction caused by a dysregulated host response to infection
- SEPTIC SHOCK—sepsis-induced hypotension defined as vasopressor dependence in those with sepsis, despite adequate fluid resuscitation, to maintain MAP ≥65 mmHg and having a lactate >2 mmol/L; characterized by circulatory, cellular and metabolic abnormalities that are associated with high mortality
- SIRS—no longer part of sepsis definition as present in many hospitalized patients who never develop infection (poor specificity), poor sensitivity, and is often adaptive/appropriate response to infection

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

SIMPLIFIED MECHANISM OF INJURY—infection \rightarrow proinflammatory mediators \rightarrow malignant intravascular inflammation \rightarrow complement activation, \downarrow fibrinolysis \rightarrow endothelial dysfunction, microvascular coagulopathy and thrombosis \rightarrow tissue ischemia \rightarrow organ failure

BAND CELLS—neutrophils with unsegmented nuclei, a developmental stage immediately preceding the mature segmented form

- LEFT SHIFT—band cell count >0.7 × 10⁹/L, commonly seen in infections
- "SEVERE" LEFT SHIFT—cells as immature as metamyelocytes may be seen in left shift in response to infection, but unusual to see more immature cells (myelocytes, promyelocytes, blasts). When present, suggestive of myeloproliferative disorder (chronic myelog-

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

enous leukemia, agnogenic myeloid metaplasia, or one of the various forms of acute leukemia)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC (with differential for left shift), lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, albumin, troponin, CK, INR, PTT, lactate, urinalysis, random cortisol
- мисковносоду—based on clinical syndrome (e.g. sputum, pleural, peritoneal, cerebrospinal fluid cultures); however, all septic patients should have blood and urine cultures
- IMAGING—CXR, consider CT based on clinical syndrome (e.g. rule out abdominal pathology such as cholecystitis, intra-abdominal abscess, obstructing renal calculus)

ABG

SPECIAL

- LUMBAR PUNCTURE—if altered level of consciousness
- THORACENTESIS—if significant pleural effusion
- PARACENTESIS—if ascites

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, **O**₂, IV, consider intubation/ mechanical ventilation

RESUSCITATION—**fluids** (rapid large volume infusions of 500–1000 mL at a time with crystalloids such as Ringer lactate, most patients require 3–10 L IV, albumin is safe but has no mortality benefit, avoid hydroxyethyl starches) and **vasopressors/inotropes** (*norepinephrine* 0.01–0.3 mcg/kg/min but may increase up to 1.5 mcg/kg/min in refractory shock, *vasopressin* 0.01–0.04 U/min IV, *dobutamine* 2.5–20 mcg/kg/ min IV) to maintain MAP ≥65 mtHg or SBP >90 mtHg, urine output ≥0.5 mL/kg/h. In addition,

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

monitor HR, RR, skin color/temperature, pulse oximetry, mental status, lactate

ANTIMICROBIALS—early empiric antimicrobials should be administered ASAP, order STAT. If suspect pulmonary source, macrolide plus β -lactam for community-acquired pneumonia, anti-pseudomonal ± aminoglycoside or fluoroquinolone (if MDR risk factors) ± vancomvcin (if high-level MRSA endemicity) for nosocomial pneumonia. If suspect urinary source, thirdgeneration cephalosporin or aminoglycoside or carbapenem if high rates of MDR-Gram negatives (such as extended spectrum β-lactamase produclf suspect intra-abdominal ers). source, β -lactam/ β -lactamase inhibitor or carbapenem. Tailor antimicrobials once organism(s) identified and depending on local epidemiology/resistance patterns

SOURCE CONTROL—absolutely imperative. Must drain abscesses and debride devitalized tissues to achieve source control ASAP

GLYCEMIC CONTROL—insulin infusion to keep serum glucose 6–10 mmol/L [110–180 mg/ dL], maintaining euglycemia *may* improve outcomes; however, **must avoid hypoglycemia**

STEROIDS—controversial as no reduction in mortality but hasten time to shock reversal, administer *hydrocortisone* 50 mg IV q6h in patients with moderate-dose vasopressor-dependent shock

BLOOD PRODUCTS—in septic shock patients transfusion may improve oxygen carrying capacity and hypoxia. In stable patients, the threshold for transfusion should be hemoglobin <70 g/L, with a target of 70–90 g/L

PROPHYLAXIS—**DVT** (unfractionated heparin SC, LMWH, fondaparinux, pneumatic stockings), **stress ulcer** (PPI or H2 receptor antagonist)

SPECIFICS—ARDS (lung-protective ventilation), acute kidney injury (avoid nephrotoxins, supportive renal replacement therapy), early enteral feeding

Lactic Acidosis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

TYPE A (occurs with poor tissue perfusion or oxygenation)

- TISSUE HYPOXIA—shock, reduced cardiac output or cardiac arrest, hypoxemia, anemia, carbon monoxide poisoning, methemoglobinemia
- INCREASED OXYGEN DEMAND—sepsis, seizures, exercise

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

TYPE B (when evidence of poor tissue perfusion or oxygenation is absent)

- B1 (systemic diseases)—renal and hepatic failure, diabetes mellitus, and malignancy (lymphoma, leukemia, small cell carcinoma)
- B2 (drugs/toxins)—metformin, alcohols (ethanol, methanol, ethylene glycol, paraldehyde), cyanide, nitroprusside, isoniazid, epinephrine

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

 B3 (inborn errors of metabolism)—defects of pyruvate metabolism, defects of NADH oxidation, disorders of gluconeogenezsis (type 1 glycogen storage disease), fatty acid oxidation defects, defects of organic acid metabolism

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION—>4 mmol/L [>36 mg/dL] (normal ~1 mmol/L [9 mg/dL]) + metabolic acidosis

LACTIC ACID PRODUCTION—part of the glycolytic pathway as pyruvate is converted to lactate to generate NAD from NADH. As anaerobic metabolism increases ($\downarrow O_2$ delivery, \uparrow metabolic rate), lactate accumulates and causes metabolic acidosis

LACTIC ACID METABOLISM—lactate is metabolized by the liver. Alteration of hepatic function could cause some degree of lactate accumulation. In practice, many cases of chronic lactic acidosis are due to a combined imbalance between increased production and decreased metabolism

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, glucose, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, serum osmolality and osmolar gap, toxic alcohol levels, troponin, CK, INR, PTT
- MICROBIOLOGY—routine blood and urine C&S, consider culturing other bodily fluids as appropriate (e.g. sputum, pleural, CSF, pericardial, peritoneal)
- IMAGING—AXR±CT abdomen (if suspect bowel ischemia)
- ABG

SPECIAL

 INBORN ERROR OF METABOLISM (mitochondrial disorder)—if suspected, consider LP for CSF lactate level±muscle biopsy

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O_2 to keep $S_pO_2 \ge 92\%,$ IV, HCO_3 bolus (1–2 amps), or infusion if extremely low pH (<7.2)

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

Toxicology

APPROACH TO OVERDOSE

HISTORY (brief)—collateral information important, inquire about depression

PHYSICAL (brief)—pupils, lungs, heart, GI, skin

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- BLOOD TESTS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, Ca, Mg, PO₄, β-hCG, alcohol level, methanol, ethylene glycol, salicylates, acetaminophen, other drug levels (especially patient's own medications such as digoxin, iron, theophylline, lithium), serum osmolality and osmolar gap
- URINE TESTS—urine pregnancy test (if female <50), urine drug screen (as appropriate and may not affect initial management; e.g. opioids, benzodiazepines, cocaine, amphetamines, cannabinoids)
- IMAGING—CXR, CT head
- ECG
- ABG

GENERAL APPROACH TO THE MANAGEMENT OF OVERDOSES

- Acute—ABC, O₂, IV, monitor vitals (HR, RR, BP, temp, O₂ sat, blood sugar, GCS), universal antidote (glucose 25–50 g IV if capillary glucose measurement not immediately available, naloxone 0.4–2 mg IV, thiamine 50–100 mg IV). Supportive care for airway protection (intubation if GCS ≤8, severe hypoxemia/ hypercapnia and/or hemodynamic instability), blood pressure (fluids, vasoactive drugs), arrhythmias, agitation, and seizures
- DECONTAMINATION activated charcoal 50–100 g PO with 60 mL sorbitol (within 1 h ingestion of most drugs except those that are rapidly absorbed). Avoid if bowel obstruction, perforation, or endoscopy is contemplated. Gastric lavage with 2–3 mL/kg aliquots if within 60 min of ingestion (should be tried even after 60 min if delayed gastric emptying, e.g. TCA overdose) and if charcoal not indicated (e.g. iron, lithium, cyanide). Whole bowel irrigation (polyethylene glycol 2 L/h, up to 10 L). Skin (remove clothing, cleanse). Ipecac not recommended

GENERAL APPROACH TO THE MANAGEMENT OF OVERDOSES (CONT'D)

- 3. ALKALINIZATION AND/OR HEMOPERFUSION/HEMO-DIALYSIS-forced alkaline diuresis will accelerate excretion of acids (aspirin, barbiturates). Give 3 amps of NaHCO₃ in 1 L D5W at 250 mL/h. Monitor urine output and for volume overload, alkalosis and hypokalemia. Goal pH for urine is 7.5-8 and for serum is 7.5–7.6. Consider **hemodialvsis** if the patient is toxic with barbiturate, bromides, chloral hydrate, alcohols (isopropanol, acetone, methanol, ethylene glycol), lithium, procainamide, theophylline, salicylates, heavy metals, trichloroethanol, atenolol. sotalol. acebutolol or nadolol
- 4. SPECIFIC ANTIDOTES—acetaminophen (N-acetylcysteine 150 mg/kg (~60 mL) in 200 mL D5W IV over 1 h, then 50 mg/kg (~20 mL) in 500 mL D5W IV over 4 h, then 100 mg/kg (~40 mL) in 1 L D5W IV over 16 h. Alternatively, N-acetylcysteine 140 mg/kg PO/NG, followed by 70 mg/kg g4h for 17 doses). Opioids (naloxone 0.4-2 mg IV, repeat PRN). Benzodiazepines (flumazenil 0.2 mg over 30 s, then 0.5 mg g1min PRN. Maximum total dose 3 mg). Methanol/ethylene glycol (Fomepizole 15 mg/kg IV, followed by 10 mg/kg q12h until ethylene glychol level <3.2 mmol/L [<20 mg/dL]. If fomepizole not available, 10% ethanol in D5W 10 mL/kg IV over 30 min, then 1.5 mL/kg/h, goal EtOH level 22-28 mmol/L [100-128 mg/dL]). Digitalis (Digibind® 10-20 vials IV if life-threatening arrhythmia). Calcium channel blockers (CaCl₂ 1 g over 5 min, repeat if lifethreatening disease). **β-blockers** (glucagon initial dose 0.05-0.15 mg/kg up to a max dose of 10 mg over 2 min, then infusion 0.07 mg/kg). Isoniazid (pyridoxine given gram-to-gram of INH ingested). Tricyclic antidepressant (NaHCO₃ 1-2 mmol/kg IV if cardiac arrhythmia). Anticholinergics (lorazepam 2–10 mg IV q5min, physostigmine). Iron (deferoxamine 1 g IM or IV, then 500 mg q4h \times 2, then 500 mg q4-12 h PRN. Maximum total dose 6 g/day). Cholinergics (atropine 0.5-2 mg IV, repeat q5-30 min PRN)
- ANTICIPATE COMPLICATIONS—delirium, aspiration pneumonia, respiratory failure, electrolyte imbalances, arrhythmias, hypotension, seizures, and others. Consider ICU/CCU consultation where appropriate
- 6. PSYCHIATRY CONSULT WHEN STABLE

ANTICHOLINERGIC SYNDROMES

CAUSES—TCAs, antihistamines, antipsychotics, anti-Parkinson medications, amantadine, antispasmodics, mydriatics, skeletal muscle relaxants **CLINICAL FEATURES**—**common** (fever, tachycardia, hypertension, *dry/flushed skin*, delirium, hallucinations, mydriasis, urinary retention, decreased bowel sounds), **serious** (seizures, coma, respiratory failure, arrhythmias, cardiovascular collapse). ECG findings may include sinus tachycardia, prolonged PR, QRS, and QT intervals, RBBB and ST elevation in leads V1–V3

TREATMENTS—supportive measures, charcoal, HCO₃ if cardiac arrhythmia, sedation with benzodiazepines PRN

SYMPATHOMIMETIC SYNDROMES

CAUSES—cocaine, amphetamines/methamphetamines, LSD, PCP, phenylpropanolamine, ephedrine, pseudoephedrine, methylphenidate, nicotine, theophylline

CLINICAL FEATURES—common (fever, tachycardia, hypertension, diaphoresis, delusions, paranoia, mydriasis, hyperreflexia), **serious** (seizures, coma, arrhythmias, cardiovascular collapse) **TREATMENTS**—supportive measures, **seda**tion with benzodiazepines. Treat severe hypertension (nitroprusside, phentolamine). Avoid β -blockers (unopposed α effect). Control hyperthermia (cooling blanket, may require **paralysis** to limit muscular activity)

CHOLINERGIC SYNDROMES

CAUSES—organophosphate and carbamate insecticides, pilocarpine, physostigmine, edro-phonium, some mushrooms

CLINICAL FEATURES—common (delirium, salivation, lacrimation, miosis, diaphoresis, emesis, urinary and fecal incontinence), **serious** (pulmonary edema, seizures, coma)

TREATMENTS—supportive measures, atropine

METHANOL AND ETHYLENE GLYCOL OVERDOSE

See METHANOL and ETHYLENE GLYCOL OVERDOSE p. 480

ACETAMINOPHEN OVERDOSE

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—5% of acetaminophen is metabolized to *N*-acetyl-p-benzoquinoneimine (NAPQI), which is highly toxic to liver, but is normally rapidly inactivated by conjugation with glutathione. With acetaminophen overdose, NAPQI accumulates due to depletion of glutathione

ACETAMINOPHEN OVERDOSE (CONT'D)

stores, causing hepatic necrosis and acute kidney injury. N-acetylcysteine, the antidote, regenerates hepatic glutathione stores leading to enhanced conjugation and clearance of NAPOI. A single dose of 10-15 g acetaminophen (twenty 500 mg tablets) can produce liver injury. Fulminant hepatic failure (FHF) usually associated with >25 g ★The rule of 140s★ toxic dose = 140 ma/ka. Rumack-Matthew nomogram blood level vs. time $(>140 \,\mu\text{g/mL} 4 \text{ h after ingestion} \rightarrow >5 \,\mu\text{g/mL} 24$ h after ingestion). First dose of N-acetvlcvsteine 140 mg/kg PO (IV infusion may also be used: 150 mg/kg in 200 mL D5W over 15 min, then 50 mg/kg in 500 mL D5W over 4 h, then 100 ma/ka in 1 L D5W over 16 h; may continue third stage until liver enzyme normalization in FHF)

CLINICAL FEATURES—first few hours, nausea and vomiting, RUQ pain, diarrhea. Symptoms disappear 24 h after ingestion. Liver failure († INR, bilirubin, transaminases, and encephalopathy) may start at 24–72 h with or without AKI or cardiotoxicity

POOR PROGNOSTIC SIGNS—coagulopathy (most important), acidosis, acute kidney injury, hypophosphatemia, encephalopathy

TREATMENTS—supportive, *N*-acetylcysteine (duration of therapy controversial; if evidence of hepatic injury, continue NAC until transaminases decreasing, INR ≤ 2 , and serum acetaminophen concentration undetectable)

KING'S COLLEGE CRITERIA FOR LIVER TRANSPLANTATION IN TYLENOL OVER-DOSE ★The rule of 3's★—either pH <7.3 or grade III/IV encephalopathy plus Cr >300 µmol/L [>3.3 mg/dL] plus INR >6.5 (or PT >100 s) (~5% survival with medical therapy alone)

SALICYLATE OVERDOSE

CAUSES (★The rule of 3's★)—a single dose of 10–30 g (30 tablets of 325 mg) can be fatal. Symptoms may occur with salicylate >3.0 mmol/L [>40 mg/mL]

CLINICAL FEATURES—common (tinnitus, vertigo, N&V, diarrhea, tachypnea, metabolic acidosis, respiratory alkalosis), serious (hyperthermia, pulmonary edema, delirium, seizure, coma)

DIAGNOSIS—salicylate level (every 2 h until decreased level), ABG (every 2 h until stable)

TREATMENTS—supportive measures (avoid intubation if possible). Consider gastric lavage. *Glucose* 100 mL of D50W IV if altered mental status regardless of serum glucose level. *Activated charcoal* (50–100 g PO/NG q4h×3doses).

SALICYLATE OVERDOSE (CONT'D)

Alkalinize serum and urine; maintain urine pH 8–8.5 (*NaHCO*₃ 1–3 amps IV push, then 3 amps of NaHCO₃ in 1 L D5W at 250 mL/h). Consider **hemodialysis** if altered mentation, cerebral edema, fluid overload, pulmonary edema, severe renal failure, salicylate >7.2 mmol/L [>100 mg/mL] in acute ingestion or >5 mmol/L [>70 mg/mL] in chronic toxicity, rising levels or clinical deterioration

MORTALITY RATE—acute ~1–2% (usually suicidal attempt in young patient), chronic ~25% (often elderly patient, delayed diagnosis due to low index of suspicion)

OPIOID, SEDATIVE OR ETHANOL INTOXICATION SYNDROMES

CAUSES—opioids, barbiturates, benzodiazepines, ethanol, clonidine

CLINICAL FEATURES—common (decrease in all vitals, hypothermia, stupor, miosis, dry skin, urinary retention, decreased bowel sounds, hyporeflexia), serious (seizures, coma, respiratory depression). Note vitals may be relatively normal, particularly for benzodiazepine overdose

TREATMENTS—supportive measures, naloxone (if opioids), flumazenil (if benzodiazepines), urinary alkalinization (if barbiturates)

β-BLOCKER OVERDOSE

CLINICAL FEATURES—common (hypotension, bradycardia, bronchospasm, hypoglycemia), serious (shock, asystole, seizure, coma)

TREATMENTS—supportive measures, fluid resuscitation, *glucagon* (initial dose 0.05–0.15 mg/kg up to a max dose of 10 mg over 2 min, then infusion 0.07 mg/kg), IV calcium, phosphodiesterase inhibitor (milrinone or amrinone), epinephrine, dialysis (for atenolol, sotalol, acebutolol or nadolol), high dose insulin/glucose infusions, intravenous lipid emulsion therapy. Atropine or pacing not usually effective. Consider intra-aortic balloon pump (IABP) or extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO) in severely poisoned

CALCIUM CHANNEL BLOCKERS OVERDOSE

CAUSES—dihydropyridine calcium channel blockers (nifedipine, amlodipine, isradipine) affect mainly vascular tone and may cause hypotension with reflex tachycardia. Nondihydropyridine calcium channel blockers (diltiazem, verapamil) usually lead to SA/AV slowing and negative inotropy

CALCIUM CHANNEL BLOCKERS OVERDOSE (CONT'D)

CLINICAL FEATURES—common (hypotension, arrhythmias, delirium, hypokalemia, lactic acidosis, hyperglycemia)

TREATMENTS—supportive measures. Fluid resuscitation, catecholamines, IV calcium (calcium gluconate 10% 50 mL or calcium chloride 10% 20 mL), glucagon, high dose insulin/ glucose infusions, intravenous lipid emulsion therapy. Hemodialysis not effective. Consider IABP or ECMO in severely poisoned

LITHIUM TOXICITY

CAUSES—usually related to chronic drug accumulation, although acute overdose may occur. Commonly precipitated by renal failure and dehydration. Therapeutic Li levels 0.6–1.2 mEq/L, mild toxicity = 1.5 to <2.5 mEq/L, moderate toxicity = 2.5–3.5 mEq/L, severe toxicity >3.5 mEq/L

CLINICAL FEATURES—acute toxicities include CNS (confusion, ataxia, seizures, coma), neuromuscular (tremors, fasciculations, rigidity, weakness), and others (sinus bradycardia, hypotension, ARDS, acute renal failure, nausea and vomiting, diarrhea, leukocytosis, hypercalcemia). Chronic toxicities include nephrogenic diabetes insipidus, leukocytosis, and goiter

TREATMENTS—supportive measures, gastric lavage if within 60 min of ingestion, fluid resuscitation with NS followed by **hypotonic solution** infusion if nephrogenic diabetes insipidus, Kayexalate[®] (binds lithium), whole bowel irrigation, **hemodialysis** (if Li >3.5 mEq/L in acute ingestion or >2.5 mEq/L in chronic ingestion *and* significant symptoms, or persistently high Li levels, beware of rebound effect after hemodialysis due to redistribution)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES FOR OVERDOSE

OSMOLAR GAP—measured osmolality – calculated osmolality

- Osmo_{calc}=(Glucose in mmol/L)+(Urea in mmol/L)+2×(Na mmol/L) ★GUN2★
- US units: Osmo_{calc} = (Glucose in mg/ dL)/18 + (Urea in mg/dL)/2.8 + 2 × (Na mEq/L)
- NORMAL OSMOLAR GAP—typically 2 to +6 mOsm/kg
- INCREASED OSMOLAR GAP AND ANION GAP elevated if >10 mOsm/kg: ethylene glycol, methanol, diabetic or alcoholic ketoacidosis, lactic acidosis, chronic renal failure (other small solutes), severe lactic acidosis ("idiogenic osmole"), sepsis (some inflammatory mediators are believed to be osmotically active)
- INCREASED OSMOLAR GAP BUT NORMAL ANION GAP ethanol, isopropyl alcohol, diethyl ether, sorbitol, mannitol, severe hyperproteinemia, severe hyperlipidemia

ANION GAP (AG)—Na – Cl – HCO₃. AG >12 mEq/L is abnormal and can be caused by methanol, ethylene glycol, uremia, ketoacidosis, paraldehyde, INH, iron, lactic acidosis, cyanide, arsenic, toluene, salicylates (see METABOLIC ACIDOSIS p. 94). Decreased anion gap can be caused by excessive cations such as in Li toxicity. Remember to adjust AG in hypoalbuminemia by adding 2.5–3 mmol/L for every 10 g/L [1.0 g/dL] decrease in serum albumin.

OXYGEN SATURATION GAP—>5% difference between pulse oximetry and oxygen saturation on ABG is seen with carbon monoxide, cyanide, hydrogen sulfide, and methemoglobin poisoning ANTICHOLINERGIC AND SYMPATHOMI-METIC SYNDROMES—anticholinergic syndromes lead to dry skin whereas sympathomimetic syndromes are associated with diaphoresis

Hypothermia

CAUSES

INCREASED HEAT LOSS

- ENVIRONMENTAL—cold exposure
- DERMATOLOGIC—burns, extensive psoriasis, vasodilation (drugs, alcohol, sepsis, pancreatitis)
- IATROGENIC—cold fluid infusion, CPR, renal replacement therapy

DECREASED METABOLISM

- ENDOCRINE—hypothyroidism, hypopituitarism, adrenal insufficiency, hypoglycemia
- METABOLIC—anorexia nervosa, malnutrition

CAUSES (CONT'D)

ALTERED REGULATION

- CENTRAL—stroke, Parkinson disease, multiple sclerosis, hypothalamic dysfunction, anorexia nervosa, drugs (barbiturate, TCA, sedatives, alcohol)
- **PERIPHERAL**—neuropathies, diabetes

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF HYPOTHERMIA—internal temperature <35 °C [<95 °F] (by rectal, tympanic, or esophageal thermometer). Hypothermia may

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

be mild (32–35 °C [90–95 °F]), moderate (28–32 °C [82–90 °F]), or severe (<28 °C [<82 °F])

RISK FACTORS—extremes of age, alcoholism, malnutrition, homelessness, mental illness

COMPLICATIONS—hypothermia affects most organs, causing cognitive (coma), neuromuscular (rigidity), respiratory (pulmonary edema), cardiac (arrhythmia), and cutaneous (frostbite) complications. Sepsis, pneumonia, hypokalemia, hypoglycemia, and rhabdomyolysis may also occur

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—exposure to cold (duration, environment), shivering, confusion, delirium, palpitations, weakness, ulcers, frostbite, fever, weight loss, past medical history (hypothyroidism, diabetes, alcoholism, psoriasis), medications, social history

PHYSICAL—vitals (bradycardia, apnea, hypertension/hypotension, hypoxemia), GCS, respiratory and cardiovascular examination (arrhythmia), rigidity, hyporeflexia, skin examination (frostbite, burns, psoriasis)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, Ca, CK, troponin, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, TSH, urinalysis, random cortisol, serum lactate, fibrinogen, lipase, consider toxicology screen
- місковіогоду—blood cultures
- IMAGING—CXR, consider CT head
- ECG—Osborn wave (elevated J point), prolonged RR, PR, QRS, and QT intervals

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—**ABC**, O_2 to keep sat \geq 92%, **IV**, **rewarming**. Caution with fluid overload (decreased cardiac output in hypothermic patients) and vasopressors (arrhythmogenic potential). Resuscitation should continue until patient completely rewarmed

MONITORING—continuous cardiac monitoring. Also closely monitor electrolytes and glucose. Vagotonic maneuvers (e.g. intubation or suctioning) may precipitate asystole

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

REWARMING—environment (remove cold clothing, warming blanket). **Active rewarming** (warm IV fluids ~40–42 °C [104–108 °F]. If severe hypothermia, consider colonic/bladder irrigation, peritoneal or pleural lavage, extracorporeal blood rewarming. Goal of rewarming is 0.5–2 °C/h [1.8 °F/h] to minimize risk of VF and hypovolemic shock)

FROSTBITE—supportive care. Skin grafting and amputation may be required if gangrene develops

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

ELECTRICAL INJURY

- ратнорнузюсову—causes include lightening, taser, and stun gun
- CLINICAL FEATURES—injuries may involve the skin (burns), heart (VF, asystole, cardiac contusion), bones/muscles (deep electrothermal tissue injury, osteonecrosis, compartment syndrome, rhabdomyolysis with renal failure, posterior shoulder dislocation), and neurologic system (loss of consciousness, weakness or paralysis, respiratory depression, autonomic dysfunction)
- DIAGNOSIS—clinical. Obtain CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, CK, appropriate imaging, drug and alcohol levels, urinalysis, CXR, ABG, ECG
- TREATMENTS—ABC, O₂, IV. Supportive management of complications. Monitor for compartment syndromes. Psychiatry consult for post-traumatic stress disorder

SUBMERSION INJURY (drowning)

- CLINICAL FEATURES—assess for cause of drowning (accidental, suicidal, alcohol or illicit drug use, concomitant myocardial infarction/ stroke). Complications include respiratory failure, ARDS, hypothermia, arrhythmia (atrial fibrillation, bradycardia, ventricular tachycardia), acidosis (metabolic, respiratory), anoxic brain injury, cerebral edema, and seizures
- DIAGNOSIS—clinical. Obtain CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, osmolality, drug and alcohol levels, urinalysis, CXR, ABG, and ECG
- TREATMENTS—ABC, O₂, IV. Supportive management of complications. 75% of near-drowning victims survive

Smoke Inhalation

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

MECHANISM OF INJURY—thermal injury, hypoxic gas inhalation, bronchopulmonary toxins (airway inflammation, possible ARDS), systemic toxins (CO, CN)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—exposure to smoke (duration, substance, environment), dyspnea, chest pain, confusion, loss of consciousness, burns, other injuries, past medical history (respiratory disorders), medications

PHYSICAL—vitals (tachycardia, tachypnea, hypotension, temperature, hypoxemia), GCS, respiratory examination (cyanosis, cherry red lips, accessory muscle use, wheeze), cardiovascular examination (HF), burns, screening abdominal and neurologic examination

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, carboxyhemoglobin level, cyanide level, methemoglobin level (↓ with cyanide poisoning), lactate (↑ with cyanide poisoning)
- IMAGING—CXR
- ECG
- ABG—to determine PaO₂, PaCO₂, and CO-Hb levels
- LARYNGOSCOPY/BRONCHOSCOPY—if significant burns

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—**ABC**, high flow O_2 to keep $S_pO_2 \ge 92\%$ (100% FiO₂ if CO poisoning suspected pending ABG; see below), **IV**. Consider early **intubation** if

Anaphylaxis

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

severe injury/symptoms. Salbutamol and ipratropium for bronchodilation

SPECIFIC POISONING—see CO and CN poisoning

BURNS—fluids, wound care. Plastic surgery consult

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

CARBON MONOXIDE (CO) POISONING

- РАТНОРНУЗЮLOGY—CO is an odorless, colorless, and non-irritating gas. It has a high affinity for hemoglobin, preventing it from releasing O₂
- CLINICAL FEATURES—nausea, malaise, headache, dyspnea, angina, confusion, coma
- TREATMENTS 100% FiO₂ (decreases t_{1/2} of CO from 4 to 1.5 h). Hyperbaric oxygen may be used in selected patients (CO >25%, endorgan ischemia, or loss of consciousness); however, logistically challenging in critically ill patient

CYANIDE (CN) POISONING

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—produced by combustion of common household materials (polyurethane, nylon, wool, and cotton). CN binds to ironcontaining enzymes (e.g. cytochrome) inhibiting aerobic metabolism
- CLINICAL FEATURES—severe lactic acidosis, cardiac dysfunction, apnea, coma
- TREATMENTS—cyanide antidotal treatment with hydroxocobalamin and sodium thiosulfate. If hydroxocobalamin not available give Cyanide Antidote Kit (inhaled amyl nitrite, intravenous sodium nitrite, sodium thiosulfate)

See ANAPHYLAXIS (p. 413)

5 GASTROENTEROLOGY Christopher Ma



Nausea and Vomiting

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

NEUROLOGIC

- ORGANIC—migraine, increased IC pressure (infections, tumors, hemorrhage), multiple sclerosis, vestibular nerve or brain stem lesions
- DRUGS—chemotherapy, SSRI, opioids, antibiotics, hormonal therapy, cannabis hyperemesis
- PSYCHIATRIC—anorexia nervosa, bulimia nervosa, rumination

GASTROINTESTINAL

- INFECTIONS—acute gastroenteritis (viral/bacterial), UTI, pyelonephritis, pneumonia
- NEOPLASTIC—gastric, ovarian, paraneoplastic, renal
- OBSTRUCTION—stomach, small bowel, colon, gastric volvulus, chronic intestinal pseudoobstruction
- INFLAMMATION—esophagus, stomach, duodenum
- GASTROPARESIS—ischemic, diabetic, amyloidosis, scleroderma, drugs
- OTHERS—hepatobiliary disease, pancreatic disease, peritoneal irritation, functional gastrointestinal disorders, cyclic vomiting syndrome, retroperitoneal fibrosis

METABOLIC

- ENDOCRINE—diabetes, adrenal insufficiency, hypercalcemia, hyperthyroidism, hyperparathyroidism, porphyria
- отнекs—uremia, pregnancy/hyperemesis gravidarum, post-operative

IDIOPATHIC

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

REFLEX PATHWAY

 AFFERENT—(1) humoral factors (drugs, toxins, neurotransmitter, peptides) → area postrema in floor of 4th ventricle (chemoreceptor trigger zone) → nucleus tractus solitarius (NTS) in medulla serves as central pattern generator for vomiting; (2) neuronal GI tract

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

stimuli \rightarrow vagus nerve \rightarrow NTS; (3) **nociceptive** stimuli \rightarrow sympathetic nervous system \rightarrow brain stem nuclei and the hypothalamus

 EFFERENT—NTS → paraventricular nuclei of the hypothalamus and the limbic and cortical regions → gastric electromechanical events are perceived as normal sensations or nausea or discomfort → vagus nerve → gastric and lower esophageal sphincter relaxation, retrograde contraction in proximal small bowel and antrum, abdominal muscle contraction and initial cricopharyngeus contraction followed by relaxation seconds before vomiting

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, Ca, Mg, PO₄, AM cortisol, urinalysis
- MICROBIOLOGY—urine C&S
- IMAGING—CXR, AXR

SPECIAL

- GASTROSCOPY, GASTRIC EMPTYING STUDY
- CT HEAD

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL

- H1 ANTAGONISTS—dimenhydrinate 25–50 mg PO/PR q4h, diphenhydramine 25–50 mg PO/IV/IM q4h, cyclizine 50 mg PO/IM q4h or 100 mg PR q4h, meclizine 25–50 mg PO daily, promethazine 12.5–25 mg PO/IM q4h or 12.5–25 mg PR daily
- D2 ANTAGONISTS—benzamides (metoclopramide 5–10 mg PO/IV/IM q4h), phenothiazine (prochlorperazine 5–10 mg PO q6–8 h, chlorpromazine 10–25 mg PO q4–6 h), butyrophenones (droperidol 1.25–5 mg IM q4h, haloperidol 0.5–1 mg IV/PO q4h), domperidone 10 mg PO TID

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MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

- SHT3 ANTAGONISTS—ondansetron 4–8 mg PO/ IV q8h, granisetron 2 mg PO or 1 mg IV, dolasetron 100 mg PO/IV daily
- 5HT4 AGONISTS—prucalopride 1–2mg PO daily
- м1 антадоніsts—scopolamine 1.5 mg TD q72h
- steroid—dexamethasone 4 mg PO/SC/IV BID–TID

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

• TUBE FEED—NG/J tube, G tube TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

Related Topics

Nausea and Vomiting in the Palliative Setting (p. 440)

Dysphagia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

OROPHARYNGEAL (pharynx or upper esophageal sphincter dysfunction)

- NEUROLOGICAL—stroke, multiple sclerosis, Parkinson, dementia, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, Guillain-Barré syndrome, myasthenia gravis, cerebral palsy, Huntington, tardive dyskinesia, brain stem tumors, trauma
- MYOPATHIC—myotonic dystrophy, dermatomyositis, polymyositis, connective tissue disease, sarcoidosis, paraneoplastic
- STRUCTURAL—cricopharyngeal bar, Zenker diverticulum, cervical webs, oropharyngeal tumors, osteophytes and skeletal abnormality, cleft palate, ill-fitting dentures/poor dentition
- INFECTIOUS—syphilis, Lyme disease, botulism, mucositis (viral, fungal)
- метавоцс—Cushing syndrome, thyrotoxicosis, Wilson syndrome, amyloidosis, Sjögren syndrome
- IATROGENIC—chemotherapy, neuroleptics, postsurgical, radiation
- FUNCTIONAL (globus sensation)

ESOPHAGEAL (body of esophagus, lower esophageal sphincter, cardia)

 STRUCTURAL—tumors, esophagitis/stricture (reflux, caustic/erosive, infectious, eosinophilic, pill, radiation), iatrogenic (post-surgery, radiation), esophageal ring/web, extrinsic compression (cardiac, mediastinal mass, lung cancer, lymphoma, osteophytes, subclavian artery)

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

мотилту—achalasia, scleroderma, Chagas disease, diffuse esophageal spasm, hypertensive lower esophageal sphincter/EGJ outflow obstruction, jackhammer esophagus, ineffective esophageal motility

CLINICAL FEATURES

DIAGNOSTIC CLUES—heartburn may suggest GERD leading to erosive esophagitis, peptic stricture, or esophageal adenocarcinoma. History of atopic diseases in a young adult with recurrent dysphagia may suggest eosinophilic esophagitis. Also check for odynophagia, regurgitation, hematemesis, coffee ground emesis, respiratory symptoms, weight loss, and medications (tetracycline, bisphosphonates, potassium supplements)

PRACTICAL APPROACH TO DYSPHAGIA

- Features of oropharyngeal dysphagia (problems initiating swallowing, extending neck/arms when swallowing, changes in speech, coughing, choking, or nasal regurgitation)? Consider workup for oropharyngeal dysphagia. Otherwise, proceed to step 2
- Difficulty swallowing both solids and liquids? If yes, consider motility disorders and proceed to step 3. If solid only or dysphagia progressing from solids to liquids, consider structural disorders and proceed to step 4

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

 For motility disorders, is the dysphagia progressive? If yes, consider achalasia or scleroderma. If intermittent, consider diffuse esophageal spasm or esophageal motility disorder



INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- IMAGING—barium swallow (esophageal), videofluoroscopy (oropharyngeal)
- swallowing assessment—occupational therapy or speech pathology

SPECIAL

- GASTROSCOPY—for esophageal structural lesions and esophageal biopsies
- ESOPHAGEAL MANOMETRY—definitive for achalasia, useful for diffuse esophageal spasm and esophageal motility disorders
- рн молитокимg—for refractory GERD, especially if gastroscopy normal (non-erosive GERD)
- FIBEROPTIC NASOPHARYNGEAL LARYNGOSCOPY—for oropharyngeal dysphagia

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL—postural/nutritional/ behavioral modifications, swallowing rehabilitation, esophageal dilation

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

ACHALASIA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—a motor disorder with failure of relaxation of the lower esophageal sphincter and abnormal peristalsis in the body of the esophagus on manometry
- DIAGNOSIS—endoscopy essential for ruling out malignancy ("pseudoachalasia"). Barium swallow (beak-like narrowing), esophageal manometry (definitive)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

- For structural disorders, is the dysphagia progressive? If yes, consider tumors or stricture. If intermittent, consider esophageal ring, eosinophilic esophagitis
- 5. Any caustic ingestion history?



SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

 TREATMENTS—endoscopic pneumatic dilation, surgical myotomy, peroral endoscopic myotomy (POEM), endoscopic botulinum toxin injection

INFECTIOUS ESOPHAGITIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—common organisms include Candida, CMV, and HSV. More commonly in immunocompromised host
- DIAGNOSIS—gastroscopy and biopsy/viral cultures

EOSINOPHILIC ESOPHAGITIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—food allergens and genetic factors leading to eosinophilic infiltration, formation of esophageal rings or stricture (frequently presents in young males with esophageal foreign body)
- DIAGNOSIS—gastroscopy (esophageal trachealization, eosinophilic exudates, linear furrows) and biopsy
- TREATMENTS—control reflux, dietary exclusion (six food elimination diet), topical corticosteroids (fluticasone administered as swallowed MDI, viscous budesonide slurry, budesonide orodispersible tablet), endoscopic dilation

Related Topics Esophageal Cancer (p. 215) Stroke (p. 321)

Dyspepsia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

NON-GASTRIC CAUSES—cardiac (myocardial infarction), pulmonary (pneumonia), hepatobiliary (biliary colic), pancreatic (pancreatitis), colonic (irritable bowel syndrome), musculoskeletal, dietary indiscretion (carbohydrate malabsorption) **PEPTIC ULCER DISEASE** (PUD, 10–20%)— *Helicobacter pylori*, ASA/NSAIDs, cancer

MEDICATION SIDE EFFECTS—NSAIDs, ASA, theophylline, calcium channel blockers, erythromycin, mtronidazole, bisphosphonates, orlistat, acarbose, iron, potassium supplements, colchicine, glucocorticoids

GASTROESOPHAGEAL REFLUX DISEASE (GERD, 20%)

ACIDS

- ACID HYPERSECRETION—Zollinger–Ellison disease
- ALCOHOL USE
- connective tissue disease—scleroderma
- INFECTIONS OF ESOPHAGUS—CMV, HSV, candidiasis
- DIABETIC GASTROPARESIS
- DRUG THERAPY
- SMOKING

FUNCTIONAL DYSPEPSIA (50%)—also termed non-ulcer or idiopathic. Chronic post-prandial fullness, early satiation, epigastric pain/burning, no structural cause

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

COMPLICATIONS OF PUD—perforation, hemorrhage, gastric outlet obstruction, pancreatitis COMPLICATIONS OF GERD—erosive esopha-

gitis, esophageal stricture, Barrett esophagus, esophageal adenocarcinoma. Extra-esophageal complications include asthma, aspiration, chronic cough, hoarseness, chronic laryngitis, and dental erosions

CLINICAL FEATURES

SYMPTOM DEFINITIONS

- DYSPEPSIA—chronic or recurrent epigastric pain, often with regurgitation, heartburn, bloating, nausea, and post-prandial fullness (indigestion)
- HEARTBURN—retrosternal burning sensation secondary to lower esophageal sphincter relaxation = more specific for GERD

PRACTICAL APPROACH TO DYSPEPSIA

 Consider non-gastric causes of dyspepsia (cardiac, pulmonary, hepatobiliary, colonic, musculoskeletal, medications [including

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

NSAIDs], and dietary indiscretion) and investigate those causes if likely. Otherwise proceed to step 2

- If age ≥ 60 and alarm symptoms ★Very BAD★ (Vomiting [persistent], Bleed/anemia, Abdominal mass/weight loss [>5% body weight over 6-12 months], Dysphagia), refer for gastroscopy to evaluate for gastric cancer. Otherwise proceed to step 3
- If age < 60, test and treat for *H. pylori* (recommend non-invasive test for HP); treat with quadruple therapy if positive. Otherwise proceed to step 4
- If age < 60 and HP negative, empirical PPI therapy trial (once daily-BID)
- In patients not responding HP eradication or PPI, trial of prokinetic therapy (cisapride, metoclopramide, domperidone) or tricyclic antidepressant therapy

2017 ACG/CAG Guideline Dyspepsia

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, glucose, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, lipase, Ca, albumin
- имадимд—upper GI series, US abd, CT abd

SPECIAL

- UREA BREATH TEST
- H. PYLORI STOOL ANTIGEN
- 24-H ESOPHAGEAL PH MONITORING
- ENDOSCOPY WITH BIOPSY—rapid urease test, histopathology or C&S for H. pylori

MANAGEMENT

PEPTIC ULCER DISEASE—avoid NSAID use. Antisecretory treatment (omeprazole 20–40 mg PO daily, lansoprazole 15–30 mg PO daily, pantoprazole 40 mg PO daily; 8 week course). H. pylori eradication: first line options: ★PAMC★: PPI BID, amoxicillin 1 g PO BID, metronidazole 250-500 mg PO BID, clarithromycin 500 mg PO BID × 14 days; ★PBMT★ if penicillin allergy: PPI BID, bismuth subsalicylate 524mg PO QID, metronidazole 250-500 mg PO QID, tetracycline 500 mg PO QID × 14 days; second line: ★PAL★ PPI BID, amoxicillin 1 g PO BID, levofloxacin 250 mg PO BID × 14 days)

2016 Toronto Consensus Treatment of Helicobacter pylori Infection

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

GERD—lifestyle changes (avoid coffee, alcohol, chocolate, high-fat meals, acidic or spicy foods. More frequent/smaller meals, exercise/weight loss, smoking cessation, elevate head of bed). Antisecretory treatment (proton pump inhibitors more effective than H2 blockers for esophagitis. Use antacids as breakthrough). Nissen fundoplication (optimally for highvolume reflux)

Related Topics

Esophageal Cancer (p. 215) Gastric Cancer (p. 217) Gastric Lymphoma (p. 194)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

GERD

- causes—lower esophageal sphincter pressure (obesity, transient relaxation of LES), decreased esophageal peristalsis, gastric acid hypersecretion, delayed gastric emptying, anatomic disruption lower esophageal sphincter (hiatal hernia)
- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—reflux of stomach contents, leading to heartburn, regurgitation, dysphagia, chest pain, complicated by erosive esophagitis, esophageal stricture, Barrett esophagus, and esophageal adenocarcinoma
- CLINICAL FEATURES—esophageal (heartburn, regurgitation), extra-esophageal (wheeze, cough, pneumonia, waterbrash, hoarseness, sore throat, dental erosions)
- DIAGNOSIS—Clinical diagnosis and treatment if classic symptoms (≥2/week). Exclude other causes in patients with non-classical symptoms (endoscopy for erosive esophagitis, rule out other potential diagnoses if not responsive to empiric treatment). Other tests (pHimpedance) if diagnostic uncertainty, treatment failure

Kahrilas NEJM 2008;359(16) NSAID-INDUCED GASTROPATHY

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—NSAIDs inhibit COX-1 (normally protective effect through mucus secretion, bicarbonate secretion, mucosal circulation) and COX-2 (inducible inflammatory activity, also in kidneys). Direct toxic mucosal effect → dose related but even low dose ASA may contribute to ulcer formation. Risk factors: age >65, previous peptic ulcer (especially if recent, or complicated PUD), mul-

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

tiple/high-dose NSAIDs, concomitant glucocorticoid or anticoagulant therapy

 TREATMENTS—primary prophylaxis includes PPI, misoprostol. In patients who need to continue NSAIDs, prevention strategy based on cardiovascular + GI risk: use least ulcerogenic, lowest dose NSAID, combine with PPI/misoprostol if GI risk factors (as above)

BARRETT ESOPHAGUS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—prolonged heartburn → intestinal squamous metaplasia (abnormal salmon-colored mucosa extending proximally ≥1 cm from the gastroesophageal junction) → low-grade dysplasia → high-grade dysplasia → adenocarcinoma (esophagus/gastric cardia). Risk of progression to cancer: BE without dysplasia (0.25%), low-grade dysplasia (0.5%), high-grade dysplasia (4-8%)
- DIAGNOSIS—screening in men with chronic (>5 years) and/or frequent (>weekly) reflux and ≥2 risk factors (age>50, Caucasian, central obesity, current/past smoking, first-degree relative with BE or esophageal adenocarcinoma). Mucosal biopsies to confirm metaplasia/ dysplasia
- TREATMENTS—Once daily PPI therapy for chemoprevention. BE without dysplasia (surveillance q3-5 years); BE indefinite for dysplasia (repeat endoscopy in 3-6 months after acid suppression optimization); low-grade dysplasia (endoscopic resection/ablation OR surveillance in 12 months); high-grade dysplasia (evaluate for esophagectomy, endoscopic mucosal resection, or ablative therapy)

2015 ACG Guideline Barrett Esophagus GASTROPARESIS

- CAUSES—systemic diseases (diabetes, hypothyroidism, scleroderma), drugs (anticholinergic agents, narcotics, GLP-1 analog), idiopathic/ iatrogenic (prior Gl surgery), post-viral
- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—impairment of gastric emptying due to dysfunction of the neuromuscular unit → dyspepsia, bloating, nausea, vomiting, and weight loss
- DIAGNOSIS—gastric emptying study, barium swallow, gastroscopy to exclude obstruction, blood glucose
- TREATMENTS—fluid/electrolyte replacement, nutritional support (post-pyloric feeding if enteral nutrition required), optimize glycemic control. Oral intake and enteral nutrition preferred: frequent, small, low-fat, low-fiber feedings. Symptomatic treatment of nausea.

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

Prokinetic agents (*metoclopramide* 10 mg PO TID ac meals, *erythromycin* 250 mg PO TID ac meals, *domperidone* 10 mg PO QID, *prucalopride* 1-2 mg PO daily). Venting in severe or refractory cases.

Camilleri et al. Am J Gastroenterol 2013;108(1)

HELICOBACTER PYLORI

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—chronic inflammation → causative role in 50–80% of duodenal ulcers, 40–60% of gastric ulcers, 80% of gastric cancers (including adenocarcinoma), and 90% of gastric lymphomas

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- DIAGNOSIS—testing indications (gastric lymphoma, peptic ulcer disease, early gastric cancer, dyspepsia in <60 years without alarm features, ITP, unexplained iron deficiency, prior to chronic NSAID use). Non-invasive tests (urea breath test [sens 90%, spc 95%], HP stool antigen [sens 94% spc 97%], serology [sens 90%, spc 80%]). UBT and HP stool antigen ideal for confirming eradication (test off antibiotic and PPI therapy), serology of limited value as it tests for IgG indicating previous exposure). Invasive tests (endoscopy for culture, histoologic assessment, rapid urease testing)
- TREATMENTS—see H. PYLORI ERADICATION above

Acute Abdominal Pain

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

GI—peptic ulcer disease, pancreatitis, cholangitis, hepatitis, cholecystitis, inflammatory bowel disease, gastroenteritis, appendicitis, diverticulitis, bowel obstruction (small, large), volvulus

GU—pyelonephritis, renal colic, cystitis, prostatitis, testicular torsion, inguinal hernia

GYNECOLOGIC—ectopic pregnancy, ruptured ovarian cyst, pelvic inflammatory disease, fibroid torsion, endometriosis, endometritis

VASCULAR—acute mesenteric ischemia, ischemic colitis, chronic mesenteric ischemia, abdominal aortic aneurysm rupture

SYSTEMIC—Addison disease, diabetic ketoacidosis, uremia, hypercalcemia, porphyria, familial Mediterranean fever

OTHERS—myocardial infarction, pneumonia, splenic injury, shingles, musculoskeletal, peritonitis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CAUSES OF ABDOMINAL PAIN—any intraabdominal organs (e.g. GI, GU, gynecological, spleen) \times (ischemia, infection, obstruction, tumors) \pm systemic causes \pm referred pain

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—characterize abdominal pain (onset, location, duration, severity, radiation, aggravating and relieving factors), N&V, bleeding, fever, inquire about last menstrual period and pregnancy if female, past medical history (CAD, diabetes, hypertension, renal stones), past surgical history (abdominal adhesions), medication history (analgesics)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

PHYSICAL—vitals, respiratory and cardiac examination, abdominal examination, CVA tenderness, pelvic and rectal examination

APPENDICITIS SEQUENCE—vague pain initially located in the epigastric or periumbilical region; anorexia, nausea, or non-sustained vomiting; migration of the initial pain to the RLQ; lowgrade fever

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN PERITONITIS, SMALL BOWEL OBSTRUC-TION, AND ABDOMINAL WALL PAIN

- PERITONITIS—rigidity (LR+ 5.1), guarding (LR+ 2.0), rebound tenderness (LR+ 2.0), positive cough test (LR+ 2.0). Other special tests include Rovsing sign, psoas sign (flexion of hip against resistance increases abdominal pain), obturator sign (internal rotation of hip increases abdominal pain), and rectal/pelvic examination
- SMALL BOWEL OBSTRUCTION—visible peristalsis (LR+ 18.8), absent/tinkling/high-pitched bowel sounds (LR+ 5.0), abdominal bloating
- ABDOMINAL WALL PAIN—Carnett test (palpate area of most intense tenderness while patient supine, then palpate again with patient half sitting up. If pain is intraabdominal, the pain will not increase as tensed rectus muscles protect the underlying viscus)

Related Topic Acute Pancreatitis (p. 157)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, lipase, amylase, lactate, INR, PTT, Ca, albumin, urinalysis, urine βhCG (if ♀ of reproductive age)
- місковіоLоду—urine C&S, stool C&S, C. difficile
- имадияд—CXR, AXR, US abd/pelvic

SPECIAL

- имадимд—СТ abd, angiogram, KUB
- ECG—if suspect cardiac cause
- ENDOSCOPY

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

APPROACH TO ABDOMINAL X-RAYS

- FREE AIR—pneumoperitoneum suggests perforation. Look for free air under right diaphragm on CXR view or R lateral decubitus view. On supine abd view, look for outline of bowel wall (normally can only see inside of lumen. If outside of bowel wall also seen, free air present)
- SMALL BOWEL—more central location, valvulae closer together, thin and cross completely. Dilated if >3 cm [1.2 in.], multiple air fluid levels suggest small bowel obstruction
- LARGE BOWEL—more peripheral location, colonic haustra wider apart, thick, and cross part way. Normally some air-fluid levels in ascending colon. Dilated if >5 cm [2 in.]. Thumb printing (mural edema) and dilated bowel suggest toxic megacolon. Check for air in bowel wall (pneumatosis intestinalis)
- KIDNEYS—ureter runs along transverse processes. May see calculi along tract. If see kidney outline, suggests pneumoretroperitoneum
- psoAs—air around psoas suggests perforated retroperitoneal structures (rectum, duodenum). Lack of psoas outline suggests retroperitoneal inflammation
- BILIARY STRUCTURES—common bile duct up to 6 mm in size. Check for air in portal vein or common bile duct (bowel infarction)
- other structures—liver, spleen, bones

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O₂, IV hydration. NPO, NG if severe N&V/obstruction. *Morphine* 2.5–5 mg SC q3–4 h PRN and 1–2.5 mg IV q1h PRN. *Hydromorphone* 0.5–2 mg IV q2h PRN. *Dimenhydrinate* 50 mg IM/IV q4h PRN

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—early surgical consult if peritonitis or pain out of proportion. Empiric antibiotics if fever or suspect peritonitis (*ceftriaxone* 1 g IV q24h plus

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

metronidazole 500 mg IV q12h, or piperacillintazobactam 3.375 g IV q6h, or ciprofloxacin 400 mg IV q12h plus metronidazole 500 mg IV q12h)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

GALLSTONE DISEASE SPECTRUM—asymptomatic (70%), biliary colic (20%, intermittent obstruction), acute cholecystitis (cystic duct obstruction with gallbladder inflammation), choledocholithiasis (common bile duct obstruction), ascending cholangitis (stasis and infection of biliary tract; may be secondary to choledocholithiasis; see p. 156 for more details), gallstone pancreatitis (pancreatic duct obstruction), gallstone ileus (bowel obstruction from impacted stone after passing through biliary-enteric fistula)

ACUTE CHOLECYSTITIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY abnormalities of bile acid secretion, mucus generation, and gallbladder motility → gallstone formation → migrate to obstruct cystic duct and/or common bile duct/ pancreatic duct → gallbladder inflammation +/- secondary infection → gallbladder necrosis and gangrene with perforation in severe cases. Risk factors include older age, obesity, fertility, women (i.e. forty, fat, fertile, female), ethnicity (Indigenous, Hispanic), TPN, diabetes, dyslipidemia, and rapid weight loss. Stone types: cholesterol (from bile supersaturation with cholesterol); black pigment (hemolysis calcium bilirubinate); brown pigment (bacterial/parasitic biliary infection)
- ACALCULOUS CHOLECYSTITIS—acute necroinflammation from gallbladder stasis/ischemia, typically in hospitalized, critically ill patients. Risk factors: sepsis, shock, heart failure, mechanical ventilation, major trauma, post-CPR, burns, post-transplantation, ESRD, immunosuppression.
 Presentation: fever, RUQ pain, ± jaundice, leukocytosis. Complications: emphysematous cholecystitis, gangrene, perforation with cholecystenteric fistula, abscess, peritonitis.
- DIAGNOSIS—US abd, endoscopic US, percutaneous transhepatic cholangiography, MRCP, HIDA cholescintigraphy (acalculous cholecystitis), CT abd
- TREATMENTS—supportive measures include IV fluids, pain control, antiemetics and antibiotics (ceftriaxone 1 g IV q24h plus metronidazole 500 mg IV q8h, or piperacillin-tazobactam 3.375 g IV q6h, or ciprofloxacin 400 mg IV q12h plus metronidazole 500 mg IV q8h, or

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

meropenem 1 g IV q8h). Cholecystectomy (laparoscopic, open) or percutaneous cholecystostomy to facilitate drainage (if non-operative because of high risk). If biliary pain despite cholecystectomy, consider retained CBD stone, bile leak, sphincter of Oddi dysfunction, or functional pain

Strasberg *NEJM* 2008;358(26) ACUTE MESENTERIC ISCHEMIA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—sudden small bowel hypoperfusion, arterial or venous; arterial occlusion from embolism (typically superior mesenteric artery, secondary to valvular heart disease or atrial fibrillation) or thrombosis (from atherosclerosis), non-occlusive mesenteric ischemia (shock/low flow state, vasoconstriction, arrhythmia), or mesenteric venous occlusion (from thrombosis secondary to abdominal mass, myeloproliferative disorder, portal hypertension/cirrhosis, thrombophilia, pancreatitis/diverticulitis)→ sudden and severe periumbilical pain out of proportion with physical findings, N&V, leukocytosis, ↑ lactate, ileus
- DIAGNOSIS—high clinical suspicion, CT abd (+ contrast). Angiography gold standard
- TREATMENTS—IV fluids, immediate surgery, anticoagulation if mesenteric arterial embo-

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

lism or mesenteric venous thrombosis, broadspectrum antibiotic therapy

ISCHEMIC COLITIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—low-flow state in the mesentery affecting mainly the "watershed" area of the middle colic and inferior mesenteric arteries (splenic flexure, rectosigmoid junction) → abdominal cramping followed by mildmoderate hematochezia
- DIAGNOSIS—AXR ("thumbprinting" or edematous haustral folds), CT (focal or segmental bowel wall thickening or intestinal pneumatosis with portal vein gas), colonoscopy, laparoscopy
- TREATMENTS—supportive (hydration), antibiotics, surgery if severe colonic necrosis

CHRONIC MESENTERIC ISCHEMIA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY —↓ blood flow from atherosclerosis of the proximal mesenteric vessels → intestinal angina with post-prandial abdominal pain → fear of eating, extensive weight loss
- DIAGNOSIS—CT abdomen/pelvis (initial), mesenteric duplex US (sens 90% for stenosis of >50%), CT angiography
- TREATMENTS—angioplasty, surgical revascularization, management of vascular risk factors

2015 ACG Guideline Colon Ischemia

Upper GI Bleed

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PEPTIC ULCER DISEASE (PUD)—gastric, duodenal

INFLAMMATION—esophagitis (CMV/HSV, medications, reflux), gastritis (acute, chronic), inflammatory bowel disease (Crohn)

VARICES—esophagus, stomach

TUMORS—esophagus, stomach, duodenum STRUCTURAL—Mallory–Weiss tear, Dieulafoy lesion, arteriovenous malformation/ angiodysplasia, aortoenteric fistula, hemobilia OTHERS—epistaxis, hemoptysis

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—volume of hematemesis/coffeeground emesis, melena, hematochezia. Associated symptoms: abdominal pain (PUD), vomiting/ retching (MWT), dysphagia/GERD, jaundice/ ascites (portal hypertension), constitutional symptoms (malignancy). Past medical history (PUD, *H. pylori* infection, alcohol-related

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

disorders, liver cirrhosis with varices, renal failure, metastatic cancer, heart disease/HF), medication history (anticoagulants, NSAIDs, SSRI, drugs causing pill esophagitis)

PHYSICAL—acute bleeding, resting tachycardia, supine hypotension, orthostatic changes (postural pulse increase >30/min, SBP decrease >20mmHa, DBP decrease >10 mmHa), anemia (conjunctival, facial or palmar pallor), cirrhosis (facial telangiectasia, palmar erythema, spider angiomas, gynecomastia, abdominal wall veins, Terry nails/leukonychia, peripheral edema). Perform a rectal examination. Do NOT test for fecal occult blood. Examine vomitus. Nasogastric lavage not routinely required.

BLACK STOOL THAT MAY MIMIC MELENA bismuth subsalicylate, iron, spinach, charcoal Stanley et al. BMJ 2019;364

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE A SEVERE UPPER GASTROINTESTINAL BLEED?

LR+ LR-

| Clinical Factors Distinguishing UGIB vs. | | | | |
|---|------|-------|--|--|
| LGIB | | | | |
| Prior history of UGIB | 6.2 | 0.81 | | |
| Age <50 years | 3.5 | 0.80 | | |
| Cirrhosis | 3.1 | 0.97 | | |
| History of melena | 5.1- | 0.06- | | |
| | 5.9 | 0.27 | | |
| Melenic stool on examination | 25 | 0.52 | | |
| Nasogastric lavage with blood | 9.6 | 0.58 | | |
| Clets in steel | 0.05 | 1 2 | | |
| | 0.05 | 1.2 | | |
| Serum urea nitrogen:creatinine ratio >30 | 7.5 | 0.53 | | |
| Clinical Factors Determining Need for | | | | |
| Urgent Evaluation of UGIB | | | | |
| History of malignancy or cirrhosis | 3.7 | 0.83 | | |
| Cirrhosis | 3.2 | 0.89 | | |
| Syncope | 3.0 | 0.95 | | |
| Pulse rate >100/min | 4.9 | 0.34 | | |
| Nasogastric lavage with red blood | 3.1 | 0.32 | | |
| Hemoglobin level <8 g/dL | 4.5- | 0.36- | | |
| | 6.2 | 0.41 | | |

Blatchford score: determined by blood urea, hemoglobin, systolic blood pressure, pulse > 99 beats/min, presentation with melena, presentation with syncope, hepatic disease, cardiac failure. Blatchford score ≤ 1 indicates low risk rebleeding or mortality.

Serum urea nitrogen >90 mg/dL 3.6

Blatchford score = 0

APPROACH—"Tachycardia (pulse rate of >100/min; LR, 4.9), a history of cirrhosis or malignancy (LR+ 3.7), hemoglobin level of less than 8 g/dL (LR+ range, 4.5–6.2), or a nasogastric lavage with red blood (LR+ 3.1) increase the likelihood of severe bleeding. All patients with a UGIB should have a Blatchford score, which does not require a nasogastric lavage, to help assess the severity (Blatchford score = 0; LR- 0.02 for identifying patients requiring urgent evaluation). When negative, prediction rules combining symptoms, signs, and routine laboratory

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

test results almost definitively rule out severe UGIB, thereby identifying at least some patients who can be safely evaluated as an outpatient."

Srygley et al. JAMA 2012;307(10)

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: IS THIS PATIENT HYPOVOLEMIC? HYPOVO-LEMIA DUE TO ACUTE BLOOD LOSS

| | Sens | Spc |
|--|------------------------|--------------|
| For moderate blood loss | | |
| Postural pulse increment ≥30/min or severe postural dizziness | 22% | - |
| Postural hypotension ≥20 mmHg SBP drop | 9% | 94% |
| Supine tachycardia | 0% | 96% |
| Supine hypotension | 13% | 97% |
| For large blood loss | | |
| Postural pulse increment ≥30/min or severe postural dizziness | 97% | 98% |
| Supine tachycardia | 12% | 96% |
| Supine hypotension | 33% | 97% |
| NOTE—postural change is measured first vitals counting pulse for 30 s (after waiting standing vitals (after waiting 1 min) | with su J 2 min), i | pine then |

McGee et al. JAMA 1999;281(11)

Related Topic

Shock (p. 116)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

0.45

0.02

1.2

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, type/cross-match, PTT, INR, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, albumin
- IMAGING—CXR, AXR
- GASTROSCOPY

PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

RISK STRATIFICATION FOR PEPTIC ULCER DISEASE

 ROCKALL SCORE—age 60-79=1; age ≥80=2; heart rate >100 beats/min = 1; systolic BP <100 mmHg=2; co-existing illnesses (ischemic heart disease, HF, other major illness) = 2; coexisting illnesses (renal failure, hepatic failure, metastatic cancer) = 3; endoscopic findings: no lesion observed, Mallory–Weiss tear = 0; peptic

PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

ulcer, erosive disease, esophagitis = 1; cancer of upper GI tract = 2; clean base ulcer, flat pigmented spot = 0; blood in upper GI tract, active bleeding, visible vessel, clot = 2

 INTERPRETATION—low risk for bleeding or death = Rockall score ≤2

RISK OF ULCER RE-BLEED

- Forrest classification used to stratify endoscopic stigmata, risk of rebleeding. Other factors to consider include size, depth, location of ulcer
- HIGH-RISK FEATURES—active spurting/oozing during endoscopy (55-90% rebleeding rate), non-bleeding visible vessel (40-50% risk), adherent clot (25–30% risk). Ulcers with highrisk features require endoscopic therapy, inpatient admission, and 72 hours of IV PPI
- LOW-RISK FEATURES—flat spot (10% rebleeding rate), clean ulcer base (3–5% risk). If no high risk features and clinically non-severe bleed, low chance of rebleed and may consider discharging shortly after on PO PPI

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O₂, IV fluid resuscitation (two large-bore IVs). Restrictive PRBC transfusion strategy improves outcomes compared to liberal transfusions. NPO, consider NG tube. Hold antihypertensive and diuretic therapy. If prolonged PT/ PTT, vitamin K 10 mg IV (small risk of anaphylaxis) and FFP 2-4 U IV or unactivated prothrombin complex concentrates (PCC) 1000-3000 U IV (dosing based on INR and severity of bleeding), if rapid reversal required. If on heparin, consider protamine infusion (1 mg antagonizes 100 U of heparin-avoid excessive protamine, which can cause paradoxical coagulopathy). Pantoprazole 80 mg IV bolus, then 8 mg/h; or 40 mg g12h until endoscopy. If cirrhosis and suspected acute variceal hemorrhage, octreotide 50 µg IV bolus, then 25-50 µg/h, transfuse PRBC, platelet and FFP PRN, antibiotics for 7 days (ceftriaxone 1 g IV q24h, cefotaxime 1 g IV q8h, ciprofloxacin 400 mg IV g12h, ciprofloxacin 500 mg PO BID, or norfloxacin 400 mg PO BID). Consult GI

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—avoid NSAIDs. Peptic ulcer (endoscopic hemostasis with thermal coagulation/endoclips plus 1:10,000 ratio

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

epinephrine injection. After endoscopy, start pantoprazole 80 mg IV bolus if not given already, then 8 mg/h or 40mg g12h \times 72 h [if high-risk lesion], switch to 40 mg PO BID×1 month, then daily). Varices (endoscopy within 12 h with ligation/ band/glue/sclerotherapy \rightarrow balloon tamponade for refractory varices (Linton or Blakemore tube) \rightarrow transiugular intrahepatic portosystemic $(TIPS) \rightarrow portacaval/distal$ shunt splenorenal shunt, or liver transplant. Continue octreotide for 3 days, antibiotic prophylaxis, Repeat endoscopy every 2-4 weeks until varices obliterated, then at 1-3 months and again every 6-12 months afterward. Consider non-selective β-blocker such as nadolol 40-80 mg PO daily or propranolol 20 mg PO BID (avoid if hyponatremia <130 mEg/L, acute kidney injury, diuretic resistant ascites, SBP, hypotension). Mallory-Weiss tear (PPI PO daily × 2-4 weeks, anti-emetics). H. pylori eradication (see DYSPEPSIA p. 130 for treatment). Intractable or recurrent bleed (consult surgery. See TREATMENT ISSUES below)

TREATMENT ISSUES

CRITERIA FOR SURGICAL CONSULT FOR ULCER BLEED—hemodynamic instability despite resuscitation (>3 U PRBC), shock, recurrent hemorrhage after two endoscopic attempts, continued bleed requiring >3 U PRBC/day)

COMPLICATIONS OF ENDOSCOPY—perforations, bleeding, sedation-related respiratory failure

DISCHARGE DECISIONS FOR PEPTIC ULCER DISEASE—patients with low-risk of re-bleed (Rockall score ≤ 2 , low risk endoscopic features), with Hb >80-100 g/L [>8-10 g/dL] without further need of transfusions, normal INR/PTT, and have adequate social support may be safely discharged home shortly after endoscopy with follow-up

GASTRIC ULCERS—small risk of underlying gastric malignancy, may require repeat endoscopy in 8–12 weeks to check ulcer healing and biopsy if persistent symptoms, unclear etiology, giant ulcer >2 cm, suspicious-appearing ulcer, or other risk factors for gastric cancer (age >50, family history, gastric dysplasia/intestinal metaplasia)
Lower GI Bleed

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

UPPER GI SOURCE WITH BRISK BLEEDING (10%)

INFECTIOUS—Salmonella, Shigella, Campylobacter, Yersinia, Escherichia coli. (EHEC, EIEC), Clostridioides (formerly Clostridium) difficile, Amoeba

TUMORS—colorectal cancer, small bowel cancer, polyp

INFLAMMATORY—inflammatory bowel disease (IBD)

ISCHEMIC—ischemic colitis

STRUCTURAL—angiodysplasia, diverticulosis, radiation colitis, hemorrhoids, anal fissure, intus-susception, Meckel diverticulum

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—volume and character of bleed (maroon, bright red, clots), melena, painful vs. painless bleeding, past medical history (IBD, cancer, diverticulosis), medication history (anticoagulants, antiplatelet drugs, NSAIDs)

PHYSICAL—acute bleeding, signs of hypovolemia, anemia (conjunctival, facial or palmar pallor), abdominal tenderness. Perform a rectal examination

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, type/X-match, PTT, INR, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, albumin
- MICROBIOLOGY—stool C&S

• ENDOSCOPY—colonoscopy, gastroscopy

SPECIAL

 IMAGING—for obscure bleed, consider ⁹⁹Tc RBC scan (detects 0.1 mL/min), angiography (detects 0.5 mL/min), capsule endoscopy, push enteroscopy, double balloon enteroscopy, CT/ MR enterography and/or Meckel scan

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

OCCULT BLEED—no obvious melena or bright red blood per rectum (BRBPR), but possible bleed as fecal occult blood or fecal immunochemical test (FIT) positive and/or iron deficiency anemia. FOBT/ FIT testing should be reserved for average risk colon cancer screening (see p. 240)

OBSCURE BLEED—obvious bleeding but source cannot be found

OVERALL APPROACH—gastroscopy and colonoscopy → if negative, consider repeat endoscopy +/- push enteroscopy → if negative, evaluate for small bowel bleeding: ongoing bleeding (consider angiography, RBC scan) vs. no ongoing bleeding (consider video capsule or CT/MR enterography); reserve double balloon enteroscopy for persistent ongoing bleeding or identified source on other investigations. If no source found, consider Meckel scan, laparotomy +/- intraoperative enteroscopy

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O₂, IV hydration (two largebore IVs). Transfusion (especially if hemoglobin <70 g/L [<7 g/dL], platelets <50×10⁹/L). NPO. Hold antihypertensive and diuretic therapy. If prolonged PT/PTT, vitamin K 10 mg IV (small risk of anaphylaxis) [see above comment for UGIB] and FFP 2-4 U IV or unactivated prothrombin complex concentrates (PCC) 1000-3000 U IV (dosing based on INR and severity of bleeding), if rapid reversal required. If on unfractionated heparin, protamine infusion (1 mg antagonizes 100 U of heparin). Consult GI. Colonoscopy within 24 hours AFTER resuscitation and bowel preparation; typically no significant advantage to urgent colonoscopy for LGIB. Interventional radiology for mesenteric/CT angiography for massive LGIB that cannot be stabilized for colonoscopy. Consult Surgerv for exsanguinating LGIB

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

Acute Diarrhea

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

INFLAMMATORY/INVASIVE (fever, bloody diarrhea, tenesmus)

 INVASIVE INFECTIONS—Salmonella, Shigella, Campylobacter, Yersinia, EHEC, EIEC, Vibrio parahaemolyticus, C. difficile, Entamoeba

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

- INFLAMMATORY—ulcerative colitis, Crohn disease
 - ISCHEMIC/RADIATION COLITIS

NON-INFLAMMATORY

NON-INVASIVE INFECTIONS—bacterial (Vibrio cholera, Staphylococcus aureus, Bacillus

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

cereus, Clostridium perfringens, C. difficile, ETEC, EPEC), **viral** (rotavirus, norovirus, CMV), **parasites** (Giardia, Cryptosporidium, Amoeba)

 MEDICATIONS—antibiotics, laxatives, chemotherapy

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF DIARRHEA—>3 loose/watery bowel movements/day or at least 200 g of stool/ day. Acute diarrhea is defined as <2 weeks, chronic diarrhea \geq 4 weeks duration

DIARRHEA AND ASSOCIATED SYNDROMES

- salmonella—may cause septicemia in patients with sickle cell anemia or AIDS
- SHIGELLA—precedes reactive arthritis
- CAMPYLOBACTER—precedes 10–30% of Guillain-Barré syndrome
- versinia—mesenteric adenitis, erythema nodosum, polyarthritis, reactive arthritis, bacteremia, may mimic appendicitis

DIARRHEA AT VARIOUS SETTINGS

- COMMUNITY ACQUIRED—Salmonella (prevalence 16/100,000), Campylobacter (13/100,000), Shigella (10/100,000), E. coli O157:H7 (1.7/100,000), Cryptosporidium (1.4/100,000)
- traveler's—ETEC
- NOSOCOMIAL—C. difficile
- PERSISTENT DIARRHEA (>7 days)—Giardia, Isospora belli, Cyclospora, Cryptosporidium
- IMMUNOCOMPROMISED—Microsporidia, MAC, CMV

NATURAL HISTORY—most diarrheal illnesses are self-limited or viral-induced and nearly 50% last <1 day

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—characterize diarrhea (duration, frequency, volume, blood, floating), infectious contacts, recent food intake, abdominal pain, past medical history (IBD, lactose intolerance), medication history (laxatives, antibiotics), travel history PHYSICAL—vitals and check for dehydration. Abdominal tenderness. Perform a rectal examination. Inspect stool sample if available

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, lactate
- MICROBIOLOGY—stool C&S (sens 1.5–5.6%), O&P, Giardia antigen testing/nucleic acid amplification assay (NAAT), C. difficile NAAT, enzyme immunoassay for glutamate dehydrogenase, toxin A + B, viral culture

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

SPECIAL

- FECAL TESTING—fecal leukocytes (inflammatory, sens 73%, spc 84%), fecal lactoferrin (inflammatory, sens 92%, spc 79%)
- ENDOSCOPY—flexible sigmoidoscopy, colonoscopy

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL—IV hydration. Antidiarrheal agents if not inflammatory (*bismuth subsalicylate* 2 tab PO q1h PRN or *loperamide* 4 mg×1 dose, then 2 mg PO PRN, maximum 16 mg/day)

TRFAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—Shiqella, Salmonella, Campylobacter, E. coli other than EHEC (ciprofloxacin 500 mg PO BID × 3 days, levofloxacin 500 mg PO daily×3 days). V. cholera (tetracycline 500 mg PO QID×3 days, doxycycline 300 mg PO×1 dose, or azithromycin 1 g PO×1 dose). Isospora and Cyclospora (trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole 160/800 PO BID×7-10 days). C. difficile (vancomycin 125–250 mg PO QID \times 10 days), *Giardia*, and Entamoeba (metronidazole 500 mg PO $TID \times 10 days$)

DuPont NEJM 2014;370(16)

Related Topic

Acute Abdominal Pain (p. 132)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

ANTIBIOTICS-ASSOCIATED DIARRHEA AND PSEUDOMEMBRANOUS COLITIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—most commonly C. difficile (particularly with clindamycin, cephalosporins, penicillins). Relapse occurs in 20–25% of patients and typically between 3 and 21 days after discontinuation of treatment: 3–5% of patients have more than 6 relapses. Virulent C. difficile strain NAP-1/027 characterized by increased secretion of toxins A/B and fluoroquinolone resistance, and associated with increased outbreaks and mortality
- RISK FACTORS—onset of diarrhea ≥6 days after the initiation of antibiotic therapy, hospital stay ≥2 weeks, fecal leukocytes, semi-formed stools, cephalosporin use
- CLINICAL FEATURES—usually watery diarrhea (may be bloody if severe colitis), abdominal pain, fever, leukocytosis. C. difficile spectrum: non-severe disease; severe colitis (WBC >15x10⁹/L, Cr ≥130 umol/L, abdo distention,

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

fever, hypovolemia, hypoalbuminemia); fulminant colitis (hypotension, shock, ileus, toxic megacolon (see p. 142), multisystem organ failure (including acute renal failure))

- DIAGNOSIS—C. difficile GDH antigen or toxin A/B from stool sample, NAAT if indeterminate results. Flexible sigmoidoscopy (pseudomembranous colitis). Repeat C. difficile testing unnecessary immediately after treatment if symptomatic resolution, as up to one-third of patients have positive assays despite successful treatment. If symptomatic, consider postinfectious diarrhea vs. recurrence
- TREATMENTS—IV hydration. Discontinue implicated antibiotics. Hand hygiene (soap and water). Avoid use of antiperistaltic agents (opiates, loperamide). C. difficile treatment (vancomycin 125–250 mg PO QID × 10 days or fidaxomicin 200 mg PO BID × 10 days). If fulminant disease, give vancomycin 500 mg IV PO/NG QID and add metronidazole 500 mg IV

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

g8h. If ileus/toxic megacolon, add vancomycin rectal retention enema 500 mg in 100 mL normal saline g6h; General surgery consult. Avoid repeating stool assays after treatment unless patient has moderate or severe diarrhea. A positive C. difficile toxin without significant symptoms should not prompt treatment. For C. difficile recurrence. pulsed-tapered vancomycin 125 mg PO QID \times 10–14 days, then BID \times 1 week, then daily $\times 1$ week, then every other day $\times 1$ week, then every 3 days × 2–8 weeks, or fidaxomicin 200 mg PO BID \times 10 days. Alternatives include vancomycin 125 mg PO QID followed by rifaximin 600 mg TID × 20 days, or fecal microbiota transplantation. Inconsistent evidence to support probiotic use for treatment or prevention of C. difficile infection

Leffler et al. NEJM 2015;372(16) 2017 ISDA SHEA Guideline Clostridium difficile

Chronic Diarrhea

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

★MISO★

MOTILITY—hyperthyroidism, diabetic neuropathy, bacterial overgrowth, irritable bowel syndrome (IBS) or functional diarrhea, scleroderma

INFLAMMATORY

- INFECTIONS—Salmonella, Shigella, Yersinia, Campylobacter, E. coli (EHEC, EIEC), C. difficile, Amoeba
- INFLAMMATORY—ulcerative colitis, Crohn disease, ischemic, radiation, toxic

SECRETORY

- INFECTIONS—cholera, Staphylococcus, B. cereus, C. perfringens, E. coli (ETEC, EPEC), rotavirus, norovirus, CMV, Giardia, Cryptococcus, Amoeba
- NEUROENDOCRINE TUMORS—carcinoid, VIPoma, calcitonin excess, gastrinoma, somatostatinoma
- MEDICATIONS—laxatives
- отнекя—bile salt diarrhea, microscopic (collagenous or lymphocytic) colitis

OSMOTIC

 MALDIGESTION OR MALABSORPTION—pancreatic insufficiency, celiac disease, lactose intolerance, short bowel syndrome, enteric fistula

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

 MEDICATIONS—antacids, antibiotics, Mg citrate, Mg hydroxide, lactulose, sorbitol (i.e. "chewing gum diarrhea"), colchicine, metformin

Related Topics

Inflammatory Bowel Disease (p. 140) Irritable Bowel Syndrome (p. 143)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—characterize diarrhea (duration, frequency, volume, blood), infectious contacts, abdominal pain, weight loss, past medical history (diabetes, hyperthyroidism, IBS, lactose intolerance, bowel surgery, scleroderma), medication history (laxatives)

PHYSICAL—obtain body weight and inspect stool sample. Abdominal tenderness. Perform a rectal examination

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, albumin, TSH, antitransglutaminase antibody, endomysial antibody

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

• місковіоLogy—stool C&S, O&P, *C. difficile* toxin A + B, *Giardia* toxin

SPECIAL

- FECAL TESTING—fecal calprotectin (to evaluate for colonic inflammation), fecal leukocytes, fecal fat, fecal electrolytes, stool for phenothalin (laxative abuse), fecal α-1 antitrypsin
- IMAGING—⁷⁵SeHCAT scan for bile acid wasting, CT/MR enterography
- ENDOSCOPY—upper endoscopy and colonoscopy, for biopsy
- CARBOHYDRATE BREATH TEST—for SIBO, carbohydrate/lactose malabsorption

INVESTIGATION ISSUES

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES

• INFLAMMATORY—bloody stool, elevated fecal calprotectin, fecal leukocytes

INVESTIGATION ISSUES (CONT'D)

- secretory—fecal osmotic gap <50 mOsm/kg, >500 g of stool with fasting
- оѕмотіс—fecal osmotic gap >50 mOsm/kg; <500 g of stool with fasting

FECAL OSMOTIC GAP-280 - 2×(stool Na+K)

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL—hydration and nutritional support. Empiric treatment with antidiarrheal agents if not inflammatory (*bismuth subsalicylate* 2 tab PO q1h PRN or *loperamide* 4 $mg \times 1$ dose, then 2 mg PO PRN, maximum 16 mg/day)

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—cholestyramine for bile acid-induced diarrhea

2018 BSG Guidelines Chronic Diarrhoea Adults

SPECIFIC ENTITIES Inflammatory Bowel Disease

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

See differential diagnosis for ACUTE ABDOMINAL PAIN (p. 132) LOWER GI BLEED (p. 137) CHRONIC DIARRHEA (p. 139)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

TYPES

 CROHN DISEASE—disease extent (ileal, ileocolonic, colonic, upper GI); disease behavior (inflammatory, stricturing, penetrating, perianal disease); risk stratification (moderate/ high risk features: age <30 at diagnosis, extensive anatomic involvement, perianal/rectal dis-

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

ease, deep ulcerations, previous surgery, stricturing or fistulizing disease behavior)

ULCERATIVE COLITIS—**disease extent** (*ulcerative proctitis* limited to rectum/rectosigmoid junction, *left-sided colitis* extending up to splenic flexure, *pancolitis* extending beyond splenic flexure); **risk stratification** (high risk features: age <40 y at diagnosis, extensive disease, large/ deep ulcers, early need for corticosteroids); **disease severity** (*mild* <4 BM/day with intermittent blood; *severe* >6 BM/day, frequent bleeding, fever >37.5°C, tachycardia HR>90, anemia, ESR>30mm/h, abdominal pain)

CLINICAL FEATURES

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN CROHN DISEASE AND ULCERATIVE COLITIS

Degree of involvement Symptoms **Crohn disease** Segmental ("skip lesions") Rectal sparing Abd pain Diarrhea Anorexia Perianal disease Ulcerative colitis Continuous from rectum Cecal patch/backwash ileitis Bloody diarrhea Urgency/tenesmus Fever

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

| | Crohn disease |
|---------------|---|
| Serology | Anti-Saccharomyces cerevisiae IgG antibody (sens 77%, spec 92%, PPV 82%) |
| Pathology | Transmural inflammation |
| | Granulomas |
| Complications | Obstruction |
| | Strictures |
| | Fistulas |
| | Fissures |
| | Colorectal cancer |

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

EXTRAINTESTINAL MANIFESTATIONS ocular (episcleritis, scleritis, uveitis, iritis), hepatic (gallstones, primary sclerosing cholangitis), oral (aphthous ulcers), arthritis (spondylitis; peripheral arthritis pauciarticular large joint or polyarticular small joint), dermatologic (erythema nodosum, pyoderma gangrenosum, Sweet syndrome), hematologic (DVT, anemia, amyloidosis), renal (nephrolithiasis)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, ESR, CRP, ferritin, iron indices, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, albumin, Ca, Mg, PO₄, vitamin B12, folate, fecal calprotectin/lactoferrin
- MICROBIOLOGY—stool C&S, O&P, stool for C. difficile toxin assay
- SEROLOGY—antineutrophil cytoplasmic antibodies (pANCA), anti-Saccharomyces cerevisiae antibodies (ASCA)
- IMAGING—AXR, CT/MR enterography, contrastenhanced US
- ENDOSCOPY—flexible sigmoidoscopy, colonoscopy, double-balloon enteroscopy, video capsule endoscopy (if non-stricturing disease)

MANAGEMENT

TREATMENT CONCEPTS

- SELECTING TREATMENT—based on disease phenotype and severity, risk factors for disease progression, shared decision making with patient
- TREATING TO TARGET—UC (resolution of rectal bleeding and diarrhea, endoscopic remission); CD (resolution of abdominal pain and diarrhea, resolution of ulcers on endoscopy or inflammatory findings on cross-sectional imaging)

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

 CLOSE MONITORING IN MAINTENANCE—monitor patient symptoms and objective measures of inflammation including biomarkers (CRP, fecal calprotectin), radiology, or endoscopy

Peyrin-Biroulet et al. Am J Gastroenterol 2015;110(9)

Ulcerative colitis p-ANCA (sens 70%, spc 88%,

PPV 75%) Mucosal inflammation No granulomas Toxic megacolon (1–2%) Colorectal cancer (1%/year after 10 years)

SUPPORTIVE THERAPY

- DIET AND NUTRITION—low residue diet for patients with stricturing disease, nutritional support for malnourished patients/patients with malabsorption, enteral preferred to parenteral nutrition if possible. Protein needs 1–1.5q/kg/day
- ANTIDIARRHEAL AGENTS—can be used for symptom control after achieving objective remission in patients with overlapping functional pain/diarrhea, but contraindicated in severe exacerbation and toxic megacolon

ANTIINFLAMMATORY AGENTS

- 5ASA TOPICAL PREPARATIONS—for proctitis or in combination with oral 5ASA for left-sided UC. Suppositories for proctitis, enemas for left-sided disease. *Mesalamine* 1 g suppository/4 g enema PR daily, glucocorticoid enema daily to BID
- SYSTEMIC 5ASA—for induction and maintenance in UC. Sulfasalazine 3–4 g/day divided dose TID; mesalamine 2.4 g–4.8 g once daily
- GLUCOCORTICOIDS—corticosteroids should be used as induction therapy only, and NOT as maintenance therapy (methylprednisolone 30 mg IV BID, prednisone 50 mg PO daily, reduce by 5 mg/week), budesonide (enteric release for ileal/right sided CD, 9 mg PO daily × 4–8 weeks, tapered by 3 mg/month), budesonide multi matrix (for colonic UC, 9 mg daily × 8–12 weeks)

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

- IMMUNOSUPPRESSIVE AGENTS—azathioprine (dosing directed by TPMT activity, 2–2.5 mg/ kg/day as tolerated while monitoring CBC, liver enzymes), methotrexate 15–25 mg PO/IM/SC weekly (with folic acid replacement)
- ANTIBIOTICS—metronidazole 500 mg PO BID, ciprofloxacin 500 mg PO BID
- TUMOR NECROSIS FACTOR ANTAGONISTS—infliximab IV induction (5 mg/kg at 0, 2, 6 weeks), maintenance (5 mg/kg q 8 weeks); adalimumab SC induction (160 mg week 0, then 80 mg week 2), maintenance (40 mg every other week); golimumab (UC only) SC induction (200 mg week 0, then 100 mg week 2), maintenance (100 mg q 4 weeks)
- ANTI-INTEGRIN BIOLOGICS—vedolizumab IV induction (300 mg at 0, 2, 6 weeks), IV maintenance (300 mg q 8 weeks), SC maintenance (108 mg q 2 weeks)
- ANTI-INTERLEUKIN BIOLOGICS—ustekinumab (anti-IL12/23) single IV induction dose (260 mg if ≤55 kg, 390 mg if 55–85 kg, 520 mg if >85kq), SC maintenance (90 mg q8–12 weeks)
- JANUS KINASE INHIBITORS—tofacitinib (UC only) induction (10 mg PO BID × 8–16 weeks), maintenance (5 mg PO BID)

SURGERY

Related Topics

Clostridioides difficile Colitis (p. 142) Inflammatory Arthritis (p. 297)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

CROHN DISEASE

- PERIANAL CROHN—accurate staging (MR pelvis, surgical consultation for examination under anesthesia), antibiotics for initial symptom control and to clear perianal sepsis, anti– TNF +/- concomitant immunosuppressant for long-term control
- **STRICTURING CROHN**—endoscopic dilation for short strictures <4 cm, anti-inflammatory therapies for inflamed strictures, surgical resection or stricturoplasty for non-inflamed 'cold' strictures

Torres et al. *Lancet* 2017;389(10080) ULCERATIVE COLITIS

 ULCERATIVE PROCTITIS—rectal 5ASA ≥1 g daily for 4 weeks to induce symptomatic remission. Maintenance therapy may be required with rectal 5ASA

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- LEFT-SIDED COLITIS—combination rectal ≥1 g daily and oral 5ASA 2.0–4.8 g daily for induction and maintenance in mild-to-moderate disease. Escalate to biologic therapy if nonresponsive to optimized dosing 5ASA
- PANCOLITIS (mild-moderate)—combination rectal ≥1 g daily and oral 5ASA 2.0–4.8g daily for induction and maintenance. Escalate to biologic therapy if non-responsive to optimized dosing 5ASA
- ACUTE SEVERE UC (severe)—hospitalize, hydration, nutrition, parenteral steroids, and pharmacologic VTE prophylaxis. Early surgical consultation. Monitor daily CRP, abdominal examination. Rescue therapy with infliximab or cyclosporine

2015 Toronto Consensus Guidelines Nonhospitalized Ulcerative Colitis

TOXIC MEGACOLON

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—a potential complication of IBD, infectious colitis (especially *C. difficile*), ischemic colitis, and obstructive colon cancer
- CLINICAL FEATURES—combination of abdominal distension and diarrhea should prompt investigations for toxic megacolon. Patient usually toxic with fever, hypotension, delirium, and abdominal pain
- DIAGNOSIS—radiographic colonic dilation (transverse or right colon, >6 cm), plus three of the following (fever >38 °C [100.4 °F], tachycardia >120/min, leukocytosis >10.5 × 10°/L, anemia), plus one of the following (dehydration, delirium, electrolyte disturbances, hypotension)
- TREATMENTS—supportive therapy (NPO, IV fluids, hold opioids, antidiarrheal and anticholinergic agents). For IBD-related toxic megacolon, give hydrocortisone 100 mg IV q6h and antibiotics (ceftriaxone plus metronidazole). For C. difficile-related toxic megacolon, treat with IV metronidazole and PO/NG/PR vancomycin. Patients who do not respond to therapy within 72 h should be considered for colectomy. ICU admission for monitoring. Serial blood tests and AXR daily to assess progress

CELIAC DISEASE

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—sensitivity to gluten Barley, Rye, Oat, Wheat ★BROW★→T-cellmediated immune reaction to gliadin→ intestinal epithelial cell death→ villous atrophy, crypt hyperplasia→ small bowel malabsorption. More common in females (2–3:1). Associated with type 1 diabetes, autoimmune

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

thyroid disease, dermatitis herpetiformis (p. 398), IgA deficiency, small bowel lymphoma

- CLINICAL FEATURES—abdominal bloating (especially after inadvertent gluten ingestion), weight loss, iron-deficiency anemia, hyposplenism, nutritional deficiencies, metabolic bone disorders (osteoporosis, osteomalacia), diarrhea, liver dysfunction
- DIAGNOSIS—serology testing accurate only on gluten-containing diet. Anti-transglutaminase (TTG) IgA (sens 94%, spc 99%), antiendomysial IgA, antigliadin IgG (celiac patients with IgA deficiency may not be anti-TTG IgA positive).

Constipation

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

★DUODENUM★

DIET—low fiber, dehydration **YSYCHIATRY**—depression, somatization, obsessive compulsive disorder

OBSTRUCTION—cancer, strictures, adhesions DRUGS—opioids, TCAs, neuroleptics, antihistamines, calcium channel blockers, iron, antacids ENDOCRINE—hypothyroidism, hypercalcemia, hypokalemia, hypomagnesemia, diabetes, uremia NEUROLOGIC—spinal cord compression/injury, Parkinson, multiple sclerosis, stroke, autonomic neuropathy (cachexia–anorexia syndrome)

UNKNOWN—functional constipation

MISCELLANEOUS—irritable bowel syndrome constipation predominant (IBS-C), amyloidosis, scleroderma, immobility

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, TSH, Ca, Mg
- IMAGING—AXR, Sitz marker study for slow motility, defecography

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

CONSTIPATION SUBTYPES—differentiate primary vs. secondary constipation. Primary constipation can be associated with normal or slowed colonic transit, or from primary defecation disorders (e.g. anorectal dyssynergia). Slow transit characterized by lack of urge to defecate despite infrequent bowel movements. Dyssynergic defecation characterized by significant straining, associated with poor toileting habits

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

Small bowel biopsy required to confirm (intraepithelial lymphocytosis, crypt hyperplasia, villous atrophy). >99% of celiac patients have HLA DQ2/DQ8 (absence excludes celiac; use genetic testing in patients with discordant serology/histology or in patients already on and unwilling to trial off gluten-free diet)

 TREATMENTS—gluten-free diet lifelong (consult dietitian). Evaluate for 'hidden' gluten sources in patients with refractory symptoms. Steroids for refractory celiac despite strict GFD, consider workup for enteropathy-associated lymphoma Fasano et al. NEJM 2012;367(25)

MANAGEMENT

LIFESTYLE CHANGES—fiber supplementation (add stool bulk: wheat bran, psyllium/Metamucil® 2-3 teaspoon/day), exercise, hydration (8-10 alasses/day), biofeedback for dyssynergic defecation SYMPTOM CONTROL—surfactants/stool softeners (docusate 100-240 mg PO daily-QID, tap water enema 500 mL PR PRN, mineral oil enema 100-250 mL PR PRN), stimulant laxatives (senna 1-4 tabs PO daily-OID, bisacodyl/ dulcolax suppositories PR, sodium picosulfate 10 mg daily; stimulant laxatives should only be used PRN), osmotic laxatives (sorbitol 15-30 mL PO daily-BID, lactulose 15-60 mL PO daily, polyethylene glycol electrolyte solution [PEG] 250-4000 mL PO PRN), guanylate cyclase-C receptor agonists (linaclotide 72–145 mcg daily for constipation, linaclotide 290 mcg daily for IBS-C, plecanitide 3 mg daily), chloride channel activators (lubiprostone 24 mg PO BID), serotonin 5-HT4 receptor agonists (prucalopride 1-2 mg PO daily), opioid receptor antagonists (for refractory opioid-induced constipation only; methylnaltraxone 12 mg SC daily or q2d PRN, naloxegol 12.5-25 mg PO daily; avoid in patients with bowel obstruction). Manual disimpaction. For patients with spinal cord injury, it is important to use rectal measures (enemas, suppositories) as significant diarrhea/ leakage could occur with oral medications alone **TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE**—stop potentially constipation-causing medications if possible

Schiller Lancet Gastroenterol Hepatol 2019;4(11)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

IRRITABLE BOWEL SYNDROME (IBS)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—disordered gut-brain interaction, resulting in GI symptoms due to motility disturbance, visceral hypersensitivity, altered mucosal/immune function, gut microbiota, and/or CNS processing
- CLINICAL FEATURES—Rome IV Criteria for IBS: recurrent abdominal pain ≥1 day/week × last 3 months, with ≥2 of: related to defecation (either increasing or improving), change in stool frequency, change in stool form/appearance. Constipation/diarrhea-predominant subtypes, mixed subtype. Other functional bowel disorders: functional constipation, functional diarrhea, functional abdominal bloating distention, opioid-induced constipation, unspecified functional bowel disorder
- Associations—patients with IBS are more likely to have functional dyspepsia, urinary symptoms, dysmenorrhea, dyspareunia, sexual dysfunction, proctalgia fugax, a history of physical or sexual abuse, and fibromyalgia
- DIAGNOSIS—in updated Rome IV, IBS is positive diagnosis (rather than diagnosis of exclusion).

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

However, consider colonoscopy, evaluation for celiac (p. 142), fecal calprotectin and stool cultures to rule out other diseases

TREATMENTS—reassurance, stress reduction, fiber supplementation. For constipation-prone IBS, consider osmotic laxatives (first-line), linaclotide 290 µg PO daily, plecanatide 3 mg PO daily, or lubiprostone 8 ug BID (Q). For diarrhea-prone IBS, consider loperamide 2-4 mg PO daily (firstline), eluxadoline 75-100 mg PO BID (mixed muopioid receptor agonist, delta opioid receptor antagonist, k opioid receptor agonist), rifaximin 550 mg TID \times 14 days (for moderate-to-severe IBS-D), alosetron 0.5-1 mg PO BID×12 weeks (for Q with severe diarrhea; 5HT3 antagonist). For abdominal pain, consider antispasmodics (hyoscyamine 0.125-0.25 mg PO g4-6 h PRN), TCAs (amitriptyline 10–75 mg nightly), and SSRIs for abdominal pain. Cognitive behavioral therapy may also be useful

Lacy et al. *Gastroenterology* 2016;150(6) 2019 CAG Guideline Irritable Bowel Syndrome

Abnormal Liver Enzymes

HEPATOCELLULAR INJURY PATTERN ($\uparrow\uparrow$ AST/ALT ± \uparrow ALP/BILI)

INFECTIOUS—HAV, HBV, HCV (rare), HDV, HEV, EBV, CMV, HSV, VZV, schistosomiasis, toxoplasmosis, bacterial cholangitis

FATTY LIVER—alcoholic, non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH)

TOXIC—acetaminophen, NSAIDs, amiodarone, labetalol, statins, phenytoin, valproic acid, fluoroquinolones, amoxicillin/clavulanate, sulfonamides, tetracyclines, isoniazid, azoles, halothane, glyburide, propylthiouracil, *Amanita phalloides* mushroom, heavy metals, anabolic steroids, cocaine, phencyclidine

VASCULAR—ischemic ("shock liver"), Budd– Chiari, congestive, venoocclusive disease (BMT, chemotherapy, OCP)

NEOPLASTIC—hepatoma

AUTOIMMUNE—autoimmune hepatitis

HEREDITARY—Wilson disease, hemochromatosis, α 1-antitrypsin deficiency, glycogen storage disease

PREGNANCY—acute fatty liver of pregnancy, HELLP

OTHERS—liver surgery, Reye syndrome with viral illness and ASA use

NON-HEPATIC—celiac sprue, adrenal insufficiency, myopathy, strenuous exercise

CHOLESTATIC PATTERN ($\uparrow\uparrow$ ALP/BILIRUBIN ± \uparrow AST/ALT)

BACTERIAL CHOLANGITIS

BILIARY EPITHELIAL DAMAGE—hepatitis, cirrhosis, biliary colic

INTRAHEPATIC CHOLESTASIS—sepsis, drugs (amoxicillin–clavulanate, erythromycin, trimethoprim–sulfamethoxazole, indinavir, nevirapine, allopurinol, carbamazepine, captopril, chlorpromazine, diltiazem, estrogens, fluphenazine, gold, imipramine), TPN, primary biliary cirrhosis

BILIARY DUCTAL OBSTRUCTION—choledocholithiasis, pancreatic cancer, cholangiocarcinoma, pancreatitis, primary sclerosing cholangitis

INFILTRATIVE PATTERN ($\uparrow\uparrow$ ALP WITH \uparrow GGT ± \uparrow BILI/AST/ALT)

INFECTIOUS—TB, histoplasmosis, abscess (bacterial, amoebic)

NEOPLASM—hepatoma, lymphoma GRANULOMATOUS DISEASE—sarcoidosis, TB, fungal

OTHERS—amyloidosis

ISOLATED HYPERBILIRUBINEMIA (†† BILIRUBIN ONLY)

see JAUNDICE (p. 155)

NON-INVASIVE MEASURES OF FIBROSIS

RADIOGRAPHIC—US transient elastography, shear wave elastography, acoustic radiation force impulse imaging (ARFI), MR elastography

SEROLOGIC—AST to platelet ratio index (APRI), AST:ALT>1, combination panels (FIB-4 index, HepaScore®, FibroTest/FibroSure®, ActiTest®, FibroIndex®, others)

Related Topics

Acetaminophen Overdose (p. 121) Alcohol-Related Issues (p. 478) Hemochromatosis (p. 482) Hepatitis B (p. 147) Hepatitis C (p. 148)

NON-INVASIVE MEASURES OF FIBROSIS (CONT'D)

Hepatoma (p. 226) Liver Diseases in Pregnancy (p. 467) Wilson Disease (p. 151)

LIVER ENZYMES BY CATEGORY

SYNTHETIC FUNCTION—INR (dependent on factors I, II, V, VII, IX, X), bilirubin (heme breakdown product), albumin (synthesis), fibrinogen

HEPATIC INJURY—AST (intracellular; liver, heart, skeletal, kidneys, brain, pancreas, lungs, RBC, WBC), ALT (intracellular; specific for Liver), ALP (liver, gut, bone, placenta), GGT, LDH (bone, muscle, liver, lungs)

Acute Liver Failure

DEFINITIONS

ACUTE (FULMINANT) LIVER FAILURE acute liver injury with encephalopathy **and** impaired synthetic function (INR \geq 1.5); subclassified into hyperacute (day 0–7), acute (day 8–21) and subacute (day >21 and <26 weeks)

COMPLICATIONS OF HEPATIC FAILURE ★SCREAM★

- SEPSIS
- COAGULOPATHY
- RENAL FAILURE
- ENCEPHALOPATHY
- ASCITES
- METABOLIC CHANGES (hypoglycemia, electrolyte abnormalities, acidosis)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, type and screen, peripheral smear, lytes (including Ca/Mg/PO4), urea, Cr, glucose, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, albumin, HAV IgM, HAV IgG, HBsAg, HBsAb, HBclgM, anti-HCV and HCV RNA, lactate, ABG
- IMAGING—US abd (with Doppler), CT abd/MR venogram, echocardiogram

SPECIAL

- LABS—EBV, CMV, HSV (type 1 and 2 DNA PCR), VZV, HDV, HEV, ANA, anti-smooth muscle antibody (ASMA), anti-mitochondrial antibody (AMA), quantitative Ig, ferritin, Fe, TIBC, % sat, ceruloplasmin, α1-antitrypsin, AFP, anti-TTG, lipase, amylase, LDH, haptoglobin, acetaminophen, CK, TSH, ammonia (arterial)
- LIVER BIOPSY

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

- ERCP/MRCP
- GASTROSCOPY

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

↑ AST/SGOT—do panel of liver function tests. If isolated rise, consider non-hepatic causes. Otherwise, same as ALT workup. AST > ALT suggests alcoholic liver disease, fatty liver, or cirrhosis

↑ ALT/SGPT—if symptomatic and presence of risk factors for liver disease, liver dysfunction (↓ albumin, ↑ INR, ↑ bili), ↑ ALT or AST >3 × upper limit of normal, or ↑ ALT >6 months, consider basic workup including abd US with Doppler, viral serologies, ANA, ASMA, quantitative Ig, ceruloplasmin, iron studies, anti-TTG, +/- liver biopsy

↑ ALP/BILI—ask about pain, symptoms of infiltrative disease, or IBD. To confirm liver involvement, perform bilirubin fractionation, GGT, 5'NT, abdominal US, AMA, and quantitative Ig. Consider MRCP/EUS and liver biopsy

MONITORING—INR and bilirubin are much more useful to monitor liver function compared to transaminases

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL

- ACUTE—ABC, O₂, IV hydration, monitoring (including ICU consultation)
- ELEVATED INTRACRANIAL PRESSURE—for cerebral edema, consider prophylactic phenytoin (prompt treatment if seizures develop), raise head of bed, hyperventilate (monitor PaCO2), dexamethasone, mannitol (0.5–1.0g/kg

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

bolus, monitor serum osmolality), barbiturates for severe ICP, avoid excessive fluids/stimulation/agitation

- sepsis—antibiotics
- COAGULOPATHY—vitamin K 10 mg IV/PO, FFP 2–4 U IV (only if active bleeding or invasive procedures, or difficult to follow INR afterward)
- ACUTE RENAL FAILURE—supportive renal replacement. Consider midodrine, octreotide, and albumin
- ENCEPHALOPATHY—lactulose 30 g PO BID to QID PRN titrate to 2–4 bowel movements/day; if patient obtunded and NPO, consider intubation + lactulose 300 mL (mixed with 700 mL of H₂O or NS) PR QID until awake
- ACIDOSIS—3 amp NaHCO₃ diluted in 1000 mL D5W (i.e. 150 mmol/L of HCO₃⁻) as continuous IV infusion at 150–250 mL/h. Give with caution as risk of cerebral edema with increased fluid
- нуродлусемиа—D10W, tube feed, TPN
- DETOXIFICATION—N-acety/cysteine may be considered when cause of acute liver failure is unknown or if acetaminophen toxicity may be contributing

PREVENTION—hepatitis B vaccine (0, 1, 6 months), HBIG (post-exposure), hepatitis A vaccine (see p. 291)

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—hepatitis B (antiviral therapy). Acetaminophen toxicity (*N*-acety/cysteine 150 mg/kg IV over 1h, then 50 mg/kg over 4h, then 100 mg/kg over 16h). HSV infection (acyclovir 5–10 mg/kg IV q8h). Autoimmune hepatitis (prednisone or prednisolone 40–60 mg/day and azathioprine 50–100 mg/day). Wilson disease (plasma exchange, liver transplantation, no role for chelation in acute liver failure)

LIVER TRANSPLANT—patients with fulminant liver failure should be transferred to acute care centers with liver transplant expertise

TREATMENT ISSUES

LIVER TRANSPLANT

- ALLOCATION—based on ABO blood type, body size, wait designation, urgency. King's College Criteria or Model for End Stage Liver Disease (MELD) score used for predicting outcome in acute hepatic failure (AHF), identify patients likely to benefit from liver transplantation
- KING'S COLLEGE CRITERIA FOR ACETAMINOPHEN TOXICITY IN AHF (rule of 3's)—either arterial pH <7.3 or grade \geq III encephalopathy plus both Cr >300 µmol/L [>3.4 mg/dL] and INR >6.5 (or PT >100 s)

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- KING'S COLLEGE CRITERIA FOR NON-ACETOMINOPHEN INDUCED AHF ACUTE HEPATIC FAILURE—INR >3 or any 3 of following: age <10 or >40, unfavorable disease etiology (non-A non-B viral hepatitis, idiosyncratic drug reaction, Wilson), duration of jaundice before encephalopathy >7 days, INR >1.5, bilirubin >308 µmol/L [18 mg/dL]
- CONTRAINDICATIONS—malignancy (except hepatocellular carcinoma), irreversible cardiopulmonary comorbidities, neuropsychiatric comorbidities, sepsis, uncontrolled substance abuse, non-compliance

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

AST/ALT THOUSANDS CLUB—viral hepatitis, ischemic liver (hypotension, hypoxia, sepsis), drugs/toxins (acetaminophen/paracetamol), autoimmune hepatitis, gallstone disease (acute bile duct obstruction), acute Budd–Chiari syndrome, hepatic artery ligation

ALCOHOLIC LIVER DISEASE

- SUBTYPES—alcoholic fatty liver, alcoholic hepatitis, micronodular cirrhosis
- DIAGNOSIS—AST:ALT ≥ 2:1 (low ALT due to alcohol-related pyridoxal 5-phosphate deficiency), rare for AST to be >8 × normal and for ALT to be >5 × normal. GGT ↑, ALP ↑, bilirubin ↑
- ALCOHOLIC HEPATITIS—jaundice, fever, hepatomegaly, transaminitis, ascites, coagulopathy, fever, leukocytosis. Exclude other causes of hepatitis, underlying chronic liver disease/cirrhosis, infection. High mortality (25% at 1 month)
- TREATMENTS—abstinence, nutrition, folate/thiamine, for patients with alcoholic hepatitis assess severity using Maddrey DF. Steroids not recommended if mild/moderate alcoholic hepatitis (DF<32); prednisolone 40 mg PO daily and assess for improvement after 7 days if moderate/severe alcoholic hepatitis (DF ≥32); if improved by Lille score, continue × 28 days

NON-ALCOHOLIC STEATOHEPATITIS (NASH)

- ASSOCIATIONS—obesity, hyperlipidemia, diabetes, Cushing, TPN, high-protein diets for weight loss, amiodarone, tamoxifen
- **DIAGNOSIS**—liver biopsy
- TREATMENTS—weight loss (5–10%, 0.5–1.0 kg/ week through diet, exercise, consider bariatric surgery), metformin for diabetes (consider pioglitazone, liraglutide if biopsy-proven NASH), statins for dyslipidemia, vitamin E 800 IU/day if biopsy-proven NASH with fibrosis stage ≥2 without diabetes

Diehl et al. *NEJM* 2017;377(21) Lucey et al. *NEJM* 2009;360(26)

Hepatitis B

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

NATURAL HISTORY—vertical vs. horizontal transmission (acute hepatitis \rightarrow chronic disease develops in >90% of neonates and in <5% if >12 years old) \rightarrow 12–20% with chronic hepatitis progress to cirrhosis in 5 years \rightarrow 20% with compensated cirrhosis progress to decompensation in 5 years and 6–15% progress to hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC)

ACUTE HEPATITIS B—may range from subclinical/anicteric hepatitis (70%) to icteric hepatitis (30%) and even fulminant hepatic failure (0.5–1%). Symptoms: fever, anorexia, rash, nausea, jaundice, RUQ tenderness, arthralgia, and arthritis. ↑↑ ALT and AST

CHRONIC HEPATITIS B—HBsAg+ \geq 6 months with chronic hepatitis, subdivided by HBeAg positive/negative status (lower HBV DNA in HBeAg- patients)

- IMMUNE TOLERANT CHRONIC HEPATITIS B (if vertical transmission)—high HBV DNA, HBeAg+, but no active liver inflammation, asymptomatic, normal ALT, as lack of immune response in children. Lasts 10–30 years
- IMMUNE ACTIVE CHRONIC HEPATITIS B—immune response against HBV resulting in chronic hepatitis w/moderate-severe necroinflammation +/- fibrosis; may seroconvert HBeAg (HBV DNA usually >20,000 IU/mL if HBeAg+ vs. >2,000 IU/mL if HBeAg -)
- INACTIVE CHRONIC HEPATITIS B—HBeAg-, HBeAb+, low level of viral replication (HBV DNA <2,000 IU/mL), usually normal liver enzymes, biopsy with minimal necroinflammation but variable fibrosis

RISK FACTORS—vertical transmission, endemic areas, transfusions, dialysis, healthcare workers, IVDU, high-risk sex, body piercing, tattoos, organ transplantation

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—symptoms of liver dysfunction (jaundice, bleeding, infections, ascites, confusion), weight change, risk factors of hepatitis (family history, sexual activity, IDU, tattoos, piercing, healthcare worker, transfusions, dialysis), past medical history (alcohol, HCV, HIV), medication history

PHYSICAL—liver examination, stigmata of chronic liver disease (see p. 149), weight

Seto et al. *Lancet* 2018;392(10161) 2018 AASLD Hepatitis B Update

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

EXTRAHEPATIC MANIFESTATIONS OF HBV—polyarteritis nodosa, membranous nephropathy, membranoproliferative glomerulonephritis

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, albumin, HBV serology (HBsAb, HBsAg, HBclgM, HBclgG to determine infection/immune status, HBeAg, HBeAb, quantitative HBsAg, HBV DNA for active replication), HAV serology, HCV serology, HDV serology, HIV serology
- IMAGING—US abd, Fibroscan[®] (non-invasive assessment of liver fibrosis using US)

SPECIAL

LIVER BIOPSY

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

HEPATITIS B SEROLOGY

- HBsAg—hepatitis B surface antigen. Positive if active infection
- HBsAb—antibody against hepatitis B surface antigen. Positive if immunized (through past infection or vaccination)
- HBclgM—lgM antibody against hepatitis B core antigen. Suggestive of early infection (indicates the window period) or reactivation
- HBclgG—lgG antibody against hepatitis B core antigen. Suggestive of hepatitis B exposure (not from vaccination)
- HBEAG—e-antigen, indicator of viral replication and infectivity. HBeAg– without HBeAb positivity suggests chronic HBV infection with pre-core mutant/promoter mutations: higher risk of treatment failure and progressive hepatic injury even with low HBV DNA
- HBEAB—antibody against hepatitis B envelope protein. Suggests low/no viral replication, usually with low infectivity
- HBV DNA—direct determination of HBV DNA, reflects viral replication activity, associated with the risk of cirrhosis and HCC. HBV DNA important in both HBeAg+ and HBeAgindividuals to determine need for antiviral therapy

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

| | HBsAg | HBclgM | HBsAb | HBclgG | HBeAg | HBeAb |
|-------------------|-------|--------|-------|--------|-------|-------|
| Acute infection | | | | | | |
| Early | + | - | - | - | + | - |
| Window | - | + | - | - | + | - |
| Late | - | +/- | + | - | + | - |
| Immunity | | | | | | |
| Vaccinated | - | - | + | - | - | - |
| Chronic infection | | | | | | |
| Infectious/active | + | - | - | + | + | - |
| Pre-core mutant | + | - | - | + | - | - |
| Low replicative | + | - | - | + | - | + |

MANAGEMENT

LIFESTYLE CHANGES—avoid alcohol use, sexual education, HBV vaccination

 TREATMENT—nucleos(t)ide
 analogues

 (tenofovir alafenamide 25 mg PO daily or tenofovir disoproxil fumarate 300 mg daily, entecavir
 0.5 mg daily)

VACCINATION—household and sexual contacts

TREATMENT ISSUES

TREATMENT FOR CHRONIC HEPATITIS B WITHOUT CIRRHOSIS

- HBEAG POSITIVE PATIENTS—consider treatment if HBV DNA level >20,000 IU/mL and elevated ALT >2× ULN × 3-6 months (normal ALT 19-25 U/L ♀, 29-33 U/L ♂); or significant inflammation and fibrosis (≥F2); treat × 12 months after HBEAG seroconversion
- HBEAG NEGATIVE PATIENTS (PRE-CORE OR CORE PRO-MOTER MUTATIONS)—consider treatment if HBV DNA >2000 IU/mL and elevated ALT >2× ULN × 3–6 months; or significant inflammation and fibrosis (≥F2); treat to HBsAg loss

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS

- COMPENSATED CIRRHOSIS—if detectable HBV DNA >2000 IU/mL, treat indefinitely; if HBV DNA <2000 IU/mL, consider treatment if ALT elevated
- DECOMPENSATED CIRRHOSIS—treat immediately, regardless of ALT/HBV DNA, prefer treatment with *entecavir* 1 mg PO daily, consider liver transplantation
- PREGNANCY—check HBsAg in first trimester, if positive then check baseline HBV DNA, HBeAg/ anti-HBe, ALT and repeat at 26–28 weeks. If HBV DNA >200,000 IU/mL, antiviral treatment for mother + vaccinate + HBIG for infant within 12 hours of birth. If HBV DNA ≤ 200,000 IU/mL, vaccinate + HBIG within 12 hours of birth
- HCC SURVEILLANCE—surveillance indications: family history of HCC, Asian ♂ >40 years, Asian Q >50 years, Blacks, HBV DNA >20,000 IU/mL + high ALT, Child-Pugh A/B cirrhotics or C if waitlisted for transplant. US q6 months +/- AFP

Hepatitis C

(10207) Spearman et al. *Lancet* 2019;394 2018 Canadian Assoc Study Liver Guideline Chronic Hepatitis C

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

NATURAL HISTORY—acute infection \rightarrow 55–85% will develop chronic infection (+HCV RNA), spontaneous clearance typically within 12 weeks of seroconversion \rightarrow 5–20% of total will develop cirrhosis \rightarrow among cirrhotics, 3–5%/year of acute decompensation, 1–3%/year of HCC. Direct acting antiviral (DAA) therapy curative

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

RISK FACTORS FOR TRANSMISSION—IVDU, blood products (prior to routine screening), perinatal transmission, body piercing/tattooing, longterm dialysis, occupational exposure (healthcare workers), high risk sexual partners

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—symptoms of liver dysfunction (jaundice, bleeding, infections, ascites, confusion), associated symptoms (fatigue, anorexia, myalgia/ arthralgia, weakness), risk factors of hepatitis, past medical history (alcohol, HBV, HIV), medication history

PHYSICAL—liver examination, stigmata of chronic liver disease, weight. Also examine for extrahepatic manifestations of HCV

SCREENING—one time in all adults \geq 18 years, repeat screening if high risk exposures

EXTRAHEPATIC MANIFESTATIONS OF HCV

- HEENT—uveitis, corneal ulcer, sialadenitis
- HEMATOLOGIC—aplastic anemia, lymphoma, mixed cryoglobulinemia, ITP
- vascular—necrotizing vasculitis, polyarteritis nodosa (PAN)
- RENAL—MPGN type I (w/cryoglobulinemia), membranous nephropathy, PAN
- RHEUMATOLOGIC—arthralgias, arthritis, myalgia, sicca
- NEUROLOGIC—weakness, peripheral neuropathy
- ENDOCRINE—diabetes, antithyroid antibodies
- DERMATOLOGIC porphyria cutanea tarda, lichen planus, psoriasis (20%), pruritus, Raynaud syndrome, cutaneous necrotizing vasculitis

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, albumin, anti-HCV IgM and total (sens 92–97%), HCV RNA PCR (qualitative, quantitative), genotyping, βhCG (before treatment), other viral hepatitis serology, HIV
- IMAGING—US abd, Fibroscan[®]

SPECIAL

LIVER BIOPSY

Chronic Liver Disease: Cirrhosis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

INFECTIONS—HBV, HCV, HDV, brucellosis, schistosomiasis, toxoplasmosis

STEATOHEPATITIS—alcohol, non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH)

MEDICATIONS—methotrexate, isoniazid AUTOIMMUNE—autoimmune hepatitis NEOPLASM—hepatoma, cholangiocarcinoma VASCULAR—veno-occlusive disease, hereditary hemorrhagic telangiectasia

MANAGEMENT

TREATMENT CONSIDERATIONS—genotype, liver fibrosis, co-infection with HIV/HBV, renal function, medication interactions, other comorbidities

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

- GENOTYPE 1—ledipasvir-sofosbuvir, sofosbuvirvelpatasvir, elbasvir-grazoprevir, ombitasvirparitaprevir-ritonavir + dasabuvir with or without ribavirin, simeprevir + sofosbuvir, daclatasvir + sofosbuvir
- GENOTYPE 2/3—sofosbuvir-velpatasvir, glecaprevir-pibrentasvir
- GENOTYPE 4/5/6—ledipasvir-sofosbuvir, sofosbuvir-velpatasvir, glecaprevir-pibrentasvir

ORTHOTOPIC LIVER TRANSPLANT

TREATMENT ISSUES

ANTIVIRAL THERAPIES

- MECHANISM OF ACTION—target HCV-encoded proteins involved in viral replication. NS3/ NS4A serine protease responsible for posttranslation processing. NS5A organizes HCV replication complex. NS5B RNA-dependent RNA polymerase for viral replication
- NS3/4A—glecaprevir, grazoprevir, paritaprevir, simeprevir
- NS5<u>A</u>—daclat<u>a</u>svir, elb<u>a</u>svir, ledip<u>a</u>svir, ombit<u>a</u>svir, pibrent<u>a</u>svir, velpat<u>a</u>svir
- NS5<u>B</u>—sofos<u>b</u>uvir, dasa<u>b</u>uvir

MONITORING DURING HCV THERAPY—CBC weekly for 4 weeks, then CBC, AST, ALT, uric acid monthly, TSH and ANA every 3 months, and HCV RNA at 4, 12, and 24 weeks during treatment and 6 months after therapy. For significant anemia and neutropenia, give EPO and GCSF, respectively. Also monitor for depression

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

METABOLIC—hemochromatosis, Wilson disease, α 1-antitrypsin deficiency, glycogen storage disease, celiac disease

STRUCTURAL—polycystic liver disease, granulomatous liver disease

BILIARY CIRRHOSIS—primary biliary cholangitis, primary sclerosing cholangitis, secondary biliary cirrhosis (recurrent pyogenic cholangitis, stones, strictures)

CARDIAC CIRRHOSIS—chronic right-sided heart failure

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CHILD-PUGH CLASSIFICATION OF LIVER CIRRHOSIS

| Points | Encephalopathy | Ascites | Albumin | Total bili | INR |
|--------|----------------|---------|----------------|-------------|---------|
| 1 | 0 | None | >35 g/L | <34 μM | <1.7 |
| | | | [>3.5 g/dL] | [<2 mg/dL] | |
| 2 | 1–2 | Slight | 28–35 g/L | 34–51 μM | 1.7–2.3 |
| | | | [2.8–3.5 g/dL] | [2–3 mg/dL] | |
| 3 | 3–4 | Mod | <28 g/L | >51 µM | >2.3 |
| | | | [<2.8 g/dL] | [>3 mg/dL] | |

CP A = 5–6, B = 7–9, C = 10–15; CP-C \geq 12 associated with \leq 6 month median survival.

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

MODEL FOR END-STAGE LIVER DISEASE (MELD) **SCORE**—originally designed to predict survival in patients with portal hypertension undergoing elective TIPS, now used for organ allocation in patients with chronic liver disease (consider transplant if MELD \geq 18). MELD range 6 to 40 (higher values = worse prognosis)

- ORIGINAL $MELD = 9.57 \times log_e(Cr \text{ in } mg/dL) + 3.78 \times log_e(total bilirubin in mg/dL) + 11.2 \times log_e(INR) + 6.43$
- UNITED NETWORK OF ORGAN SHARING MELD (UNOS-MELD) = same formula but fixed lower limit of 1 for all variables and fixed upper limit of 4 mg/dL for Cr. Furthermore, Cr set at 4 for patients on renal replacement therapy
- MELD-Na = UNOS-MELD Na $[0.025 \times MELD \times (140 Na)] + 140$

For web-based calculator, please see MELD Score and 90-Day Mortality Rate for Alcoholic Hepatitis

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—symptoms of liver dysfunction (jaundice, bleeding, infections, ascites, confusion), weight change, risk factors of hepatitis (sexual activity, IDU, tattoos, piercing, healthcare worker, transfusions, dialysis), past medical history (alcohol, hereditary disorders), medication history (acetaminophen, other hepatotoxins)

PHYSICAL

 STIGMATA OF CHRONIC LIVER DISEASE—leukonychia, Terry nails, clubbing, Dupuytren contractures, palmar erythema, asterixis, scleral icterus, altered mental status, parotid enlargement, fetor hepaticus, spider angiomas, gynecomastia, ascites, splenomegaly, caput medusa, hemorrhoids, testicular atrophy, proximal muscle weakness, peripheral edema, petechiae

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

 CLUES TO ETIOLOGY—obesity (fatty liver), excoriations (PBC), tattoos/needle tracks (viral hepatitis), bronze skin (hemochromatosis), Kayser–Fleischer rings (Wilson disease)

DISTINGUISHING LIVER FROM RIGHT KIDNEY

- 1. The liver has no palpable upper border and extends more laterally and medially
- 2. The liver is not usually ballotable, but the kidney is because of its retroperitoneal position
- 3. The percussion note is dull over the liver but is usually tympanic over the kidney
- A friction rub may occasionally be heard over the liver, but never over the kidney because it is too posterior
- 5. The liver has a shaper edge, while kidney is usually more rounded

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN PORTAL HYPERTENSION AND VENA CAVA OBSTRUCTION

- PORTAL HYPERTENSION—caput medusa veins drain away from umbilicus. Stigmata of liver disease
- IVC OBSTRUCTION—veins prominent in the abdomen and drain up toward the superior vena cava system. No evidence of liver disease
- SVC OBSTRUCTION—veins prominent in the chest and drain down toward the inferior vena cava system. No evidence of liver disease

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, albumin, HAV serology, HBsAg, HBsAb, anti-HBc, HCV, quantitative immunoglobulins

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

- IMAGING—US abd (with Doppler), Fibroscan[®] SPECIAL
- LABS—ANA, ASMA (anti-actin antibodies), antiliver-kidney-microsomal (LKM) antibody, AMA, ferritin, ceruloplasmin, α 1-antitrypsin, AFP, anti-TTG
- GASTROSCOPY—varices screening if platelets <150 x10⁹/L or liver stiffness >20 kPa
- LIVER BIOPSY

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—consideration for liver transplantation

PRIMARY VARICEAL **BI FEDING PROPHYLAXIS**—prophylaxis if high risk (small varices with red wale sign or CP-B/C cirrhosis, medium/large varices); primary prophylaxis with non-selective β-blocker (nadolol 40-80 mg PO daily, propranolol 20 mg PO BID, or carvedilol 6.25 mg PO daily-BID) or endoscopic variceal ligation. Target HVPG reduction \geq 10% or \leq 12 mmHg, HR 55-60 bpm if NSBB used. See UPPER GI BLEED (p. 134), HEPATIC ENCEPHALOPATHY (p. 152), and ASCITES (p. 153)

HEPATOMA SCREENING—for all patients with cirrhosis, and those with HBV and HCC risk factors, repeat abdominal US +/- AFP every 6 months for surveillance

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

CAUSES OF HEPATOMEGALY

- CONGESTIVE—right heart failure, constrictive pericarditis, tricuspid regurgitation, IVC obstruction, hepatic vein obstruction
- CHOLESTATIC LIVER DISEASE—PBC, PSC
- INFILTRATION-malignancy, amyloidosis, hemochromatosis, fatty liver
- REACTIVE—acute viral or drug-induced hepatitis WILSON DISEASE

- ETIOLOGY—autosomal recessive defect in copper excretion
- DIAGNOSIS—neurologic features (dysarthria, dystonia, choreoathetosis, cognitive impairment, cerebellar ataxia), Kayser-Fleischer ring, low serum ceruloplasmin, high 24-h urine for copper, associated with Coombs-negative hemolytic anemia
- TREATMENTS—dietary restriction (avoid shellfish, organs, chocolate, nuts, and mush-

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

rooms), chelating agent (p-penicillamine or trientine), and zinc. Liver transplant for patients with Wilson related acute liver failure

AUTOIMMUNE HEPATITIS

- DIAGNOSIS—transaminitis, quantitative immunoglobulins († IgG), ANA, ASMA, anti-LKM antibody (less common antibodies: anti-liver cytosol Ab-1, anti-soluble liver/liver pancreas Ab), liver biopsy (interface hepatitis), exclude viral hepatitis
- clinical FEATURES—broad spectrum, from asymptomatic to acute hepatitis (including AHF), chronic hepatitis/cirrhosis. Associated autoimmune disorders (thyroiditis, RA, type 1 diabetes, ulcerative colitis, SLE, celiac)
- TREATMENTS—prednisone, azathioprine, or mycophenolate mofetil. For fulminant hepatitis or cirrhosis, consider liver transplantation

HEPATIC HYDROTHORAX

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY-low oncotic pressure, diaphragmatic defects \rightarrow ascitic fluid moves to pleural space due to pressure gradient \rightarrow transudative pleural effusion \rightarrow decreased lung volumes \rightarrow V/O mismatch \rightarrow hypoxemia
- DIAGNOSIS—diagnostic paracentesis/ thoracentesis. US abd to assess liver and ascites. CT chest and abd to rule out other lesions. Intraperitoneal injection of ⁹⁹mTc-labeled serum albumin may be helpful to confirm diagnosis
- TREATMENTS-02, salt restriction, diuretics, therapeutic paracentesis, may need thoracentesis, TIPS. Avoid chest tube (high risk of SBP and hepatorenal syndrome)

HEPATOPULMONARY SYNDROME

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY-portal hypertension $\rightarrow \downarrow$ metabolism of vasodilating substance or \downarrow production of vasoconstricting substance \rightarrow pulmonary capillary dilatation → diffusion-perfusion imbalance \rightarrow hypoxemia, dyspnea on exertion and/or at rest, orthodeoxia and platypnea, cyanosis, clubbing and spider nevi
- DIAGNOSIS-contrast echo/bubble study (presence of microbubbles in the left atrium 3-6 cardiac cycles after IV injection of normal saline suggests dilated pulmonary capillaries), lung perfusion scan, pulmonary angiogram (if severe hypoxemia)
- TREATMENTS-O₂, liver transplant

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

PORTOPULMONARY HYPERTENSION

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—portal hypertension → imbalanced vasoconstrictive and vasodilatory mediators +/- thromboembolism in pulmonary circulation through portosystemic shunting +/hyperdynamic pulmonary circulation → findings similar to primary pulmonary hypertension (dyspnea, syncope, edema, chest pain)
- DIAGNOSIS—echocardiogram, right heart catheterization (mPAP >20 mmHg at rest, PCWP ≤15 mmHg, PVR ≥3 Wood units)
- TREATMENTS—O₂, diuretics, sildenafil, prostaglandins, calcium channel blockers, liver transplant

HEPATORENAL SYNDROME

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—liver failure with portal hypertension → dilated systemic circulation (low vascular resistance) → ↑ renin-aldosterone system with ↑ cardiac output but not enough to counter splanchnic arterial vasodilatation (especially nitric oxide) → reduced renal perfusion. Common precipitants: SBP, GI bleeding.
- TYPES—Type I more severe, $>2 \times$ increase in creatinine to $>220 \mu$ mol/L [>2.2 mg/dL] in ≤ 2 weeks. Patients usually oliguric/anuric. Type II less rapidly progressive, characterized by ascites resistant to diuretics
- DIAGNOSIS—clinical diagnosis; rule-out other etiologies of AKI (including pre-renal causes,

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- ATN, infection, and GI bleed). Definition: AKI (increase in Cr >26.5 mmol/L within 48h or >50% from baseline within 7 days), urine Na <10 mM (<10 mEq/L), bland U/A, minimal proteinuria (<500 mg/day), and no improvement after volume expansion with IV albumin (1 g/kg/d and up to 100 g/d \times 2 days)
- TREATMENTS—treat underlying liver disease, stop diuretics, fluid (usually no response).
 Albumin 1g/kg/day × 2 days minimum.
 Vasoconstrictors (norepinephrine or vasopressin in ICU setting; midodrine 7.5–15 mg TID + octreotide 50 mcg/h + albumin 1g/kg/ day × 2 days, then 25–50 g/day if not in the ICU; terlipressin 1–2 mg IV q4–6 h if available as alternative to midodrine/octreotide).
 Refractory HRS: TIPS, renal replacement therapy (as bridge to liver recovery or transplant)

Ge et al. NEJM 2016;375(8)

Related Topics

Acute Hepatic Failure (p. 145) Ascites (p. 153) Encephalopathy (p. 152) Hemochromatosis (p. 482) Hepatitis B (p. 147) Hepatitis C (p. 148) Jaundice (p. 155)

Hepatic Encephalopathy

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

DRUGS

- ALCOHOL—acute intoxication, withdrawal, Wernicke–Korsakoff syndrome
- PSYCHOACTIVE—benzodiazepines, cocaine, heroin, ecstasy
- отнекя—salicylates

INFECTIOUS—SBP, pneumonia, UTI, meningitis, encephalitis, abscess

METABOLIC

- ORGAN FAILURE—hepatic, azotemia, hypothyroidism, hypoxemia, CO₂ narcosis
- ELECTROLYTES—ketoacidosis, hyponatremia, hypomagnesemia, hypercalcemia, glucose (hypo, hyper)

STRUCTURAL

- немовинаде—subarachnoid, epidural, subdural, intracerebral
- stroкe—basilar

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

- TUMOR
- EPILEPSY

NEUROPSYCHIATRIC

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

GRADING OF HEPATIC ENCEPHALOPATHY

- MINIMAL—psychometric/neuropsychological alterations but without clinical evidence of mental status changes
- I—altered sleep cycle, short attention span, mild confusion, tremor, incoordination
- n—lethargy or irritability, disoriented to time, personality change, asterixis, ataxia
- III—somnolence/stupor or agitation, disoriented to place and time, asterixis, hyperreflexia, positive Babinski
- Iv—coma, decerebrate

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

PRECIPITANTS OF HEPATIC ENCEPHALOPATHY

- ↑ NH₄—↑ dietary protein intake, constipation, Gl bleed, transfusion, infection (spontaneous bacterial peritonitis), azotemia, hypokalemia
- ↓ METABOLISM—dehydration (vomiting, diarrhea), hypotension, hypoxemia, anemia, portosystemic shunt, new HCC, progressive liver damage
- DRUGS—benzodiazepines, alcohol, narcotics, missed lactulose

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—characterize confusion (onset, duration, fluctuation), infectious symptoms, neurological symptoms, precipitants (diet, hydration, constipation, GI bleed, infection), past medical history (liver disease, alcohol and illicit drug use), medication history (sedatives, narcotics, missed lactulose)

PHYSICAL—vitals, signs of chronic liver disease, rectal examination (if suspect GI bleed), neuro-logical examination, check for asterixis

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, TSH, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, NH₄ (poorly correlated with degree of encephalopathy), Ca, Mg, PO₄, osmolality, CK, troponin (as part of delirium workup), urinalysis
- місковіоLоду—blood C&S, urine C&S, sputum Gram stain/C&S
- IMAGING—US abd, CT abd

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

 ASCITIC FLUID ANALYSIS—cell count and diff, C&S to rule out SBP

SPECIAL

- CT неад—delirium workup
- ABG—if critically ill
- GASTROSCOPY—to check for varices
- LIVER BIOPSY
- EEG—symmetric, high voltage, slow wave pattern

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE HEPATIC ENCEPHALOPATHY

- WORKUP FOR SEPSIS
- SYMPTOM CONTROL—correct hypokalemia, if present. Lactulose 30 g PO BID—QID PRN titrate to 2-4 bowel movements/day; if patient obtunded and NPO, consider lactulose enema. Consider rifaximin 550 mg BID for patients not responsive to lactulose or as an alternative agent in patients intolerant of lactulose
- TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—liver transplant

CHRONIC HEPATIC ENCEPHALOPATHY

- SYMPTOM CONTROL—protein restriction not routinely recommended. Lactulose 30 g PO BID– QID PRN titrate to 2–4 bowel movements/day. Prophylaxis with rifaximin 550 mg PO BID (in high-risk patients with ≥2 episodes of hepatic encephalopathy in last 6 months). Others (neomycin but associated ototoxicity/nephrotoxicity, ornithine aspartate, oral branched-chain amino acids)
 - TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—liver transplant Wijdicks NEJM 2016;375(17)

Ascites

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

† HYDROSTATIC PRESSURE

- CARDIAC—right heart failure, tricuspid regurgitation, constrictive pericarditis
- HEPATIC—presinusoidal (portal vein thrombosis, schistosomiasis), sinusoidal (cirrhosis), postsinusoidal (Budd–Chiari, veno-occlusive)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

ONCOTIC PRESSURE—malnutrition, liver disease, nephrotic syndrome, protein-losing enteropathy

↑ CAPILLARY PERMEABILITY/LYMPHATIC OBSTRUCTION

- INFECTIONS—spontaneous bacterial peritonitis
- MALIGNANCY—ovarian, peritoneal metastasis
- PANCREATITIS

OTHERS—hypothyroidism

CLINICAL FEATURES

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE ASCITES?

| | Sens | Spc | LR+ | LR- |
|--------------------|------|-----|------|------|
| History | | | | |
| ↑ abdominal girth | 87% | 77% | 4.1 | 0.17 |
| Recent weight gain | 67% | 79% | 3.2 | 0.42 |
| Ankle swelling | 93% | 68% | 2.8 | 0.10 |
| Hepatitis | 67% | 79% | 3.2 | 0.42 |
| Heart failure | 47% | 73% | 2.0 | 0.73 |
| Alcoholism | 60% | 58% | 1.4 | 0.69 |
| Hx of carcinoma | 13% | 85% | 0.91 | 1.01 |
| Physical | | | | |
| Fluid wave | 62% | 90% | 5.3 | 0.6 |
| Shifting dullness | 77% | 72% | 2.1 | 0.4 |
| Flank dullness | 84% | 59% | 1.7 | 0.4 |
| Bulging flanks | 81% | 59% | 1.8 | 0.5 |

APPROACH—the most useful finding for making a diagnosis of ascites is a positive fluid wave. The most useful findings to rule out ascites are a negative history of ankle swelling or increased abdominal girth. Puddle sign and auscultatory percussion not recommended

> Williams et al. JAMA 1992;267(19) Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination McGraw-Hill; 2009

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, albumin, amylase, lipase, TSH, urinalysis
- IMAGING—US abd, CT abd
- PARACENTESIS—cell count + diff, Gram stain, C&S, AFB, albumin, LDH, glucose, amylase, triglyceride, cytology

SPECIAL

LAPAROSCOPY WITH PERITONEAL BIOPSY

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE BACTERIAL PERITONITIS OR PORTAL HYPERTENSION? HOW DO I PERFORM A PARACENTESIS AND ANALYZE THE RESULTS?

PARACENTESIS TECHNIQUE—two studies showed that testing for coagulation prior to paracentesis was probably unnecessary; one study showed that a 15-gauge, 3.25-in. needlecannula was associated with less multiple peritoneal punctures and termination due to poor

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

fluid return as compared to a 14-gauge needle in therapeutic paracentesis; one study showed immediate as compared to delayed inoculation of culture bottles improved diagnostic yield (100% vs. 77%); nine studies examined therapeutic paracentesis with or without albumin or nonalbumin plasma expanders and found no consistent effect on morbidity or mortality

FEATURES SUGGESTIVE OF SPONTANEOUS BACTERIAL PERITONITIS

| | LK+ | LK– |
|--|------|------|
| Ascitic fluid WBC/PMN | | |
| Ascitic fluid WBC >1000 cells/µL | 9.1 | 0.25 |
| Ascitic fluid WBC >500 cells/µL | 5.9 | 0.21 |
| Ascitic fluid WBC >250 cells/µL | 0.9 | 1.1 |
| Ascitic fluid PMN >500 cells/µL | 10.6 | 0.16 |
| Ascitic fluid PMN >250 cells/µL | 6.4 | 0.20 |
| Ascitic fluid pH and blood ascitic | рН | |
| gradient | | |
| Ascitic fluid pH <7.31 | 4.1 | 0.47 |
| Ascitic fluid pH <7.32 | 4.8 | 0.65 |
| Ascitic fluid pH ≤7.31 | 5.8 | 0.43 |
| Ascitic fluid pH <7.35 | 9.0 | 0.31 |
| Ascitic fluid pH <7.40 | 2.5 | 0.23 |
| Blood ascitic fluid pH gradient >0.11 | 4.6 | 0.47 |
| Blood ascitic fluid pH gradient >0.10 | 7.1 | 0.30 |
| Blood ascitic fluid pH gradient ≥0.10 | 11.3 | 0.12 |

FEATURES SUGGESTIVE OF PORTAL HYPERTENSION

LR+ LR-

Serum ascites albumin gradient (SAAG)

Serum-ascites albumin gradient 4.6 0.06 $\geq 11 \text{ g/L} (\geq 1.1 \text{ g/dL})$

APPROACH—ascitic fluid should be inoculated into blood culture bottles at the bedside. Spontaneous bacterial peritonitis is more likely at predescribed parameters of ascitic WBC count (>1000 cells/µL), PMN count (>250 cells/µL) or blood–ascitic fluid pH (<7.35), and portal hypertension is less likely below a predescribed serum-ascites albumin gradient (<11 g/L [<1.1 g/dL])

Wong et al. JAMA 2008;299(10)

PARACENTESIS PROCEDURE

Thomsen et al. NEJM 2006;355(e21)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

SERUM-ASCITES ALBUMIN GRADIENT (SAAG)

- PORTAL HYPERTENSION OR CONGESTIVE HEART FAIL-URE—(serum albumin – ascites albumin) ≥11 g/L [≥1.1 g/dL]. To distinguish between portal hypertension and HF, consider checking for ascitic fluid total protein level (generally >25 g/L [>2.5 g/dL] in cardiac ascites due to normal leaky hepatic sinusoid, while portal hypertension is associated with "capillarized" sinusoids that are less leaky)
- INFLAMMATORY—(serum albumin ascites albumin) <11 g/L [<1.1 g/dL]

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL—Na restriction (88 mmol/day or 2 g/day. Check urine Na for compliance, i.e. <77 mmol/day). Fluid restriction (<1.5 L/day only if Na <120 mmol/L). Diuretics (*spi*ronolactone 100–400 mg PO daily and furosemide 40–160 mg PO daily, stepwise increase, monitor renal function). Paracentesis. Albumin (if >5 L ascitic fluid removed, then replace with albumin. In general, give 100 mL of 25% albumin for every 3 L of ascites removed over 5 L), TIPS, liver transplant. Avoid NSBB if refractory ascites.

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—stop alcohol consumption

Ginès et al. *NEJM* 2004;350(16) Runyon *Hepatology* 2013;57(4)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF ANASARCA —renal (nephrotic syndrome), cardiac (HF, tricuspid regurgitation, constrictive pericarditis), liver (cirrhosis), thyroid (hypothyroidism), malignancy (venous/lymphatic obstruction)

SPONTANEOUS BACTERIAL PERITONITIS (SBP)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—overgrowth of bacteria in bowel (usually *E. coli*) → bacterial translocation (migration) across bowel wall → infect ascites. Usually in patients with cirrhosis and large volume ascites with low ascites protein. Symptoms may be subtle as the visceral peritoneum is separated from the parietal peritoneum. Important to differentiate SBP from perforated bowel causing peritonitis
- CLINICAL FEATURES—may be asymptomatic if detected early. Common signs and symptoms include fever, abdominal pain and tenderness (diffuse, continuous), diarrhea, confusion, or renal deterioration. Sepsis with hypotension and paralytic ileus may develop later
- DIAGNOSIS—paracentesis (ascitic fluid PMN ≥250 cells/µL, fluid protein <10 g/L [<1.0 g/ dL], Gram stain, C&S), blood cultures, urine cultures. (Note that in peritonitis secondary to perforated viscous, the ascitic fluid protein is usually >10 g/L [>1.0 g/dL], glucose <2.8 mmol/L [<51 mg/dL], and LDH > upper limit of normal, and polymicrobial)
- TREATMENTS—cefotaxime 2 g IV q8h (preferred) or ceftriaxone 2 g IV q24h×5–10 days, albumin 1.5 g/kg IV within 6 h of detection, then 1 g/kg IV on day 3 (reduces mortality and incidence of HRS). Discontinue non-selective beta-blockers
 - **PROPHYLAXIS**—indicated in patients at high risk for SBP (cirrhosis + Gl bleeding, ≥ 1 episode of SBP, cirrhosis + ascites with ascitic fluid protein <15 g/L [1.5 g/L] + impaired renal/liver function [Cr > 106 umol/L, BUN \geq 9 mmol/L, Na \leq 130 mmol/L, Child-Pugh \geq 9 + bilirubin >50 umol/L), hospitalized cirrhotic with ascitic protein <1 g/L). Prophylaxis with *ciprofloxacin* 500 mg daily, *norfloxacin* 400 mg daily, *or trimethoprimsulfamethoxazole* 1DS tablet daily

Jaundice

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF JAUNDICE/ HYPERBILIRUBINEMIA

PRE-HEPATIC (hemolysis)

- RBC MEMBRANE—spherocytosis, elliptocytosis
- RBC ENZYMES—G6PD, pyruvate kinase deficiency

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF JAUNDICE/ HYPERBILIRUBINEMIA (CONT'D)

- RBC HEMOGLOBIN—sickle cell
- BLOOD—toxins, drugs (fludarabine), infections (malaria), immune

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF JAUNDICE/ HYPERBILIRUBINEMIA (CONT'D)

- vascular—mechanical valve, vasculitis, HUS/ TTP/DIC, HELLP, severe hypertension
- INEFFECTIVE ERYTHROPOIESIS—megaloblastic anemia

HEPATIC

- ↓ UPTAKE—Gilbert syndrome, drugs (rifampin, contrast)
- conjugation—Gilbert syndrome, Crigler— Najjar I/II, hepatocellular diseases, drugs (chloramphenicol)
- LEXCRETION (cholestasis)—Dubin–Johnson, Rotor, benign recurrent cholestasis, cholestasis of pregnancy, drug-induced cholestasis, PBC, PSC, TPN
- міхер—hepatocellular disease, sepsis

POST-HEPATIC

- GALLSTONES
- CANCER—pancreas, bile ducts, ampulla
- BILIARY STRUCTURES—post-cholecystectomy, PSC, biliary atresia

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CHOLESTASIS—any condition in which bile excretion from the liver is blocked, which can occur either in the intrahepatic bile ducts (hepatic causes) or in the extrahepatic bile ducts (posthepatic causes)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—characterize jaundice (duration, previous episodes), abdominal pain, abdominal mass, stool color, urine color, pruritus, weight loss, past medical history (liver disease, hepatitis risk factors, IBD/PSC, hereditary disorders), medications

PHYSICAL—signs of chronic liver disease, liver and spleen examination

JAUNDICE—becomes clinically evident at levels of bilirubin >70 µmol/L [>41 mg/dL]

DARK URINE—suggests conjugated hyperbilirubinemia

PALE STOOL/PRURITUS—suggests cholestasis (bile cannot be secreted into the biliary system)

PAIN—painful jaundice suggests acute obstruction (by stones, masses); investigate with US abd/ ERCP/MRCP/EUS. Painless jaundice suggests pancreatic cancer, infiltration, PSC, PBC, and drugs; investigate with imaging + biopsy

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, peripheral smear, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin (conjugated and unconjugated), INR, albumin, HAV IgM, HAV IgG, HBsAg, HBsAb, HBcIgM, anti-HCV, ANA, ASMA, AMA, ferritin, ceruloplasmin, α1antitrypsin, AFP, LDH, haptoglobin, peripheral smear, reticulocyte counts
- IMAGING—US, CT abd

SPECIAL

- ENDOSCOPIC US
- MRCP/ERCP
- LIVER BIOPSY

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

PRIMARY BILIARY CHOLANGITIS (PBC)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—autoimmune destruction of intrahepatic bile ducts → cholestasis → inflammation and necrosis → cirrhosis
- CLINICAL FEATURES—pruritus, fatigue, RUQ pain, xanthomas/xanthelasmas, sicca syndrome, hyperlipidemia. Females >> males. Decreased bone mineral density. Cirrhosis and risk of HCC. Associated conditions: Sjögren, scleroderma/CREST, autoimmune thyroid disease
- DIAGNOSIS—≥2 of: ALP ≥1.5 × ULN, antimitochondrial (AMA) Ab >1:40, histologic evidence of PBC. AMA (sens 95%), ANA (70%), ↑ bilirubin, ↑ ALP, ↓ C4, ↑ IgM, hyperlipidemia (cholesterol, rather than TGL, is what classically becomes elevated). Liver biopsy can be helpful for staging but not essential for diagnosis, can evaluate overlap autoimmune hepatitis
- TREATMENTS—ursodeoxycholic acid (ursodiol, UDCA) 13-15 mg/kg/day PO in 2 divided doses. UDCA improves liver enzymes, slows disease progression, delays time to transplant. Obeticholic acid (farnesoid X receptor agonist) 5-10 mg PO daily in patients with inadequate response/intolerance of UDCA. Consider adding fibrates to UDCA for patients with incomplete biochemical response. For pruritus, consider cholestyramine (4–16 q daily), rifampin (150-300 mg BID), naltrexone (12.5-50 mg daily), sertraline (75–100 mg daily).

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

Consider treating hyperlipidemia (despite hypercholesterolemia, risk of atherosclerotic death not increased). Prevent osteoporosis with calcium and vitamin D. Supplement fatsoluble vitamins (ADEK). Artificial tears, saliva substitutes for sicca. Consider liver transplant if progressive disease, hepatic decompensation, refractory pruritus, or severe bone disease

2018 AASLD Guideline Primary Biliary Cholangitis

PRIMARY SCLEROSING CHOLANGITIS (PSC)

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—cholangitis → fibrosis with intra-and extrahepatic duct strictures → cirrhosis; 75% associated with IBD, 10% with cholangiocarcinoma

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- CLINICAL FEATURES—can be asymptomatic; pruritus, episodic cholangitis, associated features of IBD, pANCA, hypergammaglobulinemia (high IgM, IgG4), cirrhosis/decompensated liver disease
- DIAGNOSIS—MRCP (beading, strictures), ERCP (especially for patients with dominant stricture ≤1.5mm in CBD or ≤1 mm in hepatic duct, exclude cholangiocarcinoma), cholangiography, biopsy (small duct PSC)
- TREATMENTS—treatment of cholangitis (may require long-term prophylactic antibiotics), screening for hepatobiliary cancer (MRCP or US +/- CA19-9 q6–12 months), colon cancer screening (annual colonoscopy if IBD), liver transplant

Acute Pancreatitis

CAUSES

★BAD HITS★

BILIARY OBSTRUCTION—gallstones, sludge ALCOHOL

ANATOMIC—biliary cysts, annular pancreas, pancreas divisum

DRUGS—thiazides, furosemide, sulfonamide, tetracycline, calcium, estrogen, vinca alkaloids, antiretrovirals (didanosine, pentamidine)

HYPER—hypercalcemia, hypertriglyceridemia (>10 mmol/L)

INFECTIOUS—E. coli, Legionella, Salmonella, HIV, CMV, mumps, HBV, HSV, ascariasis, Toxoplasma, Asperaillus

IDIOPATHIC-25-30%

INHERITED—familial (*CFTR*, *SPINK1*, *PRSS1*) **TRAUMA**—blunt

SURGERY—ERCP (± sphincterotomy, 5% risk), sphincter of Oddi dysfunction

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

COMPLICATIONS OF ACUTE PANCREATITIS ★SCAR★

SEPSIS

- CALCIUM (hypocalcemia)
- ABDOMINAL (necrotizing pancreatitis±hemorrhage, pancreatic pseudocyst±hemorrhage [10–20%], pancreatic abscess, splenic vein thrombosis, fistula, cholangitis
- RESPIRATORY FAILURE (ARDS) AND ASPIRATION PNEUMONIA
- RENAL FAILURE

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—abdominal pain, nausea and vomiting, fever, anorexia, past medical history (previous pancreatitis, recent ERCP, biliary stones, alcohol use, HIV), medication history (diuretics, antibiotics) PHYSICAL—vitals (fever, hypotension, hypoxemia), volume status, abdominal examination (distention, ileus), Cullen sign (periumbilical ecchymoses suggestive of hemoperitoneum), Grey Turner sign (ecchymoses of the flanks suggestive of retroperitoneal hemorrhage)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, LDH, lipase, amylase, Ca, albumin, fasting lipid profile
- IMAGING—US abd, CT abd (+ contrast for necrotic pancreatitis)
- ERCP—both diagnostic and therapeutic to relieve obstruction

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS FOR LIPASE ELEVATION—acute pancreatitis, pancreatic cancer, pancreatic duct obstruction, perforated peptic ulcer, bowel infarction, intestinal obstruction, renal failure

RANSON CRITERIA

 ON ADMISSION—age >55, WBC >16 × 10⁹/L, glucose >11.1 mmol/L [>200 mg/dL], AST >250 U/L, LDH >350 U/L

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

- 48 H—hematocrit ↓ >10%, urea ↑ >1.78 mmol/L [>5 mg/dL], base deficit >4 mEq/L, Ca
 <2 mmol/L [<8 mg/dL], sequestration of fluid >6 L
- **PROGNOSIS**—0-2=2% mortality, 3-4=15%, 5-6=50%, 7-8=100%

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O₂, IV hydration. NPO, NG if severe N&V or obstruction. *Morphine* 2.5–5 mg SC q4h PRN and 1–2 mg IV q1h PRN. **Antiemetics** (*dimenhydrinate* 50 mg IM/IV q4h, *metoclopramide* 10 mg IV q6h). Consider broad-spectrum **antibiotics** (*meropenem* 1 g IV q8h or *imipenem* 500 mg IV q6h) if infected necrosis suspected **NUTRITION SUPPORT**—early oral or EN support; PN only if unable to tolerate EN within 72 hours

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—gallstone pancreatitis (ERCP and biliary sphincterotomy within 72 h, cholecystectomy). **Necrotizing pancreatitis** (ICU admission, antibiotics, surgical debridement)

Forsmark et al. NEJM 2016;375(20)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

CHRONIC PANCREATITIS

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—inflammation and fibrosis leading to structural pancreatic damage, loss of pancreatic exocrine and endocrine function. Causes: toxic-metabolic (alcohol), genetic, autoimmune, recurrent acute pancreatitis, obstructions, idiopathic

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- CLINICAL FEATURES—chronic abdominal pain, steatorrhea, fat soluble vitamin deficiency, osteoporosis, radiographic evidence (XR, EUS, CT/MR) of structural changes to pancreatic parenchyma, elevated risk of pancreatic cancer
- TREATMENT—pain control, pancreatic enzyme replacement (PPI if uncoated enzyme replacement to avoid gastric inactivation), fat restriction (<20 g/day), endocrine replacement, complication management (duct obstruction, pseudocyst)

ASCENDING CHOLANGITIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—biliary stones, post-ERCP, tumors, PSC, or benign stricture → biliary obstruction and stasis → bacterial colonization and infection (*E. coli, Klebsiella, Enterobacter, Enterococcus*, anaerobes) → sepsis
- CLINICAL FEATURES—Charcot triad (fever, RUQ pain, jaundice); Reynold pentad (triad + hypotension and confusion)
- DIAGNOSIS—↑ bilirubin, ALP, and potentially AST and ALT. Blood cultures essential. US abd to check for common bile duct dilatation and stones, ERCP (diagnostic and therapeutic)
- TREATMENTS—antibiotics (meropenem 1 g IV q8h, imipenem 500 mg IV q6h, or ampicillin plus gentamicin). Facilitate biliary drainage (urgent ERCP with sphincterotomy for infection source control, stone extraction, stent insertion, percutaneous transhepatic cholangiogram [PTC] with stent drainage, and surgical decompression as last resort)





Polycythemia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

SPURIOUS—stress (Gaisböck syndrome), decreased intravascular volume PRIMARY—polycythemia vera SECONDARY ★HERA★

- нурохиа—obstructive sleep apnea, COPD, smoking, high altitude
- EPO-SECRETING TUMORS—renal, hepatoma, cerebellar, pheochromocytoma
- RENAL—polycystic kidney disease, hydronephrosis, post-transplant
- ADRENAL—Cushing syndrome

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF POLYCYTHEMIA hematocrit >0.6 in ♂, hematocrit >0.5 in ♀

Related Topics

Hypoxemia (p. 110) Myeloproliferative Disorders (p. 185)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—hyperviscosity (headache, blurred vision, epistaxis), dyspnea, epigastric pain, early satiety, weight loss, fever, night sweats, pruritus, erythromelalgia, recent travel to high-altitude areas, past medical history (respiratory diseases, myeloproliferative disorders, myocardial infarction, stroke, pulmonary embolism, DVT, renal disorders, smoking), medications (androgens, EPO)

PHYSICAL—hypertension, oxygen saturation, facial plethora, conjunctival injections, engorgement of the veins of the optic fundus, abdominal mass, hepatomegaly, splenomegaly, excoriations, stigmata of a prior arterial or venous thrombotic event, gouty arthritis, and tophi

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, leukocyte alkaline phosphatase (LAP), vitamin B12, RBC mass (total blood volume×Hct, to rule out spurious causes), carboxyhemoglobin level, cortisol level, peripheral blood smear

SPECIAL

- JAK2 MUTATION—JAK2 is a cytoplasmic tyrosine kinase activated by EPO binding to its receptor; the V617F mutation activates JAK2 and thereby drives EPO-independent erythropoiesis. JAK2 mutation >95% sensitive for primary PV
- EPO LEVEL—low in PV, high if secondary causes
- нурохіа worкup—oximetry, ABG, COhemoglobin, high-affinity hemoglobin
- solid тимок workup—targeted CT
- BONE MARROW BIOPSY—rule out myelofibrosis and CML

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

WHO CRITERIA FOR POLYCYTHEMIA VERA

- MAJOR CRITERIA
 - (1) Hemoglobin >165 g/L [>16.5 g/dL] in men or >160 g/L [>16.0 g/dL] in women, or hematocrit >49% in men or >48% in women, or increased red cell mass (>25% above mean normal predicted value)
 - (2) Bone marrow biopsy showing hypercellularity for age with trilineage growth (panmyelosis), including prominent erythroid, granulocytic, and megakaryocytic proliferation with pleomorphic, mature megakaryocytes (differences in size)
 - (3) Presence of JAK2 (V617F) or JAK2 exon 12 mutation
- MINOR CRITERIA—subnormal serum erythropoietin level

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DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

DIAGNOSIS—requires meeting all 3 major criteria or the first 2 major criteria and the minor criterion. Note: criterion #2 (bone marrow biopsy) may not be required in cases with sustained absolute erythrocytosis: hemoglobin >185 g/L [>18.5 g/dL] or hematocrit >55.5% in men, or hemoglobin >165 g/L [>16.5 g/dL] or hematocrit >49.5% in women if major criterion #3 and the minor criterion are present. However, initial myelofibrosis (present in up to 20% of patients) can only be detected by performing a bone marrow biopsy; this finding

Microcytic Anemia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

★TAILS★

THALASSEMIA

ANEMIA OF CHRONIC DISEASE—infection, malignancy, inflammatory disorders

IRON DEFICIENCY—blood loss (GI, GU, vaginal, trauma), iron-deficient diet, celiac disease, atrophic gastritis, renal failure on EPO, pulmonary hemosiderosis, intravascular hemolysis

LEAD POISONING SIDEROBLASTIC

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF MICROCYTIC ANEMIA—Hb <135 g/L [<13.5 g/dL], MCV <80 fL SEQUENCE OF IRON DEFICIENCY—L

iron → ↑TIBC → ↓ Hb → ↓ MCV → hypochromia **ANEMIA OF CHRONIC DISEASE**—chronic inflammatory states such as malignancy, infection and rheumatologic diseases → ↑ IFNγ, TNFα, IL-1, IL-6, IL-10 → ↑ hepatic expression of hepcidin, which inhibits duodenal absorption of iron, ↑ uptake and storage of iron into monocytes and macrophages, ↓ production of EPO → ↓ availability of iron for erythrocytes → anemia (microcytic or normocytic)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—shortness of breath, chest pain, dizziness, fatigue, bleeding (GI, menstrual), pica (ice, dirt), diet history, fever, night sweats, weight loss, past medical history (malignancy, chronic infections, rheumatologic disorders), medications (NSAIDs, ASA, anticoagulants), family history (thalassemia)

PHYSICAL—vitals, koilonychia (spoon nails), alopecia, blue sclerae, conjunctival pallor, angular

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

may predict a more rapid progression to overt myelofibrosis (post-PV myelofibrosis)

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—relative (hydration), **CO** hemoglobinemia (smoking cessation. See p. 490), **sleep apnea** (CPAP, see p. 113), **polycythemia vera** (cytoreduction with hydroxyurea ± phlebotomy target to keep hematocrit <0.45 in ♂ and <0.42 in Q, ASA 81 mg PO daily prevents thrombosis but watch out for bleeding)

DeLoughery NEJM 2014;371(14)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

cheilitis, atrophic glossitis, lymphadenopathy (anemia of chronic disease), rectal examination for occult blood and pelvic examination for blood loss

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, peripheral smear, reticulocyte count, serum iron, serum ferritin, TIBC (transferrin), % sat, Hb electrophoresis, fecal occult blood (if suspect Gl bleed)

SPECIAL

- ENDOSCOPY—gastroscopy and/or colonoscopy targeting symptoms in any man or post-menopausal woman with iron deficiency or in anyone with suspected Gl bleeding
- SOLUBLE TRANSFERRIN RECEPTOR (STfR)—helps to distinguish between iron deficiency and anemia of chronic disease. Depleted iron store is associated with increased sTfR levels
- BONE MARROW ASPIRATE AND BIOPSY WITH
 IRON STAIN

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

IRON INDICES

| | Ferritin | Iron | TIBC | % sat |
|-----------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Iron deficiency | \downarrow | \downarrow | 1 | \downarrow |
| Anemia of | ↑/N | \downarrow | N/↓ | N/↓ |
| chronic | | | | |
| disease | | | | |
| Thalassemia | ↑/N | 1 | \downarrow | 1 |
| Sideroblastic | N/↑ | N/↓ | N/↓ | N/↓ |

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN IRON DEFICIENCY AND THALASSEMIA

- **RDW**—red cells in thalassemia tend to have a narrower distribution than in iron deficiency
- MCV—red cells in thalassemia tend to be smaller than in iron deficiency
- MCHC—usually normal in thalassemia
- RETICULOCYTE COUNT—normal to elevated in thalassemia
- RBC—RBC high or normal if thalassemia but tend to decrease proportionally to Hb in iron deficiency
- THALASSEMIA INDEX—MCV/RBC. Suggests thalassemia if <13 and iron deficiency if >13
- мокрноLogy—thalassemia causes microcytic target cells

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN IRON DEFICIENCY AND ANEMIA OF CHRONIC DISEASE—ferritin is indicative of marrow iron stores and is key to the diagnosis of iron deficiency anemia as serum iron and TIBC levels may change with other diseases. Ferritin may be elevated as acute phase reactant

- <30 ng/mL—iron deficiency anemia (PPV 92–98%)
- 30–100 ng/mL—combination of anemia of chronic disease and true iron deficiency if

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

(sTfR/log ferritin) > 2. Anemia of chronic disease alone if (sTfR/log ferritin) <1

100 ng/mL—anemia of chronic disease

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL—transfusion 1–2 U PRBC IV over 2 h for severe symptomatic anemia TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—iron deficiency (oral replacement: *iron gluconate* 300 mg PO, *iron sulfate* 325 mg PO, *ferrous fumarate* 360 mg PO; optimal oral dosing is every other day; parenteral replacement: *sodium ferric gluconate complex* in sucrose 125 mg IV for multiple doses, *iron sucrose* 200–400 mg IV for multiple doses, *ferumoxytol* 510 mg IV 2 doses given 3–8 days apart, *ferric carboxymaltose* 500 mg–1,000 mg IV for 1–2 doses, *ferric derisomaltose* 20 mg/kg IV for 1 dose. See package insert for dosing instructions)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

PLUMMER-VINSON SYNDROME—iron deficiency anemia, atrophic glossitis and esophageal web. Increased risk of esophageal squamous cell carcinoma

Normocytic Anemia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

ACUTE BLOOD LOSS—GI, GU, pelvis/abdomen, skin, CNS

↓ **PRODUCTION**

- PRIMARY MARROW DISORDERS—bone marrow suppression from drugs (esp. chemotherapy), multiple myeloma, myelodysplasia, leukemia, myeloproliferative disorders, lymphoma, metastasis, infections (esp. TB)
- DECREASED EPO—renal failure
- ANEMIA OF CHRONIC DISEASE
- **SEQUESTRATION**—splenomegaly ↑ **DESTRUCTION**
- IMMUNE—autoimmune hemolytic anemia (warm IgG antibody, cold IgM agglutinins)
- NON-IMMUNE
 - RBC MEMBRANE—spherocytosis
 - RBC ENZYMES—G6PD, pyruvate kinase deficiency
 - квс немодьовим—sickle cell anemia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

- MICROANGIOPATHIC—DIC, HUS/TTP, prosthetic valve, hypertensive crisis
- BLOOD—toxins, infections (malaria), immune

MIXED PICTURE—combined microcytic and macrocytic anemia (e.g. gastric bypass causing iron deficiency and vitamin B12 deficiency)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF NORMOCYTIC ANEMIA—Hb <135 g/L [<13.5 g/dL], MCV 80–100 fL

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—shortness of breath, chest pain, dizziness, fatigue, bleeding, fever, night sweats, weight loss, diet history, past medical history (malignancy, chronic infections, rheumatologic disorders, liver disease, renal disease, alcohol, hypothyroidism, myelodysplasia), medications

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

(NSAIDs, ASA, chemotherapy, antibiotics, antiepileptics), family history (sickle cell)

PHYSICAL—vitals, jaundice, conjunctival pallor, cardiac examination, liver examination. Check for macroglossia, subacute combined degeneration and peripheral neuropathy. Rectal examination for occult blood

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, peripheral smear, reticulocyte count, iron, ferritin, TIBC, % sat, Cr, TSH, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, haptoglobin, LDH, direct and indirect Coombs test, serum protein electrophoresis, fecal occult blood

SPECIAL

- URINE TESTS—urinalysis (hemoglobinuria)
- BONE MARROW ASPIRATE AND BIOPSY

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

MCHC—↑ MCHC suggests spherocytosis

MCV—a rise in MCV suggests reticulocytosis; ††† MCV indicates the presence of cold agglutinins causing agglutination in the laboratory specimen before blood is run through the analyzer

COOMBS TEST

- DIRECT COOMBS TEST (DAT)—patient's washed RBC incubated with anti-IgG and anti-C3. A positive result (i.e. agglutination) indicates that IgG and/or C3 have bound to RBC surface *in vivo*. DAT positivity indicates immune rather than nonimmune causes of hemolysis
 - IMMUNE HEMOLYTIC ANEMIA (DAT positive) autoimmune hemolytic anemia, druginduced hemolytic anemia, alloimmune hemolytic anemia (acute hemolytic reaction)
 - NON-IMMUNE HEMOLYTIC ANEMIA (DAT negative)—TTP/HUS, DIC, hemoglobinopathies, hereditary spherocytosis
- INDIRECT COOMBS TEST—normal RBCs incubated with patient's serum. It is mainly used to detect low concentrations of antibodies in a patient's serum prior to blood transfusion. If the antibody reacts with all red cells it is termed a "panagglutinin" and is an autoantibody. If the antibody reacts with some of the red cells it is termed an alloantibody and cross-matching must avoid donor red cells that express the protein recognized by the alloantibody

RETICULOCYTE PRODUCTION INDEX (RPI, corrected reticulocyte count)—more accurate

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

than raw reticulocyte count to evaluate if bone marrow response to anemia is appropriate or hypoproliferative

 RPI = [retic count × (hematocrit in %/45)]/ maturation factor

| Maturation Factor | Hematocrit |
|-------------------|------------|
| 1.0% | 45% |
| 1.5% | 35% |
| 2.0% | 25% |
| 2.5% | 20% |

 INTERPRETATION—RPI >2% suggests adequate marrow response, <2% suggests hypoproliferative (i.e. ↓ production)

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

 SYMPTOM CONTROL—transfusion 2 U PRBC IV over 2 h. Erythropoietin (epoetin alfa 50–200 U/kg/week SC/IV div 2–3 ×/week, darbepoetin alfa 20–40 µg SC weekly) for anemia of chronic kidney disease or selected cancer patients on active chemotherapy (after ensuring iron stores replete)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

AUTOIMMUNE HEMOLYTIC ANEMIA: WARM ANTIBODY—IgG

- CAUSES—neoplasia (CLL, especially with fludarabine, pentostatin, cladribine), autoimmune (SLE), infections (viral), drugs (penicillins, fludarabine, methyldopa)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—anemia, jaundice, splenomegaly, smear (microspherocytosis), ↑ reticulocytes, ↑ bilirubin, ↑ LDH, ↓ haptoglobin, direct Coombs test (lgG±, C3±)
- TREATMENTS—Symptom control (transfusion with caution, difficult to cross-match due to autoantibodies reacting with antigens present on cells of almost all individuals). Steroids (prednisone 1 mg/kg PO daily, taper after stable). Reduce antibody-mediated clearance (IVIG, splenectomy). Immunosuppression (azathioprine 100–150 mg PO daily, cyclophosphamide 100 mg PO daily). Biological agents (rituximab, alemtuzumab). Treat underlying disease (CLL, SLE, drugs)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

AUTOIMMUNE HEMOLYTIC ANEMIA COLD AGGLUTININS—IgM

- cAUSES—neoplasia (CLL, lymphoma, Waldenström macroglobulinemia, adenocarcinoma), infections (mycoplasma pneumonia, infectious mononucleosis, CMV, VZV)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—anemia, agglutination, jaundice, splenomegaly, smear (spherocytosis), ↑ reticulocytes, ↑ bilirubin, ↑ LDH, ↓ hapto-

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

globin, direct Coombs test (lgG-, C3+), cold agglutinin screen

 TREATMENTS—symptom control (avoidance of cold). Steroids (prednisone 1 mg/kg PO daily, taper after stable). Chemotherapy (bendamustine, cyclophosphamide, chlorambucil). Biological agents (rituximab). Plasmapheresis

Macrocytic Anemia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

LIVER DISEASE ALCOHOL

DRUGS—chemotherapy (hydroxyurea, cytosine arabinoside, methotrexate, azathioprine, cladribine, capecitabine), **antiepileptics** (phenytoin, phenobarbital), **antibiotics/antivirals** (trimethoprim–sulfamethoxazole, zidovudine)

VITAMIN B12 DEFICIENCY FROM PERNICIOUS ANEMIA DIETARY FOLATE DEFICIENCY MYELODYSPLASTIC SYNDROME PAROXYSMAL NOCTURNAL HEMO-GLOBINURIA HYPOTHYROIDISM RETICULOCYTOSIS

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF MACROCYTIC ANEMIA—Hb <135 g/L [<13.5 g/dL], MCV >100 fL

Related Topics

Alcoholism (p. 478) Chronic Liver Disease (p. 149) Myelodysplastic Syndrome (p. 189) Vitamin B12 Deficiency (p. 453)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—shortness of breath, chest pain, dizziness, fatigue, bleeding, fever, night sweats, weight loss, diet history, past medical history (liver disease, alcohol, hypothyroidism, myelodysplasia), medications (chemotherapy, antibiotics, antiepileptics)

PHYSICAL—look for signs of hypothyroidism, vitamin B12 deficiency, and chronic liver disease. Vitals (bradycardia, hypoventilation, hypotension), leukonychia, clubbing, Dupuytren contractures, palmar erythema, asterixis, cool and dry

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

skin, vitiligo, hair thinning, alopecia areata, periorbital edema, scleral icterus, conjunctival pallor, altered mental status, macroglossia, parotid enlargement, fetor hepaticus, goiter, lymphadenopathy, spider angiomas, gynecomastia, pericardial effusion, ascites, splenomegaly, caput medusa, hemorrhoids, testicular atrophy, proximal muscle weakness, hyporeflexia, edema (nonpitting), petechiae, subacute combined degeneration of the cord (B12 deficiency affecting dorsal columns and lateral corticospinal tracts, test for Romberg sign, vibration and proprioception), peripheral neuropathy

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, peripheral smear, reticulocyte count, vitamin B12, RBC folate, methylmalonic acid, homocysteine, TSH, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT

SPECIAL

- UGI ENDOSCOPY—to identify atrophic gastritis and survey for gastric cancer
- BONE MARROW BIOPSY

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL—transfusion 2 U PRBC IV over 2 h in everyone except those with pernicious anemia. For patients with pernicious anemia, transfuse fewer units and transfuse each unit slowly over 3 h since an expanded intravascular volume puts patients at risk for transfusioninduced pulmonary edema

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—folate deficiency (folate 0.4 mg PO/SC/IM daily × 4–5 days). **Vitamin B12 deficiency** (vitamin B12 1,000 µg PO/SC/IM daily × 5–10 days, then 1,000 µg PO/SC/ IM qweek × 4 weeks, then every month). **Hypothyroidism** (*levothyroxine* starting at 12.5–50 µg PO daily, adjust every 2 weeks)

Sickle Cell Disease

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

β-CHAIN MUTATION—leads to formation of hemoglobin S (α2β52) → polymerization of hemoglobin S → elongated fibers that distort shape of RBC → vasoocclusive phenomena (infarctions, ischemia) and hemolysis. Subtypes include sickle cell disease (homozygous HbS, most severe), hemoglobin SC disease (heterozygous HbS and HbC, moderately severe) and sickle cell trait (heterozygous HbS, mild)

CLINICAL FEATURES

★ABCDEFGH PAIN★ ANEMIA

- CHRONIC HEMOLYSIS—normo or macrocytic due to reticulocytosis, elevated bilirubin, LDH, low haptoglobin. There may be associated folate/ iron deficiency from increased utilization
- ACUTE ANEMIA—may be due to splenic sequestration crisis (venoocclusion of spleen leading to RBC pooling), aplastic crisis (transient arrest of erythropoiesis), and hyperhemolytic crisis (sudden onset of severe hemolysis). All of these may be triggered by viral infections such as parvovirus B19

BONES—bone infarction (pancytopenia), avascular necrosis, fat embolism, orbital compression syndrome

CARDIAC—myocardial infarction (due to increased oxygen demand from cardiac output) DERMATOLOGIC—leg ulcers

EYES—proliferative retinopathy, retinal artery occlusion, retinal detachment and hemorrhage

FAIRLY BAD PAIN—back, chest, extremities and abdomen. May be associated with fever, swelling, tenderness, tachypnea, hypertension, nausea, and vomiting. May be precipitated by weather changes, dehydration, infection, stress, menses and alcohol. Multi-organ failure may develop in severe pain episodes

GENITAL—priapism

HEPATOSPLENIC—splenic infarction, acute hepatic ischemia, hepatic or splenic sequestration crisis, iron overload (transfusions)

PULMONARY—restrictive lung disease (chronic interstitial fibrosis), obstructive lung disease, hypoxemia, pulmonary hypertension, fat embolism

ANEMIA—remember that sickle cell disease is associated with both acute and chronic anemia

INFECTIONS—sepsis (particularly asplenic patients), meningitis, pneumonia, osteomyelitis

Piel et al. *NEJM* 2017;376(16)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

(susceptible to Salmonella and Gram-negative osteomyelitis)

NEUROLOGIC—ischemic stroke, intracerebral hemorrhage, septic emboli, spinal cord infarction or compression, vestibular dysfunction, sensory hearing loss, cognitive failure

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, LDH, haptoglobin, smear (sickled red cells, polychromasia from reticulocytosis, Howell–Jolly bodies from hyposplenia), reticulocytes, RBC folate, Fe, ferritin, % saturation, transferrin, hemoglobin electrophoresis (identify subtypes), urinalysis
- MICROBIOLOGY—blood C&S, sputum Gram stain/AFB/C&S, urine C&S, stool C&S, O&P, Clostridioides difficile toxin A/B

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O₂, IV

- VASOOCCLUSIVE PAIN CRISIS—fluids, pain control (morphine, ketorolac)
- APLASTIC CRISIS—transfusions. Avoid GCSF
- SEQUESTRATION CRISIS—fluids, judicious transfusion if symptomatic anemia to avoid overload if trapped splenic blood re-enters circulation
- HEMOLYTIC CRISIS
- ACUTE CHEST SYNDROME (chest pain, pulmonary infiltrates, cough, progressive anemia, hypoxemia, with or without fever)—treat precipitating factor, fluids, pain control, transfusions (simple or exchange)
- PRIAPISM—hydration, analgesics, transfusions, urology consultation
- **PREOPERATIVELY**—transfuse to Hb 100 g/L [10 g/dL]

CHRONIC—interprofessional team, immunizations (Streptococcus pneumoniae, Haemophilus influenzae, Niesseria meningitidis, hepatitis B virus, and influenza), exchange transfusion (goal HbS<30%), hydroxyurea (increase levels of fetal Hb, decrease incidence of vasoocclusive pain), folic acid 1 mg PO daily; recent new FDA-approved treatments are L-glutamine (antioxidant), crizanlizumab (a monoclonal antibody to P-selectin that reduces leukocyte recruitment), and voxelotor (an antisickling compound)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

ASPLENIC PATIENTS—particularly susceptible to encapsulated bacteria (*S. pneumoniae*, *H. influenzae*, and *N. meningitidis*), *Capnocytophaga canimorsus*, Gram-negative enteric organisms, and babesiosis

 vaccinations—all patients should receive vaccinations against *H. influenzae*, pneumococcus, and meningococcus. Flu shot should be given annually and other immunizations repeated every 5 years

Neutropenia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

★PANIC★

POST-INFECTIOUS—sepsis

AUTOIMMUNE—drug induced, SLE, idiopathic NEOPLASTIC—lymphoproliferative disorders, myelodysplasia, leukemias, myelophthisis INFECTIONS—sepsis, HIV

INSUFFICIENCY—folate, vitamin B12

IATROGENIC—chemotherapy, chloramphenicol, trimethoprim–sulfamethoxazole, synthetic penicillins, phenytoin, carbamazepine, NSAIDs, gold, antithyroid medications, phenothiazines, clozapine

CONSUMPTION—hypersplenism

Related Topic

Febrile Neutropenia (p. 250)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF NEUTROPENIA—neutrophils $<1.5 \times 10^3/\mu L$, severe neutropenia if absolute neutrophil count (ANC) $<0.5 \times 10^3/\mu L$

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, peripheral smear, PTT, INR, AST, ALT, ALP

SPECIAL

- FURTHER WORKUP—bilirubin, fibrinogen, LDH, ANA, vitamin B12, RBC folate
- BONE MARROW BIOPSY

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- ANTIBIOTICS WITH FEVER—any fever in an asplenic patient should prompt self-administration of preprescribed antibiotics (*levofloxacin* 750 mg PO daily, *moxifloxacin* 400 mg PO daily, or *cefuroxime* 1 g PO daily). Patients should then seek medical advice urgently
- MEDICAL ALERT BRACELET

Gibson et al. *Blood* 2014;124(8)

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

GROWTH FACTORS—in some cases, the use of myeloid growth factors such as G-CSF or GM-CSF is appropriate

TREATMENT ISSUES

FEBRILE VS. NON-FEBRILE NEUTROPENIAthe presence of fever (>38.3 °C [>101 °F] or >38 °C [>100.4 °F] sustained >1 h) in a neutropenic patient is considered an emergency, as overwhelming sepsis can develop quickly. Patients with febrile neutropenia (see p. 250 for definition) require early evaluation, initiation of antibiotics, and potentially hospitalization. However, neutropenia alone without fever can usually be monitored on an outpatient basis. Isolation is usually not required, although patients should avoid the following: (1) being in contact with people with active infections, (2) consumption of uncooked meat/vegetables and unpasteurized dairy products and (3) exposure to fresh flowers or plants

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

BENIGN ETHNIC NEUTROPENIA—neutrophil counts in Africans, African Americans and middle-eastern Arabs are lower in a significant minority

Eosinophilia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

★PAIN★

PRIMARILY ORGAN-SPECIFIC DISORDERS

- PULMONARY—interstitial lung disease, AIDSrelated pneumonia, idiopathic eosinophilic pneumonia, drug-induced lung disease
- GASTROINTESTINAL—eosinophilic gastroenteritis, eosinophilic esophagitis, primary biliary cirrhosis, primary sclerosing cholangitis
- GENITOURINARY—acute interstitial nephritis, acute post-streptococcal glomerulonephritis, eosinophilic cystitis, eosinophilic prostatitis
- RHEUMATOLOGIC—eosinophilia—myalgia syndrome and idiopathic eosinophilic synovitis, eosinophilic granulomatosis with polyangiitis
- DERMATOLOGIC—eosinophilic panniculitis, episodic angioedema with eosinophilia, Kimura disease and angiolymphoid hyperplasia with eosinophilia, eosinophilic fasciitis, eosinophilic cellulitis, eosinophilic pustular folliculitis, recurrent cutaneous necrotizing eosinophilic vasculitis, eosinophilic ulcers of the oral mucosa

ALLERGIES

- NASAL—allergic rhinitis, asthma, nasal polyposis
- MEDICATIONS—Cytokine mediated (GM-CSF, IL-2), pulmonary (NSAIDs), gastroenteritis (NSAIDs), interstitial nephritis (penicillins, cephalosporins), necrotizing myocarditis (ranitidine), vasculitis (phenytoin, allopurinol), asymptomatic (ampicillin, penicillins, cephalosporins)

ADRENAL—adrenal insufficiency ATHEROEMBOLIC—cholesterol emboli INFECTIONS

- PARASITIC—angiostrongyliasis costaricensis, ascariasis, hookworm, strongyloidiasis, trichinosis
- FUNGAL—aspergillosis, coccidioidomycosis
- отнекя—chronic TB, scarlet fever, HIV related NEOPLASTIC
- HEMATOLOGIC—hypereosinophilic syndrome, Hodgkin lymphoma, non-Hodgkin lymphoma, mastocytosis
- SOLID TUMOR—large cell carcinoma (lung), squamous cell carcinoma (vagina, penis, skin, nasopharynx), adenocarcinoma (stomach, large bowel, uterine body), transitional cell carcinoma

Klion *Blood* 2015;126(9)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF EOSINOPHILIA—eosinophils >600/µL

EOSINOPHIL FUNCTION—eosinophils play an important role in both combating infections (especially parasitic) and allergic response, through the release of cytotoxic molecules, reactive oxygen species, and cytokines. Thus, common causes of eosinophilia include infections and allergies

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—dyspnea, chest pain, cough, sputum, diarrhea, rash, fever, lymphadenopathy, weight loss, night sweats, infectious contact, travel history, past medical history (allergic rhinitis, asthma), medications (NSAIDs, antibiotics, phenytoin, allopurinol), allergies

PHYSICAL—vitals (hypotension, fever), rash, weight loss, nasal, lymphadenopathy, respiratory examination, abdominal examination

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, peripheral smear, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, CK, ESR, C3, C4, ANCA, serology for parasites
- MICROBIOLOGY—blood C&S, urine C&S, stool C&S, stool O&P
- IMAGING—CXR, CT chest

SPECIAL

• вконсновсору—if pulmonary eosinophilia

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

PERIPHERAL EOSINOPHIL COUNTS—as eosinophils are primarily tissue dwelling, they are likely several hundred-fold more abundant in affected tissues than represented in peripheral blood. Furthermore, the development of an intercurrent bacterial or viral infection may lead to suppression of blood eosinophilia until the superimposed acute infection has resolved. Thus, elevated or even normal blood eosinophil counts in a febrile patient should prompt investigations for eosinophilia (e.g. adrenal insufficiency)

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—deworm (if parasites), stop offending drugs (if suspect

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

medication induced), **prednisone** (if unknown cause), **hydroxyurea or imatinib** (for idiopathic hypereosinophilic syndrome)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

PULMONARY EOSINOPHILIA

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—defined as ↑ eosinophils in blood with evidence of lung involvement, radiologically, through bronchoalveolar lavage or lung biopsy

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

CAUSES-infectious (Loeffler syndrome [Ascaris. hookworms, stronavloides], Paragonimus lung flukes, tropical pulmonary eosinophilia [Wuchereria bancrofti, Brugia malavil, coccidioidal), medications (NSAIDs, nitrofurantoin, ampicillin, minocycline, phenytoin, ranitidine), idiopathic (acute eosinophilic pneumonia, chronic eosinophilic pneumonia), others (eosinophilic granulomatosis with polyangiitis, allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis)

Thrombocytosis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PRIMARY (clonal thrombocytosis)—essential thrombocythemia, chronic myelogenous leukemia, polycythemia vera, myeloid metaplasia with or without myelofibrosis, prefibrotic myelofibrosis

SECONDARY (reactive)

- MALIGNANCY
- INFECTIONS
- CONNECTIVE TISSUE DISEASE
- DRUG REACTIONS—vincristine, all-trans-retinoic acid, cytokines, growth factors
- отнеяs—iron deficiency, acute blood loss, hemolytic anemia, rebound from thrombocytopenia, splenectomy

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION—platelets >450 × 10³/µL

Related Topic

Myeloproliferative Disorders (p. 185)

CLINICAL FEATURES

| DISTINGUISHING PRIMARY AND BOCYTOSIS | FEATURES SECONDAF | BETWEEN |
|--|----------------------|-----------|
| | Primary | Secondary |
| Underlying disease | Ν | Y |
| Digital ischemia/ CVA | Y | Ν |
| Thrombosis | Υ | Ν |
| Bleeding | Υ | Ν |

Rumi et al. *Blood* 2016;128(20) Rumi et al. *Blood* 2017;129(6)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

| | Primary | Secondary |
|-------------------|-----------|-----------|
| Splenomegaly | Y (40%) | Ν |
| Peripheral smear | Giant | Normal |
| | platelets | platelets |
| Platelet function | Abnormal | Normal |
| BM | ↑, giant | ↑, normal |
| megakaryocytes | | |

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, peripheral smear, PTT, INR, Fe, ferritin, TIBC, % sat, ESR (secondary cause), CRP (secondary cause)

SPECIAL

 BONE MARROW ASPIRATE AND BIOPSY WITH MUTA-TION ANALYSES OF JAK, MPL AND CALRETICULIN

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

IMPORTANT PEARL—remember that essential thrombocythemia often is a diagnosis of exclusion. Thus, it is important to consider and rule out iron deficiency, occult malignancy, and another myeloproliferative disorder before making this diagnosis

MANAGEMENT

ESSENTIAL THROMBOCYTHEMIA—observation if asymptomatic and low risk of thrombosis, defined as age <60 and no cardiovascular risk factors. For all others with platelet counts >450×10³/μL, use **ASA** 81 mg PO daily (low dose) plus **hydroxyurea** (or **anagrelide**) targeting normalization of the platelet count. When

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

the platelets are $>1,500 \times 10^3/\mu$ L, **plateletpheresis** must be started for active ischemia and can be considered for use in asymptomatic

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

patients at risk for coronary and/or cerebral ischemic events

SECONDARY CAUSES—treat underlying cause

Thrombocytopenia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PSEUDOTHROMBOCYTOPENIA—platelet clumping (usually due to EDTA-induced platelet activation, recollect with citrate)

DILUTIONAL—PRBC transfusion (at least 15–20 units), pregnancy

I PRODUCTION

- INFILTRATIVE—leukemia, MDS, bone marrow metastasis
- INFECTIONS—HIV, rubella, mumps, varicella, parvovirus, HCV, EBV, fungi, mycobacteria
- APLASIA—aplastic anemia, Fanconi anemia
- TOXINS—chemotherapy, radiation, alcohol
 B12/FOLATE DEFICIENCY

HYPERSPLENISM—congestive, reactive, infiltrative (see SPLENOMEGALY p. 184)

† DESTRUCTION

- IMMUNE THROMBOCYTOPENIC PURPURA—primary, secondary (lymphoma, CLL, HIV, SLE, Evans syndrome)
- ALLOIMMUNE—neonatal, post-transfusion, post-transplantation
- MICROANGIOPATHIC HEMOLYTIC ANEMIA—disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC), thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura (TTP), hemolytic uremic syndrome (HUS), HELLP syndrome, antiphospholipid antibody syndrome
- INFECTIONS—HIV, HEPC, EBV, CMV
- MEDICATIONS—heparin, GPIIb/Illa inhibitors, quinine, quinidine, valproic acid, thiazides, sulfonamides, rifampin, indomethacin, vancomycin, linezolid

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION—platelets $<150 \times 10^3/\mu$ L. However, an acute drop of 50%, even if the platelet count remains in the normal range, requires close monitoring and potential investigations

LIFE CYCLE—half-life of platelets is 8–10 days. One-third of the total body platelets is found in the spleen

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

BLEEDING RISK IN UNDER-PRODUCTION THROMBOCYTOPENIA

Platelet count

| (×10 ³ /μL) | Bleeding risk |
|------------------------|--------------------------|
| >100 | Minimal symptoms |
| 50–100 | Minor symptoms |
| 10–50 | Prone to bruises |
| <10 | Risk of spontaneous blee |
| | (intracranial bleed) |

NOTE—in destruction or sequestration thrombocytopenia, bleeding does not correlate with the magnitude of thrombocytopenia

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—mucocutaneous bleeding (epistaxis, petechiae, easy bruising), abdominal pain, bloody diarrhea, recent infections, fever, weight loss, past medical history (malignancy, HIV, ITP, alcohol), medications (heparin, GPIIb/IIIa inhibitors, quinine, ASA, NSAIDs)

PHYSICAL—vitals. Look for retinal bleed (fundoscopy), petechiae, and purpura. Check for lymphadenopathy and hepatosplenomegaly

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, peripheral smear, PTT, INR, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, fibrinogen, LDH, ANA, vitamin B12, RBC folate, D-dimer, HIV serology, hepatitis serology, Coombs test

SPECIAL

- HITT ASSAY—heparin-induced platelet aggregation assay, heparin–PF4 solid phase immunoassay, serotonin release assay
- BONE MARROW BIOPSY

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

SMEAR

- LARGE PLATELETS—destruction (ITP), sequestration
- schistocytes/FRAGMENTS—microangiopathic hemolytic anemia (DIC, TTP)

BONE MARROW BIOPSY

- DECREASED MEGAKARYOCYTES—underproduction
- INCREASED MEGAKARYOCYTES—destruction/ sequestration/MDS (5q- syndrome)

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL—in under-production thrombocytopenia, **transfuse** 5 U platelets if platelets $<50 \times 10^3/\mu$ L and severe bleeding, platelets $<10 \times 10^3/\mu$ L in non-bleeding patient, and prior to certain procedures (expect platelet rise of \sim 5/unit). 1-h post-transfusion platelet count can help differentiate under-production vs. destructive causes. Note that platelet transfusions are not effective in ITP and may worsen TTP/HUS and HITT **TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE**—**discontinue medications** that may cause thrombocytopenia (platelets return to normal in 7–14 days). Please refer to specific disorders below for details regarding treatment of each disease

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

MICROANGIOPATHIC HEMOLYTIC ANEMIA

(MAHA)—also called fragmentation hemolysis. Characterized by non-immune hemolytic anemia with schistocytosis. Causes include DIC, HELLP, TTP, HUS, malignancy, malignant hypertension, artificial heart valve, insertion of foreign bodies, and medications

DISSEMINATED COAGULATION (DIC)

INTRAVASCULAR

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—damage to endothelium → release of tissue factor → activation of coagulation cascade → intravascular coagulation and depletion of clotting factors
- CAUSES—trauma, shock, sepsis (Escherichia coli, N. meningitidis, malaria), neoplasm (lung, prostate, pancreatic), obstetrical (abruptio placentae, preeclampsia, amniotic fluid embolus)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—microangiopathic hemolytic anemia, thrombocytopenia, bleeding and/or thrombosis, ischemia. ↑ INR, ↑ PTT, ↓ fibrinogen (although it can be normal or even elevated in acute phase), ↑ D-dimers. Schistocytes on peripheral smear
- TREATMENTS—treat underlying cause and complications (hypoxia, dehydration, acidosis, acute renal failure). Replete coagulation

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

factors (FFP) and fibrinogen (cryoprecipitate) if deficient and bleeding. Anticoagulation if thrombosis (consider IV heparin 200–500 IU/h infusion)

THROMBOTIC THROMBOCYTOPENIC PURPURA (TTP)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY —↓ ADAMTS13 activity → failure to degrade unusually large multimers of vWF → agglutination of platelets → arteriolar thrombi → systemic ischemia of brain, kidneys, gut, and heart
- cause—autoantibody to ADAMTS13
- CLINICAL FEATURES—MAHA (100%), thrombocytopenia (90%), renal dysfunction, fever (90–100%), neurologic abnormalities (90%) with delirium, focal neurological deficit, seizure, coma. Schistocytes on peripheral smear
- TREATMENTS—full volume plasma exchange (plasmapheresis + FFP infusions), steroids, and rituximab if not resolving. Avoid platelet transfusion, ASA and antimotility agents. High mortality without treatment

George et al. NEJM 2014;371(7) HEMOLYTIC UREMIC SYNDROME (HUS)

- РАТНОРНУЅІОLOGY—exposure to Shiga toxin or defect in plasma factor H→ arteriolar thrombi→ predominantly renal involvement
- causes—E. coli 0157:H7
- CLINICAL FEATURES—MAHA (100%), thrombocytopenia (90%), renal dysfunction (90%). Schistocytes on peripheral smear
- TREATMENTS—supportive care only. Does not respond to plasma exchange. Avoid antibiotics unless patient septic

Related Topics

Anticoagulation Therapy (p. 179) Antiphospholipid Antibody Syndrome (p. 176) Thrombocytopenia in Pregnancy (p. 474)

HEPARIN-INDUCED THROMBOCYTOPENIA AND THROMBOSIS (HITT)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—type I (non-immune) happens within 2 days, mild drop in platelets, and return to normal by itself. Type 2 (immune) starts between days 4 and 14 (can present earlier if recent heparin exposure in past 1–3 months). It is usually more severe (platelet drop >50%) and has great clinical significance. Pathogenesis: heparin complexes with PF4

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

(from platelets) \rightarrow IgG against heparin–PF4 complex \rightarrow these megacomplexes bind to platelets and activate them, producing more PF4 \rightarrow platelet aggregation \rightarrow thrombosis

- causes—heparin, LMWH (much less likely)
- CLINICAL FEATURES (type II)—thrombocytopenia, thrombosis, ischemia
- TREATMENTS (type II)—stop heparin immediately and treat with danaparoid, lepirudin, argatroban, or fondaparinux until platelets return to normal. Begin warfarin when platelets >150 × 10³/µL and overlap warfarin with the alternative anticoagulant for 5 days (this reduces risk of venous limb gangrene). Avoid future heparin exposure except during CABG (performed at least 3 months after heparin exposure)

IMMUNE THROMBOCYTOPENIA (ITP)

- РАТНОРНУSIOLOGY—autoantibodies against platelets → isolated thrombocytopenia
- Associations—neoplasm (CLL, lymphoma), infections (HIV), autoimmune (SLE)
- DIAGNOSIS—isolated thrombocytopenia with an otherwise normal CBC and no obvious causes
- TREATMENTS—should be started when platelets <30×10³/μL. The goal of treatment is to support platelet counts until spontaneous remission occurs
 - URGENT SUPPORT—given to patients with active bleeding. *IVIG* 1 g/kg IV daily×1–2 days, which may increase the platelet count within days and lasts for a few weeks.

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

Dexamethasone 40 mg PO daily for 4 days (may require repeat course on day 10 if no improvement). **Platelet transfusions** are rarely effective, although they may provide temporary support for actively bleeding patients

- FIRST LINE—prednisone 1–2 mg/kg PO daily or dexamethasone 40 mg PO daily for 4 days (repeat on day 10 if no response). Platelet recovery occurs within 3 weeks in 2/3 of patients. If platelet count does not increase after 4 weeks of treatment, consider second line therapies
- SECOND LINE—rituximab, thrombopoietic agents (romiplostim, eltrombopag, avatrombopag), splenectomy (see p. 292)

Cooper et al. NEJM 2019;381(10) EVANS SYNDROME—ITP and autoimmune hemolytic anemia

DRUG-INDUCED IMMUNE THROMBOCYTO-PENIA—patients usually present with severe thrombocytopenia (platelets $<20 \times 10^3/\mu$ L). With the exception of platelet inhibitors, there is usually 5–7 days between initiation of drug therapy and platelet drop if patient is receiving the medication for the first time. Treatment consists of discontinuation of offending (or all) drugs and platelet transfusions as needed

Aster et al. NEJM 2007;357(6)

Pancytopenia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

★PANIC★

PAROXYSMAL NOCTURNAL HEMOGLO-BINURIA (PNH)

• ↑ COMPLEMENT-MEDIATED RED CELL LYSIS

APLASTIC ANEMIA

• IDIOPATHIC (50%)

- INFECTIONS—EBV, CMV, parvovirus, hepatitis
- FANCONI ANEMIA
- DRUG INDUCED—chemotherapy, gold
- тохімя—alcohol

NEOPLASTIC—leukemia (AML, CLL), MDS, bone marrow metastasis

INFECTIONS—sepsis, TB, parvovirus, fungal INSUFFICIENCY—folate, vitamin B12

IATROGENIC—chemotherapy

CONSUMPTION—hypersplenism, immunemediated destruction

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, peripheral smear, B12, RBC folate, HIV test, Coombs test

SPECIAL

- BONE MARROW BIOPSY—if suspect aplastic anemia or malignancy
- FLOW CYTOMETRY—if suspect PNH. Historically, sucrose hemolysis test was used for screening, followed by Ham acid hemolysis test for diagnosis. Currently, blood flow cytometry is used to measure the expression of the complement regulatory proteins CD55 and CD59, which are deficient on blood cells in PNH

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

PRE-MEDS FOR BONE MARROW BIOPSY morphine 2.5–5 mg IV, lorazepam 1 mg SL, lidocaine 2.5%/prilocaine 2.5% cream rarely needed

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

APLASTIC ANEMIA

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—precipitants (e.g. parvovirus, drugs) → T-cell subsets produce local concentrations of INFγ → ↑ Fas on CD34+ cells (maturing stem cells) → apoptosis → severe

Bleeding Diathesis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

★PVC★ platelets, vessels, coagulopathy EXTRINSIC PATHWAY (isolated PT/INR ↑)

- FACTOR DEFICIENCY OR INHIBITOR—VII OF X
- VITAMIN K DEFICIENCY—malnutrition, pancreatic insufficiency, recent antibiotic use, warfarin use (early stage)
- LIVER DISEASE
- EARLY DIC

INTRINSIC PATHWAY (isolated PTT ↑)

- FACTOR DEFICIENCY—X-linked deficiency of factor VIII (hemophilia A) or factor IX (hemophilia B). Autosomal deficiency of factor XI, especially among Ashkenazi Jews (8% are carriers)
- VON WILLEBRAND DISEASE
- FACTOR INHIBITORS—lupus anticoagulant due to APA; acquired hemophilia due to an inhibitor to factor VIII
- HEPARIN USE

COMMON PATHWAY (PT ↑, PTT ↑)

- FACTOR DEFICIENCY—X, V, II, I
- VITAMIN к DEFICIENCY—malnutrition, pancreatic insufficiency, recent antibiotic use
- LIVER DISEASE
- DIC

PLATELET DYSFUNCTION (mucocutaneous bleeding with normal PT, PTT, and platelet count; bleeding time sometimes ↑)

 INHERITED—Bernard–Soulier syndrome, Glanzmann thrombasthenia, storage pool disease

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- pancytopenia and hypocellular marrow. Complications include paroxysmal nocturnal hemoglobinuria, acute leukemia, and MDS
- TREATMENTS—corticosteroids, antithymocyte globulin, cyclosporine, eltrombopag, stem cell transplant

Bacigalupo Blood 2017;129(11) FANCONI ANEMIA—hereditary form of aplastic anemia that usually affects children but occasionally presents in adults. The main features include pancytopenia, hyperpigmentation, skeletal malformation, small stature, and hypogonadism

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

 ACQUIRED—renal failure, liver failure, myeloproliferative disorders, paraproteinemia, autoantibodies, DIC, acquired storage pool disease from extracorporeal circulation

VESSELS—collagen vascular disease, scurvy, hereditary hemorrhagic telangiectasia

NOTE—INR = international normalized ratio, helps to standardize interpretation of PT

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

HEMOSTASIS

- PRIMARY HEMOSTASIS—endothelium, platelets
- secondary hemostasis—coagulation proteins

PLATELET ACTIVATION PATHWAY

- 1. Collagen binds to GPla/lla on platelet membrane, also binds to GPlb/IX via vWF
- Platelet becomes activated by agonist binding (thrombin, adenosine diphosphate, epinephrine, collagen)
- Secretion of δ granules (serotonin, ADP) and α granules (vWF, growth factors, factor V, factor X, fibrinogen)
- Conformational change → phospholipids become available for factors V and VIII binding
- Platelet aggregation (unstable) by vWF and fibrinogen binding to the activated GPIIb/ Illa complex
- Platelet fibrin clot formation—fibrin–fibrin crosslinked by factor XIII and platelet–fibrin via GPIIb/IIIa

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

ANTICOAGULATION PATHWAYS

- Antithrombin binds to thrombin and inhibits it
- Thrombin binds to thrombomodulin, which activates protein C and S to cleave factors Va and VIIIa
- 3. Factor Xa → tPA (by endothelial cells) → plasmin → fibrinolysis

COAGULATION FACTOR PEARLS

- SYNTHESIZED IN LIVER—factors I, II, V, VII, VIII, IX, X, XI, XII, protein C, S, AT-III, plasminogen
- VITAMIN к DEPENDENT—factors II, VII, IX, X, protein C, S
- SYNTHESIZED IN ENDOTHELIAL CELLS AND MEGAKARYOCYTES—VWF

COAGULATION PATHWAY

| Intrinsic | Extrinsic |
|--------------|-------------------------|
| pathway | pathway |
| (PTT) | (INR) |
| XII | Tissue damage |
| | \checkmark |
| \downarrow | Endothelial damage with |
| XI | tissue factor expressed |
| \downarrow | \checkmark |
| IX | VII |
| avili | K |
| | X |
| aγ | k |
| $\sum C$ | I (Prothrombin) |
| / . | k |
| Fil | orin |
| → ÞXIII | k |
| Cross lir | ked fibrin |

^aNon-enzymatic cofactors; ^bFactor XIII is called "fibrin-stabilizing factor" because it covalently cross-links fibrin polymers and strengthens the clot

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

FACTORS VII AND VIII ARE SPECIAL

- FACTOR VII—shortest half-life (5–7 h). Decreased factor VII results in INR ↑. Thus, INR can help to detect *early* stages of liver failure, DIC, vitamin K deficiency, and warfarin use
- FACTOR VIII—part of coagulation cascade and has von Willebrand factor (vWF, synthesized by endothelial cells) as carrier in plasma. Thus, von Willebrand disease (vWD) leads to ↓ factor VIII

CLINICAL FEATURES

BLEEDING SYNDROMES

- PLATELET DYSFUNCTION—skin/mucous membrane (petechiae, purpura, small/superficial ecchymosis, epistaxis, gingival bleed, menorrhagia), immediate bleeding
- coagulation factors—joints/muscles (hemarthroses, muscle hematomas, large/palpable ecchymosis), delayed bleeding

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, peripheral smear, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, albumin, PT/INR, PTT, D-dimer, fibrinogen

SPECIAL

- HEPZYME STUDY—to remove heparin from blood samples to distinguish if isolated elevation of PTT is spurious
- 50:50 MIXING STUDY—to distinguish between factor deficiency vs. inhibitors (factor deficiency corrects with mixing study)
- неморніція workup—factors VIII, IX, XI
- ΑΝΤΙΡΗΟSPHOLIPID ΑΝΤΙΒΟDY SYNDROME WORKUP—lupus anticoagulant screen, anticardiolipin antibody, dilute Russell viper venom time, anti-β2 glycoprotein 1 antibody
- VON WILLEBRAND DISEASE WORKUP—VON Willebrand factor (vWF) antigen level, factor VIII level, ristocetin cofactor activity, ristocetin-induced platelet aggregation
- PLATELET DISORDER WORKUP—bleeding time, platelet aggregometry
- муеLOMA workup—serum protein electrophoresis
MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O₂, IV, transfusion 2 U PRBC IV over 2 h, transfusion platelets 6 U, FFP 15 mL/kg, cryoprecipitate 10–15 U q48h for fibrinogen deficiency

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—avoid anticoagulants. Vitamin K deficiency (vitamin K 10 mg PO/IV daily × 3 days). vWD type I (DDAVP 0.3 μg/kg SC, intermediate purity factor VIII)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

VON WILLEBRAND DISEASE (VWD)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—VWF acts as a linker between platelets and endothelium and also serves as carrier for factor VIII. Thus, vWD deficiency may lead to decrease in factor VIII levels
- CLINICAL FEATURES—platelet disorder with bruising, skin or mucosal bleeding, and heavy menstrual cycles for most subtypes except type IIN, which manifests as hemophilia with soft tissue, joint, and urinary bleeding
- DIAGNOSIS—Ristocetin cofactor activity (RCo, assesses capacity of plasma vWF to sup-

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

port ristocetin-induced aggregation of control platelets), **collagen binding activity** (assesses vWF binding to collagen), vWF antigen (non-functional assay that quantifies vWF), **vWF multimer assay** (agarose gel to determine the size of multimers), **ristocetininduced platelet aggregation** (assesses vWF binding to platelets in patients' plateletrich plasma)

 TREATMENTS—DDAVP 0.3 µg/kg by IV infusion or 300 µg one spray each nasal for type I patients. vWF concentrates containing all vWF multimers may be used for type II and III and for bleeding and surgical management of type 1 patients

BERNARD–SOULIER SYNDROME—mutation of GPIb/IX/V (platelet receptor for vWF)

GLANZMANN THROMBASTHENIA—mutation of GPIIb/IIIa (platelet receptor for fibrinogen) STORAGE POOL DISEASE—defect in releasing platelet granules

| VWD | Inheritance | Pathophysiology |
|------------|--|---|
| I IIA | Heterozygous mutations Autosomal dominant/ recessive | Mild to moderate quantitative ↓ of all multimers ↓ activity of vWF due to decrease in large multimers of vWF (synthesis of active forms in platelet adhesion) |
| IIB | Autosomal dominant | Same as IIa except decrease due to large multimer vWF adherence to platelets |
| IIN III | Autosomal recessive Homozygous mutations | \downarrow vWF affinity for factor VIII, similar to hemophilia Complete absence of vWF |

| VWD | vWF:Ag | vWF:RCo | vWF multimer | RIPA |
|-----|------------------------|------------------------|-------------------|------------------------|
| 1 | \downarrow | \downarrow | ↓ all multimers | \downarrow |
| IIA | ↓ or N | \downarrow | ↓ large multimers | ↓ or N |
| IIB | ↓ or N | \downarrow | ↓ large multimers | 1 |
| IIN | Normal | \downarrow | Normal | Normal |
| III | $\downarrow\downarrow$ | $\downarrow\downarrow$ | ↓↓ undetectable | $\downarrow\downarrow$ |

Hypercoagulable States

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

COAGULATION FACTORS

- INHERITED DEFICIENCY OF NATURAL ANTICOAGU-LANTS—protein S, protein C, antithrombin III
- INHERITED MUTATIONS THAT INCREASE PROCOAGU-LANT ACTIVITY—factor V Leiden, prothrombin G20210A mutations
- ACQUIRED EXCESSIVE PROTHROMBOTIC ACTIVITY— HITT, DIC, TTP, HUS, PNH, APA, and nephrotic syndrome (reduced antithrombin III)

VASCULAR DAMAGE—vasculitis, sepsis, trauma, surgery, cancer (Trousseau syndrome, lymphoproliferative disease)

STASIS/IMMOBILITY—bed rest, pregnancy, air travel, leg cast

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

RISK FACTORS FOR VENOUS THROMBOEMBOLISM

- coagulation factors—excess, mutation (factor V Leiden, prothrombin), deficiency (protein S, protein C, antithrombin III, plasminogen, tissue plasminogen activator)
- NEOPLASTIC—solid tumors, myeloproliferative, leukemia
- отнеяs—immobilization, surgery, congestive heart failure, oral contraceptives, hormone replacement therapy, pregnancy, nephrotic syndrome

RISK FACTORS FOR ARTERIAL THROM-BOEMBOLISM

- ATHEROSCLEROSIS—hypertension, diabetes, smoking
- Емвоис—AF, atrial myxoma, endocarditis, cholesterol emboli, MI with ventricular thrombosis, paradoxical embolism
- others—SLE

RISK FACTORS FOR ARTERIAL AND VENOUS THROMBOEMBOLISM

- FACTORS—dysfibrinogenemia, plasminogen activator deficiency
- PLATELET DEFECTS—myeloproliferative disorders, HITT, PNH
- HYPERVISCOSITY—polycythemia vera, Waldenström macroglobulinemia, cryoglobulinemia, sickle cell disease

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

отнекs—antiphospholipid antibody syndrome, vasculitis, paradoxical embolism

Connors et al. NEJM 2017;377(12) FACTOR V LEIDEN—mutation that resists cleavage by activated protein C. Most common hereditary form of thrombophilia (3–4% general population)

THROMBOPHILIC MUTATIONS—homozygous factor V Leiden or prothrombin gene mutation or combine heterozygous factor V leiden/ prothrombin mutations > antithrombin III, > protein S, protein C > heterozygous factor V Leiden > heterozygous prothrombin gene mutation in terms of risk of thrombosis

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, PT, INR, activated protein C resistance, factor V Leiden, prothrombin G20210A, anticardiolipin antibody, antibeta2 glycoprotein I antibody, lupus anticoagulant, homocysteine, protein C, protein S, antithrombin III, fibrinogen, urinalysis

Related Topics

Anticoagulation Therapy (p. 179) DVT (p. 177) Pulmonary Embolism (p. 12)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

INDICATIONS FOR HYPERCOAGULABILITY WORKUP—testing for inherited thrombophilia is not routinely warranted in a patient with first episode unprovoked VTE. However, there may be a benefit to investigating patients with a family history of VTE, unusual thrombosis (hepatic, portal, mesenteric, or cerebral veins), recurrent thromboembolism, or arterial thrombosis

THROMBOPHILIA WORKUP AFTER ACUTE THROMBOSIS OR DURING ANTICOAGULATION—acute VTE and anticoagulants can affect thrombophilia testing

[•] IMAGING—CXR

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

| Hypercoagulable Disorder | Acute Thrombosis | Heparin Anticoagulation | Warfarin Anticoagulation | Direct Oral Anticoagulation |
|-------------------------------|---------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|--|
| Anti-thrombin deficiency | Ļ | Ļ | - | - |
| Anti-phospholipid syndrome | - | - | - | - |
| Lupus anticoagulant | - | Cannot measure | False positive | False positive with direct Xa inhibitors |
| Factor V Leiden | - | - | - | - |
| Protein C and S | \downarrow | - | Cannot measure | - |
| Prothrombin gene mutation | - | - | - | - |
| Draw protein C and | S prior to warfari | n therapy | | |

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O_2 to keep sat >94%, IV, consider thrombolysis for systolic BP <90 mmHg for >15 min

ANTICOAGULATION—see Approach to Anticoagulation Therapies Table (see p. 179). For cancer patients, extended anticoagulation is generally considered

IVC FILTER—when anticoagulation is contraindicated; use a retrievable filter if the contraindication is temporary

TREATMENT ISSUES

WARFARIN USE AND PROTEIN C DEFICIENCY—patients with protein C deficiency given warfarin may be susceptible to transient hypercoagulable state (coumadin necrosis). This can be avoided by overlapping heparin with warfarin for 5 days (with minimum 48 h therapeutic INR overlap)

PRIMARY PROPHYLAXIS OF THROMBOEMBOLISM IN HOSPITALIZED MEDICAL PATIENTS

- INDICATIONS—patients on the medical service >40-years old, have limited mobility for ≥3 days, and have at least one of following risk factors
 - conditions—acute infectious disease, congestive heart failure, acute myocardial infarction, acute respiratory disease, stroke, rheumatic disease, inflammatory bowel disease, cancer

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- CLINICAL CHARACTERISTIC—previous venous thromboembolism, older age (especially >75), recent surgery or trauma, immobility or paresis, BMI >30 kg/m², inherited or acquired thrombophilic states, varicose veins, estrogen therapy
- INTERVENTIONS—early ambulation and exercises involving foot extension for all patients. Specific prophylaxis regimens include *heparin* 5,000 U SC q8h, *enoxaparin* 40 mg SC daily, *dalteparin* 5,000 U SC daily, *tinzaparin* 75 units/kg SC daily, *fondaparinux* 2.5 mg SC daily, or *rivaroxaban* 10 mg PO daily. For patients at high risk for bleeding, consider nonpharmacologic measures such as graduated compression stockings and pneumatic compression devices

RISK REDUCTION BY ANTICOAGULATION

- ACUTE VTE—without anticoagulation, the risk for recurrent VTE in the next month is 50%. Anticoagulation ↓ risk to 8–10% during months 2 and 3 and 4–5% per month after 3 months
- UNPROVOKED VTE—recurrent DVT risk 10%/year during the first 2 years after stopping anticoagulation. Anticoagulation ↓ risk to <3%/year
- VTE IN PATIENTS WITH CANCER—risk of recurrence at 6 months on anticoagulation is 3–9%. Risk of recurrence for patients with active cancer and/

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

or receiving therapy in the first year after stopping anticoagulation is about 20%

- AF WITH PREVIOUS STROKE—stroke risk 12%/year. Anticoagulation ↓ risk to < 4%/year
- AF WITH OTHER RISK FACTORS—stroke risk ≤8%/ year. Anticoagulation ↓ risk to <2%/year
- LONE AF—recurrent stroke risk 1–2%/year. Anticoagulation ↓ risk to < 1%/year

MECHANICAL HEART VALVE—recurrent arterial embolic risk 4%/year. Warfarin \downarrow risk to < 1%/ year. Mitral valve prostheses 2 × risk of aortic valve prostheses. INR 2–3 for bileaflet or tilting disc mechanical valves and 2.5–3.5 for caged-ball or caged-disc valves

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

ANTIPHOSPHOLIPID ANTIBODY SYNDROME (APS)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY antibody against phospholipids or cell surface proteins bound to anionic phospholipids. These include lupus anticoagulants, anticardiolipin antibody (false-positive VDRL), and anti-β2-glycoprotein 1 antibody → hypercoagulable state by stimulating complement activation on endothelium
- causes—primary APS, secondary APS (various rheumatic diseases such as SLE and infections such as HIV and drugs)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—venous and arterial thrombosis and rarely hemorrhage affecting the lungs, heart, CNS, GI, kidneys, skin, and eyes. Also recurrent fetal losses (recurrent first trimester or single late term), thrombocytopenia, and livedo reticularis
- DIAGNOSIS—clinical criteria include thrombosis (≥1 arterial, venous, or small-vessel thrombosis in any organ) or pregnancy complications (≥1 unexplained deaths of morphologically normal fetus at or after the 10th week of gestation, ≥1 premature births of morphologically normal neonate at or before the 34th week of gestation, or ≥3 unexplained consecutive spontaneous abortions before the 10th week of gestation). Laboratory criteria include anticardiolipin or anti-β2-glycoprotein 1 antibodies (IgG or IgM at moderate or high levels on ≥2 occasions at least 6 weeks apart)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

or the presence of a lupus anticoagulant (≥ 2 occasions at least 6 weeks apart). Diagnosis requires at least one clinical and one laboratory criterion (sens 70%, spc 98%)

- CATASTROPHIC ANTIPHOSPHOLIPID SYNDROME acute and devastating syndrome with multiple simultaneous vascular occlusions throughout the body, affecting mainly small vessels of kidney, lungs, CNS, heart, and skin. May be associated with DIC, ARDS, cerebral and myocardial microinfarctions. May be precipitated by infections, surgery, and withdrawal of anticoagulation. Treatment consists of a combination of anticoagulation, steroids, plasmapheresis, and/or IVIG. Mortality rate is 50%
- TREATMENTS—primary prophylaxis for thrombosis is not indicated in persons with incidentally discovered antiphospholipid antibodies or lupus anticoagulants. Treatment of thromboses (both venous and arterial) is indefinite anticoagulation with warfarin (if high risk triple positive APS) or a direct acting oral anticoagulant or warfarin (all others). See p. 475 for management of APS in pregnancy

Garcia et al. NEJM 2018;378(21) PAROXYSMAL NOCTURNAL HEMOGLOBINURIA (PNH)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—mutation in PIG-A gene coding for GPI anchor → ↓ GPI-linked proteins such as CD59 (membrane attack complex inhibitory factor) and CD55 (decay accelerating factor) → complement-mediated lysis of RBC → acute renal failure due to hemoglobinuria, chronic renal failure due to iron deposits. Also ↑ platelet activation and endothelial injury due to complement activation, ↑ tissue factor, ↓ fibrinolysis → ↑ thrombosis
- CLINICAL FEATURES—hemolysis, venous thrombosis (hepatic vein, portal vein, splenic vein, renal vein), arterial thrombosis (rarer), marrow aplasia, MDS, leukemia, infections, esophageal spasm, sexual dysfunction
- DIAGNOSIS—flow cytometry, historically, Ham test (RBC sensitivity to acidity)
- TREATMENTS—steroids, eculizumab (anticomplement factor 5a), stem cell transplant

Deep Vein Thrombosis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

LOCATION—DVT typically originates in the venous sinuses of the calf muscles and occasionally the proximal veins. While most calf vein thrombi lyse spontaneously, ~15% extend into proximal veins within 2 weeks

COMPLICATIONS—clot extension, pulmonary embolism, recurrent thrombosis, post-thrombotic syndrome, chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, PTT, INR, D-dimer, fibrinogen, AST, ALT, ALP, bili
- IMAGING—Doppler/compression US (sens 95%, spc 95%)

SPECIAL

- THROMBOPHILIA WORKUP—if there is a family history of thrombosis, consider activated protein C resistance, factor V Leiden, prothrombin G20210A, antithrombin III, protein C, and protein S
- PREGNANCY TEST—in female <50
- VENOGRAM—gold standard

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

COMPRESSION US—high sensitivity (95%) and specificity (95%) for DVT. US of calf veins is not routinely performed because of lower sensitivity (70%). Rather, US of thigh (deep veins) is usually repeated in 2 weeks after a normal test to detect the possible extension of DVT from calf into proximal veins

Related Topics

Anticoagulation Therapy (p. 179) Hypercoagulable States (p. 174) Pulmonary Embolism (p. 12)

Kearon et al. *Blood* 2020;135(5)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE DEEP VEIN THROMBOSIS?

WELLS CRITERIA FOR DVT—alternative diagnosis more or as likely (-2), recent paralysis/ paresis/plaster immobilization (+1), recent bedridden >3 days or major surgery <4 weeks (+1), localized tenderness along deep venous system (+1), calf swelling by more than 3 cm at 10 cm below tibial tuberosity (+1), pitting edema greater in symptomatic leg (+1), collateral nonvaricose superficial veins (+1), active cancer (+1)

D-DIMER UTILITY FOR DVT BASED ON WELLS CRITERIA

| | Sens | Spc | LR+ | LR– |
|---------------|------|-----|-----|------|
| Low risk | 88% | 72% | 3.3 | 0.18 |
| Moderate risk | 90% | 58% | 2.1 | 0.19 |
| High risk | 92% | 45% | 1.6 | 0.16 |

POST-TEST PROBABILITY OF DVT USING HIGH SENSITIVITY D-DIMER ASSAY

- LOW RISK (0 or less points)—0.5% chance of DVT. If age-adjusted D-dimer (for patients >50 years, a D-dimer that is less than 10 × the patient's age) is negative, can exclude DVT
- MODERATE RISK (1–2 points)—1% chance of DVT. Workup may or may not be needed
- ніся кізк (3 or greater points)—8.6% chance of DVT. D-dimer testing not useful. Proceed to compression US or impedance plethysmography → serial studies → venogram
- APPROACH—"Diagnostic accuracy for DVT improves when clinical probability is estimated before diagnostic tests. Patients with low clinical probability on the predictive rule have prevalence of DVT of less than 5%. In low-probability patients with negative D-dimer results, diagnosis of DVT can be excluded without ultrasound; in patients with high clinical suspicion for DVT, results should not affect clinical decisions."

Wells et al. JAMA 2006;295(2) Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination. McGraw-Hill; 2009 Le Gal et al. JAMA 2015;313(16)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

THROMBOPHILIA WORKUP—testing for antiphospholipid syndrome should be done in all patients with unprovoked VTE as it will be a predisposing factor in ~10% of these patients Routine testing for inherited thrombophilias of hypercoagulable states (e.g. protein S, C, antithrobmin, factor V Leiden, prothrombin mutations) is not recommended; however, if there is a family history, a hereditary cause should be tested for. Other alarm features that warrant testing include age <45 years or clot in an unusual location (mesenteric vessels, brain)

MALIGNANCY WORKUP—basic screening includes history and physical, CXR, CBC, LFTs, calcium, and U/A. Consider CT abdomen and pelvis for those >40 years. Consider mammography for women >40 years

PROTEIN S AND PROTEIN C DEFICIENCY WHILE ANTICOAGULATED—when anticoagulated, these levels decrease by similar proportion to II, VII, IX and X

MANAGEMENT

ANTICOAGULATION—see Approach to Anticoagulation Therapies Table (p. 179)

IVC FILTER—if anticoagulation contraindicated THROMBOLYSIS—*alteplase* 100 mg infused over 2 h is the default intervention for hemodynamically unstable pulmonary embolism (SBP <90 mmHg for 15 min). Do not use systemic thrombolytic therapy for patients with a history of stroke, recent surgery, recent bleeding, thrombocytopenia or coagulopathy. For these patients, try to arrange mechanical thrombectomy

TREATMENT ISSUES

ANTICOAGULATION DURATION

- 3-6 MONTHS—first DVT with reversible or timelimited risk factor removed (i.e. estrogen therapy, pregnancy, surgery)
- 6-12 монтня—unprovoked or idiopathic VTE
- INDEFINITE—recurrent idiopathic DVT or continuing major risk factor (malignancy, antithrombin III deficiency, homozygous factor V Leiden, homozygous prothrombin G20210A, heterozygous factor V Leiden plus prothrombin G20210A)

CONTRAINDICATIONS TO ANTICOAGULA-TION THERAPY

 ABSOLUTE—neurosurgery, ocular surgery, or intracranial bleeding within the past 5 days,

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

active bleeding, severe bleeding diathesis, thrombocytopenia (<20,000/µL)

 RELATIVE—mild-moderate bleeding diathesis, brain metastases from melanoma, renal cell carcinoma, choriocarcinoma and thyroid cancers, recent major trauma, major abdominal surgery <2 days, Gl or GU bleeding <2 weeks, endocarditis, severe hypertension (>200/120 mmHg)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

SUPERFICIAL THROMBOPHLEBITIS—characterized by painful, erythematous, palpable cord along a superficial vein usually in the lower extremity, can be associated with hypercoagulable states. 25% will have synchronous ipsilateral DVT and a new DVT develops within 3 months in 10%; treat with prophylactic dose anticoagulation for 45 days

CATHETER RELATED THROMBOSIS

- INCIDENCE—approximately 5% for symptomatic CRT and 15% for asymptomatic CRT; usually within the first 100 days after placement
- RISK FACTORS—in addition to traditional risk factors (e.g. cancer), left subclavian vein placement, positioning of catheter tip too high in the superior vena cava and previous catheter infections
- CLINICAL FEATURES—often asymptomatic. However, patients may experience arm swelling, erythema, pain, warmth, development of collateral vessels and fever. Acute PE, post thrombotic syndrome and persistent vascular compromise represent potential complications
- DIAGNOSIS—ultrasound (sens 78–100%, spc 86–100%). Venogram is gold standard but rarely done
- TREATMENTS—if catheter is still needed (e.g. for chemotherapy administration), consider continuing anticoagulation for at least 3 months after catheter removal. Note that in serious cases in which the limb may be threatened or if anticoagulation is contraindicated, catheter may need to be removed regardless. If no need for catheter, consider anticoagulation for 3–5 days, then remove catheter, and then anticoagulate for up to 3 months. Primary prophylaxis is not indicated

Rajasekhar et al. Blood 2017;129(20)

Approach to Anticoagulation Therapies

Please refer to manufacturer insert for dosing instructions

| Class/Drugs | Mechanism | Indications | Usual dose | monitoring |
|---|---|--|---|--|
| Warfarin | Inhibition of gamma carboxylation by inhibition of the vitamin K-dependent epoxide reductase. Inhibits hepatic synthesis of vitamin K-dependent factors (II, VII, IX, X, protein S, protein C) | DVT/PE Atrial fibrillation Prosthetic valves | Warfarin 5 mg PO daily overlapping with heparin for 5 days, then adjust based on INR target of 2–3 | COMPLICATIONS— bleeding (may be reversed with vitamin K), coumadin-induced skin necrosis MONITOR—INR |
| Unfractionated heparin | INDIRECT THROMBIN AND FACTOR XA INHIBITOR (NONSELECTIVE). Binds to antithrombin (AT) and converts it from a slow form to fast-acting form, which binds and inactivates thrombin and factors Xa, IXa, Xla, Xlla Heparin resistance is usually due to AT deficiency and could be treated with AT concentrates | Acute DVT/PE Arterial embolism Prosthetic valves ACS DVT prophylaxis | For acute DVT/PE, unfractionated heparin 80 U/kg or 5,000 U IV bolus, then 18 U/kg/h or 1,000 U/h, and adjust to $1.5-2.5 \times$ normal PTT For DVT prophylaxis, unfractionated heparin 5,000 U SC 2 h before surgery, then 5,000 U SC TID | COMPLICATIONS— bleeding (may be reversed by protamine 1 mg/100 U UFH), HITT, osteoporosis MONTTOR—aPTT (1.5–2.5 × normal) and platelets. Narrow therapeutic window and highly variable dose-response curve |
| Low molecular weight heparin: Enoxaparin Dalteparin Tinzaparin | INDIRECT FACTOR XA INHIBITOR (RELATIVELY SELECTIVE). Binds to AT and converts it from a slow form to fast acting form, which binds and inactivates factor Xa, and to a smaller extent, thrombin. Inactivation of thrombin specifically requires heparin binding to <i>both</i> AT and thrombin. This complex only forms with heparin chains ≥18-saccharide long. Thus, LMWH is not as effective in inhibiting thrombin and does not prolong aPTT | Acute DVT/PE Maintenance DVT/ PE in cancer patients Arterial embolism Prosthetic valves ACS DVT prophylaxis | For acute DVT/PE, enoxaparin 1 mg/kg SC BID or 1.5 mg/kg SC daily, dalteparin 200 U/kg SC daily, tinzaparin 175 U/kg SC daily. For DVT prophylaxis, enoxaparin 40 mg SC daily × 7-14 days starting 12 h pre-op, dalteparin 2500 U SC 1 h pre-op, then 5000 U SC daily × 5-14 days | COMPLICATIONS— bleeding (may be reversed partially with <i>protamine</i> <i>sulfate</i> 1 mg/100 anti-Xa U of LMWH), HITT, avoid in spinal surgery MONITOR—anti-factor Xa activity and platelets. Anticoagulant response correlates well with body weight, allowing fixed dosing without monitoring usually. Less likely to induce HITT but still requires platelet monitoring |

| Class/Drugs | Mechanism | Indications | Usual dose | Complications/ monitoring |
|---|--|---|--|---|
| Heparinoids: Danaparoid (organon) | INDIRECT FACTOR XA INHIBITOR (SELECTIVE). Mixture of heparin sulfate, dermatan sulfate, and chondroitin sulfate. Inhibits thrombin via a combination of AT (heparin cofactor I), heparin cofactor I, and some undefined mechanism. aPTT not useful for monitoring | HITT Acute DVT | For HITT, <i>danaparoid</i> 2,000 anti-factor Xa U IV bolus, then 200 U/h, titrate to plasma anti-Xa level of 0.5–0.8 U/mL. For acute DVT, if thrombosis <5 days old, IV bolus of 1,250–1,500 U if ≤55 kg, 2,250–2,500 U if 55–90 kg, and 3,750 U if >90 kg; if thrombosis ≥5 days old, IV bolus 1250 U. After IV bolus, give maintenance IV infusion or SC injections | COMPLICATIONS— bleeding MONITOR—anti-factor Xa activity. Particularly important in renal failure. 10% cross-reactivity between danaparoid and the antibody responsible for HITT, but clinical significance is uncertain |
| Fondaparinux | INDIRECT FACTOR XA INHIBITOR (HIGHLY SELECTIVE). Similar to LMWH, but only a pentasaccharide that binds strongly to AT and inactivates factor Xa. Complex does not bind thrombin due to short length | DVT prophylaxis Acute DVT/PE Acute coronary syndrome HITT (no cross reactivity with heparin- dependent anti-platelet antibodies) | For DVT prophylaxis, fondaparinux 2.5 mg SC daily (start 6–8 h after surgical hemostasis). For acute DVT/PE, fondaparinux 5 mg SC daily for weight <50 kg, 7.5 mg SC daily for weight 50–100 kg, 10 mg SC daily for weight >100 kg | COMPLICATIONS— bleeding; avoid in spinal surgery MONITOR—anti-factor Xa activity |
| Oral direct factor Xa inhibitor: <i>Rivaroxaban</i> <i>Apixaban</i> <i>Edoxaban</i> | DIRECT FACTOR XA INHIBITOR (HIGHLY SELECTIVE). Inhibits factor Xa by binding to its active site without interacting with AT | DVT prophylaxis VTE treatment (except if hemodynamically unstable or massive PE) Atrial fibrillation | For DVT prophylaxis, rivaroxaban 10 mg PO daily or apixaban 2.5 mg PO BID; For acute VTE, rivaroxaban 15 mg PO BID for 3 weeks followed by 20 mg PO daily, apixaban 10 mg PO BID for 7 days followed by 5 mg PO BID; or edoxaban 60 mg PO daily for 5 days after LMWH induction. For atrial fibrillation, rivaroxaban 20 mg PO daily, apixaban 5 mg PO BID, or edoxaban 60 mg PO daily | COMPLICATIONS— bleeding MONITOR—no routine monitoring assay is available |

Class/Drugs

Direct thrombin inhibitors: Desirudin Bivalirudin Araatroban Dabigatran

Mechanism

DIRECT THROMBIN INHIBITORS (HIGHLY SELECTIVE). AT independent. In contrast to heparin. LMWH, and heparinoid, direct thrombin inhibitors can inhibit clot-bound thrombin because their sites for binding (active site ± exosite I) are not masked by fibrin. Does not depend on AT for action and thus unaffected by AT deficiency

Indications

HITT (argatroban, bivalirudin) ACS (bivalirudin) DVT prophylaxis (desirudin) VTE treatment (dabiaatran) Atrial fibrillation (dabiaatran)

Usual dose

For HITT, argatroban 2 complications- $\mu q/kq/min$ infusion; For DVT prophylaxis, desirudin 15 mg SC BID or dabiaatran 220 mg PO daily; For VTE treatment. dabigatran 150 mg PO BID after 5 days of heparin. For atrial fibrillation, dabiaatran 150 ma PO BID

Complications/ monitorina

bleeding MONITOR-aPTT is unreliable DOSE ADJUST DABIGATRAN-CrCl <30 mL/min

Related Topics

DVT (p. 177) Hypercoagulable States (p. 174) Pulmonary Embolism (p. 12)

WARFARIN-INDUCED SKIN NECROSIS

CLINICAL FEATURES—usually within first few days of warfarin therapy (especially large loading doses) \rightarrow significantly decreases protein C levels \rightarrow transient hypercoagulable \rightarrow erythematous macule \rightarrow purpuric zone \rightarrow necrotic lesion. Occurs over extremities, breast, trunk, and penis

TREATMENTS—immediately stop warfarin, give vitamin K, heparin IV, consider FFP or protein C concentrate. Lesion may continue to progress despite adequate anticoagulation

CORRECTION OF SUPRATHERAPEUTIC INR **DUE TO WARFARIN USE**

INR < 5—if no significant bleeding, rapid reversal is not indicated. Reduce warfarin dose or hold the next warfarin dose

CORRECTION OF SUPRATHERAPEUTIC INR DUE TO WARFARIN USE (CONT'D)

INR 5-9-if no significant bleeding, hold the next 1-2 doses of warfarin or omit the next dose of warfarin ± administer vitamin K1 2.5 mg PO. If rapid reversal required (e.g. bleeding or urgent surgery), FFP 10–20 mL/kg+vitamin K1 2–4 mg PO (↓ INR within 24 h), if INR remains high at 24 h, give additional vitamin K1 1-2 mg PO. May also consider prothrombin complex concentrate in selected cases

INR > 9—if no significant bleeding, hold warfarin and administer vitamin K1 2.5-5 mg PO. Use additional vitamin K1 if indicated by frequent INR monitoring. If serious bleeding, hold warfarin, administer FFP 20–30 mL/kg + vitamin K1 10 mg by slow IV infusion. Also can use unactivated prothrombin complex concentrate depending on volume status. If life-threatening or intracranial bleeding, hold warfarin therapy and administer unactivated prothrombin complex and vitamin K1 10 mg by slow IV infusion. Monitor INR and repeat as necessary

Transfusion Reactions

COMPLICATIONS OF TRANSFUSIONS

| A | De the surface is to sure | Onset and | T |
|--|---|--|---|
| Adverse Effect | Pathophysiology | Symptoms | Treatments |
| Anaphylaxis | Recipient Ab against donor IgA, 1/40,000 | Immediate. ↓ BP, bronchospasm, no fever | Stop transfusion, epinephrine, corticosteroids |
| ABO incompatibility | Recipient Ab against donor RBC major antigen, 1/40,000 | Immediate. Fever, ↓ BP, CP, lumbar pain, hemoglobinuria, and bleeding | Stop transfusion and check blood. Fluids, diuretics, FFP, dialysis |
| Acute hemolytic transfusion reaction (AHTR) | Recipient Ab against donor RBC minor antigen, 1/600,000 | Acute/delay. Milder form of above | Stop transfusion and check blood. Fluids, diuretics, FFP, dialysis |
| Delayed hemolytic transfusion reaction | Recipient Ab against donor RBC minor antigen, 1/2,500 | Days after transfusion | Avoid donor red cells with minor antigens that recipient's alloantibodies recognize |
| Febrile reaction | Recipient Ab against donor WBC in transfused PRBC, 1/300; or transfused platelets (5 U), 1/10 | End of transfusion. Fever, chills without other systemic symptoms | Antihistamine (<i>diphenhydramine</i> 50 mg IV × 1 dose), acetaminophen |
| Post-transfusion purpura (PTP) | Recipient Ab against donor platelets, 1/50,000 | 7–10 days after. Consumptive thrombocytopenia and purpura | Steroids, plasmapheresis |
| Urticarial transfusion reaction | Recipient IgE against donor antigens, 1/100 plasma-containing products | Acute. Pruritic rash | Antihistamine (<i>diphenhydramine</i> 50 mg IV × 1 dose) |
| Transfusion- related acute lung injury (TRALI) | Donor Ab against recipient WBC, 1/5,000 plasma-containing products | Acute. Hypoxemic, pulmonary edema | Supportive measures |
| Transfusion- associated circulatory overload (TACO) | Hypervolemia, 1/700 | Acute/delay. Pulmonary edema | Diuresis, supportive measures |
| Septic transfusion | Platelets (5 U), 1/10,000 risk of symptomatic sepsis and 1/40,000 chance of death PRBC (1 U), 1/100,000 risk of symptomatic sepsis and 1/500,000 chance of death | Acute. Fever, ↓ BP | Stop transfusion, empiric antibiotics (vancomycin + broad spectrum beta-lactam or aminoglycoside) |

| Adverse Effect | Pathophysiology | Onset and Symptoms | Treatments |
|---|---|--|-------------------------------|
| Air embolism | Venous air embolism, rare but may occur with complex transfusions such as apheresis | Acute. SOB, ↓ BP | Supportive measures |
| Transfusion associated graft vs. host disease (GVHD) | Donor lymphocytes against recipient tissue, very rare | Delay (up to 30 days post transfusion). Rash, hepatitis, diarrhea | Use irradiated blood products |
| Infection risk | HIV 1/10 million, HCV 1/3 million, HBV 1/72,000, HTLV1 1/2 million, West Nile virus < 1/1 million | | |

INVESTIGATIONS

BLOOD TESTS—CBC, peripheral smear, urea, Cr, LDH, indirect bilirubin, serum hemoglobin, Coombs test, PTT, INR, fibrinogen, blood C&S, send blood product for culture/typing URINE TESTS—urinalysis IMAGING—CXR

INDICATIONS FOR SPECIALLY PREPARED BLOOD PRODUCTS

WASHED TRANSFUSION PRODUCT (removes almost all serum proteins and most leukocytes)— IgA deficiency, previous anaphylactic transfusion reaction, febrile reactions not prevented by leukocyte reduction, severe urticarial reactions not prevented by the antihistamines

LEUKOCYTE-DEPLETED TRANSFUSION PRODUCT (removes most leukocytes)—preven-

INDICATIONS FOR SPECIALLY PREPARED BLOOD PRODUCTS (CONT'D)

tion of febrile reactions or TRALI, prevention of HLA alloimmunization (leukemia, aplastic anemia, chronic hemolytic anemia, MDS, MPS), transplant candidates, substitute for CMV-negative blood

IRRADIATED TRANSFUSION PRODUCTS (inhibits lymphocyte proliferation and prevents transfusion-associated graft vs. host disease [GVHD])—stem cell transplant recipients, recipients of directed donor transfusions from blood relatives, Hodqkin lymphoma

CMV-NEGATIVE TRANSFUSION PRODUCTS (screened)—CMV-negative transplant recipients (solid organ or bone marrow from CMV negative donors), antepartum transfusions for CMVnegative women

Approach to the Peripheral Blood Smear

TERMS

ANISOCYTOSIS—varying sizes of RBC POIKILOCYTOSIS—varying shapes of RBC HYPOCHROMIA—present when the central pale area >1/3 diameter. Occurs in iron deficiency, thalassemia, and lead poisoning

RBC INTRACELLULAR INCLUSIONS

BASOPHILIC STIPPLING—β-thalassemia, lead, or arsenic poisoning

HEINZ BODIES—G6PD deficiency, alpha thalassemia

Bain *NEJM* 2005;353(5)

RBC INTRACELLULAR INCLUSIONS (CONT'D)

PAPPENHEIMER BODIES—non-nucleated RBC containing such inclusions are called siderocytes, due to hyposplenism, thalassemia, and sideroblastic disorders. Nucleated RBC are termed sideroblasts

NUCLEATED RBC—acute systemic hypoxia, intense erythropoietin stimulation, infiltrative narrow processes (myelophthisis), extramedullary erythropoiesis

HOWELL-JOLLY BODIES—asplenia, megaloblastic hematopoiesis

RBC INTRACELLULAR INCLUSIONS (CONT'D)

POLYCHROMASIA—RBC with diffuse bluish discoloration due to the presence of RNA. Increased number of cells showing polychromasia indicates reticulocytosis

TELLTALE MORPHOLOGIES

TARGET CELLS—liver disease (especially obstructive jaundice, hepatitis), thalassemia, post-splenectomy, hemoglobinopathies (hemoglobin C and E), lecithin–cholesterol acyltransferase deficiency

FRAGMENTED CELLS (schistocytes, helmet cells)—microangiopathic hemolytic anemia (DIC, TTP, HUS), aortic valve prosthesis

TEAR DROP CELLS (dacrocytes)—myelophthisis, myelofibrosis with myeloid metaplasia (MMM), severe iron deficiency, thalassemia major. Disappear after splenectomy

TELLTALE MORPHOLOGIES (CONT'D)

BURR CELLS (echinocytes)—uremia, artifact

SPUR CELLS (acanthocytes)—chronic liver disease, abetalipoproteinemia, malabsorption, anorexia nervosa

SPHEROCYTES—due to loss of membrane surface area. Associated with autoimmune hemolytic anemia (microspherocytes), hereditary spherocytosis, and *Clostridium* infections

ELLIPTOCYTOSIS (ovalocytosis)—hereditary elliptocytosis, megaloblastosis

STOMATOCYTES—acute alcoholism, chronic liver disease, artifact

ROULEAUX—stacking of RBC suggestive of high ESR or hypergammaglobulinemia. Causes include malignancies (myeloma), infections, and connective tissue disease

Splenomegaly

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

CONGESTIVE—right heart failure, constrictive pericarditis, tricuspid regurgitation, IVC obstruction, hepatic/splenic vein obstruction, cirrhosis with portal hypertension

INFILTRATIVE

- MALIGNANCY—lymphoma (Hodgkin, non-Hodgkin, hairy cell leukemia), leukemia (CLL, CML), myeloproliferative disorders (PV, CML, ET, MF), splenic tumor, metastasis
- AMYLOIDOSIS
- SARCOIDOSIS
- CONGENITAL STORAGE DISEASES—Gaucher, Niemann-Pick

REACTIVE

- INFECTIONS—bacterial (endocarditis, sepsis, TB, MAC), viral (mononucleosis, hepatitis), fungal (*Histoplasma*), parasitic (malaria, *Leishmania*, trypanosomiasis)
- INFLAMMATORY—rheumatoid arthritis (Felty syndrome), SLE, Still disease
- SICKLE CELL, HEMOGLOBIN C, THALASSEMIA, IGGmediated autoimmune hemolytic anemia

CLINICAL FEATURES

SIX WAYS TO DISTINGUISH SPLEEN FROM LEFT KIDNEY

- 1. Spleen has no palpable upper border
- 2. Spleen has a notch
- 3. Spleen moves inferomedially on inspiration while the kidney moves inferiorly

Pozo et al. Blood Rev 2009;23(3)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

- Spleen is not usually ballotable unless gross ascites is present, but the kidney is because of its retroperitoneal position
- 5. The percussion note is dull over the spleen but is usually resonant over the kidney
- A friction rub may occasionally be heard over the spleen, but never over the kidney because it is too posterior

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE SPLENOMEGALY? NORMAL SPLEEN—250 g [<0.55 lb] or 250 cm³, 12 cm by 7 cm [4.7 in. by 2.8 in.]. Anatomically, the spleen lies below the left diaphragm. It follows the curvature of left 10th rib and points anteriorly toward, the left colic flexure

LR+ LR-PERCUSSION Nixon method (right lateral 3.6 0.41 decubitus position; percuss from lower level of pulmonary resonance in posterior axillary line downward obliguely to lower mid-anterior costal margin; >8 cm suggests splenomegaly) Traube space (percuss space 6th rib 2.3 0.48 superiorly, mid-axillary line laterally and costal margin inferiorly; dullness suggests splenomegalv

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

| | LR+ | LR– |
|--|-----|------|
| Castell method (percuss lowest | 1.2 | 0.45 |
| intercostal space in the left | | |
| anterior axillary line during both | | |
| expiration and full inspiration; | | |
| dullness suggests splenomegaly | | |
| PALPATION | | |
| One-handed palpation with patient supine | 8.2 | 0.41 |
| Middleton hooking maneuver | 6.5 | 0.16 |

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, peripheral smear, AST, ALT, ALP, bili
- місковіогоду—blood C&S
- IMAGING—US abd

Myeloproliferative Neoplasms

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

ESSENTIAL THROMBOCYTOSIS (ET) POLYCYTHEMIA VERA (PV) CHRONIC MYELOGENOUS LEUKEMIA (CML) MYELOFIBROSIS (MF)

OTHERS—chronic eosinophilic leukemia, chronic myelomonocytic leukemia (CMML) , chronic neutrophilic leukemia, systemic mastocytosis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

MYELOPROLIFERATIVE NEOPLASMS—associated with increased red blood cells (especially PV), white blood cells (especially CML), and/or platelets (especially ET). MPN should not be confused with myelodysplastic syndrome (MDS), which is associated with a decreased production of dysplastic blood cells. Both MPN and MDS can eventually lead to AML

POLYCYTHEMIA VERA—see POLYCYTHEMIA (p. 159)

CHRONIC MYELOGENOUS LEUKEMIA (CML) —a stem cell disease with Philadelphia chromosome t(9;22) leading to fusion gene bcr-abl, found in erythroblasts, megakaryocytes, granulocytes, monocytes, and most lymphocytes. ↓ LAP. Chronic phase → accelerated phase → blast crisis, 2/3 myeloid, 1/3 lymphoid

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

SPECIAL

- ст ABD—weight = 0.43 × length × width × thickness
- SCINTIGRAPHY
- MALIGNANCY WORKUP—bone marrow biopsy, lymph node biopsy, laparoscopy/ laparotomy

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE SPLENECTOMY—see p. 292 for more details

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

CAUSES OF MASSIVE SPLENOMEGALY-

lymphoma, hairy cell leukemia, CML, myelofibrosis, malaria, MAC in HIV, thalassemia major, sarcoidosis, Gaucher disease

Spivak NEJM 2017;376(22)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

- CHRONIC PHASE (5–6 years)—<15% blasts,
 <20% basophils, and <30% blasts plus promyelocytes
- ACCELERATED PHASE (6–9 months)—15–29% blasts, \geq 20% basophils, \geq 30% blasts + promyelocytes or platelets <100 \times 10³/µL
- BLAST CRISIS (3–6 months)—≥30% blasts or extramedullary involvement (chloroma). Usually constitutional symptoms, worsening blood counts, and may have extra Ph chromosome, inv(17q), trisomy 8, and trisomy 19

CHRONIC MYELOMONOCYTIC LEUKEMIA (CMML)—also known as smoldering leukemia with persistent unexplained monocytosis. Classified as "MDS/MPS." Clinical features include leukocytosis (monocytosis > $1.0 \times 10^3/\mu$ L for at least 6 months), anemia, thrombocytopenia, and splenomegaly

ESSENTIAL THROMBOCYTOSIS—see THROMBOCYTOSIS (p. 167)

MYELOFIBROSIS—↑ fibroblasts, massive spleen, teardrop RBC, nucleated RBC, large platelets

Related Topics Polycythemia (p. 159) Thrombocytosis (p. 167)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—B symptoms (fever, night sweats, weight loss, pruritus), hyperviscosity symptoms (facial plethora, headache, visual or mental status changes, stroke, or another ischemic/thrombotic event)

PHYSICAL—splenomegaly

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, peripheral smear, reticulocyte count, uric acid
- BONE MARROW BIOPSY—always perform cytogenetic studies and stains for fibrosis (reticulin and collagen)

SPECIAL

- GENETIC TESTING—JAK2 mutation (sensitivity ~100% for PV and specific for other myeloproliferative disorders), calreticulin and cMPL mutations (ET), *bcr–abl* testing (CML), and NGS of hematopoietic genes to establish prognosis
- **EPO**—↓ in PV

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

POLYCYTHEMIA VERA—median survival 20 years; ~14/100 transform to AML over 2 decades **CHRONIC MYELOGENOUS LEUKEMIA** median survival is now decades and risk of blast crisis is declining with *bcr-abl* tyrosine kinase inhibitors

ESSENTIAL THROMBOCYTOSIS—median survival 20 years; ~25/1,000 transform to AML over 3 decades

MYELOFIBROSIS—median survival 5 years; ruxolitinib improves symptoms, including painful splenomegaly; ~1/10 transforms to AML

MANAGEMENT

POLYCYTHEMIA VERA—phlebotomy 1–2/ week, aspirin, hydroxyurea

CHRONIC MYELOGENOUS LEUKEMIA

- CHRONIC PHASE—tyrosine kinase inhibitors (imatinib, dasatinib, bosutinib, nilotinib, ponatinib). Imatinib is typically used in first line; consider other TKIs and stem cell transplant if imatinib-resistant CML
- ACCELERATED PHASE—allogeneic stem cell transplant is associated with 30–45% cure rate

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

BLAST CRISIS—TKIS. Acute leukemia treatment
ESSENTIAL THROMBOCYTOSIS—aspirin,
hydroxyurea, anagrelide

MYELOFIBROSIS—hydroxyurea, ruxolitinib, splenectomy, interferon α , thalidomide

TREATMENT ISSUES

RESPONSE CRITERIA FOR CML

- HEMATOLOGICAL RESPONSE
 - complete response—WBC $<\!10\!\times\!10^3/\mu L$ with no immature granulocytes and $<\!5\%$ basophils, platelet $<\!450\!\times\!10^3/\mu L$, and non-palpable spleen
- **СУТОGENIC RESPONSE** (FISH detection of the Philadelphia chromosome)
 - major complete—0% Ph + cells
 - major partial—1–35% Ph + cells
 - мілог—36-65% Ph+cells
 - мілімаl—66-95% Ph+cells
- **MOLECULAR RESPONSE** (*bcr–abl* transcript detection by RT-PCR)
 - MR^{4.5}—detectable disease with ratio of BCR-ABL1 to ABL1 (or other housekeeping genes) ≤0.0032% (≥4.4 log reduction) on the international scale (IS) or undetectable disease in cDNA with ≥32,000 ABL1 transcripts
 - MR⁴—detectable disease with ratio of BCR-ABL1 to ABL1 ≤0.01% (≥4 log reduction) or undetectable disease in cDNA with ≥10,000 ABL1 transcripts
 - MR³—detectable disease with ratio of BCR-ABL1 to ABL1 ≤0.1% (≥3 log reduction)
 - EARLY MOLECULAR RESPONSE—BCR-ABL1 ≤10% at 3 months

MONITORING FOR CHRONIC MYELOGENOUS LEUKEMIA—bone marrow annually, quantitative PCR every 3 months (repeat test in 4 weeks if >0.5 log increase)

IMATINIB RESISTANCE—*bcr*–*abl* mutations (T315l mutation confers tyrosine kinase inhibitor resistance), overexpression or amplification of *bcr*–*abl*

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

| DEFINITION OF TREATMENT FAILURE FOR CML PATIENTS ON IMATINIB THERAPY | | | | |
|--|---|---|--|--|
| Time | Suboptimal | Failure | | |
| 3 months | BCR-ABL1 >10% or Ph+ >36-95% | No complete hematologic response or Ph+ >95% | | |
| 6 months | BCR-ABL1 1-10% or Ph+ 1-35% | BCR-ABL1 >10% or Ph+ >35% | | |
| 12 months | BCR-ABL1 >0.1-1% | BCR-ABL1 >1% or Ph+ >0 | | |
| Anytime | Clonal chromosome abnormalities in Ph– cells | Loss of complete hematologic response, loss of complete cytogenetic response, loss of any molecular response, mutations, clonal chromosome abnormalities in Ph+ cells | | |

Acute Myelogenous Leukemia

2017 European LeukemiaNet (ELN) Recommendations AML

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

HEMATOLOGIC MALIGNANCIES OVERVIEW

MYELO—bone marrow. Myeloproliferative disorders (PV, CML, ET, and MF) involve cell accumulation, while myelodysplastic disorders involve abnormal bone marrow cell growth. Both disorders have risk of transformation to acute myeloid leukemia

MYELOID—neutrophils, monocytes, macrophages, eosinophils, basophils, mast cells, erythrocytes, platelets, and their precursors. Myeloid malignancies include AML and CML

LYMPHOID—B cells, T cells, natural killer cells. Lymphoid malignancies include ALL, CLL, and all lymphomas

LEUKEMIA—malignant cells in blood and/or bone marrow. May be myeloid (AML, CML) or lymphoid^{*} (LL/ALL, SLL/CLL) in origin. Myeloid leukemia seldom presents in lymph nodes

- ACUTE LEUKEMIA—involves immature blast cells occupying ≥20% of the marrow cellularity. Aggressive course
- CHRONIC LEUKEMIA—involves mature differentiated cells. Indolent course

LYMPHOMA—malignancy of lymphoid origin and presents more in lymphoid organs

 Нордкім цумрнома—В cell (Reed– Sternberg cell)

Non-Hodgkin Lymphoma—B, T, or NK cells

*lymphoblastic lymphoma (LL) = acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL). Small lymphocytic lymphoma (SLL) = chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

EPIDEMIOLOGY

INCIDENCE—1–2% of all cancers, 90% of all acute leukemias in adulthood, mean age 65
 MORTALITY—1.5% of all cancers

disor- RISK FACTORS mula- • FAMILY HISTORY—fa

 FAMILY HISTORY—family history (3 ×), Down syndrome Klinefelter, Fanconi syndrome, Bloom, ataxia telangiectasia, neurofibromatosis

Döhner et al. *NEJM* 2015;373(12)

- ENVIRONMENTAL—previous chemotherapy (alkylating agents [melphalan, cyclophosphamide, chlorambucil, temozolomide], topoisomerase II inhibitors [anthracyclines, etoposide]), radiation, benzene
- DISEASES—MDS, MPS (PV, CML, ET, MF), PNH, aplastic anemia

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN THERAPY-RELATED AMLs

| | Alkylating agents | Topoisomerase II inhibitors |
|----------------|----------------------|------------------------------------|
| Latency | 5–7 years | 2–3 years |
| MDS pre-AML | Yes | No |
| AML types | All, M1–2 | M4–5 |
| Karyotype | -5, -7 | 11q23, 21q22, inv16 |
| Prognosis | Poor | Poor except for Inv16 karyotype |

CLINICAL FEATURES

PANCYTOPENIA—weakness, fatigue, infections, gingival bleed, ecchymosis, epistaxis, menorrhagia

BONE PAIN—ribs, sternum, long bones CUTANEOUS LESIONS—leukemic cutis (especially M4, M5), chloromas (skin local collection of

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

blasts, granulocytic sarcoma especially M2), gum hypertrophy (M5)

CNS LEUKEMIA (especially M4, M4EO, and M5) **DIC**—associated with M3 subtype

NOTE—lymphadenopathy, hepatosplenomegaly not common

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, smear (Auer rods), lytes, urea, Cr, Ca, PO₄, Mg, uric acid, albumin, urinalysis, LDH, INR, PTT, fibrinogen
- BONE MARROW BIOPSY (>20% BLASTS)—with flow cytometry and cytogenetic / molecular analyses

SPECIAL

- LUMBAR PUNCTURE—CSF for cytology (risk of CNS involvement greatest with high circulating blasts, elevated LDH, and monocytic variants of AML) and flow cytometry
- HLA TESTING—to assist in obtaining HLAmatched platelets if needed during treatment and to find HLA-matched allogeneic bone marrow

MANAGEMENT

AGE 16-60

- INDUCTION CHEMOTHERAPY—3+7 induction consisting of an anthracycline (daunorubicin, idarubicin or mitoxantrone) × 3 days and continuous infusion cytarabine × 7 days.
 60–80% achieve remission (only ~30% cured).
 If no complete remission, repeat induction chemotherapy and proceed as high risk disease
- CONSOLIDATION TREATMENT (AFTER COMPLETE REMISSION)
 - FAVORABLE GENETIC RISK—2–4 cycles of intermediate dose cytarabine
 - INTERMEDIATE OR ADVERSE RISK—allogeneic stem cell transplant (SCT). Autologous SCT may be considered for selected patients without high risk features. If SCT not possible, consolidation therapy with 2–4 cycles of intermediate dose cytarabine or combination chemotherapy (mitoxantronecytarabine) for adverse risk AML
- RELAPSE—SCT if donor available (preferred); otherwise, salvage chemotherapy

AGE >60

 INDUCTION CHEMOTHERAPY—for patients with favorable or intermediate risk AML and no coexisting conditions, 3+7 induction regimen as in younger patients with or without dose reduction. 40–50% achieve remission.

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

Otherwise, consider low intensity therapies, hydroxyurea cytoreduction, or no further treatment

- CONSOLIDATION TREATMENT (AFTER COMPLETE REMISSION)
 - FAVORABLE GENETIC RISK AND NO CO-EXISTING CONDITIONS—2–3 cycles of intermediate dose cytarabine
 - INTERMEDIATE, ADVERSE RISK OR CO-EXISTING CONDITIONS—clinical trials or no treatment

Related Topics

Febrile Neutropenia (p. 250) Tumor Lysis Syndrome (p. 244)

TREATMENT ISSUES

COMPLETE REMISSION—normal BM cellularity, <5% blasts in BM, none with leukemic phenotype or abnormal cytogenetics. Lumbar puncture after complete remission with induction chemotherapy, especially those with monoblastic phenotype

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

ACUTE PROMYELOCYTIC LEUKEMIA (APL)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—a unique sub-type of AML characterized by a translocation between chromosomes 15 and 17 (*t15;17*) that creates a new fusion gene combining the retinoic acid receptor α (*RARα*) gene with the promyelocytic leukemic (*PML*) gene. This codes for a new protein that blocks myeloid differentiation
- TREATMENTS—relieving this block with all-trans retinoic acid (ATRA) is a critical therapeutic intervention, usually begun with merely the suspicion of APL in order to minimize the bleeding and thrombotic complications that are the hallmark of APL. All-trans retinoic acid is always combined with another agent (often an anthracycline or non-myelosuppressive arsenic trioxide). APL is the most curable AML, with almost 90% of those affected cured with chemotherapy

Jimenez et al. Oncotarget 2020;11(11) CLONAL HEMATOPOIESIS OF INDETERMI-NATE PROGNOSIS (CHIP)—mutations in hematopoietic regulating genes are a natural effect of aging, affecting perhaps 90% of those >70 years. CHIP is defined as specific mutations in DNMT3A, TET2, and/or ASXL1 occurring at a variant allele frequency of >2%. CHIP patients will progress to myelodysplastic syndrome (MDS) at a

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

rate of 0.5% to 1% per year. CHIP is a risk factor for cardiovascular diseases; 30–40% of these patients die from heart disease and this mortality greatly exceeds mortality from MDS

Jaiswal et al. Science 2019;366(6465) MYELODYSPLASTIC SYNDROME—opposite of myeloproliferative disorders, decreased cell counts

 SUBTYPES—refractory anemia (RA), refractory anemia with ringed sideroblasts (RARS), refractory anemia with multilineage dysplasia, refractory anemia with multilineage dysplasia and ringed sideroblasts, refractory anemia with excess blasts (RAEB) 5–10% blasts, refrac-

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

tory anemia with excess blasts in transformation (RAEB-t) 10–19% blasts, MDS unclassified. RA and RARS are at low risk of transforming to AML (i.e. >20% blasts), while the rest are at high risk

- DIAGNOSIS—peripheral blood smear (RBC with abnormal morphologic features, dysgranulopoiesis with Pelger-Huët deformity, nuclear atypia and hypogranulation, monocytosis), bone marrow biopsy
- PROGNOSIS—the revised international prognostic scoring system (IPSS-R) is based on hemoglobin, neutrophil count, platelets, bone marrow blasts and cytogenetic category

| Risk group | Score | % of patients | Median survival (years) | Median time to 25% AML evolution (years) |
|--------------|--------|---------------|----------------------------|--|
| Very low | ≤1.5 | 19% | 8.8 | 14.5 |
| Low | >1.5-3 | 38% | 5.3 | 10.8 |
| Intermediate | >3-4.5 | 20% | 3.0 | 3.2 |
| High | >4.5-6 | 13% | 1.6 | 1.4 |
| Very high | >6 | 10% | 0.8 | 0.7 |

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

 TREATMENTS—transfusions, erythropoietin/darbepoetin (for patients with serum EPO <500 ng/mL and low transfusion requirement), treat infections early, lenalidomide (deletion 5q low-

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

intermediate MDS), 5-azacytidine, decitabine, combination chemotherapy, allogeneic stem cell transplant

Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

RISK FACTORS FOR ALL—age, previous chemotherapy or radiation, Down syndrome

CLINICAL FEATURES

PANCYTOPENIA—weakness, fatigue, infections, gingival bleed, ecchymosis, petechiae, epistaxis, menorrhagia

ORGAN INVOLVEMENT—lymphadenopathy, hepatomegaly, splenomegaly, bone pain, cranial nerve palsies, headaches

Bassan et al. *J Clin Oncol* 2018;36(35) Malard et al. *Lancet* 2020;395(10230)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

| DISTINGUISHING AML AND ALL | FEATUR | ES BETWEEN |
|-------------------------------|--------|---------------|
| | AML | Precursor ALL |
| Blasts | Larger | Small |
| Auer rods | + | - |
| TdT | - | + |
| Myeloperoxidase | + | - |

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, smear, lytes, urea, Cr, Ca, PO₄, Mg, uric acid, albumin, urinalysis, LDH, INR, PTT, fibrinogen, flow cytometry of peripheral blood (immunophenotyping)
- BONE MARROW BIOPSY—> 20% blast, flow cytometry for immunophenotyping, cytogenetic analysis, next generation sequencing
- LUMBAR PUNCTURE—CSF for cytology
- тіssue вюряу—lymph node, skin, mediastinal mass

SPECIAL

- IMAGING—evaluate cardiac function prior to anthracycline therapy
- HLA TESTING—to assist in obtaining HLAmatched platelets if needed during treatment and to find HLA-matched allogeneic bone marrow
- FERTILITY—testing and preservation for young adults and adults who are still planning a family

PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

PROGNOSIS—while childhood ALL is curable in 85% of cases, adult ALL has a worse prognosis, with a 5-year survival of 40%

PROGNOSTIC FACTORS—unfavorable risk factors include minimal residual disease post induction therapy (most important), time to response >4 w, age >35, WBC >30 × 10⁹/L, CNS involvement, and cytogenetic abnormalities such as hypoploidy (<45 chromosomes/cell), t(9;22) [BCR-ABL fusion, 20–50% of adults], t(4;11) [MLL– AF4 fusion, 5–6% of adults], KMT2A (MLL-r fusion at 11q23)

MANAGEMENT

INDUCTION THERAPY—combination chemotherapy with high-dose cyclophosphamide, prednisone, vincristine, anthracycline ± asparaginase. Complete response 80–90%. Management of specific subgroups with worse prognosis include

- PH+ALL—add imatinib, dasatinib, nilotinib or ponatinib
- CD20+ ALL—add rituximab
- T-CELL ALL—treat with cyclophosphamidecontaining regimens

CNS PROPHYLAXIS—to start after remission with intrathecal methotrexate or high-dose intravenous methotrexate. Consider cranial radiation for patients at high risk of CNS relapse

INTENSIFICATION/CONSOLIDATION THERAPY

- GOOD RISK—consolidation chemotherapy with various combinations of cyclophosphamide, 6-mercaptopurine, cytarabine, vincristine, and doxorubicin
- POOR RISK—allogeneic SCT if donor available; otherwise, consolidation chemotherapy

MAINTENANCE THERAPY—combination of glucocorticoids, methotrexate, 6-mercaptopurine, vincristine, and intrathecal chemotherapy

TREATMENT ISSUES

SURVIVORSHIP ISSUES—risk of secondary malignancies, neurologic sequelae, cardiotoxicity, infertility, depression, anxiety, and fatigue

Related Topics

Febrile Neutropenia (p. 250) Tumor Lysis Syndrome (p. 244)

Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF LYMPHOCYTOSIS

NEOPLASTIC

- BENIGN MONOCLONAL LYMPHOCYTOSIS (presence of a clonal B-cell population in the peripheral blood with fewer than 5 × 10⁹/L B-cells and no other signs of a lymphoproliferative disorder)
- CHRONIC LYMPHOCYTIC LEUKEMIA (CLL, most common cause)

Strati et al. *Blood* 2015;126(4) 2018 iwCLL Guidelines CLL

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF LYMPHOCYTOSIS (CONT'D)

- PROLYMPHOCYTIC LEUKEMIA (B and T cells)
- LEUKEMIC PHASE OF LYMPHOMAS—mantle cell lymphoma, lymphoplasmacytic lymphoma, follicular lymphoma, marginal zone lymphoma, hairy cell leukemia
- LARGE GRANULAR CELL LYMPHOCYTE LEUKEMIA
 INFECTIONS—pertussis, infectious mononucleosis, CMV, hepatitis, toxoplasmosis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

WHO CLASSIFICATION—CLL is identical to small lymphocytic lymphoma (SLL, mature B-cell non-Hodgkin lymphoma). Traditionally, CLL diagnosis is made from peripheral blood, while SLL diagnosis is made from lymph node biopsy

TRANSFORMATION OF CLL—prolymphocytic leukemia 10%, diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (Richter transformation) 3–10%, Hodgkin disease 0.5%, multiple myeloma 0.1%

CLINICAL FEATURES

ORGAN INFILTRATION—lymphadenopathy (80%), splenomegaly (50%), hepatomegaly, skin and lung infiltration, gastric erosions

PERIPHERAL BLOOD—lymphocytosis with smudge cells, anemia, thrombocytopenia

CONSTITUTIONAL—weight loss, fever, night sweats, fatigue, anorexia

ASSOCIATED SYNDROMES—ITP, hemolytic anemia, pure red cell aplasia, cryoglobulinemia, MPGN, hypogammaglobulinemia, monoclonal gammopathy

SECOND MALIGNANCIES—non-melanoma skin cancer 4.7%, sarcomas 3.3%, kidney 2.8%, lung 2%, prostate 1.5%

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, smear (smudge cells), lytes, urea, Cr, Ca, PO₄, Mg, uric acid, LDH, β2 microglobulin, albumin, quantitative immunoglobulin, serum protein electrophoresis, urinary protein electrophoresis
- PERIPHERAL BLOOD FLOW CYTOMETRY FOR SUR-FACE MARKERS

SPECIAL

- BONE MARROW BIOPSY WITH CYTOGENETICS, FISH AND NEXT GENERATION SEQUENCING
- LYMPH NODE BIOPSY
- MICROBIOLOGY—monospot test, hepatitis serology if need to rule out other causes

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

NCI WORKING GROUP DIAGNOSTIC CRITERIA

- PERIPHERAL BLOOD—absolute lymphocyte count in the >5×10³/µL, with ≥1 B-cell marker (CD19, CD20, CD23) and CD5; >55% atypical cells
- BONE MARROW—a normocellular to hypercellular marrow with >20% clonal lymphocytes. Interstitial/nodular pattern (70%) has a better prognosis than diffuse/extensive pattern (30%)

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

- имииорнемотуре—CD5+, CD19+, CD20+ dim, CD23+, CD43+, CD10–, SIg + dim
- NOTE—for patients with lymphocyte count 5–10×10³/μL, lymphocyte phenotyping is required

RAI STAGING

- 0 lymphocytosis in blood or bone marrow. Median survival >150 months
- I lymphocytosis + lymphadenopathy. Median survival 101 months
- II lymphocytosis + organomegaly. Median survival 71 months
- III lymphocytosis + anemia (<110 g/L [<11 g/dL]). Median survival 19 months
- IV lymphocytosis + thrombocytopenia (<100 \times 10³/mL). Median survival 19 months

BINET STAGING

- A <3 lymphoid-bearing sites enlarged. Median survival >10 years
- B ≥3 lymphoid-bearing sites enlarged. Median survival 5 years
- C anemia (<100 g/L [10 g/dL]) or thrombocytopenia (<100 × 10³/μL). Median survival 2 years

ADVERSE PROGNOSTIC FACTORS OF CLL—

higher Rai stage, high Binet stage, diffuse pattern on bone marrow biopsy, lymphocyte doubling time <1 year (5-year survival vs. 12-year survival), CD38+, unmutated $IgV_{\rm H}$ genes, ZAP70 positive, 17p deletion, 11q deletion, trisomy 12, mutated TP53

FEATURES SUGGESTIVE OF TRANSFORMA-TION—new onset localized lymph node enlargement, B symptoms (without obvious increase in tumor burden), hypercalcemia, elevation in LDH, or extranodal disease other than bone marrow and liver, rapid increase of splenomegaly, rapid elevation of lymphocytosis

MANAGEMENT

YOUNGER AND RELATIVELY HEALTHY ibrutinib >> bendamustine + anti-CD20 therapy, or fludarabine, cyclophosphamide and rituximab

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

OLDER AND FAVORABLE PROGNOSIS ibrutinib >> bendamustine + anti-CD20 therapy, or obinutuzumab (anti-CD20) ± ibrutinib UNFAVORABLE PROGNOSIS (del(17p) or TP53

mutated)—ibrutinib > alemtuzumab (anti-CD52) \pm rituximab or obinutuzumab or clinical trial

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

HAIRY CELL LEUKEMIA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—rare indolent non-Hodgkin lymphoma with mononuclear cells displaying cytoplasmic projections giving a hairy appearance. Secretes fibronectin, cytokines, and TNFcausing bone marrow fibrosis
- DIAGNOSIS—based on morphological evidence of hairy cells, an HCL immunologic score of three or four based on the CD11C, CD103,

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

CD123, and CD25 expression. Also, the bone marrow biopsy, which makes it possible to specify the degree of tumoral medullary infiltration and the presence of BRAF V600E somatic mutation

- CLINICAL FEATURES—splenomegaly (90%), tricytopenia (fatigue, recurrent infections, thrombocytopenia), and lymphocytosis. Lymphadenopathy is uncommon
- TREATMENTS—treat only if symptomatic (cytopenia, splenomegaly, B symptoms). Either cladribine (2-CdA) or pentostatin monotherapy as standard first-line treatment. Second-line therapy includes rituximab plus an alternative purine analogue, or vemurafenib (if *B-raf* mutant)

Maitre et al. Am J Hematol 2019;94(12)

Hodgkin Lymphoma

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

HISTOLOGIC TYPE

- CLASSICAL НОДСКIN LYMPHOMA (95%)—B-cell lymphoma characterized by the presence of Reed–Sternberg cells. CD15 and CD30 positive. Spreads in orderly fashion to contiguous nodal regions
 - NODULAR SCLEROSIS (70%)—more common in females, above diaphragm involvement (mediastinal mass). Three grades include lymphocyte predominant (G1), mixed (G2), and syncytial (G3)
 - MIXED CELLULARITY (20–25%)—more common in men. Tend to be EBV+. Retroperitoneal disease. Worse prognosis
 - LYMPHOCYTE RICH (5%)—more common in older males, peripheral lymph nodes. Excellent prognosis
 - LYMPHOCYTE DEPLETED (2%)—liver and marrow involvement with relative sparing of lymph nodes. Worse prognosis
- NODULAR LYMPHOCYTE-PREDOMINANT HODGKIN LYMPHOMA (5%)—males, upper neck involvement. Characterized by popcorn cells. Slow progression, excellent prognosis. CD20 positive. Late relapse more common

RISK FACTORS

- FAMILY HISTORY
- ENVIRONMENTAL—wood workers, farmers, meat workers

Connors et al. Nat Rev Dis Primers 2020;6(1)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

 DISEASES—mononucleosis (EBV infection 3 ×), AIDS, bone marrow transplant

CLINICAL FEATURES

SYMPTOMS

- MASS EFFECT—lymphadenopathy, hepatosplenomegaly, mediastinal/abdominal/pelvic masses may cause local destruction, obstruction, and compression
- HEMATOLOGIC—anemia, thrombocytopenia, lymphocytosis, eosinophilia
- CONSTITUTIONAL—B-symptoms specifically refer to weight loss >10% over 6 months, fever >38 °C [>100.4 °F], and drenching night sweats. Other constitutional symptoms include fatigue, anorexia, pruritus
- PARANEOPLASTIC SYNDROMES—alcoholinduced pain, skin (skin infiltration, erythema multiforme, erythema nodosum, necrotizing lesions, ichthyosis, acrokeratosis, urticaria), neurologic (paraneoplastic cerebellar degeneration, chorea, limbic encephalitis, subacute sensory neuropathy, subacute lower motor neuropathy, stiff man syndrome), renal (minimal change disease, FSGS), hypercalcemia

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN MALIGNANT AND NON-MALIGNANT LYMPHADENOPATHY

| | manghancy | Denign |
|-------------|---------------|-----------------|
| Size | Larger, grows | Smaller (<1 cm) |
| Consistency | Rubbery, firm | Soft |
| Mobility | Immobile | Mobile |
| Matted | Yes | No |
| Tenderness | No | Yes |

STAGING

COTSWOLDS STAGING (MODIFIED FROM ANN ARBOR STAGING)

- I Single node region or lymphoid structure (spleen, thymus, Waldeyer ring)
- II Two or more node regions on the same side of diaphragm. All nodal disease within the mediastinum is considered to be a single lymph node region, and hilar involvement constitutes an additional site of involvement.
 - The number of anatomic regions should be indicated by a subscript (e.g. II_2)
- Involvement on both sides of diaphragm.
 III₁ indicates involvement of the spleen or splenic hilar, celiac, or portal nodes. Stage III₂ indicates involvement of the paraaortic, iliac, inguinal, or mesenteric nodes
- IV Diffuse or disseminated foci of involvement of one or more extralymphatic sites (e.g. bone marrow, extranodal sites that cannot be included in one radiation field)

DESIGNATIONS

- E—extralymphatic site (i.e. involvement outside of lymph nodes, spleen, thymus, and Waldeyer ring) or involvement by direct extension
- X—bulky disease defined as mediastinal mass >1/3 of internal transverse diameter of the thorax at the level of T5/6 interspace or >10 cm [>3.9 in.] maximum dimension of a nodal mass
- A-no B symptoms
- **B**—weight loss >10% over 6 months, fever >38 °C [>100.4 °F], drenching night sweats

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, peripheral smear, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, Ca, LDH, ESR, albumin, quantitative immunoglobulin, serum protein electrophoresis, HCV, HBV, and HIV serology
- IMAGING—CXR, CT chest/abdomen/pelvis, PET scan
- LYMPH NODE BIOPSY—referral to surgery

SPECIAL

- BONE MARROW BIOPSY—if B symptoms, Hb <120 g/L [<12 g/dL] in women, Hb <130 g/L [<13 g/dL] in men, WBC <4×10³/μL, platelets <125×10³/μL
- ENT EXAMINATION—stage IA or IIA with upper cervical lymph node involvement
- MRI SPINE—if suspect spinal cord compression
- MUGA SCAN OR ECHOCARDIOGRAM—evaluate cardiac function prior to anthracycline therapy
- GALLIUM SCAN—stage IA or IIA without intrathoracic involvement

PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

PROGNOSTIC FACTORS FOR EARLY STAGE DISEASE—age >50, bulky disease, ESR >50 mm/h without B symptoms or ESR >30 mm/h with B symptoms, anemia

INTERNATIONAL PROGNOSTIC FACTOR PROJECT SCORE FOR ADVANCED HODGKIN LYMPHOMA (HASENCLEVER SCORE)

- FACTORS—age >45, male gender, Ann Arbor clinical stage IV, albumin <40 g/L [<4 g/dL], hemoglobin <105 g/L [<10.5 g/dL], WBC >15×10³/μL, lymphocyte <0.6×10³/μL, or <8% of total WBC count
- scoring—1 point per factor, with a score of 0–7
- итшту—the 5-year progression-free survival was 84%, 77%, 67%, 60%, 51%, 42% for scores of 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5–7, respectively

MANAGEMENT

CLASSICAL HODGKIN LYMPHOMA

- LIMITED STAGE (stage IA, IIA, or IB with mass <10 cm)—ABVD (doxorubicin, bleomycin, vinblastine and dacarbazine) × 2–3 cycles followed by involved field radiotherapy
- ADVANCED STAGE (all other stages)— ABVD (doxorubicin, bleomycin, vinblastine,

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

dacarbazine) or BEACOPP (bleomycin, etoposide, doxorubicin, cyclophosphamide, vincristine, procarbazine, prednisone) \times 6 cycles. Reassess with PET-CT. If residual disease, consider involved field irradiation

 REFRACTORY OR RELAPSED DISEASE—BEAM (BCNU, etoposide, cytarabine, melphalan) or CBV (cyclophosphamide, BCNU, etoposide) followed by autologous stem cell transplant and brentuximab maintenance. For frail patients, consider brentuximab (anti-CD30 antibody conjugated to auristatin), or immune checkpoint inhibitors should be considered. Overall, 40–50% with refractory disease and 60–70% with first relapse can be cured

NODULAR LYMPHOCYTE-PREDOMINANT HODGKIN LYMPHOMA

 LIMITED STAGE (stage IA)—involved field radiotherapy

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

- LIMITED STAGE (IB, IIA or IIB)—ABVD × 2 cycles followed by involved field radiotherapy
- ADVANCED STAGE (all other stages)—ABVD or R-CHOP (rituximab, cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin, vincristine, prednisone) × 6 cycles. Reassess with PET-CT. If residual disease, consider involved field irradiation

TREATMENT ISSUES

FOLLOW-UP—every 3 months for the first 2 years, every 6 months for the next 3 years, then annually. Pay particular attention to relapse (10–30%), hypothyroidism (50%), dental caries, and second malignancies (breast, lung, esophageal, stomach, thyroid, melanoma, cervical, AML)

Non-Hodgkin Lymphoma

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF LYMPHADENOPATHY

INFECTIONS

- BACTERIAL—local infections, brucellosis, leptospirosis, lymphogranuloma venereum, typhoid fever
- ATYPICAL—TB, syphilis, Lyme disease
- VIRAL—HIV, EBV, HSV, CMV, HBV, mumps, measles, rubella, dengue fever
- FUNGAL—histoplasmosis, coccidioidomycosis, cryptococcosis
- PARASITIC—toxoplasmosis

NEOPLASTIC

- LYMPHOMA—Hodgkin, non-Hodgkin
- LEUKEMIA
- METASTATIC CANCER
- LYMPHOPROLIFERATIVE—Castleman disease, angioimmunoblastic lymphadenopathy, autoimmune lymphoproliferative disease

INFLAMMATORY—RA, SLE, dermatomyositis, Still disease, eosinophilic granulomatosis with polyangiitis

INFILTRATIVE—sarcoidosis, amyloidosis, histiocytosis, chronic granulomatous disease

OTHERS—medications (phenytoin), endocrine (hypothyroidism, Addison disease), serum sickness

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

HISTOLOGIC TYPE (WHO CLASSIFICATION)

- INDOLENT B-CELL LYMPHOMAS
 - FOLLICULAR LYMPHOMA (FL, 25%)—grade I (0–5 centroblasts/high power field), II

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

- (6–15 centroblasts/high power field), IIIA (>15 centroblasts/high power field, centrocytes present)
- макдінаL zone lymphoma (MZL, 5%)—MALT, nodal, splenic
- MANTLE CELL LYMPHOMA (MCL, 7%)—mantle zone, nodular, diffuse, blastoid variant
- SMALL LYMPHOCYTIC LYMPHOMA (SLL, 5–10%)—identical to chronic lymphocytic leukemia in pathologic characteristics, but treated as low grade B-cell lymphoma
- HAIRY CELL LEUKEMIA (HCL)
- LYMPHOPLASMACYTIC LYMPHOMA (LPL, 2–3%)—also called Waldenström macroglobulinemia
- PLASMA CELL MYELOMA/PLASMACYTOMA (MM)
- AGGRESSIVE B-CELL LYMPHOMAS
- FOLLICULAR LYMPHOMA (FL)—grade IIIB (sheets of centroblasts)
- DIFFUSE LARGE B-CELL LYMPHOMA (DLBCL, 30–40%)—clinical subtypes include primary mediastinal B-cell lymphoma, primary effusion lymphoma (HHV8), and intravascular B-cell lymphoma. Pathologic subtypes include T-cell-rich B-cell lymphoma, anaplastic large cell lymphoma, centroblastic, and immunoblastic
- DOUBLE-HIT DLBCL (both *c-myc* and either bcl2 or bcl6 translocations)
- LEUKEMIC B-CELL LYMPHOMAS
 - burkitt lymphoma (BL)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

- PRECURSOR B LYMPHOBLASTIC LYMPHOMA (ALL)
- INDOLENT T-CELL LYMPHOMAS
 - MYCOSIS FUNGOIDES (MF)
 - primary cutaneous anaplastic large cell (PCALC)
 - LYMPHOPROLIFERATIVE DISEASE OF LARGE GRANU-LAR LYMPHOCYTES (LGL)
- INDOLENT NATURAL KILLER CELL LYMPHOMAS
 - NATURAL KILLER CELL LARGE GRANULAR LYMPHO-CYTE LEUKEMIA (NK-LGL)
- AGGRESSIVE T.CELL LYMPHOMAS
 - PERIPHERAL T-CELL LYMPHOMA, NOT OTHERWISE SPECIFIED (PTCL-NOS)
 - PERIPHERAL T-CELL LYMPHOMA, SPECIFIED angioimmunoblastic (AILD++ type), nasal T/NK-cell type, subcutaneous panniculitic, intestinal enteropathy associated, hepatosplenic, anaplastic large cell including null cell
- LEUKEMIC T-CELL LYMPHOMAS
 - ADULT T-CELL LYMPHOMA/LEUKEMIA (HTLV)
 - PRECURSOR T LYMPHOBLASTIC LEUKEMIA/ LYMPHOMA

RISK FACTORS

- FAMILY HISTORY
- ENVIRONMENTAL—previous immunosuppressive therapy, radiation, allogeneic stem cell transplant, pesticides, agricultural chemicals, smoking, hair dyes, geography (e.g. risk of Burkitt lymphoma is 50 × higher in Africa than in the USA)
- DISEASES—infections (HIV, EBV, HHV8, HCV, HTLV, Helicobacter pylori), inflammatory disorders (RA, SLE, Sjögren syndrome, mixed cryoglobulinemia, inflammatory bowel disease), inherited immune defects

CLASSIC TRANSLOCATIONS IN LYMPHOMA

- MANTLE CELL LYMPHOMA—t(11;14) in 95%, cyclin D1 (bcl1)
- FOLLICULAR LYMPHOMA—t(14;18) in 85%, antiapoptotic protein (bcl2)
- DIFFUSE LARGE CELL LYMPHOMA—t(3;14) in 40%, zinc finger transcription factor (bcl6)
- **MALT**—t(1;14) in < 5%, bcl10
- виккітт цумрнома—t(8;14), t(2;8), or t(8;22) in 100%, c-myc overexpression

INFECTIONS AND LYMPHOMA

- EBV—Hodgkin lymphoma, Burkitt lymphoma, post-transplant lymphoproliferative disorders, primary CNS lymphoma
- HCV—splenic marginal zone lymphoma
- HHV8 (also known as Kaposi sarcoma herpes virus)—Castleman disease, primary effusion lymphoma
- HIV—primary CNS lymphoma

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

- HTLV—adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma
- BORRELIA BURGDORFERI—cutaneous marginal zone lymphoma
- CAMPYLOBACTER JEJUNI—small bowel marginal zone lymphoma
- CHLAMYDIA PSITTACI—eye marginal zone lymphoma
- H. PYLORI—gastric MALT

 TRANSFORMATION
 OF
 INDOLENT

 LYMPHOMA—10% of SLL, MZL, and LPL and 60%
 of FL eventually transform into aggressive DLBCL.

 Features suggestive of transformation include rapid local progression, progression at unusual extranodal sites (CNS, lungs, soft tissue), acute rise in LDH, hyper-calcemia, and new onset B symptoms

CLINICAL FEATURES

SYMPTOMS

- MASS EFFECT—lymphadenopathy (occipital, posterior auricular, preauricular, mandibular, submental, cervical, supra- and infraclavicular, Waldeyer ring [tonsils, base of tongue, nasopharynx], epitrochlear, axillary, inguinal, popliteal); hepatosplenomegaly; mediastinal/ abdominal/pelvic/testicular/CNS masses may cause local destruction, obstruction, and compression
- HEMATOLOGIC—anemia, thrombocytopenia, neutropenia, lymphocytosis
- CONSTITUTIONAL—B-symptoms. Other constitutional symptoms include fatigue, anorexia, pruritus
- PARANEOPLASTIC SYNDROMES

NOTE—lymphoma can mimic many diseases. Always have a high index of suspicion for lymphoma, particularly if B symptoms or multisystem involvement

STAGING

TUMOR BURDEN—a combination of stage, bulkiness (>10 cm in greatest diameter), B symptoms

ANN ARBOR STAGE

- I Single node region
- II Two or more node regions on same side of diaphragm
- III Involvement on both sides of diaphragm
- IV Diffuse or disseminated foci of involvement of one or more extralymphatic sites (e.g. bone marrow, extranodal sites that cannot be included in one radiation field)

STAGING (CONT'D)

DESIGNATIONS

- E—single extralymphatic site (i.e. involvement outside of lymph nodes, spleen, thymus, and Waldeyer ring) or involvement by direct extension
- S-splenic involvement
- A-no B symptoms
- **B**—weight loss >10% over 6 months, fever >38 °C [100.4 °F], drenching night sweats

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, peripheral smear, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, Ca, PO₄, Mg, uric acid, LDH, albumin, quantitative immunoglobulin, serum protein electrophoresis, HBV, HCV, and HIV serology
- IMAGING—CXR, CT chest/abdomen/pelvis, PET scan
- LYMPH NODE BIOPSY (EXCISIONAL OR CORE) WITH FLOW CYTOMETRY FOR LYMPHOID SURFACE MARK-ERS, CYTOGENETICS AND NEXT GENERATION SEQUENCING

BONE MARROW BIOPSY SPECIAL

- MRI SPINE—if suspect spinal cord compression
- MUGA SCAN OR ECHOCARDIOGRAM—evaluate cardiac function prior to anthracycline therapy for patients with significant cardiac risk factors

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

LYMPH NODE BIOPSY

- EXCISIONAL OR CORE BIOPSY—consider if lymphoma is suspected based on clinical presentation, or in patients age <50 with lymphadenopathy >1 cm that persists for at least 3 months or is enlarging
- FINE NEEDLE ASPIRATE—consider if infection is suspected, or in patients age >50 with any cervical lymphadenopathy >1 cm

IMMUNOPHENOTYPE OF SELECTED LYMPHOMAS

| | CLL | MCL | FL | MZL |
|------|-------|-----|----|-----|
| CD20 | + dim | + | + | + |
| CD5 | + | + | - | - |
| CD23 | + | - | - | - |
| CD43 | + | + | - | + |
| CD10 | - | - | + | - |
| | | | | |

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

INTERNATIONAL PROGNOSTIC INDEX (IPI)

- FACTORS—age >60, serum LDH > normal, ECOG performance status ≥2, Ann Arbor clinical stage III or IV, extranodal disease sites ≥2 (defined as involvement of organs other than lymph nodes, spleen, thymus, and Waldeyer ring)
- scoring—1 point per factor, with a score of 0–5
- υτιμτy—5-year overall survival approximately 73%, 51%, 43%, and 26% for IPI of 0–1, 2, 3, and 4–5, respectively. With the new revised IPI (post-rituximab era), 5-year overall survival 94%, 79%, and 55% for IPI of 0, 1–2, and 3–5, respectively

FOLLICULAR LYMPHOMA INTERNATIONAL PROGNOSTIC INDEX (FLIPI)

- FACTORS—age >60, serum LDH > normal, hemoglobin <120 g/L [<12 g/dL], Ann Arbor clinical stage III or IV, involved nodal sites >4
- scoring—1 point per factor, with a score of 0–5
- υτιμτγ—for follicular lymphoma patients specifically; 5-year survival approximately 91%, 78%, and 52% for FLIPI of 0–1, 2 and 3–5, respectively

MANAGEMENT

FOLLICULAR LYMPHOMA

- LIMITED STAGE (IA or IIA, 10%)—radiation (10year survival 50%)
- ADVANCED STAGE (IB, IIB, III, IV, or any bulky disease, 90%)—if asymptomatic (40%), watchful waiting. If symptomatic or threatening disease (60%), start bendamustine + rituximab, R-CHOP (rituximab, cyclophosphamide, doxo-rubicin, vincristine, prednisone) or CVPR×8 cycles (cyclophosphamide, vincristine, prednisone, and rituximab). Consider maintenance rituximab for 2 years if partial response.
- SALVAGE—ibrutinib (Bruton inhibitor), idelalisib (PI3K inhibitor), copanlisib (PI3K inhibitor), venetoclax (BCL2 inhibitor), lenalidomide, fludarabine, cyclophosphamide, I¹³¹tositumomab, and Y⁹⁰-ibritumomab. Obinutuzumab may be used if rituximab resistance (<6 months). Evaluation for SCT is appropriate

DIFFUSE LARGE B-CELL LYMPHOMA

- LIMITED STAGE (IA or IIA, 30%)—R-CHOP×3 cycles. PET scan afterwards, if complete remission, one more cycle; otherwise, give involved field radiation
- ADVANCED STAGE (IB, IIB, III, IV, or any bulky disease, 70%)—R-CHOP or dose adjusted

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

- R-EPOCH ×6. PET scan afterwards; if local residual disease, give involved field radiation; if diffuse residual disease, consider **salvage therapy** (see below). For patients at high risk of CNS involvement (bone marrow, epidural, paranasal sinus, testicular, breast or ovarian involvement, high IPI scores or B symptoms), **CNS prophylaxis** with intrathecal methotrexate or Ara-C should be considered
- SALVAGE—RICE (rituximab, ifosfamide, carboplatin, etoposide), R-GDP (gemcitabine, dexamethasone, cisplatin, rituximab), R-DHAP or R-ESHAP, followed by autologous stem cell transplant. If chemotherapy resistant disease, consider CD19-directed chimeric antigen receptor (CAR)-T cell therapy (axicabtagene ciloleucel, tisagenlecleucel) or allogeneic stem cell transplant

HIGHLY AGGRESSIVE LYMPHOMAS

- BURKITT LYMPHOMA OR DOUBLE-HIT LYMPHOMAexpedited staging (within 1–2 days). For lowrisk disease (stage I or II, non-bulky <5 cm, no bone marrow/blood/CNS disease and normal LDH), give CODOX-MR (cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin, vincristine, methotrexate, rituximab)×1, then restage. If CR/PR, give IVAC-R (ifosfamide, etoposide, cytarabine) $\times 1$, then CODOX-MR×1; otherwise, aive IVAC-R \times 1, then proceed to stem cell transplant. For high-risk disease, give CODOX-MR×1, IVAC-R×1, then restage. If CR/PR and no marrow infiltration at diagnosis, then autologous stem cell transplant; otherwise, individualized higher intensity treatment. Allogeneic transplant may be considered (balance between time to find allogeneic donor and use of contaminated stem cells). A total of 8 doses of intrathecal chemotherapy should be given during treatment course. All patients should receive tumor lysis syndrome prophylaxis (hydration, allopurinol, rasburicase). Cure rate ~60% for Burkitt lymphoma
- ACUTE LYMPHOBLASTIC LYMPHOMA—expedited staging (within 1–2 days). For most patients, allogeneic/autologous stem cell transplant plus intrathecal chemotherapy (allogeneic if leukemic, otherwise, autologous). Another option is the hyper-CVAD/methotrexate/cytarabine regimen. All patients should receive tumor lysis syndrome prophylaxis (hydration, allopurinol)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

PRIMARY CNS LYMPHOMA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—usually multifocal but confined to CNS. May have leptomeningeal or intraocular involvement. Frequently aggressive B-cell lymphoma
- CLINICAL FEATURES—focal neurological deficit, personality change, mild dementia, persistent headache
- DIAGNOSIS—CT or MRI head, lumbar puncture, slit lamp examination. If CNS lymphoma in the differential, try to avoid giving steroids before biopsy. Always check HIV
- TREATMENTS—high-dose corticosteroid with high-dose methotrexate is preferred. Whole brain radiation represents an alternative. Prognosis is 60% 2-year survival and 30–40% 5-year survival

LEPTOMENINGEAL MENINGITIS

- RISK FACTORS—aggressive lymphomas (lymphoblastic lymphoma, DLBCL, Burkitt lymphoma, MCL), extranodal site involvement (bone marrow, testicular, paranasal, retroperitoneal lymph nodes), any of the five IPI prognostic factors
- CLINICAL FEATURES—jaw pain and numbness, radicular pain, back pain, neck pain/rigidity, confusion, cranial nerve deficits (especially II, III, V, VI, VII), focal weakness, sensory changes, headaches
- DIAGNOSIS—lumbar puncture with positive cytology (sens 60% with single attempt, 3 attempts for increased yield), gadoliniumenhanced MRI showing enhancement and enlargement of one or more cranial nerves due to tumor infiltration
- TREATMENTS—high-dose steroid (dexamethasone 12–20 mg PO/IV daily), radiation to the site of disease, intrathecal methotrexate, or cytarabine. Important to treat underlying systemic disease. Highly selected patients may benefit from high-dose chemotherapy with stem cell transplantation with better outcomes. Median survival after CNS recurrence is 3 months

MUCOSA-ASSOCIATED LYMPHOID TISSUE (MALT)

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY — extranodal marginal zone B-cell lymphomas that present with localized disease involving the GI tract, salivary glands, thyroid, orbit, conjunctiva, breast, and lung. Note that diffuse large cell lymphoma and mantle cell lymphoma also commonly involve GI mucosa

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- Associations—H. pylori-associated chronic gastritis, celiac disease, Crohn disease, gastrointestinal nodular lymphoid hyperplasia
- DIAGNOSIS—for gastric MALT, need to determine presence of *H. pylori* by biopsy (gastroscopy)± urea breath test
- TREATMENTS—for H. pylori-positive gastric MALT, triple therapy may be adequate. Need to confirm eradication of H. pylori. Follow closely with gastroscopy. If MALT persists for over 8–12 months, should consider single-agent chemotherapy (cyclophosphamide, chlorambucil) or involved-field radiation. Partial gastrectomy may be needed for hemorrhage or perforation

ACUTE LYMPHOBLASTIC LYMPHOMA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—continuum of presentation with acute lymphoblastic leukemia. Consider lymphoma if < 5% blasts in bone marrow; otherwise, consider leukemia
- CLINICAL FEATURES—usually mediastinal mass in young males

BURKITT LYMPHOMA

- **PATHOPHYSIOLOGY**—t(8;14, 2;8, 8;22) leading to c-myc overexpression
- CLINICAL FEATURES—usually advanced stage (80–90%). Abdominal mass, CNS, breast/ovarian involvement, and nodal sites, but mediastinum usually spared

TESTICULAR LYMPHOMA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—60% primary testicular lymphoma, 40% spread from other sites.
 Frequently DLBCL or immunoblastic subtype
- CLINICAL FEATURES—painless testicular mass in older man. High risk for recurrence, particularly CNS relapse
- DIAGNOSIS—scrotal US
- TREATMENTS—unilateral orchiectomy + R-CHOP + involved field radiation to scrotum + intrathecal chemotherapy if stage III/IV disease

POST-TRANSPLANT LYMPHOPROLIFERA-TIVE DISORDERS (PTLD)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—mostly of host origin and usually EBV positive (LMP-1 oncogene). EBVnegative PTLD present later and are more aggressive than EBV-positive PTLD. Mostly B-cell non-Hodgkin lymphoma and very rarely T-cell or NK cell lymphomas
- RISK FACTORS—high degree of immunosuppression, pre-transplant EBV negativity. Risk highest in the first year, then reduces by 80%
- CLINICAL FEATURES—clinical spectrum includes reactive plasmacytic hyperplasia (55%, infectious mononucleosis-like illness with no malig-

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- nant transformation), polymorphic B-cell hyperplasia (30%, polyclonal cytogenetic abnormalities, immunoglobulin gene rearrangements, and disruption of underlying tissue architecture), and B- or T-cell lymphomas (15%, monoclonal malignancy)
- TREATMENTS—reduction in immunosuppression (may be sufficient for hyperplasia without monoclonal component), rituximab, chemotherapy (CHOP), antiviral agents, IVIG, surgical resection, radiation, interferon α, adoptive immunotherapy (cytotoxic T-cells specific for EBV). Overall survival 25–35%. Prognostic factors include advanced age, performance status >1, involved site >1

MYCOSIS FUNGOIDES

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—indolent cutaneous T-cell lymphoma. Stages include premycotic, plaque, and tumor stage. Sézary syndrome is a systemic variant of mycosis fungoides with a triad of erythroderma, lymphadenopathy, and leukemia
- CLINICAL FEATURES—localized patches or plaques evolving into nodules and diffuse exfoliative erythroderma associated with abnormal circulating cells. Poor prognostic factors include extensive cutaneous disease (erythroderma), nodal spread, and extracutaneous involvement (liver, spleen, lung, Gl tract)
- TREATMENTS—topical corticosteroids, topical nitrogen mustard, psoralen with UVA/UVB, bexarotene, radiation. Systemic treatments include CHOP, pentostatin, cladribine, fludarabine, IL-2, IFNα, alemtuzumab, liposomal doxorubicin

SYSTEMIC ANAPLASTIC LARGE CELL LYMPHOMA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—may be T-cell, B-cell, or null cell type. Uniform expression of CD4, CD30, clusterin and epithelial membrane antigen (EMA). Anaplastic lymphoma kinase (ALK) overexpression associated with t(2;5) is a key prognostic marker (ALK+ 65–90% 5-year survival vs. ALK– 30–40% 5 year survival)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—ALK+ cases usually present at younger age with early disease. ALK- cases usually present at older age with advanced stage, elevated LDH, B symptoms, and extranodal sites
- TREATMENTS—CHOP-based regimens or brentuximab-vedotin, crizotinib (if ALK+), romidepsin, pralatrexate. Consider allogeneic stem cell transplant

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

CASTLEMAN DISEASE

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—lymphoid proliferation associated with POEMS syndrome, lymphomas (Hodgkin, non-Hodgkin), and Kaposi sarcoma. HIV and HHV8 common in multicentric subtype
- CLINICAL FEATURES—unicentric (isolated lymphadenopathy, benign, HHV8 negative).

Multiple Myeloma

TYPES OF PLASMA CELL DYSCRASIAS

MULTIPLE MYELOMA (75%)—malignant clone extends from pre-B-cell to plasma cell stage of differentiation. May produce IgG (60%), IgA (20%), or light chains (15%)

WALDENSTRÖM MACROGLOBULEMIA (20%)—proliferation of plasmacytoid lymphocytes (cell type that occurs earlier than plasma cell). Produces IgM. Now classified as lymphoplasmacytic lymphoma

HEAVY-CHAIN DEPOSITION DISEASE—IgA, IgG, or IgM heavy chain

LIGHT-CHAIN DEPOSITION DISEASE— κ or λ light chain

AL (PRIMARY) AMYLOIDOSIS— λ or κ light chain

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

MGUS—occurs in 2% of population over age 50 and 3% over age 70. Rate of transformation to malignant plasma cell disorder (multiple myeloma, Waldenström macroglobulinemia, primary amyloidosis, B-cell lymphoma, or chronic lymphocytic leukemia) is about 1% per year

RISK FACTORS

- PERSONAL—old age, Black race
- DISEASES—chronic polyclonal hypergammaglobulinemia
- TREATMENT—radiation

CLINICAL FEATURES

SYMPTOMS

- PANCYTOPENIA—weakness, fatigue, infections, gingival bleed, ecchymosis, epistaxis, menorrhagia
- INCREASED POLYCLONAL PROTEIN—infections due to \$\u03c4\$ normal Ig, hyperviscosity syndrome
- LYTIC BONE LESIONS—pain, fractures
- нурексацсемиа—weakness, nausea, abdominal pain, polyuria, altered mental status
- NEUROLOGIC—peripheral neuropathy from amyloidosis, plasma cell infiltration of the

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

Multicentric (fever, night sweats, fatigue, lymphadenopathy, pulmonary infiltrates, frequently HHV8 and HIV positive)

 TREATMENTS—unicentric (resection with high chance of cure, radiation, rituximab). Multicentric (rituximab, steroid, antivirals, anti-IL-6, CHOP)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

 $\begin{array}{ll} \mbox{meninges, cord compression, or radiculopathy} \\ \mbox{from vertebral osteolytic lesions} \ \pm \\ \mbox{plasmacytoma} \end{array}$

- RENAL FAILURE
 - PRE-RENAL—N&V, renal vein thrombosis
 - RENAL—myeloma kidney (tubulointerstitial damage from increased light chain absorption at proximal tubule), plasma cell infiltration, Bence Jones/cast nephropathy, amyloidosis (λ), light-chain deposition disease (x), hypercalcemia (nephrogenic DI), cryoglobulinemia, pyelonephritis, sepsis
 - POST-RENAL—renal stones (uric acid), neurogenic bladder
- CONSTITUTIONAL—anorexia, fatigue, weight loss

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, peripheral smear, lytes, urea, Cr, Ca, β2 microglobulin, serum viscosity, quantitative immunoglobulin, albumin, serum protein electrophoresis (reciprocal depression), urinary protein electrophoresis, 24 h urinary collection for Bence Jones protein
- IMAGING—MRI or PET-CT; if not available use a skeletal survey (NB: standard bone scan does *not* play a role in routine myeloma staging)
- BONE MARROW BIOPSY
- NOTE—light chain myeloma (20%) may have normal serum protein electrophoresis. Urinary Bence Jones protein (urine protein electrophoresis) is required to detect paraproteinemia; non-secretory myeloma (3%) requires bone marrow biopsy for diagnosis

Related Topics

Amyloidosis (p. 483) Renal Failure (p. 84)

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

REVISED INTERNATIONAL MYELOMA WORKING GROUP CRITERIA FOR MGUS, SMOLDERING MYELOMA (SMM), AND MULTIPLE MYELOMA (MM)

MGUS

- Criteria 1. Serum monoclonal protein (lgG or lgA) <3 g/dL [<30 g/L]

and

2. Clonal bone marrow plasma cells <10%

and

- Absence of myeloma defining events or amyloidosis or Waldenström macroglobulinemia in the case of IgM MGUS
- Serum monoclonal protein (IgG or IgA) ≥3 g/dL [≥30 g/L]

and/or

SMM

 Urine monoclonal protein ≥500 mg/24 hours

and/or

 Clonal bone marrow plasma cells ≥10-60%

and

 Absence of myeloma defining events or amyloidosis

MM

 Clonal bone marrow plasma cells ≥10% or biopsy proven bony or soft tissue plasmacytoma

and either #2 or #3

- End-organ disease with at least one of *CRAB*
- a) Calcium (>2.75 mmol/L [>11 mg/dL] or >0.25 mmol/L [>1 mg/dL] above upper limit of normal)
- Benal insufficiency (Cr >177 μmol/L [>2 mg/dL])
- c) Anemia (Hb <100 g/L [<10 g/dL] or >20 g/L [2 g/dL] below lower limit of normal)
- d) Bone lesions (one or more osteolytic lesions. If bone marrow has <10% clonal plasma cells, >1 bone lesion is required to distinguish it from solitary plasmacytoma
- 3. Biomarkers of malignancy
- a) Clonal bone marrow plasma cells ≥60%
- b) An involved serum free light chain (κ or λ) >100 mg/L with the ratio of the involved/uninvolved free light chains also \geq 100 mg/L
- c) From MRI imaging, there must be more than one lesion of >5 mm in size

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

DIAGNOSTIC CLUES

- symptoms—the presence of tissue impairment suggests either multiple myeloma (usually high M-protein) or amyloidosis (usually low M-protein). AL amyloidosis is characterized by insoluble, toxic amyloid precursor (light chains) aggregates that deposit in tissues in antiparallel β-pleated sheet configuration. The absence of symptoms suggests MGUS or SMM
- QUANTITATIVE IG—typically decreased serum levels of normal polyclonal immunoglobulins in multiple myeloma. However, this may also occur in MGUS
- SERUM M PROTEIN LEVEL—the higher the level (e.g. >30 g/L [>3 g/dL]), the higher the likelihood of multiple myeloma

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

- SERUM LIGHT CHAIN LEVELS—multiple myeloma will have a serum involved/uninvolved free light chain (k or \lambda) ratio of 100 or greater, provided the absolute level of the involved light chain is at least 100 mg/L; a free light chain ratio (FLC ratio) < 0.26 or > 1.65 predicts high risk MGUS
- BENCE JONES PROTEINURIA—the presence of monoclonal light chains (especially >1 g/day) in the urine suggests multiple myeloma. However, small amounts (<50 mg/day) may also occur in MGUS
- IMAGING—to assess bony involvement for patients suspected of multiple myeloma. Patients with SMM may require imaging including PET-CT, low-dose whole-body CT, or MRI of whole body or spine/pelvis

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

DURIE-SALMON STAGING FOR MULTIPLE MYELOMA

- stage I (low tumor burden, <0.6×10¹²/m²)—all of Hb >100 g/L [>10 g/dL], Ca²⁺ ≤ 2.6 mmol/L [≤10.4 mg/dL], bones normal or solitary bone plasmacytoma only, IgG <50 g/L [<5 g/dL], IgA <30 g/L [<3 g/dL], and urinary λ or κ chains <4 g/day. Median survival ~60 months
- stage II (intermediate burden, 0.6–1.2×10¹²/ m²)—between stages I and III. Median survival ~30 months
- **STAGE III** (high tumor burden, $>1.2 \times 10^{12}/m^2$) any of Hb <85 g/L [<8.5 g/dL], Ca²⁺ >2.6 mmol/L [>10.4 mg/dL], >3 lytic lesions, plus one of IgG >70 g/L [>7 g/dL], IgA >50 g/L [>5 g/dL], or urinary λ or κ chains >12 g/day. Median survival ~15 months
- substages—A (Cr <175 μmol/L [<1.9 mg/dL]) and B (renal failure with Cr >175 μmol/L [>1.9 mg/dL])

PROGNOSTIC FACTORS FOR MULTIPLE MYELOMA— β 2 microglobulin, albumin, platelet, creatinine, and age. The international staging system for multiple myeloma is particularly useful. The revised version incorporates cytogenetic markers

- stage ι—β2 microglobulin < 3.5 mg/L, albumin ≥35 g/L [≥3.5 g/dL]. Median survival 62 months
- stage II—neither stage I nor III. Median survival 44 months
- stage III—β2 microglobulin ≥5.5 mg/L. Median survival 29 months

MANAGEMENT

MULTIPLE MYELOMA

- AGE <65 AND OTHERWISE HEALTHY (curative intent)—induction chemotherapy carfilzomib + lenalidomide + dexamethasone, or bortezomib + lenalidomide + dexamethasone. If good response, then proceed to high-dose melphalan followed by autologous SCT. Post-SCT maintenance therapy with lenalidomide is recommended
- AGE >65 OR COMORBIDITIES (palliative intent) carfilzomib + lenalidomide + dexamethasone, bortezomib + lenalidomide + dexamethasone, ixazomib + lenalidomide + dexamethasone. If bony disease, add bisphosphonate (alendronate, zoledronate)
- SUPPORTIVE MEASURES—hydration (>3 L/day),
 hypercalcemia (hydration, prednisone

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

25 mg PO QID, pamidronate), **renal insufficiency** (treat underlying cause), **infections** (antibiotics, consider IVIG as last resort if recurrent infections despite prophylactic antibiotics), **skeletal lesions** (*pamidronate* 90 mg IV over 2 h q3–4weeks, radiation, vertebroplasty), **anemia** Hb <90 g/L [<9 g/dL] (transfusions, usually respond to an erythropoiesis stimulating agent, although one should exercise caution given the increased risk of thromboembolism and death), **hyperviscosity syndrome** (Ostwald viscosimeter >5, plasmapheresis), **prophylactic anticoagulation** (if on thalidomide/lenalidomide and chemotherapy)

SMM—no treatment or clinical trial. Follow clinically

MGUS—no treatment. Follow clinically

TREATMENT ISSUES

INDICATIONS FOR TREATING MULTIPLE MYELOMA—>stage I, increasing level of M-protein in serum or urine, significant hypercalcemia, anemia, renal insufficiency, lytic bone lesions, extramedullary plasmacytoma

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

SOLITARY PLASMACYTOMA OF BONE—single osteolytic bone lesion with limited amount of monoclonal protein in the serum or urine and absence of tissue impairment. Radiation is usually treatment of choice and may result in a cure. 80% chance of developing multiple myeloma

AMYLOIDOSIS—See p. 483 for more details. Workup includes abdominal fat biopsy, abd US, and echocardiogram

POEMS SYNDROME—osteosclerotic myeloma with Polyneuropathy, Organomegaly, Endocrine (diabetes, hypothyroidism, parathyroid, hypogonadism), Monoclonal protein, Skin changes (hyperpigmentation, hypertrichosis, acrocyanosis, plethora, hemangioma/telangiectasia). Polyneuropathy and monoclonal plasma cell disorder most important

HYPERVISCOSITY SYNDROME—IgG >70 g/L [>7 g/dL] or IgA >50 g/L [>5 g/dL]. Symptoms include fatigue, changes in mental status, focal or non-focal neurologic changes, visual changes along with retinopathy, angina pectoris, bleeding disorder, cryoglobulin, Raynaud phenomenon, or purpuric eruptions on exposure to the cold

Febrile Neutropenia

See FEBRILE NEUTROPENIA (p. 250)

Hematopoietic Stem Cell Transplant

TERMINOLOGIES

ALLOGENEIC TRANSPLANTATION (40%) stem cells from HLA-matched sibling donor (25%) or unrelated donor (75%). The main advantage is graft vs. leukemia effect (GVL), while the main disadvantage is graft vs. host effect (GVHD)

AUTOLOGOUS TRANSPLANTATION (60%) stem cells from self. The main advantage is lesser toxicity compared to allogeneic transplant, while the main disadvantage is possible contamination of the graft with malignant cells

HAPLOIDENTICAL TRANSPLANTATION (increasing use in adults)—stem cells from parent, child or sibling. Main advantage is the relative ease of identifying a donor, while the main disadvantage is graft rejection and GVHD

DONOR SOURCE—peripheral blood (10–20 L of blood, mobilization with GCSF, venipuncture, leukapheresis [up to 3 times for autologous stem cell transplant], faster engraftment, and improved overall survival [for autologous stem cell transplant and matched sibling allogeneic transplant]), bone marrow, umbilical cord blood (expands supply of donors, although limited amount of stem cells in cord blood can affect engraftment and directs frequent use of "dual cord" transplantation; less GVHD with mismatches)

COMMON INDICATIONS

DECIDING BETWEEN ALLOGENEIC AND AUTOLOGOUS STEM CELL SOURCE—dependent on age, underlying disease, donor availability, institutional preference. In general, allogeneic transplant is more suitable for younger, healthier adults as it is more toxic but potentially more effective than autologous transplant

ALLOGENEIC—acute leukemia (50–70% cure if first remission, 10–30% cure if relapse), myelodysplastic syndrome (40–50% cure rate), chronic myeloid leukemia (50–70% cure if chronic phase, 10–30% cure if blast phase), chronic lymphocytic leukemia, indolent lymphoma, severe immunodeficiency syndromes, hemoglobinopathies

AUTOLOGOUS—progressive Hodgkin lymphoma (60-70% cure if relapse, 40-50% cure if

COMMON INDICATIONS (CONT'D)

refractory disease), multiple myeloma, relapsed and progressive large cell lymphoma, relapsed germ cell cancer

ALLOGENEIC TRANSPLANTATION

HUMAN LEUKOCYTE ANTIGEN MOLECULES—responsible for displaying endogenous and exogenous peptides to T-cells. Mismatch between host and donor HLA type could result in GVHD, graft failure, or death. Note that transplant is not affected by differences in ABO blood groups

HLA CLASS I—HLA-A, HLA-B, HLA-C

HLA CLASS II—HLA-DR, HLA-DQ, HLA-DP

MATCHING PROCESS—ensure good match of HLA-A, HLA-B, HLA-C, DRB1, and DQB1. The chance of finding a sibling match is 1–0.75ⁿ, where n = number of siblings. The chance of finding a matched unrelated donor is >60%, higher for Caucasians and lower for other races. Search for a match typically takes 3–4 months

CONDITIONING—goal is to eradicate malignancy and suppress recipient's immune system to minimize rejection of donor's stem cells. Myeloablative regimens include cyclophosphamide plus total body irradiation (TBI) or high-dose busulfan. Reduced intensity regimens include fludarabine plus busulfan. Reduced intensity (also known as non-myeloablative or "mini" transplant) regimens use a milder conditioning regimen more tolerable for older patients (e.g. fludarabine plus cyclophosphamide, melphalan). Monitor toxicities closely during this time

- нематоLодіс—pancytopenia, febrile neutropenia
- EARLY NON-HEMATOLOGIC—alopecia, N&V, oropharyngeal mucositis, diarrhea, sinusoidal obstruction syndrome (previously known as hepatic venoocclusive disease with tender hepatomegaly, jaundice and ascites), seizures, parotitis, pericarditis, cardiomyopathy, interstitial pneumonitis, hemorrhagic cystitis, rash
- LATE NON-HEMATOLOGIC—hypothyroidism, sterility or premature menopause, growth impair-

ALLOGENEIC TRANSPLANTATION (CONT'D)

ment, dry eyes or mouth, cataracts, osteopenia or osteoporosis

- FERTILITY—infertility is almost certain in both men and women after TBI regimens, but not definite with non-TBI regimens. Consider oocyte/sperm/embryo cryopreservation
- SECOND MALIGNANCIES—increased incidence of solid tumors (bone, oropharynx, connective tissue, CNS, thyroid, melanoma), myelodysplastic syndrome, acute myelogenous leukemia, and lymphoproliferative disorders. Highest risks in patients with TBI

TRANSPLANTATION—infusion of stem cells over 30 min to 2 h

ENGRAFTMENT—typically happens between days +10 and +20. Defined as ANC > $0.5 \times 10^{3}/\mu$ L, with platelet and RBC engraftment following. GCSF may be used in non-leukemic patients to accelerate engraftment by up to 1 week. Patient is supported with blood products and antimicrobial prophylaxis (e.g. ciprofloxacin for Gram-negatives, trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole for PJP, acyclovir for HSV, fluconazole for fungal agents) until engraftment occurs. Failure to engraft (primary graft failure) and irreversible decline of blood counts (secondary graft failure) are serious complications (<5%). For non-myeloablative transplant, perform chimerism analysis and consider either donor leukocyte infusion (DLI) or reducing immunosuppression to improve disease control

IMMUNE RECONSTITUTION—restoration of T-cell and B-cell immunity takes up to 12 months. Immunosuppressive treatment can usually be stopped within 1–3 years post-allogeneic transplant. GVHD is a donor T-cell-mediated process. Overall transplant-related mortality is approximately 20–25%

GRAFT VS HOST DISEASE

 Acure GVHD (<100 days)—occurs in 40% of matched sibling and 80% of unrelated donor transplant. Symptoms include rash, hepatic dysfunction, diarrhea, vomiting. Mortality up to 80% in grade III and IV acute GVHD. Prophylaxis consisting of methotrexate and cyclosporine is usually used for anyone other than identical twins. Treatments include corticosteroids, cyclosporine, mycophenolate mofetil, tacrolimus, and antithymocyte globulin CHRONIC GVHD (>100 days)—an autoimmune syndrome occurs in up to 50% of matched sibling and >50% of unrelated donor transplant. Symptoms include oral and ocular changes (sicca), alopecia, cholestatic hepatic dysfunction, polyserositis, cutaneous scleroderma, and bronchiolitis obliterans. Treatments include corticosteroids and cyclosporine or tacrolimus for at least 6 months

INFECTIONS

- PRE-ENGRAFTMENT (<30 days)—HSV, Gramnegative bacteria, Gram-positive Streptococcus, fungal, central line infections (Staphylococcus epidermis)
- EARLY INFECTIONS (30–100 days)—CMV, some fungal, PJP, central line infections (*S. epidermis*)
- LATE INFECTIONS (>100 days)—VZV, encapsulated bacteria, PJP, Aspergillus

AUTOLOGOUS TRANSPLANTATION

MATCHING PROCESS—not applicable

CONDITIONING—similar to allogeneic transplant. Regimens include CBV (cyclophosphamide, BCNU, etoposide), cyclophosphamide plus total body irradiation, and BEAM (BCNU, etoposide, cytosine arabinoside, melphalan)

TRANSPLANTATION—similar to allogeneic transplant, except stem cells obtained from patient pretransplant and cryopreserved

ENGRAFTMENT—similar to allogeneic transplant

IMMUNORECONSTITUTION—more rapid immune recovery and no GVHD. Overall transplant-related mortality is approximately 2%

LATE EFFECTS—MDS and AML in at least 10% of patients 5–10 years after autologous transplant

Related Topics

Acute Leukemia (p. 187) Non-Hodgkin Lymphoma (p. 194) Febrile Neutropenia (p. 250) Fungal Infections (p. 286) Multiple Myeloma (p. 199) Sepsis (p. 118) Tumor Lysis Syndrome (p. 244)



Lung Cancer

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION BY HISTOLOGY

- SMALL CELL (SCLC, 15%)—mainly seen in smokers, central lesions, early metastasis compared to NSCLC
- NON-SMALL CELL (NSCLC, 85%)
 - ADENOCARCINOMA (50–60%)—women, may develop in nonsmokers (account for 25%), peripheral lesions
 - squamous (25%)—mainly seen in smokers, central, cavitary lesions
 - LARGE CELL (15%)—peripheral lesions with prominent necrosis, slightly worse prognosis than squamous and adenocarcinoma, diagnosis of exclusion
- CARCINOID (2%)—neuroendocrine origin. May cause airway obstruction, ectopic Cushing, and carcinoid syndrome
- CYSTIC ADENOID CARCINOMA—locally invasive but may also metastasize
- carcinosarcoma—localized lesion usually RISK FACTORS
- **SMOKING**—30 × increased risk compared to nonsmokers. Smokers have 30% lifetime risk of developing lung cancer. 85–90% of all lung cancers are related to smoking. Polymorphisms in carcinogen activating enzymes (*N-acetyltransferase* [NAT1 and NAT2], CYP

Reck et al. *NEJM* 2017;377(9) NCCN Guidelines v6.2020

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

1A1 and 2A6) and inactivating enzymes (glutathione S-transferase S1 and M1) may contribute to individual susceptibility. The duration of smoking is a stronger risk factor than the number of cigarettes smoked. Cigar/ pipe smoking (2 ×) and second-hand smoke (1.3 ×) are also risk factors

- ENVIRONMENTAL—asbestos (7 ×), arsenic, silica, chromium, nickel, polycyclic hydrocarbons, radon (10 ×), β-carotene supplements (in heavy smokers, 2–3 ×)
- DISEASES—tuberculosis, COPD, pulmonary fibrosis, previous radiation
- FAMILY HISTORY

CLINICAL FEATURES

LOCOREGIONAL—cough, sputum, hemoptysis, dyspnea, chest pain, wheezing, dysphagia, brachial plexus (Pancoast tumor), hoarseness, Horner syndrome (miosis, ptosis, anhidrosis), superior vena cava syndrome (dilated neck veins, facial edema, plethoric appearance)

METASTATIC—bone pain, jaundice, seizures, headaches, adrenal lesions, skin lesions

CONSTITUTIONAL—weight loss, anorexia, fatigue

PARANEOPLASTIC SYNDROMES

| | SCLC | Squamous | Adenocarcinoma | Large cell |
|---|------|----------|----------------|------------|
| SIADH | 1 | | | |
| Ectopic Cushing syndrome | 1 | | | |
| Neurological syndromes ^a | 1 | | | |
| Hypercalcemia | | 1 | 1 | |
| Clubbing or hypertrophic osteoarthropathy | | ✓ | 1 | |

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CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

Hypercoagulable state

Gynecomastia

^aNeurological syndromes associated with SCLC include dementia, cerebellar degeneration, limbic encephalopathy, optic neuritis and retinopathy, paraneoplastic sensory neuropathy (anti-Hu antibodies), and Lambert-Eaton syndrome

STAGING

STAGING FOR SMALL CELL LUNG CANCER

- LIMITED STAGE (40%, median survival 15–20 months)—tumor confined to the ipsilateral hemithorax, mediastinum, and supraclavicular nodes, which can be included within a tolerable radiation therapy port
- EXTENSIVE STAGE (60%, median survival 8–13 months)—non-limited stage, including pleural effusion

TNM STAGING FOR NON-SMALL CELL LUNG CANCER

T stage

- T1—≤3 cm surrounded by lung or visceral pleura, no bronchoscopic evidence of main bronchus invasion
 - T1a(mi)—minimally invasive adenocarcinoma
 - − **T1**A—tumor ≤ 1 cm
 - **T1**_B—tumor >1 cm to ≤ 2 cm
 - **T1c**—tumor >2 cm to \leq 3 cm
- T2—>3 cm to ≤5 cm, invasion of main bronchus but not carina, invasion of visceral pleura, or associated with atelectasis or obstructive pneumonitis that extends to the hilar region, involving part or all of the lung
 - **T2**_A—tumor >3 cm to \leq 4 cm
 - **T2**_B—tumor >4 cm to \leq 5 cm

STAGING (CONT'D)

- T3—>5 cm to ≤7 cm, associated with separate tumor nodule(s) in the same lobe as the primary tumor or invasion of chest wall, parietal pleura, phrenic nerve, parietal pericardium, or superior sulcus tumors
- T4—>7 cm, associated with separate tumor nodule(s) in a different ipsilateral lobe as the primary tumor or invasion of diaphragm, mediastinum, heart, great vessels, trachea, recurrent laryngeal nerve, esophagus, vertebral body, or carina

N stage

- N1—ipsilateral peribronchial and/or ipsilateral hilar lymph nodes and intrapulmonary nodes, including involvement by direct extension
- N2—ipsilateral mediastinal or subcarinal lymph node(s)
- N3—contralateral mediastinal, contralateral hilar, ipsilateral or contralateral scalene, or supraclavicular lymph node(s)
- M stage (lungs, liver, bones, brain)
- M1a—separate tumor nodule(s) in a contralateral lobe; tumor with pleural or pericardial nodule(s) or malignant pleural or pericardial effusion
- M1B—single extrathoracic metastasis
- M1c—multiple extrathoracic metastases in one or more organs

STAGE GROUPINGS

| Stage | TNM @=any | Median survival | 2 year survival | 5 year survival |
|-------|--|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| IA1 | T1aN0M0 | Not reached | 97% | 92% |
| IA2 | T1bN0M0 | Not reached | 94% | 83% |
| IA3 | T1cN0M0 | Not reached | 90% | 77% |
| IB | T2aN0M0 | Not reached | 87% | 68% |
| IIA | T2bN0M0 | Not reached | 79% | 60% |
| IIB | T1a-T1cN1M0, T2N1M0, T3N0M0 | 66 m | 72% | 53% |
| IIIA | T1a-T1cN2M0, T2N2M0, T3N1M0, T4N0-1M0 | 29 m | 55% | 36% |



STAGING (CONT'D)

| Stage | TNM @=any | Median survival | 2 year survival | 5 year survival |
|-------|--|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| IIIB | T1a-T1cN3M0, T2N3M0, T3N2M0, T4N2M0 | 19 m | 44% | 26% |
| IIIC | T3N3M0, T4N3M0 | 13 m | 24% | 13% |
| IVA | T@N@M1a-M1b | 12 m | 23% | 10% |
| IVB | T@N@M1c | 6 m | 10% | 0% |

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, LDH, INR, PTT, Ca, albumin, CEA
- IMAGING—CXR (compared to old) and CT chest and upper abdomen (adrenals)
- BIOPSY—bronchoscopy with lavage/wash/ brushings/biopsy (if central lesion), endobronchial US (EBUS) with biopsy (if suspect nodal disease), thoracentesis (if pleural effusion), CTguided transthoracic needle aspiration (if peripheral lesion), mediastinoscopy (if any nodes on CT and potentially resectable disease, sens 90%, spc 100%), thoracotomy

SPECIAL

- PET/CT—sens 88%, spc 85%. Usually used for staging in patients with potentially resectable disease
- PULMONARY FUNCTION TEST—if surgical candidate
- BONE SCAN—if bone pain, elevated ALP or Ca, ≥N2
- CT HEAD OR MR HEAD—if ≥ N2 or symptomatic NSCLC, all SCLC
- REPEATED SPUTUM CYTOLOGY—sens 60–80% for central lesions, 15–30% for peripheral lesions

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

KARNOFSKY PERFORMANCE STATUS

| PS | Function |
|------|---|
| 100% | Normal, no complaints, no evidence of disease |
| 90% | Able to carry on normal activity: minor symptoms of disease |
| 80% | Normal activity with effort: some symptoms of disease |
| 70% | Cares for self: unable to carry on normal activity or active work |
| 60% | Requires occasional assistance but is able to care for needs |
| 50% | Requires considerable assistance and frequent medical care |

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

PS Function

- 40% Disabled: requires special care and assistance
- 30% Severely disabled: hospitalization is indicated, death not imminent
- 20% Very sick, hospitalization necessary: active treatment necessary
- 10% Moribund, fatal processes progressing rapidly

0% Dead

EASTERN CO-OPERATIVE ONCOLOGY GROUP (ECOG) PERFORMANCE STATUS

- 0-normal. KPS 100%
- 1—restricted in physically strenuous activity but ambulatory and able to carry out work of a light or sedentary nature, e.g. light house work, office work. KPS 80–90%
- 2—ambulatory and capable of all self-care but unable to carry out any work activities. Up and about more than 50% of waking hours. KPS 60–70%
- 3—capable of only limited self-care, confined to bed or chair >50% of waking hours. KPS 40–50%
- 4—completely disabled. Cannot carry on any selfcare. Totally confined to bed or chair. KPS 10–30%
- 5—dead. KPS 0%

ADVERSE PROGNOSTIC FACTORS

- GENERAL—poor performance status (ECOG >1), involuntary weight loss (>5%), advanced stage, SCLC
- POOR OUTCOME AFTER SURGERY—poor performance status, weight loss (>5%), low FEV1, low P_aO₂, recent history of smoking

 PROGNOSIS
 OF
 SMALL
 CELL
 LUNG

 CANCER—limited stage 20–40%
 2-year survival,

 16–24 months
 median survival; extensive stage

 <5%</td>
 2-year survival,
 6–12 months
 median survival; survival,

 vival.
 Median survival post-relapse 4 months
 Survival

MANAGEMENT

NON-SMALL CELL LUNG CANCER

- STAGE I/II—lobectomy/pneumonectomy. Consider stereotactic radiation if inoperable. Consider adjuvant chemotherapy (e.g., cisplatin–vinorelbine ×4) if high-risk features (e.g. >4 cm, stage II). Consider adjuvant radiation if incomplete resection or positive margin
- STAGE IIIA (N1 disease)—lobectomy/ pneumonectomy followed by adjuvant chemotherapy
- stage IIIa (N2 disease) AND IIIB—concurrent chemoradiation (e.g. cisplatin + etoposide × 4, carboplatin + pemetrexed × 4 [if nonsquamous]) followed by maintenance durvalumab
- STAGE IV—PD-L1 testing in all patients. Also look for driver mutations in patients with adenocarcinoma, mixed histologies, and neversmokers with squamous cell carcinoma to tailor the choice of systemic therapy (chemotherapy, targeted therapy, and/or immunotherapy). Consider palliative radiation before systemic therapy (if patients present with symptomatic brain metastases, hemoptysis, SVC syndrome, severe bone pain or obstructive pneumonia). Palliative care referral if supportive care needs

- ADENOCARCINOMA

- DRIVER MUTATION PRESENT—treatment based on mutation. EGFR mutation (osimertinib [preferred], erlotinib. gefitinib, afatinib); ALK fusion oncogene (alectinib [preferred], ceritinib, crizotinib, lorlatinib, brigatinib); ROS1 rearrangement (entrectinib, crizotinib. lorlatinib); MET exon 14 skipping mutation (capmatinib, crizotinib); RET rearrangement (selpercatinib, vandetanib, cabozantinib); BRAF V600E (dabrafenib + trametinib)
- DRIVER MUTATION ABSENT, PD-L1 ≥50%—single agent immunotherapy (nivolumab, pembrolizumab, atezolizumab)
- DRIVER MUTATION ABSENT, PD-L1 <50%—doublet chemotherapy (cisplatin/carboplatin, pemetrexed) ± immunotherapy (pembrolizumab, atezolizumab) ± bevacizumab
- RECURRENT DISEASE—docetaxel ± ramucirumab
- SQUAMOUS CELL CARCINOMA

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

- DRIVER MUTATION PRESENT—Same treatment as above, but mutations are less common in pure squamous cell carcinoma
- DRIVER MUTATION ABSENT, PD-L1 ≥50%—single agent immunotherapy (nivolumab, pembrolizumab, atezolizumab)
- DRIVER MUTATION ABSENT, PD-L1 <50%—doublet chemotherapy (carboplatin + paclitaxel) + immunotherapy (pembrolizumab)
- RECURRENT DISEASE—docetaxel ± ramucirumab, carboplatin + gemcitabine

SMALL CELL LUNG CANCER

- LIMITED STAGE, T1-2N0—lobectomy followed by adjuvant chemotherapy or concurrent chemoradiation (if mediastinal lymph node involvement)
- LIMITED STAGE, >T1-2N0—concurrent chemoradiation (e.g. cisplatin + etoposide).
 Consider prophylactic cranial irradiation if good partial/complete response
- EXTENSIVE STAGE—palliative chemotherapy (e.g. carboplatin + etoposide + atezolizumab [preferred], cisplatin + irinotecan).
 Consider prophylactic cranial irradiation if partial/complete response. For recurrent disease after platinum-based therapy, consider lurbinectedin, topotecan, paclitaxel, docetaxel, vinorelbine, irinotecan, oral etoposide, gemcitabine, or temozolomide

NEUROENDOCRINE TUMORS

- LOW GRADE (TYPICAL CARCINOID)—lobectomy
- INTERMEDIATE GRADE (ATYPICAL CARCINOID) lobectomy±adjuvant chemotherapy cisplatinetoposide (if stage II or III)
- HIGH GRADE LARGE CELL NEUROENDOCRINE CARCI-NOMA—treat as non-small cell lung cancer
- HIGH GRADE NEUROENDOCRINE SMALL CELL CARCI-NOMA OR COMBINED HISTOLOGIES—treat as small cell lung cancer

TREATMENT ISSUES

DRIVER MUTATIONS FOR METASTATIC NSCLC—mutations that "drive" the development and progression of lung cancer and therefore can be "targetable." Driver mutations include EGFR (15% in USA, more often in nonsmokers; 62% in Asians), ALK (4% in USA, nonsmoker and younger patients), ROS1 (1–2% in USA), BRAF (2%), MET exon 14 and RET. KRAS mutation also occur in 25% but clinical efforts to target KRAS have been disappointing

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

PD-L1 TESTING FOR METASTATIC NSCLC immune checkpoint inhibitors are antibodies that target the programmed death 1 (PD-1) pathway. Approximately 20% have substantial and often durable response to monotherapy immunotherapy if PD-L1 expression >50%

SMOKING CESSATION—for smokers of <20 pack year, the risk of developing lung cancer decreases significantly after 15 years of abstinence, but still slightly higher than non-smokers

NON-RESECTABLE DISEASE CRITERIA (stage IIIB or greater)—distant metastasis, mediastinal lymph node metastasis, trachea/contralateral

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

main bronchi involvement, SVC obstruction, malignant pleural effusion, recurrent laryngeal nerve paralysis, SCLC (unless very early)

CONTRAINDICATIONS TO CHEST RADIATION—significant pre-existing lung disease, cardiomyopathy, connective tissue disease (SLE, scleroderma), prior radiation to same body region, pregnancy

CONTRAINDICATIONS TO BEVACIZUMAB squamous cell carcinoma, hemoptysis, uncontrolled cerebral metastases, non-healing wounds, uncontrolled hypertension/proteinuria, bleeding diatheses, recent trauma/surgery

Mesothelioma

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION BY HISTOLOGY

- EPITHELIOID—tubulopapillary, glandular, or solid. 50–60%, better prognosis
- sarcomatoid—spindle cells
- BIPHASIC mixed with both epithelioid and sarcomatoid features

ASBESTOS AND MESOTHELIOMA—accounts for approximately 80% of mesothelioma. Risk of mesothelioma is higher with amphiboles/blue asbestos than chrysotile/white asbestos. Asbestos fibers may irritate the pleura, sever or pierce the mitotic spindle of cells and disrupt mitosis, induce generation of iron-related reactive oxygen species, and phosphorylate MAP kinases and ERK 1 and 2. Tumor usually starts from parietal pleura and invades locally

RISK FACTORS

- FAMILY HISTORY—rare
- ENVIRONMENTAL—asbestos, radiation

CLINICAL FEATURES

LOCOREGIONAL—pleural (pleural effusion, pleuritic chest pain, dyspnea, SVC obstruction), peritoneal (ascites, abdominal pain, bowel obstruction), pericardial (pericardial effusion, tamponade)

METASTATIC—miliary spread, liver, lung, bone, and/or adrenal lesions

CONSTITUTIONAL—weight loss, anorexia, fatigue

Scherpereel et al. *Lancet Oncol* 2018;19(3) NCCN Guidelines v1.2020

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bili
- MAGING—CXR, CT chest/abd, or MRI chest
- вюряч—thoracentesis (sens 33–84%, cytology is usually inadequate), video-assisted thoracoscopy (VAT) with pleural biopsy

SPECIAL

- soluble mesothelin-related protein (SMRP) serum or pleural fluid: sens 75–84%
- **PET scan**—if surgical candidate

PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

PROGNOSIS BY STAGE—median survival times for stage I, II, III and IV mesothelioma are 20, 19, 16 and 11 months, respectively

ADVERSE PROGNOSTIC FACTORS—male, poor performance status, sarcomatoid subtype, leukocytosis, anemia, thrombocytosis, advanced stage, high PET ratios

MANAGEMENT

STAGE I, II (resectable disease)—surgery (pleurectomy/decortication, extrapleural pneumonectomy, debulking). Choice of type of surgery is controversial as neither will yield an R0 resection. Pleurectomy/decortication should be the first option for patients with operable early stage disease and is an option for patients with locally advanced disease who are not candidates for extrapleural pneumonectomy. Extrapleural pneu-
MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

monectomy should be considered for highly selected patients (age <55, performance status ≤ 1 , stage I or II, epithelioid histology) and only after a good response to **neoadjuvant chemo-therapy**, to be followed by **adjuvant radiation**. Otherwise, treat as unresectable disease

STAGE III, IV (unresectable disease)—palliative **chemotherapy** (cisplatin + pemetrexed with

Thymoma and Thymic Carcinoma

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION BY HISTOLOGY

- EPITHELIAL
- NEUROENDOCRINE
- GERM CELL
- LYMPHOID
- STROMAL

CLINICAL FEATURES

LOCOREGIONAL—dyspnea, cough, chest pain, hoarseness, dysphagia, superior vena cava obstruction

METASTATIC

CONSTITUTIONAL—weight loss, anorexia, fatigue **PARANEOPLASTIC**—myasthenia gravis (30–50%, diplopia, ptosis, dysphagia, weakness, fatigue), pure red cell aplasia (5–15%), pure white cell aplasia, pancytopenia, hypogammaglobulinemia (recurrent infections, diarrhea), rheumatologic diseases, and endocrinopathies. Note that remission of thymoma does not necessarily correlate with improvement of paraneoplastic syndromes

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, AST, ALT, ALP, bili
- IMAGING—CXR, CT chest
- BIOPSY

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

vitamin B12 and folic acid supplementation ± bevacizumab, cisplatin + gemcitabine, vinorelbine). Immunotherapy (pembrolizumab, nivolumab ± ipilimumab). **Pleurodesis or indwelling pleural catheters** should be considered if recurrent effusion. **Palliative care referral** if supportive care needs

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DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

BIOPSY—surgical biopsy should be avoided if resectable thymoma is strongly suspected based on clinical and radiologic features. Biopsy of a possible thymoma should avoid a transpleural approach

MANAGEMENT

STAGE I, II, III (resectable disease)—**resection** (usually including adjacent lung parenchyma and pericardium) \pm **adjuvant radiation** \pm (**neo**)**adjuvant chemotherapy** (cisplatin + doxorubicin + cyclophosphamide [preferred for thymoma], carboplatin + paclitaxel [preferred for thymic carcinoma], cisplatin + etoposide)

STAGE IV (unresectable disease)—**palliative radiation**±**palliative chemotherapy** (cisplatin + doxorubicin + cyclophosphamide [preferred for thymoma], carboplatin + paclitaxel [preferred for thymic carcinoma], cisplatin + etoposide). **Palliative care referral** if supportive care needs

TREATMENT ISSUES

INDICATIONS FOR RADIOTHERAPY—locally advanced or metastatic unresectable disease, residual disease post-resection, and complete resection of invasive thymoma or thymic carcinoma

Breast Cancer

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF BREAST MASS

BENIGN—cysts (obstructed collecting ducts), fibroadenoma (overgrowth of periductal stromal connective tissue within the lobules), mammary duct ectasia, intraductal papilloma, mastitis, fat necrosis

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DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF BREAST MASS (CONT'D)

ATYPICAL HYPERPLASIA— $3-5 \times$ increased risk of breast cancer

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF BREAST MASS (CONT'D)

CARCINOMA IN SITU—ductal (DCIS), lobular (LCIS)

MALIGNANT—breast cancer

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION OF IN SITU LESIONS

- DUCTAL CARCINOMA IN SITU (DCIS)—non-invasive breast cancer
- LOBULAR CARCINOMA IN SITU (LCIS)—not a cancer, diffuse and can be bilateral (risk of contralateral invasive breast cancer may be as high as ipsilateral disease). Marker for increased risk of development of invasive cancer (absolute risk ~1%/year of development of invasive cancer)

CLASSIFICATION OF MALIGNANT LESIONS

- DUCTAL ADENOCARCINOMA-80%
- LOBULAR ADENOCARCINOMA—10%, more likely to be bilateral and multicentric. Tends to metastasize later than ductal carcinoma and spreads to unusual sites such as Gl tract, peritoneum, and meninges. Most are ER +ve and 20–30% have E-cadherin mutations (associated with hereditary diffuse-type gastric cancer). Clinically, more difficult to detect by palpation and by mammography
- TUBULAR, MEDULLARY, PAPILLARY, COLLOID, SPINDLE CELL, MUCINOUS—10%, better prognosis
- sarcoma Like—phyllodes, post-radiation angiosarcoma

CLASSIFICATION BY RECEPTOR STATUS important clinically as defines natural history, prognosis, and therapeutic options

- ESTROGEN RECEPTOR (ER) AND PROGESTERONE RECEPTOR (PR)—70% of breast cancer is ER +ve, PR +ve or both +ve. These cancers are sensitive to anti-estrogen therapies
- HER2 RECEPTOR (HER2)—15-20% of breast cancer is Her2 amplified. HER2 positivity is a poor prognostic factor but predicts response to trastuzumab, pertuzumab, lapatinib, adotrastuzumab emtansine (T-DM1), trastuzumab deruxtecan, and tucatinib
- TRIPLE NEGATIVE BREAST CANCER (ER -ve, PR -ve, HER2 -ve)—15% of all breast cancer, most aggressive and more likely to be associated with BRCA1 mutation. Primary treatment is chemotherapy

RISK FACTORS

 PERSONAL—female, increased age, early age of menarche, late age of first parity, lack of breast feeding, late age of menopause, oral contraceptives (↑ risk if >4 years of use), hormone replacement, high socioeconomic status

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

- FAMILY HISTORY (10%)—affected relatives, BRCA1 and BRCA2 mutations (BRCA1 is associated with basal-like subtype and triple negative phenotype. BRCA2 is associated with luminal subtype), Li–Fraumeni syndrome, Cowden syndrome
- ENVIRONMENTAL—alcohol, low caloric intake, low physical activity, weight gain
- **PRIOR BREAST PATHOLOGY**—atypical hyperplasia, prior breast tumor (in situ or carcinoma)
- GAIL MODEL—used to estimate the risk of breast cancer in the Breast Cancer Detection and Demonstration Project. Includes age at menarche, age at first live birth, number of previous breast biopsies, presence of atypical hyperplasia in breast biopsy, and number of first-degree relatives with breast cancer

CLINICAL FEATURES

LOCOREGIONAL—breast lump (with or without pain), nipple discharge, eczema or retraction, skin erosion, erythema or edema, change in breast size, axillary adenopathy

METASTATIC—bone pain, seizure, headache, dyspnea, jaundice

CONSTITUTIONAL—fatigue, weight loss, anorexia

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, albumin
- IMAGING—mammogram (15% false negative), US breast, MRI breast (for dense breasts or those with BRCA1/2 mutations)
- BIOPSY—needle core biopsy (FNA provides cytology only and cannot differentiate between invasive and in situ disease), excisional biopsy (only when core biopsy is non-diagnostic)

SPECIAL

- IMAGING—bone scan and CT chest/abd/pelvis (if clinical suspicion or clinical stage IIIA [T3N1M0] or greater)
- TUMOR MARKERS—CA 15-3 or CA 27.29 only if metastatic disease

STAGING

TNM STAGING (staging is complex; stage grouping includes TNM stage, ER/PR/Her2 status and grade; for details please refer to *AJCC Cancer Staging Manual*, 8th ed.)

STAGING (CONT'D)

Anatomic Staging

- **T1**—≤20 mm
 - **Т1**мі—≤1 mm
 - T1A—>1 mm to ≤5 mm
 - − **T1**B—>5 mm to ≤10 mm
 - **T1c**—>10 mm to \leq 20 mm
- **T2**—>20 mm to ≤50 mm
- **T3**—>50 mm
- T4—fixed or invades bladder neck, external sphincter, rectum, levator muscles,and/or pelvic wall
 - T4A—extension to chest wall
 - T4B—ulceration and/or ipsilateral satellite nodules and/or edema (*peau d'orange*)
 - **T4c**—both T4a and T4b
 - **T4**D—inflammatory carcinoma

N stage

- N1—clinically movable ipsilateral axillary lymph nodes. Pathologically 1–3 axillary lymph node(s)
- N2—clinically fixed/matted ipsilateral axillary lymph nodes or ipsilateral internal mammary lymph nodes. Pathologically 4–9 axillary lymph node(s)
- N3—clinically ipsilateral internal mammary lymph nodes and axillary lymph nodes, ipsilateral infraclavicular lymph nodes, or ipsilateral supraclavicular lymph nodes. Pathologically ≥10 axillary lymph node(s)

M stage

M1—distant metastasis

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

MAMMOGRAPHIC FINDINGS OF BREAST CANCER—spiculated, crab-like, puckering lesions, architectural distortion, clustered microcalcifications

PROGNOSIS BY STAGE—5 year disease-free survival rates for stage I, II, III are 98–100%, 85–98% and 70–95%, respectively. Median survival for stage IV breast cancer is 2 years

POOR PROGNOSTIC FACTORS—young age, advanced stage (especially nodal status and tumor size), high grade, Her2 +ve, ER –ve, PR –ve, lymphatic/vascular invasion

MANAGEMENT

DCIS

- RESECTION—breast-conserving surgery plus adjuvant radiation, or mastectomy
- ADJUVANT HORMONAL THERAPY—tamoxifen or aromatase inhibitor may be considered after breast-conserving surgery for selected individuals if ER/PR positive

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

LCIS

- RESECTION—observation, breast-conserving surgery or bilateral mastectomy for selected individuals
- HORMONAL THERAPY—tamoxifen or raloxifene may be used for prevention of invasive breast cancer in selected individuals

STAGE I AND II

- RESECTION—breast-conserving surgery or mastectomy, plus sentinel node biopsy. Axillary lymph node dissection if clinically node positive and biopsy proven. If sentinel lymph node positive, proceed to axillary dissection
- ADJUVANT SYSTEMIC THERAPY—taxane±anthracycline. If Her2 +ve, add trastuzumab ± pertuzumab (if stage II disease)
- ADJUVANT RADIATION—always give adjuvant radiation after breast-conserving surgery. Adjuvant radiation should be considered after mastectomy if large tumor, skin involvement, muscle involvement, positive nodes, positive margins, or lymphovascular invasion
- ADJUVANT HORMONAL THERAPY—if ER/PR positive. Treatment with aromatase inhibitor or tamoxifen for 5–10 years depending on tolerability. In premenopausal women, also consider oophorectomy or LHRH agonists if high risk disease

STAGE III

- NEOADJUVANT SYSTEMIC THERAPY—taxane \pm anthracycline. If Her2 +ve, add trastuzumab \pm pertuzumab (if stage II disease)
- RESECTION—breast-conserving surgery or mastectomy and axillary ± sentinel node evaluation ± lymph node dissection
- ADJUVANT RADIATION—almost always given for stage III disease
- ADJUVANT HORMONAL THERAPY—if ER/PR +ve. Treatment with aromatase inhibitor or tamoxifen for 5–10 years depending on tolerability. In premenopausal women, also consider oophorectomy or LHRH agonists if high risk disease

STAGE IV—**systemic therapy** is main stay and mostly based on ER/PR/Her2 status. Consider **palliative radiation** for symptomatic control of localized disease (e.g. bone metastasis, painful skin lesions). Consider adding osteoclast inhibitors if bone metastasis. Consider **palliative care referral** for patients with supportive care needs

- ER/PR +ve AND Her2 -ve—endocrine therapy is mainstay. BRCA and PIK3CA testing upfront
 - FIRST LINE—if not rapidly progressive/ symptomatic and no significant visceral involvement, consider endocrine therapy

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

first instead of chemotherapy. **Endocrine** therapies include aromatase inhibitors or fulvestrant + CDK4/6 inhibitor (palbociclib, ribociclib, abemaciclib). In premenopausal women, the use of aromatase inhibitors and fulvestrant require either oophorectomy or LHRH agonists

- SUBSEQUENT LINES—exemestane and everolimus is common second line. If PIK3CA +ve, fulvestrant + alpelisib is standard of care. If BRCA carrier, consider PARP inhibitors (olaparib, talazoparib)
- **ER/PR +ve AND Her2 +ve**—anti-Her2 therapy is mainstay
 - FIRST LINE—docetaxel or paclitaxel + trastuzumab + pertuzumab
 - SUBSEQUENT LINES—trastuzumab deruxtecan, tucatinib, trastuzumab + capecitabine, ado-trastuzumab emtansine (T-DM1). Otherwise, consider trastuzumab plus single agent or combination chemotherapy (see Triple Negative Disease), or trastuzumab plus endocrine therapy
- ER/PR -ve AND Her2 +ve—anti-Her2 therapy is mainstay
 - FIRST LINE—docetaxel or paclitaxel + trastuzumab + pertuzumab
 - SUBSEQUENT LINES—trastuzumab deruxtecan, tucatinib, trastuzumab + capecitabine, ado-trastuzumab emtansine (T-DM1). Otherwise, consider trastuzumab plus single agent or combination chemotherapy (see Triple Negative Disease)
- ER/PR -ve AND Her2 -ve (TRIPLE NEGATIVE) chemotherapy is mainstay. BRCA and PD-L1 testing upfront
 - FIRST LINE—taxane + immunotherapy (if PD-L1 >1%)
 - SUBSEQUENT LINES—anthracyclines (doxorubicin, pegylated liposomal doxorubicin), taxanes (if not tried already, paclitaxel, docetaxel, albumin-bound paclitaxel), antibody drug conjugate (sacituzumab govitecan), PARP inhibitors (olaparib, talazoparib), microtubule inhibitors (vinorelbine, eribulin, ixabepilone), platinums (carboplatin, cisplatin), antimetabolites (gemcitabine, capecitabine), or various combinations (e.g. doxorubicin + cyclophosphamide, gemcitabine + carboplatin)

TREATMENT ISSUES

PRINCIPLES OF BREAST CANCER SURGERY

- COMPLETE SURGERY—modified radical mastectomy. Indications for mastectomy include multicentric disease, diffuse malignant appearing microcalcifications on mammography, prior breast radiation, genetic mutation such as BRCA1 or BRCA2, and pregnancy. Relative indications include large tumor (>5 cm), connective tissue disease (radiation contraindicated), and patient preference
- BREAST CONSERVING SURGERY—excisional biopsy, lumpectomy, partial mastectomy, quadrantectomy, wide local excision. Breast conserving surgery should always be followed by whole breast radiation
- SURGICAL MARGIN—positive margin is defined as tumor touching ink and would require re-excision
- AXILLARY LYMPH NODE DISSECTION (ALND) removal of level I and II axillary nodes. May be avoided if sentinel lymph node negative
- SENTINEL LYMPH NODE BIOPSY (SLNB)—indicated for clinically node negative tumors. Contraindications include locally advanced breast cancer, any palpable lymph nodes, multifocal cancers, previous disruptive breast procedures, and adverse reactions to dyes. Proceed to ALND if positive nodes or unable to identify sentinel node

PRINCIPLES OF HORMONAL THERAPY

- OVARIAN ABLATION (premenopausal only) oophorectomy, radiation, or LHRH agonists (goserelin 3.6 mg IM every month, leuprolide). Consider combining with tamoxifen (in adjuvant or metastatic settings) or aromatase inhibitors (in metastatic setting only) for maximal effect
- SELECTIVE ESTROGEN RECEPTOR MODULATORS (premenopausal or postmenopausal)—tamoxifen 20 mg PO daily. Side effects include hot flashes, mood swings, vaginal discharge, thromboembolism, and endometrial cancer. Protective effect with bones and lipids
- AROMATASE INHIBITORS (for postmenopausal women or premenopausal women after ovarian ablation as suppress peripheral estrone production only)—inhibit aromatase, an enzyme in skin, adipose tissue, and breast that converts androstenedione (from the adrenals) to estrone and estradiol. Steroidal (exemestane 25 mg PO daily), non-steroidal

(anastrozole 1 mg PO daily, letrozole 2.5 mg PO daily). Side effects include hot flashes, mood swings, vaginal dryness, myalgia/ arthralgia, headache, osteoporosis, dyslipidemia, weight gain, and potentially CAD

- ANTIESTROGEN—fulvestrant 500 mg IM loading dose on days 1 and 15, then 500 mg monthly
- отнекя—megestrol acetate 160 mg PO daily, methyltestosterone
- ADJUVANT SETTING for premenopausal women, consider tamoxifen × 5-10 years or LHRH agonist/oophorectomy + Al × 5 years if higher risk. For postmenopausal women, consider one of the following: anastrozole × 5 years, letrozole × 5 years, tamoxifen × 2–3 years followed by exemestane or anastrozole to complete 5 years of adjuvant hormonal therapy, tamoxifen × 5 years followed by letrozole × 5 years, or tamoxifen × 10 years. Consider aromatase inhibitors as first hormonal agent if >10% risk of relapse in first 2 years (e.g. ≥4 positive nodes, low ER or grade 3 disease)
- NEOADJUVANT SETTING—for post-menopausal women who require neoadjuvant therapy but could not tolerate chemotherapy, neoadjuvant endocrine therapy × 4–6 months may be an option

PRINCIPLES OF HER2-DIRECTED THERAPY —HER2 positive disease should be treated with chemotherapy plus trastuzumab in the adjuvant/ neoadjuvant settings. Do not give concomitantly with anthracyclines. In the metastatic setting, give chemotherapy and then maintenance trastuzumab until progression. Trastuzumab is classically associated with reversible heart failure and cardiac function monitoring every 3 months is required

PRINCIPLES OF ADJUVANT/NEOADJUVANT CHEMOTHERAPY

PATIENT SELECTION

- TRIPLE NEGATIVE DISEASE—consider (neo) adjuvant chemotherapy if tumor >5 mm
- Her2 +ve disease—consider (neo)adjuvant chemotherapy if tumor >5 mm
- ER/PR +ve, Her2 -ve Disease—if lymph node negative, consider Oncotype Dx Breast Recurrence® testing (a 21-gene assay) to help with risk stratification: recurrence score 50 years; however, for premenopausal patients <50, there is a small benefit. If lymph node positive disease, chemotherapy is generally recommended

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

although there is emerging data on use of Oncotype Dx[®] for risk stratification as well

- ADJUVANT VS. NEOADJUVANT THERAPY—neoadjuvant therapy is administered before surgery; in contrast, adjuvant therapy starts 4–10 weeks after surgery. Neoadjuvant chemotherapy is historically used to downstage cancer (i.e. T3-4 or N2-3 disease) making non-resectable disease more amenable to resection. Now also used to evaluate sensitivity to treatment especially in HER2 amplified and triple negative breast cancers. Typically given for 5 months
- ADJUVANT/NEOADJUVANT THERAPY REGIMENS
 - HER2 -VE DISEASE—dose dense adriamycin + cyclophosphamide (AC) × 4 followed by weekly paclitaxel × 12 or docetaxel + cyclophosphamide (TC) × 4 cycles if anthracyclines contraindicated
 - HER2 +VE DISEASE—docetaxel + carboplatin + trastuzumab + pertuzumab × 6 (TCHP), AC followed by paclitaxel + trastuzumab ± pertuzumab (THP), paclitaxel + trastuzumab (TH). Need trastuzumab ± pertuzumab to complete 1 year total
- ADJUVANT THERAPY REGIMENS FOR PATIENTS WITH RESIDUAL DISEASE POST NEOADJUVANT THERAPY
 - TRIPLE NEGATIVE DISEASE—capecitabine
 - HER2 +VE DISEASE—T-DM1

PRINCIPLES OF PALLIATIVE CHEMOTHER-APY—patients with rapidly growing disease, especially involvement of visceral organs such as lung or liver, may benefit more from chemotherapy compared to hormonal therapy due to a more rapid response. The choice of first line palliative chemotherapy depends on prior adjuvant chemotherapy, disease-free interval, patient's performance status, and willingness/ability to tolerate side effects. Doublet regimens are associated with higher response rate, while single agents are better tolerated and are particularly appropriate for patients who are elderly or have poor performance status. Consider doublet regimens in patients that need a rapid response to relieve tumor-related symptoms. At eventual disease progression, change chemotherapy to non-crossresistance single agents

PRINCIPLES OF OSTEOCLAST INHIBITOR THERAPY—for patients with bone metastases, consider bisphosphonates (*zoledronate* 4 mg IV over 15 min q4w for up to 2 years) or *denosumab* 120 mg SC q4wk. Dental clearance is necessary

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

prior to start of these agents due to risk of osteonecrosis of the jaw

LOCAL RECURRENCE—biopsy to try to distinguish recurrence from new primary, metastatic workup. If isolated local recurrence, resection/ completion mastectomy±radiation. Hormonal and/or chemotherapy may also be considered

BRAIN METASTASES—steroids, resection plus radiation, or radiation alone if resection not pos-

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

sible. Surgery plus radiation is associated with better overall survival than radiation alone for eligible candidates (10 vs. 6 months). Stereotactic radiation if <3 lesions and all <3 cm [<1.2 in.]. May consider re-irradiation if over 1 year from first whole brain radiation

Related Topics

Cancer Screening (p. 239) Hereditary Cancers (p. 241) Cancer Survivorship (p. 245)

Esophageal Cancer

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION BY HISTOLOGY

- ADENOCARCINOMA—75% in distal esophagus
- squamous—evenly distributed between upper, middle, and lower thirds of esophagus
- MELANOMA
- LEIOMYOSARCOMA
- LYMPHOMA
- CARCINOID

RISK FACTORS

| | Squamous | Adeno |
|--|--------------|--------------|
| Barrett esophagus | - | >8× |
| Reflux symptoms | - | $4-8 \times$ |
| Obesity | - | $2-4 \times$ |
| Smoking | $4-8 \times$ | $2-4 \times$ |
| Alcohol use | $4-8 \times$ | - |
| Caustic injury to | >8× | - |
| esophagus | | |
| Achalasia | $4-8 \times$ | - |
| Poverty | $2-4 \times$ | - |
| History of H&N cancer | >8× | - |
| History of breast cancer with radiation | 4–8× | 4–8× |
| Plummer–Vinson syndrome | >8× | - |
| Non-epidermolytic palmoplantar keratoderma | >8× | - |
| Frequent hot beverages | <2 × | - |
| | | |

CLINICAL FEATURES

LOCAL—dysphagia (74%), odynophagia (17%), upper Gl bleed, epigastric pain

REGIONAL—dyspnea, cough, hoarseness, pain (retrosternal, back, RUQ)

METASTATIC—Virchow node, hepatomegaly, pleural effusion

CONSTITUTIONAL—anorexia, fatigue, weight loss

Related Topics

Barrett Esophagus (p. 131) Esophageal Dysphagia (p. 128) Gastric Cancer (p. 217)

STAGING

TNM STAGING (staging is complex and evolving; stage grouping includes TNM stage and grade; it differs between squamous cell carcinoma and adenocarcinoma and has different criteria for clinical, pathological and post-neoadjuvant staging (for details please refer to *AJCC Cancer Staging Manual*, 8th ed.)

T stage

- T1—invades lamina propria, muscularis mucosa, or submucosa
- T2—invades muscularis propria
- T3—invades adventitia
- T4—invades into adjacent structures (pleura, pericardium, diaphragm, aorta, vertebral body, trachea, mediastinum)

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STAGING (CONT'D)

N stage

- N1—1-2 regional lymph nodes
- N2—3–6 regional lymph nodes
- N3—7 or more regional lymph nodes

M stage (spreads rapidly and early. Over 50% unresectable/metastatic disease at presentation)

M1—distant metastasis

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, albumin, lipase, CEA
- IMAGING—CXR, barium swallow, CT chest and abd, endoscopic US (excellent for staging), PET scan (preoperative workup)
- вюрях—gastroscopy±laparoscopy

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

SCREENING (for Barrett esophagus)—consider screening gastroscopy in patients with risk factors (age \geq 50, male, white race, chronic GERD >5 years, hiatal hernia, high BMI or intra-abdominal fat distribution, ±tobacco use, ±nocturnal reflux) **SURVEILLANCE** (for Barrett)—endoscopic surveillance with four-quadrant biopsies q3–5 years (if no dysplasia on biopsy), q6–12 months (lowgrade dysplasia), q3 months (high-grade dysplasia without eradication therapy)

PROGNOSIS BY STAGE—5 year overall survival rates for localized, locally advanced and metastatic cancer are 47%, 25%, and 5%, respectively POOR PROGNOSTIC FACTORS—weight loss

>10%, dysphagia, large tumors, advanced age, lymphatic micrometastases

MANAGEMENT

NUTRITIONAL SUPPORT—dietitian consult. Consider supplemental feeding if significant weight loss, but only if benefit greater than risk. Palliative care referral for symptom management

RESECTABLE

- SURGICAL RESECTION (right transthoracic approach, transhiatal approach)—surgery only for T1N0 disease. Add preoperative chemoradiation (weekly carboplatin + paclitaxel, or cisplatin + 5-fluorouracil, 4140–5040 CGy) if T2-4 or N+ disease. Endoscopic resection is a reasonable alternative to surgery, particularly for older individuals, medically inoperable patients
- DEFINITIVE CHEMORADIATION WITHOUT SURGERY weekly carboplatin + paclitaxel, or cisplatin or oxaliplatin + 5-fluorouracil, or 5-fluorouracil +

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

leucovorin + oxaliplatin + docetaxel (FLOT, this regimen for adenocarcinoma only), 4140-5040 cGy may be a reasonable alternative to surgery, particularly for patients with squamous cell carcinoma, older individuals, medically inoperable patients, and cervical esophageal carcinoma (difficult resection)

- PERI-OPERATIVE CHEMOTHERAPY REGIMEN—epirubicin + cisplatin + 5-fluorouracil × 3 (ECF), followed by surgical resection and then ECF × 3 similar to treatment for gastric cancer if GE junction involved, good performance status, and not dysphagic.
- IMMEDIATE RESECTION FOLLOWED BY POSTOPERATIVE CHEMORADIATION—if unsuitable for preoperative therapy

LOCALLY ADVANCED, UNRESECTABLE

- (T3-4N1, 65%, median survival 12-14 months)
- ADENOCARCINOMA definitive chemoradiation or peri-operative chemotherapy as above. For peri-operative chemotherapy, FLOT × 4 followed by surgical resection and then FLOT × 4 is an alternative regimen
- SQUAMOUS CELL CARCINOMA—definitive chemoradiation as above. Palliative surgical resection may be considered for selected patients (increased local control) although squamous cell carcinoma is very sensitive to chemoradiation, and thus surgery may not be needed

METASTATIC, UNRESECTABLE

- MUTATION TESTING—MSI, PD-L1, HER2 and NTRK gene fusion gene
- PALLIATIVE CHEMOTHERAPY
 - FIRST LINE—standard regimens include carboplatin + paclitaxel, 5-fluorouracil + leucovorin + oxaliplatin (FOLFOX), 5-fluorouracil + leucovorin + irinotecan (FOLFIRI), or 5-fluorouracil or irinotecan alone. Three drug regimens, such as ECF, docetaxel + cisplatin + 5-fluorouracil (DCF), and epirubicin + oxaliplatin + capecitabine (EOX), have greater toxicities and should be reserved for medically fit patients with good performance status. For HER2 positive disease, trastuzumab added to first line therapy.
 - second LINE—for adenocarcinoma, taxane ± ramucirumab, FOLFIRI, irinotecan alone.
 For squamous cell carcinoma, immunotherapy if PD-L1 expression levels by combined positive score of ≥10
 - THIRD LINE—for adenocarcinoma, immunotherapy if PD-L1 expression levels by combined positive score of ≥1

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

- PALLIATIVE RADIATION—brachytherapy, external beam radiation
- PALLIATIVE CARE—referral for patients with supportive care needs
- PALLIATIVE PROCEDURES—dilatation and endoluminal stent if obstruction, phototherapy, G-tube insertion

Gastric Cancer

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION BY HISTOLOGY

- ADENOCARCINOMA (95%)—diffuse, intestinal, or mixed type
- LEIOMYOSARCOMA (5%)
- LYMPHOMA—mucosal-associated lymphoma
- CARCINOID
- GI STROMAL

PATHOLOGIC SUBTYPES

| | Diffuse type | Intestinal type |
|---------------------|--------------|-----------------|
| Location | Proximal | Distal |
| Age of onset | Younger | Older |
| Gender | F > M | M > F |
| Risk factors | Hereditary | Endemic |
| H. pylori | 32% | 89% |
| Metastasis | Peritoneal | Hepatic |
| Outcome | Worse | Better |

LINITIS PLASTICA (15%)—diffuse disease involving the entire stomach. Very poor prognosis; slightly better with superficial/expansive type (5–10%)

LOCATION—35% proximal, 25% body, 40% distal

RISK FACTORS

- **ЕТНNICITY**—Asian origin (Japanese and Chinese)
- FAMILY HISTORY—affected relatives (L), HNPCC, FAP, Li-Fraumeni, Peutz-Jeghers syndrome, hereditary diffuse gastric cancer
- ENVIRONMENTAL—nitrite consumption (pickled, salted, and cured foods), alcohol (U), smoking (U), lower socioeconomic status (L)
- DISEASES—Helicobacter pylori (L), EBV, hiatus hernia (U), pernicious anemia (3–18×), chronic gastritis, gastric polyps, previous partial gastrectomy where U=upper stomach, L=lower stomach

TREATMENT ISSUES

FOLLOW-UP—no agreed upon surveillance program. Clinical assessment every 3 months during the first year, then every 6 months for a total of 5 years. Endoscopy as clinically indicated

NCCN Guidelines v3.2020

CLINICAL FEATURES

LOCOREGIONAL—epigastric pain, nausea and vomiting, dysphagia, upper Gl bleed (melena, hematemesis), anemia, abdominal mass

METASTATIC—hepatomegaly, Virchow node (left supraclavicular lymph node), Irish node (left axillary lymph node), dyspnea, Sister Mary Joseph nodule (umbilicus), Krukenberg tumor (ovaries)

CONSTITUTIONAL—anorexia, fatigue, weight loss **PARANEOPLASTIC**—acanthosis nigricans, seborrheic keratosis (Leser–Trelat sign), inflammatory myositis, circinate erythema, cerebellar ataxia, thromboembolism, Cushing, carcinoid

STAGING

TNM STAGING (staging is complex and evolving; stage grouping has different criteria for clinical, pathological and post-neoadjuvant staging (for details please refer to AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, 8th ed.)

T stage

- T1—invades lamina propria, muscularis mucosa or submucosa
- T2—invades muscularis propria
- T3—penetrates subserosa without invasion of serosa (visceral peritoneum)
- T4—invades serosa (visceral peritoneum) or adjacent structures (esophagus, small bowel, transverse colon, spleen, liver, pancreas, adrenal gland, kidney, diaphragm, abdominal wall, retroperitoneum)

N stage (around stomach and along left gastric, common hepatic, splenic, celiac arteries)

- N1—1–2 regional lymph nodes
- N2—3–6 regional lymph nodes
- N3—7 or more regional lymph nodes

M stage (liver, lung, peritoneum, left supraclavicular lymph node, left axillary lymph node, umbilicus, ovary)

M1—distant metastasis

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, albumin, lipase, CEA, CA 19–9
- IMAGING—CXR, barium swallow, endoscopic US, CT abd, US abd, PET/CT
- вюряу—gastroscopy (biopsy with *H. pylori* testing), laparotomy

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

SCREENING—screening program in Japan may have contributed to the improved survival in that population through early detection of resectable gastric cancer. Not recommended outside countries with a high gastric cancer burden

PROGNOSIS BY STAGE—5 year overall survival rates for localized, locally advanced and meta-static cancer are 69%, 31%, and 5%, respectively

Related Topics

Dyspepsia (p. 130) Leser-Trelat Sign (p. 410) MALT (p. 197) Melena (p. 134)

MANAGEMENT

STAGE IA—gastrectomy (total or subtotal) with D2 dissection

STAGE IB, II, III

- ОРТІОЛ 1—neoadjuvant epirubicin + cisplatin + infusional 5-fluorouracil (ECF)× 3 + surgery + adjuvant ECF× 3; 43% of patients able to complete treatment
- OPTION 2—gastrectomy (total or subtotal) with D2 dissection + adjuvant chemoradiation (5-fluorouracil)
- INSUFFICIENT EVIDENCE—adjuvant radiation alone, adjuvant chemotherapy alone, and neoadjuvant radiation

STAGE IV (T1-4N1-3M0)—same treatment approach as stage III if resectable disease. Otherwise, same treatment approach as meta-static disease

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

STAGE IV (M1)

- митатюм теятімд—MSI, PD-L1, HER2 (15–20%, intestinal > diffuse, high grade less likely) and NTRK fusion gene
- PALLIATIVE CHEMOTHERAPY
 - FIRST LINE—standard regimens include carboplatin + paclitaxel, 5-fluorouracil + leucovorin + oxaliplatin (FOLFOX), 5-fluorouracil + leucovorin + irinotecan (FOLFIRI), or 5-fluorouracil or irinotecan alone. Three drug regimens, such as ECF, docetaxel + cisplatin + 5-fluorouracil (DCF), and epirubicin + oxaliplatin + capecitabine (EOX), have greater toxicities and should be reserved for medically fit patients with good performance status. For HER2 positive disease, trastuzumab added to first line therapy
 - SUBSEQUENT LINES—immunotherapy if MSIhigh tumor or if PD-L1 expression levels by combined positive score of ≥1
- PALLIATIVE RADIATION—for bony metastasis or bleeding tumors
- PALLIATIVE SURGERY—gastrojejunostomy, partial gastrectomy to bypass obstruction
- PALLIATIVE CARE—referral for patients with supportive care needs

TREATMENT ISSUES

LYMPH NODE RESECTION

- D1 dissection—removal of the stomach and less and greater omentum with the associated N1 perigastric lymph nodes
- D2 dissection—D1 dissection, plus removal of N2 lymph nodes, including a splenectomy and distal pancreatectomy

VITAMIN B12 DEFICIENCY—may develop after a few years in patients who received subtotal or total gastrectomy

FOLLOW-UP—no agreed upon surveillance program. Every 3 months for first year, then every 6 months for a total of 5 years. Endoscopy as clinically indicated

> NCCN Guidelines v4.2020 NCCN Guidelines v6.2020

Colorectal Cancer

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION BY HISTOLOGY

 ADENOCARCINOMA—mucinous subtype, signetring cells, adenosquamous, medullary

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

CARCINOID—mostly involving appendix and rectum, less malignant

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

- RARE—squamous cell, small cell, undifferentiated
- ADENOMATOUS POLYP—pre-malignant

RISK FACTORS

- PERSONAL—age
- FAMILY HISTORY—affected relatives (2 ×), hereditary nonpolyposis colorectal cancer/Lynch syndrome (HNPCC: mutation in MSH-2, MLH-1, PMS-1, PMS-2, or MSH-6 genes responsible for mismatch repair, 6% of all colon cancers), familial adenomatous polyposis (FAP: 1% of all colon cancers related to mutation in APC gene, all affected will have colon cancer by age 40), Peutz–Jeghers syndrome, juvenile polyposis, Gardner syndrome, Turcot syndrome, flat adenoma syndrome
- ENVIRONMENTAL—decreased fiber intake
- DISEASES—prior colon cancer, polyps, ovarian, breast, endometrial cancer, Crohn disease, ulcerative colitis (1%/year after 10 years), diabetes, obesity

LOCATION—50% rectosigmoid, 18% descending colon, 11% transverse colon, 20% in the ascending colon and cecum

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN COLON AND RECTAL CANCER

| | Colon cancer | Rectal cancer |
|------------------------|---|---|
| Frequency | 2/3 | 1/3 |
| Location | >12 cm [>4.7 in.] from anal verge or above peritoneal reflection | <12 cm [<4.7 in.] from anal verge or below peritoneal reflection |
| Metastasis | Liver | Liver and lung |
| Adjuvant treatments | Chemo | RT and chemo |
| | | |

MOLECULAR SEQUENCE FOR DEVELOP-MENT OF COLON CANCER—the Vogelstein model of carcinogenesis developed based on analysis of FAP lesions. Normal epithelium \rightarrow loss of 5q (e.g. APC, β -catenin) over decades \rightarrow adenoma development \rightarrow loss of 18q (e.g. k-ras) over 2–5 years \rightarrow late adenoma \rightarrow loss of 17p (e.g. p53) over 2–5 years \rightarrow early cancer \rightarrow loss of 8p \rightarrow late cancer

MICROSATELLITE INSTABILITY (MSI)—may either be inherited as in HNPCC or spontaneous (15% of sporadic colon cancers). Compared to

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

MSI-low tumors, MSI-high (i.e. mutated) tumors are associated with female sex, right sided tumors, poorly differentiated tumors, lower response to 5-fluorouracil-based adjuvant chemotherapy, higher response to checkpoint inhibitors and better prognosis

RIGHT-SIDED COLON CANCER—compared to left-sided tumors, right-sided tumors are associated with MSI-high status, BRAF V600E mutants, lower response to EGFR-based therapy (panitumumab, cetuximab), and worse prognosis

RAS-RAF PATHWAY—about 40% of colon cancer has mutation in KRAS, which plays a key role in signal transduction downstream of EGFR. Tumors with mutant K-ras or defects along the pathway (N-ras, B-raf V600E mutation) are unlikely to respond to EGFR-based therapy (panitumumab, cetuximab) unless given with a BRAF inhibitor

HER2 MUTANT—anti-HER2 therapy is only indicated in HER2 amplified tumors that are also RAS and BRAF wild type

CLINICAL FEATURES

LOCOREGIONAL—bowel habit change, hematochezia, paradoxical diarrhea, tenesmus, abdominal pain, iron deficiency anemia

METASTATIC—RUQ pain, dyspnea

CONSTITUTIONAL—weight loss, anorexia, fatigue

OTHER—Streptococcus bovis bacteremia and Clostridium septicum sepsis; colorectal cancer in 16–32% of patients with S. bovis bacteremia

STAGING

TNM STAGING (staging is complex and evolving; stage grouping has different criteria for clinical, pathological and post-neoadjuvant staging; for details please refer to *AJCC Cancer Staging Manual*, 8th ed.)

T stage

- T1—invades submucosa
- T2—invades muscularis propria
- T3—penetrates subserosa or nonperitonealized pericolic tissues
- T4—perforation of visceral peritoneum or directly invades into adjacent structure (bowel, bladder, uterus, pelvic wall)

N stage (mesenteric)

- N1—1–3 regional lymph nodes
- N2—≥4 regional lymph nodes
- M stage (liver, lung, bone, brain)
- M1—distant metastasis

STAGING (CONT'D)

STAGE GROUPING

| Stage | TNM @=any |
|-------|---------------------------------|
| 1 | T1-2N0M0 |
| IIA | T3N0M0 |
| IIB | T4aN0M0 |
| IIC | T4bN0M0 |
| IIIA | T1-2N1M0, T1N2aM0 |
| IIIB | T3-4aN1M0, T2-3N2aM0, T1-2N2bM0 |
| IIIC | T4aN2aM0, T3-4aN2bM0, T4bN1-2M0 |
| IV | T@N@M1 |

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, albumin, lipase, CEA, CA19–9
- IMAGING—barium enema, CT abd, CXR, MRI, and endorectal US in rectal cancer
- вюряу—colonoscopy with biopsy, laparoscopy, laparotomy

PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

PROGNOSIS BY STAGE—5 year overall survival rates for localized, locally advanced and meta-static disease are 90%, 71%, and 14% for colon cancer and 89%, 71% and 15% for rectal cancer, respectively

MANAGEMENT OF COLON CANCER

STAGE I—surgical resection only

STAGE II—surgical resection. Consider adjuvant chemotherapy (capecitabine, 5-fluorouracil–leucovorin, consider FOLFOX if high risk or MSI-high tumors) if adverse prognostic features (T4, perforation, obstruction, poorly differentiated, signet ring cell and mucinous histology, lymphovascular invasion, inadequate lymph node sampling <12)

STAGE III—surgical resection + **adjuvant chemotherapy** (FOLFOX is the first choice. Other possibilities include capecitabine, 5–fluorouracilleucovorin, infusional 5-fluorouracil if patient is not fit or has contraindications to oxaliplatin)

STAGE IV

- MUTATION TESTING—MSI, KRAS, NRAS, BRAF, HER2
- RESECTION OF OLIGOMETASTASES—if metastasis limited to liver and potentially resectable, consider liver resection plus perioperative chemotherapy. Radiofrequency ablation could be considered if patient unfit for surgery

MANAGEMENT OF COLON CANCER (CONT'D)

- PALLIATIVE CHEMOTHERAPY—standard regimens include 5-fluorouracil + leucovorin + oxaliplatin (FOLFOX)±bevacizumab, 5-fluorouracil + leucovorin + irinotecan (FOLFIRI)±bevacizumab, or 5-fluorouracil + leucovorin, capecitabine, regorafenib, trifluridine + tipiracil (TAS-102). Raltitrexed if 5-fluorouracil intolerant. Cetuximab + irinotecan or singleagent panitumumab in third line if KRAS wild type. Pembrolizumab or nivolumab if MSIhigh. Trastuzumab + pertuzumab if Her2 +ve and KRAS wild type
- PALLIATIVE CARE—referral for patients with supportive care needs

Related Topics

Cancer Screening (p. 239) Hematochezia (p. 137) Hereditary Cancers (p. 241) Cancer Survivorship (p. 245)

MANAGEMENT OF RECTAL CANCER

HIGHLY RESECTABLE (stage I)—transanal excision only if T1, 0.3 cm [>0.12 in.], mobile, within 8 cm [3.1 in.] of anal verge, no lymphovascular or perineural invasion, well or moderately differentiated tumor, and no evidence of lymphadenopathy on pretreatment imaging. Otherwise, total mesorectal excision via low anterior resection or abdominoperineal resection

RESECTABLE (stage II and some stage III with no high risk features (i.e. not fixed, not low <5 cm [2 in.], not bulky)-neoadiuvant radiation (short course, 1 week)+total mesorectal excision + adjuvant chemotherapy based on pathologic stage (FOLFOX × 12 if pathologic node positive; capecitabine \times 8 if pathologic node negative. The type and the number of cycles of adjuvant chemotherapy are, however, not well established. Local auideline mav varv. Neoadjuvant chemoradiation is also an appropriate option for these patients

POSSIBLY RESECTABLE (locally advanced disease, particularly if tethered to rectum or low-<5 [<2 lvina tumor cm in.1 from anus)-neoadjuvant chemoradiation (long course, 5 weeks, 5040 cGy plus infusional 5-fluorouracil or capecitabine) ± neoadjuvant chemotherapy + total mesorectal excision + adjuvant chemotherapy for 4 months.

MANAGEMENT OF RECTAL CANCER (CONT'D)

Capecitabine or FOLFOX may be considered depending on the extent of downstaging with neoadjuvant chemoradiation and the pathologic stage

METASTATIC (stage IV)—see Management for Stage IV Colon Cancer

Carcinoid Tumors

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION OF NEUROENDOCRINE TUMORS

- HIGH GRADE—poorly differentiated neuroendocrine carcinomas, small cell-like tumors
- LOW GRADE—carcinoid tumors, pancreatic islet tumors (VIPoma, glucagonoma, gastrinoma, insulinoma, somatostatinoma), paragangliomas, pheochromocytomas, medullary thyroid carcinomas

CLASSIFICATION BY LOCATION

- FOREGUT CARCINOID—lungs, bronchi, stomach
- MIDGUT CARCINOID—small intestine, appendix, proximal large bowel
- HINDGUT CARCINOID—distal colon, rectum, genitourinary tract

SPECIFIC DETAILS BY LOCATION

- LUNGS AND BRONCHI—derived from epithelial endocrine cells
 - WELL-DIFFERENTIATED NEUROENDOCRINE TUMOR (typical carcinoid, 67%)—more indolent. May secrete corticotrophin but rarely secretes serotonin; 90% 5-year survival
 - WELL-DIFFERENTIATED NEUROENDOCRINE CARCI-NOMA (atypical carcinoid, 33%)—may be aggressive with high chance of metastases; 40–60% 5-year survival
- stomach—derived from enterochromaffinlike cells
 - TYPE 1: CHRONIC ATROPHIC GASTRITIS-TYPE-A-ASSOCIATED CARCINOID TUMOR (75%)—indolent, usually multiple, not associated with carcinoid syndrome
 - TYPE 2: CARCINOID TUMOR ASSOCIATED WITH ZOLLINGER-ELLISON SYNDROME OR MEN 1 (5–10%)—indolent, may be multiple, not associated with carcinoid syndrome
 - TYPE 3: SPORADIC CARCINOID TUMOR (15–25%)—may be aggressive with high

TREATMENT ISSUES

MODULATORS OF 5-FLUOROURACIL ACTIVITY—leucovorin (LV) promotes formation of a stable ternary complex with thymidylate synthetase, permitting prolonged inhibition of the enzyme by 5-fluorouracil

NCCN v2.2020

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

- chance of metastases. Contain a variety of endocrine cells. May be associated with atypical carcinoid syndrome
- SMALL BOWEL—derived from intraepithelial endocrine cells. Often multiple, usually in ileum. Associated with carcinoid syndrome in 5–7% of patients with liver metastasis (firstpass metabolism)
- APPENDIX—carcinoid tumors are the most common neoplasms in the appendix. Derived from subepithelial endocrine cells. Usually indolent
- COLON—derived from epithelial endocrine cells. Usually right sided, often presents at late stage
- **RECTUM**—derived from epithelial endocrine cells. Carcinoid syndrome rare

Related Topics

Wheezing (p. 1) Chronic Diarrhea (p. 139)

FUNCTIONALITY—carcinoid tumors arise from neuroendocrine cells. Contain membrane-bound neurosecretory granules such as serotonin, histamine, dopamine, substance P, neurotensin, prostaglandins, kallikrein, ACTH, calcitonin, gastrin. Release of these vasoactive agents leads to episodic symptoms. However, about 50% of tumors are non-secretory and thus non-functional

SEROTONIN SYNTHESIS—5-hydroxytryptophan (with aromatic acid decarboxylase) \rightarrow serotonin (with monoamine oxidase) \rightarrow 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid (5-HIAA) \rightarrow excreted in urine

METASTASIS—liver and sometimes bones (osteoblastic)

CLINICAL FEATURES

GENERAL—the majority of patients are asymptomatic (carcinoid syndrome only seen in 10% of small bowel carcinoids in the presence of liver metastases, <1% appendix, none in the rectum); 75–80% of patients with the carcinoid syndrome have small bowel carcinoids

LOCAL—obstruction (airway, bowel), pain (abdominal), bleeding

NEUROENDOCRINE SYNDROMES (30–40% of tumors active)—serotonin mainly (episodic purplish flushing, diarrhea, wheezing, hypotension and eventually right-sided valvular heart disease), fibrosing mesenteritis, Cushing, acromegaly (rare). Attacks may be spontaneous or precipitated by stress, exercise, eating or alcohol use, palpation of the liver and anesthesia. Gastric and bronchial carcinoids are associated with atypical carcinoid syndromes (histamine). Somatostatinoma is associated with the triad of diabetes mellitus (insulin release impaired), cholelithiasis (reduced gallbladder contractility), and diarrhea/steatorrhea (pancreatic insufficiency)

NIACIN DEFICIENCY—pellagra as tryptophan directed to production of serotonin

METASTASIS—jaundice, liver failure, bone pain **CARCINOID HEART DISEASE**—occurs in 1/2 of patients with carcinoid syndrome. Factors (e.g. serotonin) secreted by liver metastases into hepatic vein \rightarrow plaque like, fibrous endocardial thickening involving the right side of the heart \rightarrow tricuspid regurgitation most common. Tricuspid stenosis, pulmonary regurgitation, and pulmonary stenosis may also occur. Pulmonary carcinoids may produce left-sided valvular disease

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, albumin, serum chromogranin A, 24 h urine 5-HIAA (sens 73%, spc 100%)
- IMAGING—CT chest/abd/pelvis, somatostatin scintigraphy (sens 89%), MIBG scan (useful if somatostatin scan negative). Echocardiogram
- вюряу—ensure pathology includes Ki67 immunohistochemistry

SPECIAL

- PANCREATIC NEUROENDOCRINE TUMOR WORKUP pancreatic polypeptide, α-hCG, chromogranin A, gastrin, somatostatin, serum VIP, glucagon, insulin and C-peptide levels
- serum serotonin—when urinary 5-HIAA equivocal
- EPINEPHRINE OR PENTAGASTRINE PROVOCATION TESTS—if flushing and normal markers

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL (AVOID PRECIPITAT-ING FACTORS)

- DIARRHEA—octreotide 100-600 µg SC div 2-4 doses, octreotide depot 10-30 mg IM every 28 days, lanreotide, loperamide 4 mg× 1 dose, then 2 mg q4h PRN, maximum 16 mg/day, atropine-diphenoxylate 1-2 tabs q6-8 h, cyproheptadine, methysergide, ondansetron 8 mg PO TID. Gastric carcinoid can respond to a histamine blocker
- ΗΥΡΟΤΕΝSION—pure α-adrenergic medications such as methoxamine and angiotensin. Corticosteroids may be useful for prophylaxis. Strictly avoid β-adrenergic agonists such as epinephrine and dopamine as they may aggravate hypotension
- FLUSHING—octreotide, prochlorperazine
 10 mg PO QID (foregut), phenoxybenzamine
 10–20 mg PO BID, prednisone 20–40 mg PO daily (foregut)
- BRONCHOSPASM—salbutamol 2 puffs INH q4h PRN, ipratropium, theophylline
- CARCINOID HEART DISEASE—medical management of heart failure, valvular replacement may be considered but patients are usually high-risk surgical candidates

LOCALIZED DISEASE—resection

ADVANCED/METASTATIC DISEASE

- PALLIATIVE RESECTION—for debulking, prevention of mesenteric fibrosis by mid-gut carcinoids, and treatment of obstruction and extraintestinal primary tumors such as bronchial and ovarian carcinoids that rarely cause carcinoid syndrome without liver metastasis. Consider resection, radiofrequency ablation and cryoablation, hepatic artery embolization for liver metastasis
- TARGETED AGENTS—everolimus, sunitinib
- CHEMOTHERAPY—limited activity, consider temozolomide + capecitabine, streptozocin + 5-fluorouracil or doxorubicin. Consider cisplatin + etoposide for patients with poorly differentiated tumors
- TARGET RADIOTHERAPY WITH RADIOLABELED SOMA-TOSTATIN ANALOGUES—177 Lu-dotatate
- PALLIATIVE CARE—referral for patients with supportive care needs

TREATMENT ISSUES

SOMATOSTATIN ANALOGUES—octreotide is a long-acting somatostatin analogue that binds to somatostatin receptor 2 and to a certain extent receptors 3 and 5 and inhibits secretion of various

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

hormones. Lanreotide shares the same mechanism of action as octreotide

- INDICATIONS—symptomatic with hormoneinduced syndromes. Can be used in asymptomatic patients to delay progression for midgut tumors, and perioperatively to prevent carcinoid crisis. Controversial indications include post-surgery, post-embolization or radiofrequency ablation, and post-adjuvant treatment with no evidence of disease
- DOSING—give octreotide 50 μg as test dose (may cause gastric atony and skin toxicity), then 100–150 μg SC BID–TID. May double dose

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- every 3–4 days until symptom free. Once on a stable dose, may switch to long-acting formulation (200–600 μ g/day \rightarrow 20 mg/month or 750–1500 μ g/day \rightarrow 30 mg/month). Continue life long
- ADVERSE EFFECTS—nausea, gastric atony, abdominal cramps, diarrhea/constipation, gallstones, impaired glucose tolerance, hypothyroidism, dyspnea, arrhythmia, HTN, fatigue, headache, dizziness, fever, flu-like symptoms

FOLLOW-UP—clinical assessment along with chromogranin A and 24 h urine 5-HIAA every 3–6 months, routine imaging every 6–12 months

Gastrointestinal Stromal Tumor

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

HISTOLOGY—spindle cell or epithelioid tumor that may be derived from interstitial cells of Cajal (pacemaker cells involved in peristalsis)

LOCATIONS—stomach (50%), small intestine (25%), colon (10%), esophagus, rectum, mesentery, and retroperitoneum

MOLECULAR BIOLOGY—characteristic c-kit/ CD117 (90%) and/or PDGFRa mutation, CD34+ (66%)

NATURAL HISTORY—clinical behavior of GIST is variable and the risk of recurrence and metastases depends on various adverse prognostic factors. Metastases most commonly involve liver, rarely regional lymph nodes and almost never lungs

CLINICAL FEATURES

LOCOREGIONAL—GI bleed, abdominal mass, abdominal pain

METASTATIC—RUQ pain, jaundice

CONSTITUTIONAL—weight loss, anorexia, fatigue, hypoglycemia from secretion of IGFII (rare)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, albumin
- IMAGING—CT abd/pelvis±MRI, US abd, chest imaging, PET/CT in selected patients
- BIOPSY—endoscopy, laparotomy. Consider KIT and PDGRA mutational testing for KITnegative tumors

PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

ADVERSE PROGNOSTIC FACTORS—size, mitotic rate, tumor site (small intestine worse), incomplete resection (<35% vs. 50–65% 5-year survival)

PREDICTIVE FACTORS—exon 11 KIT mutation is predictive of response to imatinib compared to exon 9 KIT mutation or wild type

MANAGEMENT

RESECTABLE DISEASE—surgery does not routinely cure GIST. Complete resection is possible in approximately 85% of patients with primary tumors. Segmental resection without regional lymphadenectomy. **Adjuvant** *imatinib* 400 mg PO daily is recommended for 36 months for patients with high-risk GIST

UNRESECTABLE, RECURRENT, OR METASTATIC DISEASE—imatinib 400 mg/day (until disease progression) is recommended, except for exon 9 mutation in which imatinib 800 mg/day is appropriate. For patients with nonmetastatic but unresectable disease, consider neoadjuvant imatinib followed by resection if possible. For patients with potentially resectable metastatic GIST, surgery should be offered to those with stable disease, responding to tyrosine kinase inhibitor therapy, or with focal progression only. Hepatic chemoembolization could be considered in isolated unresectable liver metastases. If progression on imatinib, increase dose to 800 mg/day. With further disease progression, consider second line sunitinib, third line regoratenib and fourth line ripretinib. Palliative care referral for patients with supportive care needs

Cancer of the Exocrine Pancreas

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION BY HISTOLOGY

- ADENOCARCINOMA (85–90%)—male predominance, 60% arising from head of pancreas, metastasizes widely
- DUCTAL CARCINOMAS
- ADENOSQUAMOUS CARCINOMA—rare variant of ductal adenocarcinoma, history of prior chemotherapy or radiotherapy, relatively poor prognosis
- COLLOID CARCINOMA (1–2%)—composed of pools of mucus that contains clusters of malignant duct cells
- ACINAR CELL CARCINOMA (1%)—lipase release, equal distribution throughout pancreas
- MUCINOUS CYSTIC NEOPLASMS (1%)—cystic, significant malignant potential, strong female predominance, 70–90% in pancreatic body/tail
- serous cystoadenomas—cystic, benign
- serous cystadenocarcinoma—cystic, malignant behavior
- SOLID AND PSEUDOPAPILLARY CYSTIC TUMORS young female (childbearing) predominance, local invasion into adjacent structures common but metastases rare, frequent intracystic hemorrhage
- INTRADUCTAL PAPILLARY MUCINOUS NEOPLASM male predominance, benign lesion with high potential for malignant change
- PANCREATOBLASTOMA—rare (0.5%); first and second decades of life, prognosis better than for infiltrating ductal carcinoma
- MISCELLANEOUS CANCERS—liposarcomas, leiomyosarcomas, fibrosarcomas, and lymphomas
- OTHER LESS COMMON VARIANTS—pleomorphic, sarcomatoid, and giant cell carcinomas

RISK FACTORS

- PERSONAL—Ashkenazi Jewish origin, low socioeconomic status, habitation of industrialized societies, obesity, and low physical activity
- FAMILY HISTORY—HNPCC, FAP, BRCA1/2 gene, hereditary pancreatitis, ataxia telangiectasia, Peutz-Jeghers syndrome, familial atypical multiple mole melanoma syndrome (FAMMM), Li-Fraumeni syndrome
- ENVIRONMENTAL—smoking
- DISEASES—chronic pancreatitis, diabetes (may be a manifestation of early disease rather than a true risk factor), pernicious anemia, partial gastrectomy

CLINICAL FEATURES

LOCOREGIONAL—abdominal pain (80%), jaundice (50%), pruritus, altered bowel habits (steatorrhea, pale stools), glucose intolerance

METASTATIC—RUQ pain, dyspnea

CONSTITUTIONAL—weight loss, anorexia, fatigue

OTHERS—Trousseau syndrome, polymyositis, dermatomyositis, panniculitic arthritis–eosino-philia syndrome, depression

STAGING

TNM STAGING

T stage

- T1—≤2 cm, limited to pancreas
- **T2**—>2 cm, limited to pancreas
- T3—extends beyond pancreas, but not involving celiac axis or superior mesenteric artery
- T4—invades celiac axis or superior mesenteric artery

N stage (portal, peripancreatic, periaortic, celiac axis lymph nodes)

• N1—metastasis in regional lymph node(s)

- M stage (liver, lungs, bone, pleura, adrenal)
- M1—distant metastasis

STAGE GROUPINGS

| Stage | TNM @=any |
|-------|-----------|
| IA | T1N0M0 |
| IB | T2N0M0 |
| IIA | T3N0M0 |
| IIB | T1-3N1M0 |
| III | T4N@M0 |
| IV | T@N@M1 |
| | |

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, albumin, lipase, CA 19–9, CEA, BRCA genetic testing for all pancreatic cancer patients
- IMAGING—CXR, CT abd (allows for establishment of resectability criteria, >90% accurate in the staging), US abd, endoscopic US (EUS), MRCP
- BIOPSY—percutaneous needle biopsy (only if unresectable disease), endoscopic US-guided biopsy, ERCP (also useful for treatment of biliary obstruction), laparoscopy, laparotomy

DIAGNOSTIC & PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

CT FINDINGS FOR PANCREATIC CANCER mass (identified in 96% of cases), dilatation of the bile and pancreatic ducts (double-duct sign) suggests a pancreatic head lesion, dilatation of the pancreatic duct proximal to the tumor, atrophy of the pancreas distal to a tumor

PROGNOSIS BY STAGE—5 year overall survival rates for localized, locally advanced and metastatic pancreatic cancer are 37%, 12%, and 3%, respectively

MANAGEMENT

RESECTABLE (T1-3N0–1, 10–20%)—Whipple procedure plus either adjuvant chemotherapy (gemcitabine or 5-fluorouracil) or adjuvant chemoradiation (5-fluorouracil)±gemcitabine in selected patients)

NON-RESECTABLE (locally advanced and metastatic disease, 80–90%)

- BORDERLINE RESECTABLE—if good performance status, consider 5-fluorouracil + leucovorin + irinotecan + oxaliplatin (FOLFIRINOX) ± subsequent chemoradiation or surgery. If borderline performance status, consider gemcitabine + nab-paclitaxel ± subsequent chemoradiation or surgery. For known BRCA1/2 or PALB2 mutation, can also consider gemcitabine with cisplatin
- PALLIATIVE CHEMOTHERAPY—if good performance status, consider FOLFIRINOX. If borderline performance status, consider gemcitabine + nabpaclitaxel or gemcitabine ± erlotinib. Other potential options include gemcitabine +

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

capecitabine, gemcitabine + cisplatin, FOLFOX, XELOX, single agent gemcitabine, single agent capecitabine, or infusional 5-flurouracil. Olaparib for genetic *BRCA1/2* mutations

- CHEMORADIATION (5-fluorouracil)—in selected patients with limited advanced unresectable cancer
- PALLIATIVE CARE—referral for patients with supportive care needs. For pain control, consider opioids, percutaneous celiac ganglion ablation; for anorexia-cachexia, consider dietitian referral, nutrition supplements, and steroids; for biliary obstruction, consider ERCP stent placement or percutaneous transhepatic cholangiography with drainage

TREATMENT ISSUES

RESECTABLE DISEASE CRITERIA—no liver, peritoneal, or other metastases; no involvement of celiac axis, superior mesenteric artery, and hepatic artery; and no encasement of portal vein and superior mesenteric vein (*adherence* of the tumor to a segment of these veins *may* allow resection with venous reconstruction). If in doubt, patients should be evaluated by a hepatobiliary surgeon

Related Topics

Cachexia (p. 442) Cancer Pain (p. 434) Jaundice (p. 155)

Hepatocellular Carcinoma

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF FOCAL LIVER LESION (BY ULTRASOUND)

SOLID LESION

- нуроесноіс—malignant (hepatocellular carcinoma, metastasis), benign (focal nodular hyperplasia, hepatic adenoma, hamartoma)
- нурекесноіс—hemangioma, calcification, focal fat

CYSTIC LESION

- simple—benign
- **COMPLEX**—bleeding, infections, *Echinococcus*

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

RISK FACTORS—any causes of cirrhosis, particularly HBV, HCV, alcohol, and hemochromatosis. Note that HBV may cause hepatocellular carci-

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

noma without cirrhosis as the virus can integrate into host genome. Environmental toxins include aflatoxin, the bluegreen algal toxin microcystin, and betelnut chewing

CLINICAL FEATURES

LOCOREGIONAL—upper abdominal pain, early satiety, obstructive jaundice, intra-abdominal bleeding due to tumor rupture, decompensation of liver disease (ascites, encephalopathy, jaundice, and variceal bleeding)

METASTATIC—bone pain, dyspnea

CONSTITUTIONAL—weight loss, fever due to central tumor necrosis

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

PARANEOPLASTIC SYNDROME—hypoglycemia, erythrocytosis, hypercalcemia, watery diarrhea, cutaneous features

STAGING FOR HEPATOCELLULAR CARCINOMA OR INTRAHEPATIC BILE DUCT CANCER

TNM STAGING

T stage

- **T1**—solitary tumor without vascular invasion
- T2—solitary tumor with vascular invasion or multiple tumors ≤5 cm
- T3—multiple tumors >5 cm or tumor that involves major branch of portal or hepatic vein
- T4—invades adjacent structures other than gallbladder or with perforation of the visceral peritoneum

N stage (along portal vein, hepatic artery, inferior vena cava, hepatoduodenal ligament)

• N1—metastasis in regional lymph node(s)

M stage (lungs, liver, bones, brain)

• M1—distant metastasis

STAGE GROUPINGS

| Stage | TNM @=an |
|-------|----------|
| I. | T1N0M0 |
| II | T2N0M0 |
| IIIA | T3N0M0 |
| IIIB | T4N0M0 |
| IVA | T@N1M0 |
| IVB | T@N@M1 |

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, albumin, AFP
- IMAGING—CXR, CT abd (biphasic or triphasic), US abd, MRI abd, liver/spleen scan (if suspect FNH)

SPECIAL

 BIOPSY—liver biopsy only if non-specific imaging and meeting AASLD clinical criteria (>1 cm, atypical vascular pattern on multiple imaging modalities including multiphase CT or MR) or if biopsy would have an impact on management options; if imaging definitive for HCC, biopsy not required and increases risk of seeding needle track

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

CT SCAN—characteristic features for hemangioma, FNH (central scar)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

LIVER SPLEEN SCAN—useful for distinguishing FNH and hepatoma

GALLIUM SCAN—useful for identifying hepatoma and abscesses (increased blood flow)

APPROACH TO HEPATOMA—start with US abd, followed by CT/nuclear scans to rule out other causes

- LOW CLINICAL SUSPICION—consider percutaneous biopsy
- HIGH CLINICAL SUSPICION (known cirrhosis) patient should be referred to hepatobiliary surgeon for resection. Biopsy is not required

PROGNOSIS BY STAGE—5 year overall survival rates for localized, locally advanced and meta-static liver cancer are 33%, 11%, and 2%, respectively

MANAGEMENT

EARLY STAGE (1 lesion or 3 lesions \leq 3 cm, Child-Pugh A-B and ECOG 0)—if only 1 lesion <2 cm or CIS, bilirubin not significantly elevated and no portal hypertension, proceed to **resection**. If unresectable disease, consider **liver transplant** if no comorbidity plus either 1 lesion \leq 5 cm or up to 3 lesions \leq 3 cm (Milan Criteria). Consider **locoregional therapies** such as radiofrequency ablation (RFA), transcatheter arterial chemoembolization (TACE) \pm drug eluting beads, and/or transarterial radioembolization (TARE) with yttrium-90 microspheres as either bridge therapy while waiting for transplant, downstaging therapy so tumor is small enough for transplant or if patient is not transplant candidate

INTERMEDIATE STAGE (multinodular disease, Child-Pugh A-B and ECOG 0; median survival 20 months)—chemoembolization

ADVANCED STAGE (portal invasion, N1, M1, Child-Pugh A–B or ECOG 1–2; median survival 11 months)—for patients with Child-Pugh A disease, consider sorafenib or lenvatinib. Immunotherapy and bevacizumab recently approved for first line. Chemoembolization may also represent an option for some patients. Median survival 11 months. Palliative care referral for patients with supportive care needs

TERMINAL STAGE (Child-Pugh C or ECOG >2; median survival <3 months)—supportive care only

TREATMENT ISSUES

CRITERIA FOR RESECTABLE DISEASE—wellcompensated cirrhosis, single lobe involvement, no vascular invasion, N0, M0

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

ABLATION—include thermal (radiofrequency), chemical (percutaneous ethanol or acetic acid), cyro and microwave ablation. Criteria for ablation include 1 lesion ≤ 5 cm or 3 lesions ≤ 3 cm, accessible location to percutaneous/laparoscopic/open approaches. Tumors ≤ 3 cm may be curable with ablation alone

ARTERIAL DIRECTED THERAPIES—include TACE, TACE with drug-eluting beads, TARE, and transarterial bland embolization (TAE). Useful for larger volume disease or tumors in inaccessible location. Relative contraindications include bilirubin >3 mg/dL, portal vein thrombosis, and Child-Pugh C. Adverse effects include decompensated liver failure, cholecystitis, and non-target embolization. No proven survival benefit but can shrink tumor

FOLLOW-UP OF RESECTABLE DISEASE—AFP and CT abd every 3–6 months for 2 years, then every 6–12 months

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

HEMANGIOMA—prevalence 5%. May gradually increase in size due to vascular expansion. Usually asymptomatic and no treatment required

FOCAL NODULAR HYPERPLASIA (FNH) prevalence 0.5%. Hyperplasia of liver cells in response to hyperperfusion from an anomalous artery. Rarely exceeds 10 cm. Usually asymptomatic HEPATIC ADENOMA—mainly in young woman on oral contraceptive pills. May cause abdominal pain. Potential for malignant transformation. Treat initially by withdrawal of oral contraceptives and follow lesions by US. If fails to regress, consider resection

Related Topics

Hepatitis B (p. 147) Hepatitis C (p. 148) Hepatic Failure (p. 145) Chronic Liver Disease (p. 149)

Renal Cancer

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF SOLID RENAL MASS

MALIGNANCY

- RENAL CELL CARCINOMA (RCC) (80-85%)
 - CLEAR CELL (75-85%)-proximal tubule
 - PAPILLARY/CHROMOPHILIC (12–14%)—proximal tubule
 - снкоморновіс (4–6%)—intercalated cell of cortical collecting duct
 - оксосутис (2–4%)—intercalated cell of cortical collecting duct
 - соцестима рист (1%)—medullary collecting duct
- UROTHELIAL CARCINOMA (15–20%)—usually arises from the renal pelvis
- LYMPHOMA
- SARCOMA
- RENINOMA—usually arises from the juxtaglomerular cells. Mostly benign. May secrete renin
- HEMANGIOPERICYTOMAS—usually secrete renin. May be malignant
- wilm тимок—nephroblastomas. Mostly in children

ANGIOMYOLIPOMA—distinctive fat density on CT; association with tuberous sclerosis; benign

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DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF SOLID RENAL MASS (CONT'D)

ONCOCYTOMA—a homogeneous, wellcircumscribed solid mass with a central scar; typically benign (low metastatic potential)

XANTHOGRANULOMATOUS PYELONEPHRI-TIS—variant of chronic pyelonephritis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

RISK FACTORS

- PERSONAL—age, obesity
- ENVIRONMENTAL—smoking (2 ×), phenacetin
- FAMILY HISTORY—affected relatives
- HEREDITARY SYNDROMES—von Hippel-Lindau syndrome, hereditary papillary renal cell carcinoma, Birt-Hogg-Dubé syndrome, tuberous sclerosis complex, hereditary leiomyomatosis & RCC, autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease

CLINICAL FEATURES

LOCOREGIONAL—classic triad of flank pain, hematuria, and abdominal mass. Other symptoms include varicocele (left > right due to obstruction of testicular vein), ascites, and leg swelling (if infe-

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

rior vena cava involvement). Two-thirds of renal tumors are found incidentally

METASTATIC—dyspnea, bone pain, jaundice CONSTITUTIONAL—fever, weight loss, anorexia, fatigue

PARANEOPLASTIC SYNDROMES—hypertension (40%, due to renin secretion), hypercalcemia (5%), polycythemia (5%, due to EPO secretion), anemia, thrombocytosis, AA amyloidosis, hepatic dysfunction (Stauffer syndrome, without liver metastases)

STAGING

TNM STAGING

T stage

- T1—≤7 cm, limited to the kidney (T1a=≤4 cm, T1b=>4 to ≤7 cm)
- T2—>7 cm, limited to the kidney
- T3—extends into major veins or perinephric tissues, but not into the ipsilateral adrenal gland and not beyond Gerota fascia
- T4—invades beyond Gerota fascia

N stage

- N1—metastasis in regional lymph node(s)
- **M stage** (lungs, liver, bones, brain)
- M1—distant metastasis

STAGE GROUPINGS

| Stage | TNM @=any | 5-year survival |
|-------|-----------|-----------------|
| I. | T1N0M0 | >90% |
| 11 | T2N0M0 | 75–95% |
| III | T1-2N1M0, | 60-70% |
| | T3N@M0 | |
| IV | T4N@M0, | See risk model |
| | T@N@M1 | below |

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC with differential (neutrophil count), lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, LDH, urinalysis (hematuria, proteinuria)
- URINE CYTOLOGY—if urothelial carcinoma suspected (e.g. central mass)
- IMAGING—CXR, US abd, CT or MRI abd/pelvis with contrast (most useful), CT chest (if suspicious), bone scan (if suspicious), MRI brain (if suspicious)
- NEPHRECTOMY/BIOPSY—biopsy is usually not required prior to surgery for solitary renal mass because of its low specificity and potential for seeding. Nephrectomy is both diagnostic and therapeutic. May consider

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

biopsy if non-RCC etiology is suspected (e.g. lymphoma, metastasis) or patient is not a surgical candidate

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

PROGNOSIS BY STAGE—5 year overall survival rates for localized, locally advanced and metastatic renal cell carcinoma are 93%, 70%, and 12%, respectively

ADVERSE PROGNOSTIC FACTORS—stage III-IV, histologic grade 3–4, ECOG performance status ≥1

INTERNATIONAL METASTATIC RENAL CELL CARCINOMA DATABASE CONSORTIUM (IMDC) CRITERIA—interval from diagnosis to treatment upper normal limit, hemoglobin upper normal limit, calcium > upper normal limit. Risk model is used to guide treatment in metastatic RCC

| | | Median | 2-year |
|---------|--------------|-----------|----------|
| Factors | Risk group | survival | survival |
| 0 | Favorable | - | 75% |
| 1–2 | Intermediate | 27 months | 53% |
| 3–6 | Poor | 9 months | 7% |
| | | | |

Heng et al. J Clin Oncol 2009;27(34)

MANAGEMENT

STAGE I (T1a)—nephrectomy; ablative techniques (e.g. cryotherapy, radiofrequency ablation); active surveillance

STAGE I (T1b)—nephrectomy; active surveillance in select patients

STAGE II—nephrectomy followed by surveillance

STAGE III—nephrectomy followed by surveillance; may consider adjuvant sunitinib

STAGE IV—treatment is palliative in most cases

- SURGERY—cytoreductive nephrectomy in select patients (e.g. ECOG performance status 0–1, no brain metastasis). Metastasectomy in select patients with oligometastatic disease
- SYSTEMIC THERAPY—first line therapy may include vascular endothelial growth factor inhibitors (e.g. sunitinib, pazopanib, axitinib, cabozantinib) and/or immune checkpoint inhibitors (e.g. ipilimumab, nivolumab, pembrolizumab). Selection of agents and combinations is guided by risk group (see IMDC criteria above). Chemotherapy is typically ineffective in clear cell RCC

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

- RADIATION—control of bleeding, pain or bone metastases
- PALLIATIVE CARE—referral for patients with supportive care needs

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

VON HIPPEL-LINDAU DISEASE—a familial cancer syndrome due to mutation of the VHL gene. Disease spectrum includes renal cell carcinomas (clear cell type, 40%) and cysts, pancreatic carcinomas and cysts, pheochromocytomas,

Bladder Cancer

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION BY HISTOLOGY

- UROTHELIAL CARCINOMA (90%)
- squamous (8%)
- ADENOCARCINOMA (2%)
- RHABDOMYOSARCOMA
- LYMPHOMA
- CARCINOID

NATURAL HISTORY OF SUPERFICIAL TUMORS—low-grade superficial tumors have high recurrence rate (80%) and low risk of becoming invasive (10%). High-grade superficial tumors are frequently associated with carcinoma in situ, which is usually multifocal and has a high chance of becoming invasive (80% within 10 years)

RISK FACTORS

PERSONAL—age

- ENVIRONMENTAL—smoking (4 ×), occupation (dye, rubber, textiles, leather, and petroleum industries with exposure to aniline, arylamines such as benzidine and 2-naphthylamine and amides), drugs (cyclophosphamide), pelvic radiation
- FAMILY HISTORY—affected relatives
- DISEASES (usually squamous cell carcinoma) schistosomiasis, chronic bladder infection, Balkan endemic nephropathy

CLINICAL FEATURES

LOCOREGIONAL—painless intermittent hematuria (80%), bladder irritability (25%, hesitancy, urgency, frequency, and dysuria), abdominal mass, suprapubic or flank pain, lymphedema METASTATIC—dyspnea, bone pain, jaundice

CONSTITUTIONAL—weight loss, anorexia, fatigue

PARANEOPLASTIC—hypercalcemia, systemic fibrinolysis, neuromuscular syndromes

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

hemangioblastomas of the cerebellum and spinal cord, and retinal hemangiomas. HIF1 a is hydroxylated in normoxic conditions, which is then ubiquitinated by VHL protein complex and destroyed. Accumulation of HIF1 α happens with hypoxic conditions or mutated VHL protein, which then heterodimerizes with HIF1B and activates transcription of various aenes such as VEGF. Development of targeted therapy for renal cell carcinoma is facilitated by our understanding of the VHL–HIF1α–VEGF pathway

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STAGING

TNM STAGING

T stage

- **TA**—non-invasive papillary carcinoma
- TIS—carcinoma in situ (CIS): flat tumor
- T1—invades lamina propria
- T2—invades muscularis propria
- T3—invades perivesical tissue
- T4—extravesical tumor invades surrounding tissue (prostate, seminal vesicles, uterus, vagina, pelvic wall, abdominal wall)

N stage

- N1—single regional lymph node in the true pelvis (perivesical, obturator, internal & external iliac, or sacral)
- N2—multiple regional lymph node in the true pelvis
- N3—metastasis to the common iliac lymph node
- M stage (bone, liver, lungs)
- M1a—lymph nodes beyond the common iliac lymph nodes
- M1B—non-lymph node distant metastases

STAGE GROUPINGS

Stage TNM @ = any

| 0a | TaN0M0 |
|----|-----------|
| ou | 101101110 |

- 0is TisN0M0
- I T1N0M0
- II T2a-bN0M0
- III T3a-bN0M0, T4aN0M0, T1-T4aN1-3M0
- IV T4bN@M0, T@N@M1a-b

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, albumin

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

- IMAGING—CT (CT urography) or MRI abd/pelvis, include upper urinary tract; chest imaging (if muscle invasive), bone scan (if suspicious)
- URINE CYTOLOGY—low sensitivity
- CYSTOSCOPY WITH BIOPSY
- TRANS-URETHRAL RESECTION OF BLADDER TUMOR (TURBT)—must have muscle in specimen for adequate staging

PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

PROGNOSIS BY STAGE—5 year overall survival rates for in situ, localized, locally advanced and metastatic bladder cancer are 96%, 70%, 36%, and 5%, respectively

ADVERSE PROGNOSTIC FACTORS—for nonmuscle invasive disease: CIS, high grade, T1, multifocal, >3 cm

MANAGEMENT

SUPERFICIAL/NON-MUSCLE INVASIVE

- stage OA, OIS, I—repeat TURBT, intravesical therapy (e.g. Bacillus Calmette–Guerin [BCG]). Cystectomy may be considered for T1 disease MUSCLE INVASIVE
- STAGE II, III—neoadjuvant cisplatin-based chemotherapy (preferred over adjuvant chemotherapy) followed by cystectomy, concurrent chemoradiation (if not surgical candidate), radiation (if frail)
- STAGE IV—systemic therapy (chemotherapy; immune checkpoint inhibitors, e.g. pembrolizumab, atezolizumab), concurrent chemoradiation (if M0 disease). Palliative care referral for patients with supportive care needs

Prostate Cancer

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION BY HISTOLOGY

- ADENOCARCINOMA (>95%)
- PROSTATE INTRAEPITHELIAL NEOPLASM (PIN)
- UROTHELIAL CARCINOMA
- SMALL CELL CARCINOMA
- SQUAMOUS CELL CARCINOMA
- SARCOMA

GLEASON SCORE—assigned by a pathologist based on the aggressiveness of the predominate population (1–5) plus second most common population (1–5) with a total of between 2 and 10

RISK FACTORS

- PERSONAL—age (most important), race (Black > Caucasian > Asian)
- FAMILY HISTORY/GENETIC FACTORS—affected relatives (2–5 ×), breast cancer, BRCA2
- ENVIRONMENTAL—total and saturated fat intake

CLINICAL FEATURES

LOCOREGIONAL—mostly asymptomatic with diagnosis made by rise in PSA or incidentally through TURP for BPH. Potential symptoms include urinary obstruction, urinary frequency, nocturia, hesitancy, slow stream, urge incontinence

METASTATIC—bony pain, cord compression. Hypercalcemia and fractures are not very com-

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CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

mon as the metastatic lesions tend to be osteoblastic instead of lytic

CONSTITUTIONAL—weight loss, anorexia, fatigue

PARANEOPLASTIC—systemic fibrinolysis, neuromuscular syndromes

STAGING

TNM STAGING

T stage

- T1—clinically inapparent tumor that is not palpable
- T2—confined within prostate that is palpable
 - T2a—invades less than or equal to half of one lobe
 - T2B—invades more than half of one lobe
 - T2c—invades both lobes
- T3—extends through the prostate capsule
 - T3A—extracapsular extension
 - T3B—invades seminal vesicle(s)
- T4—fixed or invades bladder neck, external sphincter, rectum, levator muscles,and/or pelvic wall

N stage (obturator, hypogastric → iliac)

• **N1**—metastasis in regional lymph node(s)

M stage (non-regional lymph nodes, bone, liver.

Biologically heterogeneous with variable course)

M1—distant metastasis

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, albumin, PSA, testosterone
- IMAGING—CXR, CT or MRI abd/pelvis (if highrisk disease), bone scan (if high-risk disease)
- вюряу—US-guided transrectal biopsy (6–12 core needles)

Related Topics

Cancer Screening (p. 239) Tumor Markers (p. 237) Cancer Survivorship (p. 245)

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

PROSTATE-SPECIFIC ANTIGEN—a serine protease that liquifies semen physiologically. Elevated in prostate cancer, prostatitis, BPH, endoscopy, prostate surgery, prostate biopsy (remains elevated for 6–8 weeks), and with increasing age (normal PSA by age: age 40–50<2.5 ng/mL, age 50–60<3.5 ng/mL, age 60–70<4.5 ng/mL, age 70–80<6.5 ng/mL). May be used for screening, diagnosis, prognostication, selection of treatment modality and following treatment response

- FREE PSA—proportion of PSA unbound to antichymotrypsin or α2 macroglobulin. A decreased ratio of free to total PSA is associated with higher chance of prostate cancer
- PSA DENSITY—PSA/prostate volume and may be associated with increased PPV and NPV
- PSA DOUBLING TIME—predictive of prostate cancer-specific mortality in biochemical relapse
- SCREENING—PSA >4 ng/mL is considered abnormal, spc 32%. With the addition of DRE, spc 48%. A PSA increase of 20%/year also should warrant a biopsy. So far, PSA screening has not been proven to reduce mortality from prostate cancer. Discuss potential risks/benefits with men >50 years, high risk (family history, ethnicity)
- BIOCHEMICAL RELAPSE—for patients with previous prostatectomy, PSA relapse is indicated by a PSA ≥0.2 ng/mL that is confirmed on a second PSA ≥0.2 ng/mL. For patients with previous external beam radiation or brachytherapy, PSA relapse is indicated by PSA ≥2 ng/mL from nadir PSA

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

PROGNOSIS BY STAGE—5 year overall survival rates for localized, locally advanced and metastatic cancer are ~100%, ~100%, and 31%, respectively

ADVERSE PROGNOSTIC FACTORS—pretreatment PSA, Gleason score, T stage

RISK CATEGORIES FOR LOCALIZED DISEASE

| Risk category | PSA(ng/ mL) | Gleason score | Stage |
|--|----------------|------------------|-------|
| Low (highly curable) | <10 | ≤6 | ≤T2a |
| Intermediate (curable) ^a | 10–20 | 7 | T2b-c |
| High (rarely curable) | >20 | 8–10 | ≥T3a |

alf more than one risk factors present, consider shifting to high risk group

MANAGEMENT

LOCALIZED DISEASE (T1-3N0M0)

- LOW RISK—if <10-year life expectancy, consider observation for symptoms. If ≥10-year life expectancy, options include active surveillance (preferred), external-beam radiation (EBRT) or brachytherapy, or radical prostatectomy (RP). Active surveillance involves PSA testing every ≥6 months, prostate biopsy every ≥12 months, MRI prostate every ≥12 months and consider treatment with disease progression (i.e. meet criteria for intermediate or higher risk). Send for germline testing if familv history positive
- INTERMEDIATE RISK—if <10-year life expectancy, options include observation for symptoms and EBRT or brachytherapy. If ≥10-year life expectancy, options include active surveillance, EBRT or brachytherapy ± androgen deprivation therapy (ADT), or radical prostatectomy. ADT involves LHRH agonist (e.g. leuprolide). Send for germline testing if family history positive
- HIGH RISK—if ≤5-year life expectancy and asymptomatic, options include observation for symptoms, ADT, or EBRT. If >5-year life expectancy or symptomatic, options include EBRT ± brachytherapy + ADT, or radical prostatectomy. Send for germline testing

ADVANCED DISEASE (T4, N1–3, M1)

 CASTRATION-SENSITIVE (CSPC)—options include ADT ± chemotherapy (docetaxel) or androgen

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

receptor-targeted therapy (abiraterone, enzalutamide, apalutamide). Patients require life-long **castration** surgically or medically with LHRH agonist (e.g. leuprolide, goserelin) plus antiandrogen (e.g. bicalutamide, flutamide) for \geq 7 days when starting LHRH agonist to prevent initial testosterone flare response. Early initiation of ADT is recommended in symptomatic disease. Early ADT may improve disease-specific survival compared to delayed ADT, ie, starting treatment when patients become symptomatic

- CASTRATION-RESISTANT (CRPC)
 - FIRST-LINE—options include chemotherapy (docetaxel if not previously used) or AR-

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

targeted therapy (abiraterone or enzalutamide depending on agent used for CSPC)

- sECOND-LINE—options include chemotherapy (docetaxel if not previously used, cabazitaxel), AR-targeted therapy (abiraterone, enzalutamide), PARP inhibitors (olaparib, if mutation in homologous recombination repair gene), or immune checkpoint inhibitor (pembrolizumab, if microsatellite instability-high or mismatch repair-deficient)
- BONE METASTASES—bisphosphonates (zoledronic acid), radium-223, palliative radiation
- PALLIATIVE CARE—referral for patients with supportive care needs

TREATMENT ISSUES

| COMPARISON OF TREATMENTS FOR LOCALIZED DISEASE | | | | |
|--|---|--|---|--|
| | Prostatectomy ^b | Brachytherapy | External beam radiation ^c | |
| 5 year disease free survival | >85% | 96% | 80% | |
| Indications | Preferred for patients with low-risk disease, life expectancy >20 years, or significant urinary symptoms | Eligibility criteria include PSA \leq 15 ng/mL, Gleason score \leq 7, stage \leq T2c, prostate volume \leq 60 mL, and life expectancy >5 years | Preferred for patients with high-risk disease or older | |
| Contraindications | Age >70, high-risk disease | Significant urinary symptoms (as prostate swells significantly shortly after procedure), prior TURP | Pelvic kidney, inflammatory bowel disease, connective tissue disease (SLE, scleroderma), or prior radiation to same region | |
| Impotence ^a | 50-90% | 50% | 50% | |
| Urinary incontinence ^a | 10–20% | 1–2% | 1–2% | |
| Urinary irritation ^a | 15–60% | 12-30% | 2–30% | |
| GI irritation ^a | 2–17% | 10% | 30% | |

^aSide effects at 5 years are listed

^bSide effects tend to decrease over time with prostatectomy ^cSymptoms tend to increase over time with radiation

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

LHRH AGONISTS

- INDICATIONS—high intermediate or high-risk localized disease (in combination with EBRT), salvage setting, or advanced disease setting. Requires the use of an antiandrogen (flutamide) for first ≥7 days to counter testosterone flare response
- ADVERSE EFFECTS—fatigue, hot flushes, mood changes, weight gain, decreased libido, impo-

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

tence, gynecomastia, and over the long-term decreased muscle mass, anemia, and osteoporosis. All patients initiated on LHRH agonists should have baseline bone density scan and be started on calcium and vitamin D supplements. Bisphosphonates should be given if osteoporosis confirmed by DEXA

COMPARISON OF TREATMENTS FOR LOCALIZED I

Testicular Cancer

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION BY HISTOLOGY

- TESTICULAR INTRAEPITHELIAL NEOPLASIA (TIN)— 70% chance of progression to testicular cancer in 7 years
- GERM CELL TUMOR (95%)—can differentiate into any immature or mature tissue type, usually mixed
 - seminoma (40%)—neoplastic counterpart of spermatocyte. Age thirties to forties, pure, αFP negative and sometimes slightly βhCG positive. Few metastasize. Very chemo- and radiosensitive
 - NON-SEMINOMA (60%)—age twenties to thirties, pure or mixed, more metastasize. Chemosensitive. Include the following subtypes
 - EMBRYONAL CELL CARCINOMA—neoplastic counterpart of inner cell mass of embryo. May be βhCG+, αFP+
 - YOLK SAC TUMOR—neoplastic counterpart of yolk sac. Usually αFP+
 - CHORIOCARCINOMA—neoplastic counterpart of chorionic villus. Usually βhCG+
 - IMMATURE TERATOMA—neoplastic counterpart of fetal tissue. Marker negative
 - MATURE TERATOMA—neoplastic counterpart of mature adult tissue. Marker negative. Completely resistant to chemotherapy. May transform into malignant mesodermal, endodermal, or ectodermal elements
- SEX CORD STROMAL TUMORS
 - SERTOLI CELL TUMOR
 - LEYDIG CELL TUMOR
 - GRANULOSA CELL TUMOR
 - MIXED CELL TYPE (SERTOLI-LEYDIG CELL)
- MIXED GERM CELL AND STROMAL TUMORS
- GONADOBLASTOMA
- LYMPHOMA
- RHABDOMYOSARCOMA
- CARCINOID

ISOCHROMOSOME 12P—characteristic of germ cell tumors. Poorly differentiated neoplasms of unknown primary with this cytogenetic feature are highly sensitive to cisplatin-based chemotherapy

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PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

RISK FACTORS

- FAMILY HISTORY—affected relatives
- DISEASES—prior testicular cancer, cryptorchidism (10–40 ×), testicular feminization syndromes, Klinefelter syndrome

CLINICAL FEATURES

LOCOREGIONAL—testicular mass ± pain, acute epididymitis (25% of embryonal cell tumor and mixed teratoma), back pain (10%), gynecomastia (βhCG), infertility (3%)

METASTATIC—dyspnea, cough, headaches, stroke

CONSTITUTIONAL—weight loss, anorexia, fatigue

STAGING

T stage

- T1—limited to testis without vascular/lymphatic invasion
- T2—limited to testis with vascular/lymphatic invasion or tumor invading hilar soft tissue or epididymis, or penetrating visceral mesothelial layer covering tunica albuginea ± vascular/lymphatic invasion
- T3—invades the spermatic cord±vascular/ lymphatic invasion
- T4—invades the scrotum ± vascular/lymphatic invasion
- **N stage** (pelvic → paraaortic lymph node)
- N1—1 or more lymph nodes, all ≤2 cm
- N2—1 or more lymph nodes between $>2-\leq 5$ cm
- N3—any lymph node ≥5 cm

M stage (lungs, liver, bones, brain)

- M1A—lung metastasis
- M1B—sites other than non-regional lymph nodes or lung (e.g. bone)

SERUM TUMOR MARKER DESIGNATION

Post-orchiectomy serum tumor markers are used

| | lphaFP (ng/mL) | βhCG (IU/L) | LDH |
|----|----------------|-------------|-----------------|
| S1 | <1000 | <5000 | <1.5× |
| S2 | 1000-10,000 | 5000-50,000 | $1.5-10 \times$ |
| S3 | >10,000 | >50,000 | >10 × |

STAGING (CONT'D)

STAGE GROUPINGS

| Stage | TNM @=any |
|-------|---------------------|
| IA | T1N0M0S0 |
| IB | T2-4N0M0S0 |
| IS | T@N0M0S1-3 |
| IIA | T@N1M0S0-1 |
| IIB | T@N2M0S0-1 |
| IIC | T@N3M0S0-1 |
| IIIA | T@N@M1aS0-1 |
| IIIB | T@N@M0-1aS2 |
| IIIC | T@N@M0-1aS3, T@N@M1 |

RISK STRATIFICATION FOR ADVANCED DISEASE

bS@

| KISK group | Non-seminoma | Seminoma |
|--|--|---|
| Good (90% 5-year survival) | Testicular or retroperitoneal tumor, S1, and absence of non-pulmonary visceral metastases | Any location, any marker, and absence of non- pulmonary visceral metastases |
| Intermediate (70–80% 5-year survival) | Testicular or retroperitoneal tumor, S2, and absence of non-pulmonary visceral metastases | Any location, any marker, and any non- pulmonary visceral metastases |
| Poor (50% 5-year survival) | Testicular, retroperitoneal, or mediastinal primary tumor, S3, or non-pulmonary visceral metastases | Not applicable |

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, albumin, lipase, αFP, βhCG, LDH, TSH, T3, T4, total testosterone, LH, FSH
- IMAGING—testicular US, CXR, CT abd/pelvis, CT chest (if CXR or CT abd/pelvis abnormal), CT head (if advanced disease with intermediate or

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

poor prognosis), bone scan (if suspect metastasis)

RADICAL INGUINAL ORCHIECTOMY

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF TESTICULAR MASS—epididymitis, hydroceles, varicoceles, spermatoceles, inguinal hernias, orchitis (gummatous, tuberculous), hematoma, testicular torsion

TUMOR MARKERS—essential for diagnosis, staging, risk stratification and monitoring treatment response

- LDH—less specific, indicates tumor bulk
- βhCG—elevated in trophoblastic tumor, choriocarcinoma. Half-life 1–3 days
- αFP—elevated in yolk sac tumor. Half-life 5–7 days

| Tumor | βhCG | αFP |
|--------------|----------------|----------------|
| Non-seminoma | ↑ in up to 85% | ↑ in up to 80% |
| Seminoma | ↑ in 15–25% | Normal |

PROGNOSIS BY STAGE—5 year overall survival rates for localized, locally advanced and metastatic cancer are 99%, 96%, and 73%, respectively

PROGNOSTIC FACTORS—lymphovascular invasion is the most important indicator for relapse in stage IA-IB non-seminoma

MANAGEMENT

All testicular cancer patients should undergo orchiectomy. All patients should be discussed with an interdisciplinary team experienced in its management

SEMINOMA

- STAGE I—SURVEILLANCE (preferred), adjuvant chemotherapy (carboplatin) or radiation.
 All three options are acceptable with comparable long-term survival rates (>90%)
- stage IIA, IIB—adjuvant radiation or chemotherapy (bleomycin/etoposide/cisplatin, BEP)
- stage IIC, III—adjuvant chemotherapy. Choice of regimen based on risk group

NON-SEMINOMA

 stage IA, IB—surveillance (preferred), adjuvant chemotherapy with bleomycin, etoposide + cisplatin (BEP) or nerve-sparing

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

retroperitoneal lymph node dissection (RPLND). All three options are acceptable with comparable long-term survival rates (>90%)

- stage IS—chemotherapy (BEP, EP)
- STAGE IIA, IIB—chemotherapy (BEP) or RPLND
- sTAGE IIC, III—chemotherapy. Choice of regimen based on risk group

TREATMENT ISSUES

POST-CHEMOTHERAPY RESIDUAL MASSES —resect all residual masses in non-seminoma if surgically feasible because of possible teratoma (chemoresistant) and/or viable disease

GROWING TERATOMA SYNDROME—defined as enlargement of a residual mass postchemotherapy, despite complete normalization of tumor marker suggesting eradication of malignant population. Surgical resection is indicated for a growing teratoma as it does not respond to che-

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

motherapy or radiation and may transform into malignant tumors such as adenocarcinoma or rhabdomyosarcoma

RADICAL ORCHIECTOMY—should always be done prior to any further treatment, except for life-threatening metastatic disease in which chemotherapy should be given first

ORGAN-PRESERVING SURGERY—should be done at experienced centers only. Consider if synchronous bilateral testis tumors, metachronous contralateral (second) testis tumor, or tumor in a solitary testis and sufficient endocrine function

FERTILITY ISSUES—consider cryopreservation before orchiectomy and testicular sperm extraction if bilateral orchiectomy. Testosterone replacement should be given if bilateral orchiectomy. Patients planning to father children should have hormone and semen analysis for 1- to 3-year post-treatment

Brain Tumors

Cancer of Unknown Origin

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION BY HISTOLOGY

- ADENOCARCINOMA—well to moderately differentiated (60%)
- ADENOCARCINOMA/CARCINOMA—poorly differentiated (30%)
- SQUAMOUS CELL CARCINOMA (5%)
- UNDIFFERENTIATED NEOPLASMS (5%)

NATURAL HISTORY—early, unpredictable, and aggressive metastasis. Primary too small to cause symptoms

Related Topic

Tumor Markers (p. 237)

IMMUNOHISTOCHEMICAL MARKERS

 CARCINOMA—cytokeratin negative, common leukocyte antigen, S100, vimentin negative.
 Breast cancer may be ER/PR positive

NCCN Guidelines v3.2020

See BRAIN TUMORS (p. 319)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

- LYMPHOMA—common leukocyte antigen
- sarcoma—vimentin positive (mesenchymal), desmin positive (rhabdomyosarcoma), factor VII antigen (angiosarcoma)
- MELANOMA—S100, HMB 45, MART, vimentin, NSE positive
- NEUROENDOCRINE TUMORS—neuron-specific enolase, synaptophysin, chromogranin

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, LDH, INR, PTT, β-hCG, AFP, PSA, Ca 125, CEA, CA 19–9
- IMAGING—CT chest/abd/pelvis
- SPECIAL—EGD/colonoscopy (if clinically indicated), tissue biopsy

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—see table below for tailored treatment of cancer of unknown primary based on most likely tumor type

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

PALLIATIVE CARE—referral for patients with supportive care needs

| Descentation | Likely avianawy | Key history and | Investigations | Empiric |
|--|---|---|--|--|
| Presentation | Likely primary | pnysical | investigations | treatment(s) |
| Poorly differentiated midline disease in young men | Germ cell tumor (testicular, retroperitoneal) | Gynecomastia suggests seminoma. Perform testicular examination | β-hCG, AFP. Look for isochromosome 12 which suggests tumor responsive to platinum-based therapy | Ireat as germ cell tumor (BEP). Potentially curable |
| Squamous cell carcinoma with cervical lymphadenopathy | Head and neck cancer (hypopharynx, oropharynx, nasopharynx), skin, esophagus, lung | Smoker, alcohol use | Quadroscopy, CT chest, PET scan. Bronchoscopy and upper GI endoscopy may be considered. FNA first, then core biopsy if negative | Neck dissection and radiation. Potentially curable |
| Axillary lymphadenopathy in women | Breast cancer | Breast exam | Mammogram, US breast, MRI breast | Mastectomy with axillary dissection or whole breast irradiation, adjuvant chemotherapy. If lytic metastasis in postmenopausal women, consider hormonal treatment |
| Squamous cell carcinoma with inguinal lymphadenopathy | Cervical/anal cancer | Pelvic exam, colposcopy | Anoscopy, sigmoidoscopy, CT abd/pelvis | Lymph node dissection, chemoradiation |
| Peritoneal carcinomatosis | Ovarian cancer variant, primary peritoneal cancer, metastasis from colorectal or stomach cancer | Pelvic exam | Colonoscopy, gastroscopy, CT abd/pelvis, CEA, CA-125 (ratio 1/20) | Chemotherapy |
| Liver metastasis | GI (colorectal [usually otherwise well]), pancreatic, esophageal, gastric, hepatic (Asians or cirrhosis), lung, breast | General | CEA, CA 19-9, CA 15-3, AFP, colonoscopy | Chemotherapy, consider surgery if resectable |

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

| Presentation | Likely primary | Key history and physical | Investigations | Empiric treatment(s) |
|----------------------------|--|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|
| Lung nodule(s) | Metastasis (lower lobes, multiple), lung cancer (upper lobe, single) | Smoking history | CT chest | Chemotherapy, consider surgery if resectable, stereotactic body radiation (SBRT) |
| Malignant pleural effusion | Lung, mesothelioma, breast | Smoking, asbestos exposure | Thoracentesis | Chemotherapy |
| Blastic bone metastasis | Prostate (most common), lung, breast | DRE | PSA, plain X-rays of bones, bone scan | Systemic therapy if suspect prostate cancer, surgery if impending fracture, radiation if pain |

Tumor Markers

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION—substances that can be measured quantitatively in the serum in order to detect a cancer and its organ of origin. May act as surrogate of tumor bulk

TYPES OF TUMOR MARKERS

- TUMOR-SPECIFIC PROTEINS—fusion gene product in CML (bcr–abl), monoclonal band in multiple myeloma
- ONCOFETAL ANTIGENS (non-specific)—expressed during embryological development and in cancer cells. Examples include CEA in all GI and some other tumors, AFP in hepatocellular carcinoma and germ cell tumor, and CA 125 in ovarian cancer
- OVER-EXPRESSED PROTEINS (non-specific)—present in normal differentiated cells but lesser amount. Examples include PSA in prostate cancer and CA 15-3 in breast cancer

UTILITY OF TUMOR MARKERS—screening, diagnosis, prognosis, monitor response to treatment, monitor recurrence (after adjuvant therapy)

PROSTATE SPECIFIC ANTIGEN (PSA)

NORMAL RANGE—<4 ng/mL (age-dependent range: 40–49 years old <2.5 ng/mL, 50–59 years old <3.5 ng/mL, 60–69 years old <4.5 ng/mL, 70–79 years old <6.5 ng/mL)

ELEVATED—prostate cancer, BPH, prostatitis, perineal trauma (including catheterization), endoscopy, prostate biopsy, recent DRE, or ejaculation

PROSTATE SPECIFIC ANTIGEN (PSA) (CONT'D)

UTILITY IN PROSTATE CANCER

- SCREENING—varying guidelines for using PSA for screening; always discuss risks and benefits (including false positives and negatives) with patients. If proceeding, start at age 50 for men with life expectancy >10 years. Perform PSA annually if PSA >1 ng/mL, and every 4 years if PSA <1 ng/mL. Combine with annual DRE
- DIAGNOSIS, PROGNOSIS, RESPONSE, FOLLOW-UP FOR RELAPSE—extremely useful. See PROSTATE CANCER for more details (p. 230)

CARCINOEMBRYONIC ANTIGEN (CEA)

NORMAL RANGE—<4 µg/L (<5 µg/L for smokers)

ELEVATED—colorectal cancer (sens <25% in early cancer and 75% in advanced cancer), gastric cancer (sens 50%), pancreatic cancer (sens 50%), breast cancer (sens 40–73%), lung cancer (sens 77%), ovarian cancer, IBD (4–10 μg/L), cirrhosis, hepatitis, pancreatitis, peptic ulcer disease, smoking (sens 19%), chronic lung disease, hypothyroidism. normal (sens 3%)

UTILITY IN COLORECTAL CANCER

- PROGNOSIS—CEA >5 µg/L may correlate with poorer prognosis
- ADJUVANT SETTING—elevated postoperative CEA implies the presence of persistent disease and requires further evaluation. For stage II and III disease post-resection, CEA levels should be

CARCINOEMBRYONIC ANTIGEN (CEA) (CONT'D)

performed every 3 months for at least 3 years if the patient is a potential candidate for surgery or chemotherapy for metastatic disease (even if previously CEA negative)

 METASTATIC SETTING—CEA is the marker of choice for monitoring the response of metastatic disease to systemic therapy

CA 19-9

NORMAL RANGE-<37 kU/L

ELEVATED—pancreatic cancer (sens 70–90%, spc 80–90%), cholangiocarcinoma, colorectal cancer (sens 20–40%), gastric cancer (sens 20–40%), ovarian cancer, pancreatitis, liver failure

UTILITY IN PANCREATIC CANCER

- DIAGNOSIS—level >120 kU/L is suggestive of malignancy. Level >1000 kU/L predicts metastatic disease (PPV of 97%)
- RESECTABLE DISEASE—elevated CA19-9 postoperatively may predict for recurrent disease
- LOCALLY ADVANCED OR METASTATIC DISEASE—elevations in serial CA 19-9 suggest progressive disease but confirmation with other studies needed

CA 15-3

NORMAL RANGE-<28 kU/L

ELEVATED—breast cancer (sens for stage I, 5–30%; stage II, 15–50%; stage III, 60–70%; stage IV, 65–90%), ovarian cancer (46%), lung cancer (26%), liver cancer (30%)

UTILITY IN BREAST CANCER

- DIAGNOSIS—may be used sometimes to determine the presence of metastatic disease. 86 kU/L+history of breast cancer strongly suggests metastasis
- METASTATIC SETTING—may be used to suggest treatment failure, particularly if disease is not readily measurable

CA 125

NORMAL RANGE-<35 kU/L

ELEVATED—epithelial ovarian cancer (sens 50% in stage I, 85% in all), breast cancer, colorectal

CA 125 (CONT'D)

cancer, pancreatic cancer, lung cancer, endometrial cancer, benign ovarian tumors (sens 26%), ascites, peritonitis, pelvic inflammatory disease, cirrhosis, menstruation, endometriosis, salpingitis, fibroids, right-sided heart failure, first trimester pregnancy

UTILITY IN EPITHELIAL OVARIAN CANCER

- screening—may have a role in early detection of ovarian cancer in women with hereditary ovarian cancer syndrome in combination with transvaginal US
- DIAGNOSIS—in postmenopausal women with asymptomatic palpable pelvic masses, CA 125>65 kU/L has PPV of 90% for ovarian cancer
- PROGNOSIS—rate of decrease in CA 125 after cytoreductive surgery and during cytotoxic chemotherapy has prognostic value
- RESPONSE—useful for following disease response during cytotoxic chemotherapy
- ADJUVANT SETTING—every 3 months for 2 years. However, limited treatment for relapsed disease limits clinical value of detection

TUMOR MARKERS IN EVERYDAY PRACTICE

| lumor type | lumor marker |
|-------------|-------------------------------|
| Prostate | PSA |
| Colorectal | CEA |
| Pancreas | CA 19-9, CEA |
| Liver | αFP |
| Breast | CA 15-3, CEA, CA 125, |
| ~ | CA 27.29 |
| Ovary | CA 125, CA 15-3, CA 19-9, CEA |
| Lung | CEA, CA 19-9, CA 125, LDH |
| Germ cell | αFP, βhCG, LDH |
| tumor | |
| GTN | βhCG |
| Carcinoid | Chromogranin, 5-HIAA |
| tumor | |
| Non-Hodgkin | LDH |
| Hodgkin | ALP |
| Myeloma | M-protein, β2 microglobulin |

UTILITY OF SPECIFIC TUMOR MARKERS

| Tumor marker | Tumor type | Screen | Diagnosis | Prognosis | Response | Follow-up (recurrence) |
|-----------------|------------|--------|-----------|-----------|------------|---------------------------|
| PSA | Prostate | ? | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| CEA | Colorectal | х | х | 1 | M? | 1 |
| CA 19–9 | Pancreas | х | x ? | х | √ ? | √? |
| CA 15–3 | Breast | х | х | х | M? | Х |

CARCINOEMBRYONIC ANTIGEN (CEA) (CONT'D)

| Tumor marker | Tumor type | Screen | Diagnosis | Prognosis | Response | Follow-up (recurrence) |
|-----------------|------------|--------|-----------|-----------|------------|---------------------------|
| CA 125 | Ovary | x? | x? | 1 | M? | √? |
| αFP | Germ cell | х | 1 | 1 | ✓ | 1 |
| | Liver | x? | 1 | 1 | 1 | х |
| βhCG | Germ cell | х | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | GTN | х | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| LDH | Germ cell | х | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | Lymphoma | х | х | 1 | √ ? | х |

✓ useful, ? debatable or not routinely conducted, x not useful, M metastatic setting only

Cancer Screening

Canadian Task Force on Preventive Health Care (CTFPHC) Guidelines US Preventive Service Task Force (USPSTF) Recommendations

PRINCIPLES OF SCREENING

GOAL—screening itself does not diagnose disease, but triggers investigations that lead to diagnosis. Early diagnosis in asymptomatic patients would allow early intervention that could lead to improved outcome. Up to 35% of cancer deaths may be prevented by early detection

CRITERIA FOR SCREENING

- DISEASE—major cause of death, high prevalence, natural history from latency to overt disease well characterized, treatment available and beneficial
- TEST—acceptable to population (easy to administer, minimal discomfort), costeffective, high specificity (key) and sensitivity.
 Prefer high sensitivity if serious and highly treatable or infectious disease, or subsequent diagnosis cheap and easy. May sacrifice sensitivity for specificity if high cost of subsequent testing
- PATIENTS—life expectancy >10 years, lack of significant comorbidities (screening may alter their clinical outcome)

CHALLENGES WITH SCREENING TRIALS

- PATIENT POPULATION—healthy individuals instead of patients (less motivated)
- study design—longer duration of follow-up, larger sample size, more expensive
- SURROGATE ENDPOINTS—cancer incidence, dysplasia, polyps instead of survival

BIASES ASSOCIATED WITH SCREENING TRIALS

 VOLUNTEER BIAS—volunteers tend to have better health and lower mortality rate

PRINCIPLES OF SCREENING (CONT'D)

- LEAD TIME BIAS—screening may allow disease to be detected earlier (asymptomatic) than when it would have been detected due to symptoms. Thus, people with disease detected by screening may appear to have longer overall survival. To correct for this, should compare not the length of survival from diagnosis to death, but rather the age-specific death rates. Alternatively, estimate the lead time and take it into account
- LENGTH BIAS—disease detected by screening may have a more indolent course, and thus more favorable prognosis. May control for this by comparing the experience of screened and symptom-detected cases at subsequent screening examinations

SCREENING FOR SPECIFIC CANCERS

- BREAST—self-breast examination, clinical breast examination, <u>mammography</u>
- CERVICAL—Pap smear, HPV DNA
- LUNG—annual low dose CT chest for patients aged 55–90 with at least a 30 pack year history who are either current smokers or quit within the last 15 years (reduces lung cancer mortality by 20%)
- COLORECTAL—fecal occult blood test (FOBT), fecal immunochemical test (FIT) sigmoidoscopy, double-contrast barium enema, colonoscopy, CT colonography
- **prostate**—DRE, PSA
- ovarian—US, CA125
- GASTRIC—gastroscopy (Asia)
- underlined = good evidence to support screening

PROSTATE CANCER SCREENING

DIGITAL RECTAL EXAMINATION (DRE)—no survival benefit demonstrated

PROSTATE-SPECIFIC ANTIGEN (PSA)—see Tumor Markers (p. 237). Evidence for survival benefit conflicting

OVERALL—the CTFPHC 2014 guideline does not recommend PSA screening regardless of age. The USPSTF 2018 statement recommends against PSA screening for men over 70 years and recommends a personalized discussion for men aged 55–69 (consider PSA testing ± digital rectal exam [DRE] if life expectancy >10 years and who desire screening after extensive counseling on the risks and benefits). If PSA 3 ng/mL +/– suspicious DRE, consider biopsy

Related Topics Tumor Markers (p. 237) Hereditary Cancer Syndromes (p. 241)

COLORECTAL CANCER SCREENING

FLEXIBLE SIGMOIDOSCOPY—case-control studies demonstrated 60–80% reduction in mortality. Potential survival benefit. Negative test in 75–93% of cases (30–65% negative even with advanced polyp) \rightarrow repeat in 5 years; positive in 7–25% \rightarrow proceed to colonoscopy

COLONOSCOPY—case–control studies demonstrated 50% reduction in mortality. Potential survival benefit. Negative test (i.e. no adenomatous polyps) in 50–80% of cases (2–12% negative even with advanced polyp) \rightarrow repeat in 10 years; positive (i.e. \geq 1 polyp) in 20–50% \rightarrow repeat colonoscopy depending on findings

DOUBLE-CONTRAST BARIUM ENEMA insufficient evidence to support benefit

CT COLONOGRAPHY—for polyps >10 mm, sens 85–93%, and spc 97%; for polyps 6–9 mm, sens 70–86%, and spc 86–93%. After detection of polyp, patient would need to undergo optical colonoscopy (ideally on standby) for resection. Risk of radiation exposure

FECAL OCCULT BLOOD TEST (FOBT)—detects peroxidase in blood. Rehydrated stool samples have been shown to reduce colorectal cancer mortality by 33% after 13 years if done annually and 21% after 18 years if done biennially; nonrehydrated stool samples have been shown to reduce colorectal cancer mortality by 18% after 18

COLORECTAL CANCER SCREENING (CONT'D)

years if done biennially. Negative test in 90–98% of cases (15–50% negative even with cancer) \rightarrow repeat in 1–2 years; positive in 2–10% \rightarrow proceed to colonoscopy

FECAL IMMUNOCHEMICAL TEST (FIT) detects hemoglobin. More specific and less sensitive than FOBT

STOOL DNA TEST (sDNA)—need to provide entire stool sample. To be used in conjunction with colonoscopy

OVERALL APPROACH

- AVERAGE RISK—the CTFPHC 2016 guideline recommends screening with FOBT or FIT every 2 years, or flexible sigmoidoscopy every 10 years, but not colonoscopy, for adults aged 50–74. The USPSTF 2016 statement recommends screening for adults aged 50–75 and individualized decision for adults aged 76–85; screening strategies may include yearly FOBT, yearly FIT, multitargeted stool DNA test every 1–3 years, colonoscopy every 10 years, flexible sigmoidoscopy every 5 years, or flexible sigmoidoscopy every 10 years plus FIT yearly
- POLYPS ON COLONOSCOPY—1-2 tubular adenomas → colonoscopy in 5 years; >2 adenomas → colonoscopy in 3 years; incomplete exam, numerous polyps, advanced adenoma, large sessile adenoma → repeat colonoscopy based on clinical judgment
- POSITIVE FAMILY HISTORY—one first-degree relative with cancer or adenomatous polyp at age <60 or two or more first-degree relatives with cancer or adenomatous polyp at any age → colonoscopy every 5 years beginning at 40 or 10 years earlier than youngest index case (whichever first)
- HNPCC, FAP, OR ATTENUATED ADENOMATOUS POLYPOsis COLI (AAPC)—genetic counseling and special screening. For HNPCC, colonoscopy every 1–2 years starting at 20–25 or 10 years earlier than youngest index case in family (whichever first); for FAP, colonoscopy annually beginning at 10–12 years of age and upper endoscopy with both end- and side-viewing instruments to screen for duodenal/ampullary adenomas at 25–30 years. For AAPC, colonoscopy annually beginning at 16–18 years of age
- IBD (ulcerative colitis or Crohn disease) staging colonoscopy 8–10 years after diagnosis; screening interval should decrease with increasing duration of disease (variable). Annual colonoscopy for any patient with PSC (starting at diagnosis)

BREAST CANCER SCREENING

BREAST SELF-EXAMINATION (BSE)—no survival benefit demonstrated on its own and not recommended in general

CLINICAL BREAST EXAMINATION (CBE)-

usually combined with mammography in studies **MAMMOGRAPHY**—sensitivity 16–40%. Metaanalysis showed 20–30% relative risk reduction (RRR) in breast cancer mortality for women 50–69, 17% reduction for women 40–49, and inconclusive for women aged 70–74

BREAST MRI—sensitivity 77–100% for breast cancer but not very specific and less sensitive than mammography in detecting DCIS. Studies only in high-risk women. No survival benefit demonstrated

BREAST US—may represent an alternative in women with dense breasts and increased risk of breast cancer who cannot tolerate MRI. No survival benefit demonstrated

OVERALL—the CTFPHC 2018 guideline recommends screening mammogram every 2–3 years for women aged 50–74 but not routinely for women aged 40–49. The USPSTF 2016 statement recommends screening mammogram every 2 years for women aged 50–74 and considers it optional for women aged 40–49 (individualized discussion). Breast MRI should be considered for patients at high risk of developing breast cancer (e.g. BRCA carriers, Li-Fraumeni, previous chest irradiation)

OVARIAN CANCER SCREENING

CA125—elevated in 80% of women with advanced ovarian cancer, <50% of stage I ovarian cancer, and 1–2% of normal population. Low specificity

TRANSVAGINAL US—sensitivity 85% with PPV of 27% for women over age 50 at average risk and those over age 25 with family history of ovarian cancer

OVERALL—routine screening for average risk, asymptomatic individuals is not recommended by

OVARIAN CANCER SCREENING (CONT'D)

the USPSTF 2018 statement. For those at high risk (family history, BRCA mutation), the decision should be individualized and may consist of transvaginal US and CA 125 every 6 months starting at age 35 or 5–10 years earlier than the youngest age at diagnosis in the family

CERVICAL CANCER SCREENING

PAP SMEAR—50–60% reduction in mortality if done every 1–3 years in women aged 18 and greater. Sensitivity and specificity for CIN2 and CIN3 are 55 and 97%, respectively

BETHESDA SYSTEM OF REPORTING CERVICAL CYTOLOGIC DIAGNOSIS

- squamous cella—atypical squamous cells of undetermined significance (ASC-US); atypical squamous cells cannot exclude HSIL (ASC-H)
- LOW-GRADE SQUAMOUS INTRAEPITHELIAL LESION (LSIL)—encompassing human papillomavirus, mild dysplasia, cervical intraepithelial neoplasia (CIN) 1
- HIGH-GRADE SQUAMOUS INTRAEPITHELIAL LESION (HSIL)—encompassing moderate and severe dysplasia, carcinoma in situ, CIN2 and CIN3
- SQUAMOUS CELL CARCINOMA
- GLANDULAR CELL—atypical glandular cells (AGC); atypical glandular cells, favor neoplastic; endocervical adenocarcinoma in situ (AIS); adenocarcinoma

HPV DNA TESTING—for high-risk serotypes (16, 18, 31, 33, 35, 39, 45, 51, 52, 56, 58, 59, 68). Sensitivity and specificity for CIN2 and CIN3 are 95 and 94%, respectively

OVERALL—the CTFPHC 2013 guideline recommends routine screening with Pap smear every 3 years for women aged 25–69. The USPSTF 2018 statement recommends routine screening with Pap smear every 3 years for women aged 21–29; for women aged 30–65, screening may involve Pap smear every 3 years, high risk HPV DNA every 5 years or both Pap smear and HPV DNA every 5 years

Hereditary Cancer Syndromes

HALLMARKS OF HEREDITARY CANCER

YOUNGER AGE ≥2 PRIMARY CANCERS ≥2 GENERATIONS

HALLMARKS OF HEREDITARY CANCER (CONT'D)

2 FIRST- OR SECOND-DEGREE RELATIVES (same side of family)

BRCA SYNDROMES

| | BRCA1 | BRCA2 | |
|-------------------|--|--|--|
| Genetics | Autosomal dominant with variable penetrance, 17q21 | Autosomal dominant with variable penetrance, 13q13 | |
| Pathophysiology | Tumor suppressor, granin protein family with zinc finger motif, packaging and export of peptide hormones | Tumor suppressor | |
| Cancer types | Breast (triple negative; 19% by age 40, 50% by age 50, 85% by age 70), ovarian (14–45% lifetime risk), prostate (8–16%), colon (6%) | Breast (ER +ve, 50–85%), ovarian (<20%), male breast (6%), prostate (8–16%) | |
| Clinical features | Young age of breast cancer, bilateral breast cancer, ER–(70%), lobular | Young age of breast cancer, bilateral breast cancer, male breast cancer, lobular | |
| Genetic testing | 2 common mutations | 1 common mutation | |
| Surveillance | Breast—starting at young age, clinical breast exam, mammogram, and MRI g6months | | |
| | Ovarian—screening decision individualized (or US±CA-125) | onsider transvaginal | |
| Prophylaxis | PROPHYLACTIC MASTECTOMY—breast cancer risk | reduction of 90% | |
| | Р ROPHYLACTIC ООРНОRECTOMY — when childbea risk reduction of 75% and ovarian cancer ri | ring is complete. Breast cancer sk reduction of 95% | |
| | HORMONAL—neither tamoxifen nor raloxifene especially in BRCA1 families, where the ma negative | is routinely recommended, jority of cancers are ER | |
| | | | |

LI-FRAUMENI SYNDROME

GENETICS—autosomal dominant

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—tumor suppressor, p53 mutation

CANCER TYPES—soft-tissue sarcoma, osteosarcoma, leukemia, breast, melanoma, colon, pancreas, adrenal cortex, brain

VON HIPPEL-LINDAU SYNDROME

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—VHL mutation

CANCER TYPES—hemangioblastomas of the brain, spinal cord, retina, renal cysts, and clear cell renal cell carcinoma (40%), pheochromocytomas, endolymphatic sac tumors of the middle ear, serous cystadenomas and neuroendocrine tumors of the pancreas, papillary cystadenomas of the epididymis and broad ligament

HEREDITARY MALIGNANT MELANOMA

CANCER TYPES—melanoma, pancreatic

HEREDITARY DIFFUSE GASTRIC CANCER (HDGC)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—E-cadherin gene CDH1 mutation

CANCER TYPES—diffuse signet ring cell type gastric, colon, breast (lobular), prostate, ovary

HEREDITARY NON-POLYPOSIS COLORECTAL CANCER (HNPCC, LYNCH SYNDROME)

GENETICS—autosomal dominant PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—DNA mismatch repair genes (hMLH1, hMSH2, hPMS1, hPMS2, hMSH6). MSH2 and MLH1 account for most of the mutations

CANCER TYPES—colorectal (70–80% lifetime risk), endometrial (most common extracolonic cancer in women), small bowel, gastric, ovarian, hepatobiliary, pancreatic, kidney, ureter, brain (Turcot syndrome), skin (sebaceous adenomas±keratoacanthomas in the Muir–Torre variant syndrome)

FEATURES—for colon cancer, predominant involvement of right colon, poorly differentiated, increased frequency of mucinous and signet cell tumors, lymphocytic infiltration, MSI high (90%), and better prognosis. Clinical diagnosis can be made by the Amsterdam criteria $\pm 321 \pm : \geq 3$ relatives with colorectal cancer (two of whom must be first-degree relatives), ≥ 2 generations involved, and ≥ 1 family member diagnosed before age 50. FAP should be excluded

SURVEILLANCE—for individuals who have a mismatch repair gene mutation or are strongly suspected of having Lynch syndrome, consider

HEREDITARY NON-POLYPOSIS COLORECTAL CANCER (HNPCC, LYNCH SYNDROME) (CONT'D)

colonoscopy every 1–2 years starting at age 20–25 years or 10 years earlier than the youngest age of colon cancer diagnosis in the family (start at age 30 for MSH6 mutations) and annually after age 40. Annual screening for endometrial and ovarian cancer (pelvic examination, endometrial aspirate, transvaginal US) beginning at age 30–35 years or 5–10 years earlier than the earliest age of first diagnosis of these cancers in the family. Median age of diagnosis is 48. Annual urinalysis and cytologic examination beginning at age 25–35. Annual skin surveillance. Periodic upper endoscopy should be considered

PROPHYLAXIS—total or subtotal colectomy with ileorectal anastomosis for HNPCC patients with colorectal cancer or advanced adenoma (and post-surgical rectal surveillance). Discussion of prophylactic hysterectomy and salpingooophorectomy at around age 35 or at the end of childbearing

FAMILIAL ADENOMATOUS POLYPOSIS (FAP)

GENETICS—autosomal dominant, 5q21–q22 **PATHOPHYSIOLOGY**—adenomatosis polyposis coli (APC) gene, a tumor suppressor gene that

FAMILIAL ADENOMATOUS POLYPOSIS (FAP) (CONT'D)

normally prevents accumulation of β -catenin by facilitating its phosphorylation and resultant degradation. One-third of patients have no family history (new germline APC mutations or due to MYH gene mutations)

CANCER TYPES—colorectal (risk approaches 100% by age 45), duodenal, ampullary, gastric, follicular or papillary thyroid, hepatoblastoma, medulloblastoma (Turcot syndrome)

FEATURES—colon polyps (more than 100), duodenal adenomatous polyps, extraintestinal manifestations (Gardner syndrome) such as desmoid tumors, sebaceous or epidermoid cysts, lipomas, osteomas, supernumerary teeth, gastric polyps, and juvenile nasopharyngeal angiofibromas

SURVEILLANCE (all at-risk family members) sigmoidoscopy or colonoscopy annually starting age 10–12. Upper endoscopy with end- and side-viewing endoscopes. Annual thyroid palpation

PROPHYLAXIS—total proctocolectomy at time of diagnosis in patients with multiple large (>1 cm) adenomas or adenomas with villous histology and/or high-grade dysplasia

Oncologic Emergencies

MALIGNANT SPINAL CORD COMPRESSION

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—tumor invasion of epidural space (usually above L1 level) \rightarrow surrounds thecal sac \rightarrow obstruction of epidural venous plexus \rightarrow vasogenic edema in white and subsequently gray matter \rightarrow spinal cord infarction; 60% T-spine, 30% L-spine, 10% C-spine. Median survival post-spinal cord compression is 6 months

CAUSES—prostate cancer, breast cancer, lung cancer, renal cell carcinoma, non-Hodgkin lymphoma, multiple myeloma, cancer of unknown primary, colorectal cancer, sarcoma

CLINICAL FEATURES—back pain (particularly may worsen with recumbency, nocturnal), radicular pain (band like in abdomen, legs), weakness (hip flexion, arm extension), reflexes (hyperreflexic, Babinski upgoing), sensory loss (usually 1–5 levels down from actual lesion, *no* sacral paresthesia), Lhermitte sign, retention/incontinence (urinary, bowel), gait ataxia

MALIGNANT SPINAL CORD COMPRESSION (CONT'D)

DIAGNOSIS—important to have a high index of suspicion as the diagnosis tends to be delayed until patients have incontinence or difficulty walking. Clinical examination followed by spine imaging (X-ray, CT, MRI). MRI and myelogram are best. Image whole spine regardless of clinical findings TREATMENTS—consult Medical Oncology. Neurosurgery and Radiation Oncology. corticosteroid (dexamethasone 10 mg IV/PO×1 dose, then 16 mg/day in divided doses (e.g. 4 mg IV/PO every 6 hours). Surgery if spine instability is present. Treat underlying cause urgently (radiation ± radical resection, chemotherapy for chemosensitive tumors). Functional recovery (ambulatory vs paralysis) depends on timing of diagnosis and treatment

MALIGNANT CAUDA EQUINA SYNDROME

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—compression of lumbosacral nerves roots (lower motor neurons, mostly below L1 level)

MALIGNANT CAUDA EQUINA SYNDROME (CONT'D)

CLINICAL FEATURES—lower limb weakness, depressed tendon reflexes in legs and sacral paresthesia

DIAGNOSIS—similar to malignant spinal cord compression

TREATMENTS—similar to malignant spinal cord compression

SUPERIOR VENA CAVA SYNDROME

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—invasion or external compression of the SVC by contiguous pathologic processes involving the right lung, lymph nodes, and other mediastinal structures, or by thrombosis within the SVC. Venous collaterals establish alternative pathways, but despite well-developed collateral drainage patterns, central venous pressures remain high, producing characteristic signs and symptoms of SVC syndrome

CAUSES—neoplasm (NSCLC 50%, SCLC, lymphoma, metastatic cancer, germ cell tumor, thymoma, mesothelioma), inflammatory (fungal infections, TB, sarcoidosis, sclerosing cholangitis), thrombosis (indwelling catheters, pacemaker leads)

CLINICAL FEATURES—dyspnea; facial swelling and head fullness (especially with bending forward); Pemberton sign (elevation of arms causes facial congestion/cyanosis); arm edema; cough; stridor; cyanosis, plethora; venous distension on face, neck, and chest wall

DIAGNOSIS—CXR, CT chest, bilateral venography. For patients presenting with SVC syndrome and suspected cancer, tissue diagnosis is required (supraclavicular lymph node, sputum cytology, mediastinoscopy, thoracentesis, bronchoscopy)

TREATMENTS—elevate patient's head. Treat underlying cause (radiation, chemotherapy for chemosensitive diseases). *Dexamethasone* 4 mg PO q6h (for lymphoma and thymoma). Consider endovascular stenting if urgent (central airway obstruction as manifested by stridor or depressed CNS function as manifested by altered mental status, coma) or refractory disease

Related Topics

Febrile Neutropenia (p. 250) Spinal Cord Compression (p. 243)

HYPERCALCEMIA OF MALIGNANCY

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—local osteolytic hypercalcemia 20% (cytokines), humoral hypercalcemia of malignancy 80% (PTHrP), 1,25(OH)₂ vitamin

HYPERCALCEMIA OF MALIGNANCY (CONT'D)

D-secreting lymphomas, and ectopic hyperparathyroidism (PTH) are all known mechanisms. Median survival of 1 month with hypercalcemia in the advanced cancer setting

CLINICAL FEATURES—bony pain, abdominal pain, constipation, polyuria, renal failure, renal stones, confusion

DIAGNOSIS—Ca, PO₄, albumin, PTH, PTHrelated protein, 1,25(OH)₂ vitD, bone scan

SYMPTOM CONTROL—NS 200–500 mL/h IV to maintain urine output 100-150mL/h, stop when euvolemic, monitor fluid status. If malignancy and Ca >3.2 mmol/L [>12.8 mg/dL], **bisphosphonates** (pamidronate 60–90 mg in 500 mL NS IV over 2 h, zoledronate 4 mg in 50 mL NS IV over 15 min), denosumab 120 mg SC (if refractory to bisphosphonate), calcitomin 200 U SC/IM BID

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

See HYPERCALCEMIA for more details (p. 388)

TUMOR LYSIS SYNDROME

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—treatment-induced lysis of tumor cells, leading to release of cell contents \rightarrow hyperkalemia, hyperphosphatemia, hypocalcemia, hyperuricemia, high LDH \rightarrow calcium phosphate deposition in renal parenchyma and uric acid nephropathy \rightarrow oliguria. Usually occurs within 3 days before or 7 days after chemotherapy

RISK FACTORS—underlying renal insufficiency, hyperuricemia, hypovolemia, increased tumor proliferation, high chemosensitivity tumor (aggressive lymphomas, ALL, AML, solid tumors)

DIAGNOSIS—a clinical diagnosis with a combination (but not necessarily all) of the following criteria: high uric acid (>475 μ mol/L [>4 mg/dL] or \uparrow 25% from baseline), high K (>6 mmol/L or \uparrow 25% from baseline), high PO₄ (>1.45 mmol/L [>4.5 mg/dL] or \uparrow 25% from baseline), low Ca (<1.75 mmol/L [<7 mg/dL] or \downarrow 25% from baseline), acute renal failure, arrhythmia, and seizure

TREATMENTS—most important is primary prophylaxis with fluids (NS 150–250 mL/h), *allopurinol* 300 mg PO TID, consider *rasburicase* 3 mg IV flat dose if uric acid >7.5 mg/dL (promotes uric acid degradation). Febuxostat, a xanthine oxidase selective inhibitor, may be considered if allopurinol and rasburicase are not available or tolerable. Monitor urine output, K, Ca, PO₄, Cr, uric acid, and LDH q6h. If tumor lysis syndrome is established, treat uric acid nephropathy with aggressive hydration, furosemide diuresis, rasburicase, and dialysis as a last resort

Febrile Neutropenia

See FEBRILE NEUTROPENIA (p. 250)

Cancer Survivorship

2013 ASCO Guideline Breast Cancer Followup and Management 2015 ASCO Guideline Prostate Cancer Survivorship Denlinger et al. J Natl Compr Canc Netw 2014;12(1)

PRINCIPLES

DEFINITION—the National Cancer Institute defines cancer survivorship as care that "focuses on the health and well-being of a person with cancer from the time of diagnosis until the end of life. This includes the physical, mental, emotional, social, and financial effects of cancer that begin at diagnosis and continue through treatment and beyond. The survivorship experience also includes issues related to follow-up care (including regular health and wellness checkups), late effects of treatment, cancer recurrence, second cancers, and quality of life. Family members, friends, and caregivers are also considered part of the survivorship experience." This section focuses on survivorship care after the patient has completed definitive treatments and has no evidence of active disease FOR **RECURRENCE**—new MONITORING lumps, bleeding, new symptoms that are persistent or worsening, unexplained weight loss, symptoms similar to initial presentation

HIGHER RISK OF SECOND MALIGNANCIES genetics or acquired risk factors (e.g. smoking, alcohol, obesity). For example, lung cancer patients are at higher risk of head and neck cancer because smoking is a common risk factor. Furthermore, some cancer treatments may contribute to carcinogenesis (e.g. alkylating agents and acute leukemias, topoisomerase II inhibitors and acute leukemias, radiation therapy and solid cancers)

TREATMENT COMPLICATIONS

- CHEMOTHERAPY—fatigue, cognitive impairment ("chemobrain"), chemotherapy induced peripheral neuropathy
- RADIATION—fibrosis (e.g. dry mouth and dental issues post head and neck irradiation)
- HORMONAL THERAPY—bone and cardiovascular health

HEALTH PROMOTION

- DIET—healthy balanced diet to maintain healthy body weight
- EXERCISE—at least 150–300 min of moderateintensity activity or 75 minutes of vigorousintensity activity over the course of a week

PRINCIPLES (CONT'D)

 SMOKING CESSATION—counseling and resources
 PSYCHOSOCIAL ISSUES—anxiety, depression, post-traumatic stress disorder; changes in bodily function, body image, financial distress, relationship concerns

CARE COORDINATION—communication between oncology specialists and primary care to clarify roles and responsibilities

BREAST CANCER SURVIVORSHIP

MONITORING—history and physical 1–4 times per year for 5 years, then annually. Mammogram annually. Risk of breast cancer recurrence and second primary breast cancer remains elevated 15 years post-treatment

GENETICS SCREENING—periodic review of family history; referral to genetic counselor if indicated; consider hereditary cancer syndromes, e.g. BRCA1/2-related breast/ovarian cancer syndrome SECOND PRIMARY—elevated risk of breast, esophageal, lung, endometrial, sarcoma, myelodysplastic syndromes and acute myeloid leukemia TREATMENT COMPLICATIONS

• surgery—lymphedema, post-mastectomy

- pain syndrome, breast reconstruction • CHEMOTHERAPY—chemotherapy-induced
- CHEMOTHERAPY—Chemotherapy-induced peripheral neuropathy (taxanes), cardiotoxicity (anthracyclines, trastuzumab), premature ovarian failure
- HORMONAL THERAPY—tamoxifen is associated with endometrial cancer and requires pelvic examination; bone health with aromatase inhibitors; vasomotor and sexual symptoms with endocrine therapy

COLORECTAL CANCER SURVIVORSHIP

MONITORING—for patients with stage II and III disease who would be candidates for salvage treatment if recurrence, surveillance includes medical visit with history, physical examination and CEA every 3–6 months × 2 years, then every 6 months for the next 3 years. CT chest/abd (+ CT
COLORECTAL CANCER SURVIVORSHIP (CONT'D)

pelvis for rectal cancer) yearly ×5 years. Colonoscopy at 1 year and 3 years after initial diagnostic colonoscopy, then every 5 years. Proctosigmoidoscopy every 6 months for 5 years if rectal cancer but radiation not given

GENETICS SCREENING—periodic review of family history; referral to genetic counselor if indicated; consider hereditary cancer syndromes, e.g. hereditary non-polyposis colorectal cancer (HNPCC) or Lynch syndrome

SECOND PRIMARY—patients who completed pelvic radiation have greater risk of secondary malignancies

TREATMENT COMPLICATIONS

- SURGERY—ostomy care, chronic diarrhea, bowel/urinary/sexual dysfunction (rectal)
- CHEMOTHERAPY—chemotherapy-induced peripheral neuropathy (oxaliplatin), cardiovascular toxicities (capecitabine)
- RADIATION—radiation proctitis, pelvic fractures (pelvic radiation)

Related Topics

Breast cancer (p. 210) Colorectal cancer (p. 218) Prostate cancer (p. 230)

PROSTATE CANCER SURVIVORSHIP

MONITORING—PSA every 6–12 months for first 5 years (more frequently if high risk features), then PSA annually. Annual DRE

GENETICS SCREENING—periodic review of family history; referral to genetic counselor if indicated; consider hereditary cancer syndromes, e.g. BRCA1/2-related breast/ovarian cancer syndrome SECOND PRIMARY—patients who completed pelvic radiation have greater risk of colorectal cancer and bladder cancer. Colorectal cancer screening should be instituted

TREATMENT COMPLICATIONS

- ANDROGEN DEPRIVATION THERAPY—assess vasomotor symptoms; monitor bone mineral density with DEXA scan and anemia. Consider bisphosphonate or denosumab if high risk of osteoporosis
- SURGERY, BRACHYTHERAPY, RADIATION—patients may be at increased risk of sexual, bowel and bladder dysfunction



INFECTIOUS DISEASES Stephanie W. Smith and Keely Hammond

2

Fever of Unknown Origin

DEFINITIONS

FEVER OF UNKNOWN ORIGIN (FUO)

- FUO—≥38.3°C [≥101°F], duration ≥3 weeks, diagnosis uncertain after 3 days in hospital or 3 outpatient visits
- NOSOCOMIAL FUO—hospitalized patients, ≥38.3°C [≥101°F], diagnosis uncertain after 3 days and infection not present or incubating on admission
- IMMUNE-DEFICIENT (NEUTROPENIC) FUO— ≥38.3°C [≥101°F], >3 days, neutrophil count ≤500/mm³. See p. 250 for details
- HIV-RELATED FUO—HIV patients, ≥38.3 °C [≥101 °F], duration ≥3 weeks for outpatients or ≥3 days for inpatients

FEVER NYD—persistent fever that has not yet met the definition for FUO

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

Etiology of FUO grouped into one of 5 categories; infections account for 15–55%

INFECTIONS—TB (pulmonary, extrapulmonary, miliary), nontuberculous mycobacterial infections, occult abscesses (liver, splenic, perinephric, psoas, diverticular, pelvis), osteomyelitis, endocarditis, prosthetic associated infections. Consider occult pathogens (Q fever, leptospirosis, psittacosis, tularemia, melioidosis, syphilis, gonococcemia, chronic meningococcemia, Whipple disease, yersiniosis, brucellosis)

NEOPLASTIC—hematologic (lymphoma, leukemia, multiple myeloma, myelodysplastic syndrome), solid tumors (renal cell, hepatoma) INFLAMMATORY—vasculitis (giant cell arteritis, Still disease, polyarteritis nodosa, Takayasu arteritis, granulomatosis with polyangiitis, mixed cryoglobulinemia), lupus, rheumatoid arthritis, alcoholic hepatitis, polymyalgia rheumatica

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

DRUGS—antimicrobials (sulfonamides, penicillins, nitrofurantoin, antimalarials), antihistamines, antiepileptics (barbiturate, phenytoin), NSAIDs/ASA, antihypertensives (hydralazine, methyldopa), antiarrhythmics (quinidine, procainamide), antithyroid, iodides, quinine, illicit (cocaine)

OTHER—central fever, endocrine (hypothalamic dysfunction, hyperthyroidism, pheochromocytoma, adrenal insufficiency), hereditary periodic fever syndromes (familial Mediterranean fever, periodic fever with aphthous stomatitis, pharyngitis, and adenitis (PFAPA] syndrome, TNFR-1-associated periodic syndrome, hyper-IgD syndrome, Muckle–Wells syndrome, familial cold autoinflammatory syndrome), hemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis (HLH) hematoma, factitious fever

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—pattern and duration of fever, associated symptoms (cough, dyspnea, hemoptysis, chest pain, diarrhea, abdominal pain, dysuria, urethral discharge, hematuria, neck stiffness, headache), rash (palpable purpura, exanthem), exposure (food, water, plants, animals, insects, infected human secretions), weight loss, night sweats, travel history, sexual history, HIV risk factors, immunizations, past medical history (rheumatologic disorders, malignancy, alcohol), medications

PHYSICAL—vitals (tachycardia, tachypnea, hypotension, fever, hypoxemia), oral ulcers, lymphadenopathy, nuchal rigidity, respiratory and cardiac examination (murmurs), temporal artery, abdominal examination (hepatosplenomegaly), prostate examination, skin lesions (morphology, distribution), tick bite marks, joint examination

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INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC (differential helpful for evidence of left shift), lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, LDH, CK, serum protein electrophoresis, urinalysis, ESR, CRP, ANA, ENA, RF, immunoglobulins, C3, C4, ANCA, cryoglobulin
- MICROBIOLOGY—blood C&S (including Mycobacteria), sputum Gram stain/AFB/ C&S, urine C&S, stool C&S, O&P, serology (HBV, HCV, HIV, monospot, CMV IgM, endemic fungi)
- IMAGING—CXR, echocardiogram (if suspect endocarditis), CT chest/abd/pelvis as guided by symptoms, FDG-PET (may be useful for identifying sites of inflammation and malignancy in FUO)
- SPECIAL
- BIOPSY—affected tissue (e.g. bone marrow biopsy, lymph node) sent for pathology and for culture

DIAGNOSIS AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

DIAGNOSIS—the most important diagnostic strategy is a careful history and physical examination with frequent reassessment and laboratory testing as indicated by history and physical examination

PROGNOSIS—up to 30–50% will not have a diagnosis despite detailed workup; 5-year mortality in those without a diagnosis is 3%. 75% will resolve with or without a diagnosis

MANAGEMENT

EMPIRIC ANTIBIOTICS—ONLY if suspect infectious etiology and therapy cannot be delayed due to severity of patient's disease (see EMPIRIC ANTIBIOTICS p. 275). In general, therapeutic trials of antimicrobials or steroids are discouraged

Hayakawa et al. Am J Med Sci 2012;344(4) Wright et al. Open Forum Infect Dis 2020;7(5) TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

Fever and Rash

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

INFECTIONS

- GRAM-POSITIVE COCCI—scarlet fever, toxic shock syndrome, staphylococcal scalded skin syndrome, acute rheumatic fever (erythema marginatum, subcutaneous nodules)
- GRAM-NEGATIVE cocci—meningococcemia (purpura), disseminated gonococcal infection
- GRAM-NEGATIVE BACILLI—Salmonella typhi, Pseudomonas (ecythema gangrenosum), Vibrio vulnificus
- FUNGAL—disseminated Candida, endemic fungi (Blastomyces, Coccidioides, Histoplasma)
- SPIROCHETES—Borrelia burgdorferi (Lyme erythema migrans), Treponema pallidum (chancre, secondary syphilis)
- RICKETTSIAL—Rocky Mountain spotted fever, ehrlichiosis, typhus
- VIRAL EXANTHEM—acute HIV, mononucleosis, rubella, measles, roseola, erythema infectiosum, chickenpox, shingles, coxsackie virus, echovirus, coronavirus

RHEUMATOLOGIC

 seropositive—systemic lupus erythematosus, dermatomyositis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

- seronegative—inflammatory bowel disease, reactive arthritis
- vasculitis—granulomatosis with polyangiitis, polyarteritis nodosa
- BEHÇET DISEASE

MALIGNANCY—lymphoma, leukemia, metastatic, paraneoplastic

MEDICATIONS—penicillins, cephalosporins, sulfas, barbiturates, phenytoin, procainamide, quinidine

OTHERS—sarcoidosis, erythema nodosum; Sweet syndrome (acute febrile neutrophilic dermatosis)

CLINICAL FEATURES

SETTINGS

- AGE—viral exanthems, scarlet fever, and acute rheumatic fever are more likely in children. Mononucleosis is more common in young adults
- sEASON—tick-borne diseases are more common in spring and summer. Coxsackie virus and echovirus are more common in summer and fall. Meningococcus and parvovirus are more common in winter and spring

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION—Lyme disease in Pacific northwest, the Midwest, and the northeast USA and some southern Canadian locations. RMSF in south-central and Atlantic states. Ehrlichiosis in midwestern, south-central, and southeastern states. Tularemia in western, southeastern, and south-central states and Canada. Relapsing fever (Borrelia hermsii) in mountainous areas of the western USA. Endemic fungal infections include Blastomyces dermatitidis (southeastern states, Manitoba, and Ontario), Coccidioides immitis (southwestern states). and Histoplasma capsulatum (Mississippi, Ohio River valleys, and Quebec)

HISTORY—pattern and duration of fever, associated symptoms (cough, dyspnea, chest pain, diarrhea, abdominal pain, dysuria, urethral discharge, neck stiffness, headache), rash (prodrome, location, progression, treatment), exposure (food, water, plants, animals, infected human secretions), weight loss, night sweats, travel history, sexual history, immunizations, past medical history (rheumatologic disorders, malignancy), medications

PHYSICAL—vitals (tachycardia, tachypnea, hypotension, fever, hypoxemia), oral ulcers, lymphadenopathy, nuchal rigidity, respiratory and cardiac examination (murmurs), abdominal examination (hepatosplenomegaly), skin lesions (morphology, distribution), tick bite eschar, joint examination

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, ESR/CRP, urinalysis
- MICROBIOLOGY—blood C&S, sputum Gram stain/AFB/C&S, urine C&S, monospot test, CMV IgM, EBV, HIV, and other serologies (e.g. rickesttsial serology)

SPECIAL

- LUMBAR PUNCTURE—if suspect meningococcus
- sкім віорsy—dermatology consult
- INFLAMMATORY WORKUP—CRP, ANA, ENA

MANAGEMENT

ISOLATION PRECAUTIONS—point-of-care risk assessment key to ensure appropriate PPE is worn (e.g. for purpura with bacterial sepsis, institute droplet and contact isolation precautions). See p. 289 for more details

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

TOXIC SHOCK SYNDROME

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—exotoxin by specific strains of Staphylococcus aureus or group A Streptococcus (toxic shock syndrome toxin-1 TSST-1) acting as superantigens, activating T cells, leading to cleavage at the granular layer of the dermis
- CLINICAL FEATURES—young person with fever, malaise, generalized macular, erythematous rash including mucous membranes, palms and soles, evolves into petechiae, vesicles, and bullae. Ulcerations may be seen on mucous membranes. Exclude retained foreign bodies (especially tampons, contraceptive sponges). Hypotension and organ failure may occur
- TREATMENTS-fluid resuscitation as needed. Empiric treatment includes vancomvcin (15 to 20 mg/kg/day IV q8–12h) plus β -lactam plus clindamycin (900 mg IV g8h) plus either a carbapenem (imipenem 500mg IV g6h) or combination drug containing beta-lactamase inhibitor and penicillin (piperacillintazobactam 4.5g IV q6h). For treatment of MSSA, oxacillin or nafcillin (2g IV g4h) plus clindamycin if susceptible (900mg IV g8h). If unresponsive to fluids or vasopressors, consider IVIG (400 ma/ka×1 dose, limited evidence). Surgical debridement as appropriate

RICKETTSIAL INFECTIONS (WITHIN NORTH AMERICA)

- THEMES—all transmitted by ticks, except Q fever (Coxiella burnetii). All associated with a rash, myalgias, and headache, except Q fever and ehrlichiosis. All involve some degree of vasculitis and DIC as part of pathogenesis. All treated with doxycycline
- ROCKY MOUNTAIN SPOTTED FEVER—Rickettsia rickettsii transmitted by ticks. Most common in mid-Atlantic states. Macular/maculopapular rash begins on extremities and moves centrally, involves palms/soles. Treat with doxycycline
- микие турниз—flea vector. Rash begins centrally and moves peripherally. Treat with doxycycline or chloramphenicol
- EHRLICHIA—Ehrlichia chaffeensis (human monocytic ehrlichiosis) transmitted by lone star tick. Peaks in May to July. Infects lymphocytes, monocytes, and neutrophils intracellularly. Fever, headache, myalgia, leukopenia, thrombocytopenia, and elevated transaminases; maculopapular or petechial rash in 1/3. Human granulocytic anaplasmosis is caused by a related Ehrlichia and produces similar ill-

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

ness without rash. Transmitted by *lxodes* tick and co-infection with Lyme disease possible. Treat with doxycycline

 Q FEVER—C. burnetii spread by respiratory transmission from infected animal body fluids (e.g. cattle, sheep, goats, cats). No rash. Fever, pneumonitis, hepatitis, endocarditis, CNS symptoms. Treat with doxycycline

LYME DISEASE

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—B. burgdorferi transmitted by *lxodes* tick bite after attachment for >24 h; think about concomitant tick borne diseases
- CLINICAL FEATURES—most common tick-borne disease in USA, particularly coastal Atlantic States and California during spring and summer
 - stage 1 (EARLY)—first 3–30 days, erythema migrans, fever, meningismus, lymphadenopathy
 - STAGE 2 (DISSEMINATED)—weeks to months, hematogenous spread with neurological symptoms (facial nerve palsy, lymphocytic meningitis, encephalitis, chorea, myelitis, radiculitis, peripheral neuropathy) and carditis (AV block, dilated cardiomyopathy); may have multiple skin lesions of erythema migrans
 - stage 3 (LATE)—months to years, mono- or oligoarthritis, acrodermatitis chronica atrophicans (in Europe), progressive encephalitis, dementia (not amenable to antibiotic therapy). May develop post-Lyme syndrome with musculoskeletal pain, neurocognitive symptoms, dysesthesias and fatigue (not amenable to antibiotic therapy)
- **DIAGNOSIS**—serology (anti-*B. burgdorferi* ELISA). If positive, confirm with Western blot

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- PREVENTION—protective clothing and tick repellants. After tick bite (>36 h in hyperendemic area), consider *doxycycline* 200 mg×1 dose within 72 h of the tick bite
- TREATMENTS—stage 1 (doxycycline 100 mg PO BID×10–21 days, or cefuroxime 500 mg PO BID×10–21 days). Lyme carditis (ceftriaxone 2 g IV×14–21 days if third degree AV block; otherwise, same as stage I with oral antibiotics). Neurologic Lyme (ceftriaxone 2 g IV×14–21 days). Lyme arthritis (doxycycline 100 mg BID×28 days)
- JARISCH-HERXHEIMER REACTION—up to 15% of patients may experience transient worsening of symptoms during first 24 h of treatment. This results from the host immune response to antigen release from dying organisms (typically Lyme and syphilis) causing fever, chills, myalqias, and exacerbation of rash

BABESIOSIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—Babesia microti (USA) or Babesia divergens (Europe) transmitted by Ixodes ticks (which also transmit Lyme disease and Ehrlichia) → fever, chills, sweats, malaise, myalgias, arthralgias, headache 5–33 days after, particularly in immunosuppressed individuals
- CLINICAL FEATURES—malaria-like but does not cause rash. Endemic in southern New England, New York, Wisconsin, and Minnesota
- DIAGNOSIS—blood smear ('Maltese cross' formations, not seen in malaria), PCR, serology
- TREATMENTS—atovaquone plus azithromycin

Related Topic

Exanthematous Lesions (p. 402)

Febrile Neutropenia

DEFINITION

FEBRILE NEUTROPENIA—single temp \geq 38.3 °C [101 °F] or \geq 38 °C [100.4 °F] for >1 h, absolute neutrophil count (ANC) <0.5 × 10⁹/L or <1.0 × 10⁹/L with expected nadir <0.5 × 10⁹/L. ANC includes neutrophils + bands

ССС

BACTERIAL

 GRAM-POSITIVE—S. aureus, coagulasenegative staphylococci, Streptococcus pneumoniae, corynebacterium

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

 GRAM-NEGATIVE—Enterobacter, Escherichia coli, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Pseudomonas, Clostridioides difficile (formerly Clostridium), anaerobes

VIRAL—HSV, VZV, CMV, EBV, HHV6, enterovirus, RSV, influenza and other respiratory viruses

FUNGAL—Candida, Aspergillus, endemic fungi, Mucormycetes (formerly Zygomycetes) REACTIVATION OF LATENT INFECTION— Histoplasma, Coccidioides, Toxoplasma, tuberculosis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

PATHOGENESIS—chemotherapy-induced injury to mucosal barriers, immune defects due to drugs or underlying disease and invasive devices. With attenuated immune response, patients may be relatively asymptomatic until they decompensate due to overwhelming infection. Fever is sometimes the only warning sign and should always be taken seriously in patients at risk of developing neutropenia NEUTROPENIA-ASSOCIATED FEBRILE

EPISODES—most commonly idiopathic; bacterial source identified in approximately 30% of episodes, usually from patient's own endogenous flora. Fungal infections replace bacterial infections in prominence after 7 days. Fever usually abates with return of neutrophils. If fever persists or returns after neutropenia resolves, consider **hepatosplenic candidiasis**

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—patients usually asymptomatic other than fever. Determine severity and duration of fever, associated signs and symptoms (cough, dyspnea, chest pain, diarrhea, abdominal pain, dysuria, urethral discharge, neck stiffness, headache, rash), recent chemotherapy (nadir of neutrophil counts usually 10–14 days post-treatment), weight loss, night sweats, travel history, sexual history, immunizations, past medical history (malignancy, rheumatologic disorders), medications (chemotherapy, GCSF)

PHYSICAL—vitals (tachycardia, tachypnea, hypotension, fever, hypoxemia), oral ulcers, lymphadenopathy, nuchal rigidity, respiratory and cardiac examination (murmurs), abdominal examination (hepatosplenomegaly), skin lesions (morphology, distribution). Important sites to examine include venous access devices, sinuses, and perianal region for abscess. Avoid DRE, rectal thermometers, enemas/suppositories (translocation of gut microbes)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC (with differential to determine ANC), lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, urinalysis
- MICROBIOLOGY—blood C&S×2 (culture peripheral blood in addition to central line ports), sputum Gram stain/AFB/C&S, urine C&S, stool C&S, O&P, C. difficile toxin (if diarrhea)
- IMAGING—CXR

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

SPECIAL

- SINUS RADIOGRAPH
- serum galactomannan—for invasive aspergillosis

MANAGEMENT

LOW RISK (ANC >0.1 × 10⁹/L, peak temperature <39 °C [102.2 °F], no significant symptoms or signs, no significant comorbidities, normal/near normal renal and hepatic function, neutropenia ≤7 days, no dehydration, no hypotension, age <60 years)—*ciprofloxacin* 500 mg PO BID+*amoxicillin–clavulanate* 500 mg PO q8h. Outpatient management with close follow-up

HIGH RISK (anticipated prolonged >7 days duration and profound neutropenia [ANC $\leq 0.1 \times 10^{9}$ / mL] and/or significant medical comorbid conditions such as hypotension, pneumonia, newonset abdominal pain, or neurologic changes)—admit for IV antibiotics

- FIRST LINE—imipenem 500 mg IV q6h, meropenem 2 g IV q8h, ceftazidime 2 g IV q8h, cefepime 2 g IV q8h, piperacillin/tazobactam 4.5 g IV q8h, clindamycin 600 mg IV q8h plus tobramycin 7 mg/kg IV q24h (in case of confirmed betalactam allergy), or piperacillin/tazobactam 4.5 g IV q8h plus gentamicin 2–2.5 mg/kg IV q8h
- SECOND LINE—add vancomycin 20 mg/kg IV q12h if suspected line infection, known colonization MRSA, Gram-positive blood culture, or hypotension
- THIRD LINE—add antifungal if febrile after 4–7 days and hemodynamically unstable (*fluconazole* 400 mg IV daily, *itraconazole* 200 mg IV daily, *amphotericin* B 0.5–1 mg/kg IV daily over 4 h, *caspofungin* 70 mg on first day followed by 50 mg IV daily)
- NOTE—unexplained persistent fever in a patient whose condition is otherwise stable rarely requires an empirical change to the initial antibiotic regimen. If an infection is identified, antibiotics should be adjusted accordingly

CATHETER REMOVAL—necessary for most patients with bacteremia/candidemia with organisms other than coagulase-negative Staphylococci

TREATMENT ISSUES

MODIFICATION OF THERAPY DURING FIRST WEEK OF TREATMENT

- IF PATIENT BECOMES AFEBRILE IN 3-5 DAYS
 - KNOWN ORGANISM—switch to specific antibiotics based on sensitivity

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- UNKNOWN ETIOLOGY AND LOW RISK—Switch to ciprofloxacin plus amoxicillin–clavulanate after afebrile for 48 h
- UNKNOWN ETIOLOGY AND HIGH RISK—continue same antibiotics
- IF PERSISTENT FEVER DURING FIRST 3-5 DAYS
 - CLINICALLY STABLE BY DAY 3—continue antibiotics, stop vancomycin if cultures negative
 - PROGRESSIVE DISEASE BY DAY 3—change antibiotics
 - FEBRILE AFTER DAY 5—add antifungal

DURATION OF ANTIBIOTIC TREATMENT

- IF AFEBRILE BY DAY 3
 - − **STOP ANTIBIOTICS**—if (1) ANC ≥0.5 × 10⁹/L for 2 consecutive days, afebrile for ≥48 h, cultures negative, and no obvious signs of infection, or if (2) ANC <0.5 × 10⁹/L by day 7, but afebrile for 5–7 days, patient initially at low risk, and no subsequent complications
 - сонтиче антивнотися—if above criteria not met
- IF PERSISTENT FEVER ON DAY 3
 - STOP ANTIBIOTICS—if ANC $\geq 0.5 \times 10^9/L$ for 4–5 consecutive days
 - CONTINUE ANTIBIOTICS—if ANC <0.5×10⁹/L, reassess and continue antibiotics for 2 weeks. Consider stopping therapy if no disease site is found and condition is stable

PRE-MEDICATIONS FOR AMPHOTERICIN B—meperidine 50 mg IV, acetaminophen 2 tabs PO, hydrocortisone 25 mg IV 30 min before dose, and repeat × 1 1–2 h after administration

GCSF SUPPORT

- **PRIMARY PROPHYLAXIS**—GCSF is recommended for the prevention of febrile neutropenia if:
 - HIGH-RISK PATIENTS—based on age (>65), medical history (poor performance status, previous febrile neutropenia, extensive prior treatment, poor nutrition, open wounds, active infections), disease characteristics (bone marrow involvement), and myelotoxicity of the chemotherapy regimen (e.g. chemoradiation)
 - CHEMOTHERAPY REGIMENS—20% or higher risk of febrile neutropenia or dose dense regimens
 - SECONDARY PROPHYLAXIS—GCSF is recommended for patients who experienced a neutropenic complication from a prior cycle of chemotherapy (in which primary prophylaxis was not received), in which a reduced dose may compromise disease-free survival, overall survival, or treatment outcome

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- TREATMENT OF PATIENTS WITH FEBRILE NEUTROPE-NIA—GCSF should be given to those with high risk of developing complications, including expected prolonged (>10 days) and profound (<0.1×10⁹/L) neutropenia, age >65 years, uncontrolled primary disease, pneumonia, hypotension and multi-organ dysfunction (sepsis), invasive fungal infection, being hospitalized at the time of the development of fever
- SPECIAL SITUATIONS
 - STEM CELL TRANSPLANT—to mobilize peripheral blood progenitor cell often in conjunction with chemotherapy. Also administered after autologous, but not allogeneic stem cell transplantation
 - DLBCL—prophylactic GCSF should be given for patients with diffuse aggressive lymphoma age 65 and older treated with curative chemotherapy (CHOP or more aggressive regimens)
 - AML—may be given shortly after completion of the initial induction chemotherapy to modestly decrease the duration of neutropenia
 - ALL—recommended after the completion of the initial first few days of chemotherapy of the initial induction or first post-remission course, thus shortening the duration of neutropenia by approximately 1 week
 - MDS—may be used to increase the ANC in neutropenic patients. Intermittent administration of CSFs may be considered in a subset of patients with severe neutropenia and recurrent infections
 - POST-RADIATION—GCSF should be given to patients exposed to lethal doses of total body radiotherapy, but not doses high enough to lead to certain death due to injury to other organs

2010 IDSA Update Guideline Antimicrobial Agents Neutropenic Patients with Cancer 2018 ASCO/IDSA Guideline Fever/ Neutropenia Malignancy

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

NECROTIZING ENTEROCOLITIS (TYPHLITIS)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—mucosal injury in patients with profound neutropenia → impaired host defense → necrosis of bowel wall, involving cecum extending into ascending colon and terminal ileum
- CLINICAL FEATURES—abdominal pain (especially RLQ) in neutropenic patients
- DIAGNOSIS—CT abd. Avoid barium enema and colonoscopy

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

 TREATMENTS—bowel rest, NG suction, IV fluids, nutritional support, broad spectrum antibiotics, GCSF. Surgical indications include peritonitis, perforation, persistent GI bleeding, or clinical deterioration

Fever with Travel History

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

FEVER WITH CNS INVOLVEMENT

- BACTERIAL—meningococcal, typhoid fever, rickettsial, leptospirosis
- MYCOBACTERIAL—tuberculosis
- VIRAL—Japanese encephalitis, West Nile encephalitis, tick-borne encephalitis, poliomyelitis, rabies
- FUNGAL—cryptococcal meningitis
- PARASITIC—malaria, angiostrongyliasis, trypanosomiasis

FEVER WITH RESPIRATORY INVOLVEMENT

- BACTERIAL—S. pneumoniae, Mycoplasma, Legionella, Q fever, scrub typhus, melioidosis
- MYCOBACTERIAL—tuberculosis
- VIRAL—influenza, parainfluenza, metapneumovirus, respiratory syncytial virus, adenovirus, dengue, coronavirus
- FUNGAL—histoplasmosis, coccidioidomycosis, other endemic fungi
- PARASITIC—malaria, Loeffler syndrome (migration of larval helminths such as ascaris, strongyloides, and hookworm)

FEVER WITH RASH—see FEVER AND RASH (p. 248)

HEMORRHAGIC FEVER

- BACTERIAL—rickettsial, meningococcemia, leptospirosis
- VIRAL—dengue, yellow fever, Ebola fever, Lassa fever, Marburg
- PARASITIC—malaria

FEVER WITH SEXUAL OR BLOOD EXPOSURES—syphilis, CMV, EBV, HIV, HBV

FEVER WITH EOSINOPHILIA—parasitic (acute hookworm, ascaris, strongyloides, acute schistosomiasis, visceral larva migrans, lymphatic filariasis, acute trichinosis)

FEVER WITH THROMBOCYTOPENIA malaria, typhoid fever, dengue shock syndrome, ehrlichiosis, Rocky Mountain spotted fever

ACUTE TRAVELER'S DIARRHEA ± FEVER

 BACTERIAL—Enterotoxigenic or enteroaggregative E. coli, Campylobacter jejuni,

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

Related Topics

Neutropenia (p. 165) Stem Cell Transplant (p. 202)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

Salmonella, Shigella, Vibrio, Aeromonas, Plesiomonas, C. difficile

- VIRAL—Caliciviruses (Norwalk, Norwalklike), rotaviruses, Ebola fever, enteroviruses, hepatitis A
- PARASITIC—Giardia lamblia, Cryptosporidium parvum, Entamoeba histolytica, Cyclospora cayetanensis, Isospora belli, Entamoeba polecki, Balantidium coli, Trichinella spiralis

CHRONIC TRAVELER'S DIARRHEA ± FEVER

- BACTERIAL—Enteroaggregative or enteropathogenic E. coli, C. jejuni, Shigella, Salmonella, Yersinia enterocolitica, Aeromonas, Plesiomonas, C. difficile, Tropheryma whippelii
- MYCOBACTERIAL—tuberculosis, Mycobacterium avium complex
- FUNGAL—Paracoccidioides brasiliensis, H. capsulatum
- PARASITIC—G. lamblia, E. histolytica, C. parvum, C. cayetanensis, Trichuris trichiura, Strongyloides stercoralis, Schistosomiasis, Capillaria philippinensis, Fasciolopsis buski, Metagonimus yokogawai, Echinostoma
- NON-INFECTIOUS—tropical sprue, irritable bowel syndrome, inflammatory bowel disease, cancer, laxative use, endocrinopathy, dysmotility, idiopathic

OTHER UNDIFFERENTIATED FEVER

- PARASITIC—malaria
- VIRAL—typhoid, viral mosquito borne viruses (e.g. dengue, Zika and chikungunya)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—pattern and duration of fever, associated symptoms (cough, dyspnea, chest pain, diarrhea, abdominal pain, dysuria, urethral discharge, neck stiffness, headache), weight loss, night sweats, travel history (specific itinerary, activities and exposures including food and fresh/saltwater history, incubation period), sexual history,

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

immunization status, antimalarial chemoprophylaxis (medications, degree of adherence), past medical history (rheumatologic disorders, malignancy), medications

PHYSICAL—vitals (tachycardia, tachypnea, hypotension, fever, hypoxemia), oral ulcers, lymphadenopathy, nuchal rigidity, respiratory and cardiac examination (murmurs), abdominal examination (hepatosplenomegaly), skin lesions (morphology, distribution), tick bite marks, joint examination

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, urinalysis
- MICROBIOLOGY—blood C&S, sputum Gram stain/AFB/C&S, urine C&S, stool C&S, O&P, C. diff toxin A/B, malaria thick and thin smear (repeat×1 within 12–24 h if initially negative result), serologies (HIV, dengue, rickettsiae, schistosomiasis, strongyloidiasis, leptospira, HAV, HBV, HCV, hepatitis E)
- IMAGING—CXR, US abd guided by symptoms **SPECIAL**
- LUMBAR PUNCTURE

PRE-TRAVEL CONSIDERATIONS

VACCINATIONS—standard regardless of travel (influenza, pneumococcal if age >65, hepatitis B, MMR, DPT), developing countries (hepatitis A), specific countries (meningococcal, Japanese encephalitis, yellow fever), high-risk activity (rabies), outbreaks (cholera)

MALARIA PROPHYLAXIS—see below

DIARRHEA PROPHYLAXIS—chemoprophylaxis not routinely recommended unless underlying medical condition at high risk for diarrhea-related complications (e.g. IBD, immunocompromised, severe cardiac/renal/vascular disease); chemoprophylaxis options (antibiotic rifaximin vs. non-antibiotic bismuth, Lactobacillus), vaccination (cholera vaccination). Prophylaxis with ciprofloxacin not recommended

Thwaites et al. NEJM 2017;376(6)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

PRIORITY—focus on those illnesses that are potentially fatal or may be public health threats TOP TRAVEL-RELATED INFECTIONS malaria, typhoid fever, dengue fever, diarrheal disease, respiratory infections, Lyme disease, Q fever, brucellosis

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

MALARIA—the most important cause of fever in travelers returning from the tropics and subtropics. *Plasmodium falciparum* can be rapidly fatal and must be ruled out in all febrile travelers returning from malaria-endemic regions. It has the shortest incubation period and >90% of affected travelers will become ill within 30 days of return

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—anopheles mosquito bite transmits sporozoites \rightarrow travel to liver and invade hepatocytes \rightarrow divide and form schizonts, which contain merozoites (asymptomatic) \rightarrow rupture after 6–16 days and release merozoites into the bloodstream \rightarrow infect erythrocytes and mature from ring forms to trophozoites to mature schizonts (asexual form) over 48h (Plasmodium vivax. Plasmodium ovale, P. falciparum) or 72h $malariae) \rightarrow merozoites$ (Plasmodium released from ervthrocytes (fever, anemia, lactic acidosis, cytokine release) and infect new red cells \rightarrow few merozoites differentiate into male or female gametocytes (sexual forms) can circulate in blood until ingested by mosquito. P. vivax and P. ovale may stay dormant in the liver as hypnozoites and may cause late relapse by reactivating after many months. P. falciparum and P. malariae have no liver stage and do not cause relapse. P. falciparum specifically can induce obstruction of microvascular blood flow, and may lead to organ dysfunction (e.g. cerebral malaria, renal failure, ARDS, hypoglycemia, anemia, DIC, and gastroenteritis)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—P. falciparum acquired mostly from sub-Saharan Africa, P. vivax mostly from Asia or Latin America. Symptoms include spiking fevers, chills, headache, back pain, cough, GI problems. Splenomegaly and thrombocytopenia without leukocytosis may be present. Cerebral malaria (P. falciparum) presents as altered level of consciousness or seizures and is fatal if untreated
- **DIAGNOSIS**—thick and thin smear (need to repeat over 48 h to rule out malaria)
- PROPHYLAXIS—relative risk of contracting malaria varies by geographic region: Caribbean<North Africa<South America<Southeast Asia<Central America<South Asia<Oceania<sub-Saharan Africa. Travelers should be advised to wear long sleeves/pants between dusk and dawn, use mosquito repellents containing 30–50% DEET, and consider permethrin-treated mosquito nets. Chloroquine may be used for travel to destina-

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

tions with chloroquine-sensitive P. falciparum (most of Central America and parts of the Middle East). For destinations where chloroguine-resistant P. falciparum is present, chemoprophylaxis with atovaguone-proguanil, mefloguine, or doxycycline should be used. Give atoyaguoneproguanil or doxycycline for travel to destinations with P. falciparum resistance to chloroguine, mefloguine, and sulfonamides (e.g. regions of Thailand, Cambodia, China, Laos, and Vietnam). Atovaguone-proguanil associated with fewest side effects. Mefloquine has ease of weekly dosing. Doxycycline is the cheapest, but requires prolonged course and causes sun sensitization. CDC risk assessment and prophylaxis recommendations are available online at http:// www.cdc.gov/

 TREATMENTS—intravenous artesunate has emerged as the treatment of choice for complicated malaria. Other options include quinine– doxycycline, atovaquone–proguanil, and mefloquine. Chloroquine–primaquine for non-falciparum

TYPHOID FEVER

- ратнорнузюLоду acquired after exposure to food or water contaminated by S. typhi
- CLINICAL FEATURES—fever, chills, headache, myalgia, abdominal pain and constipation (uncommonly diarrhea), relative bradycardia, splenomegaly, and rose spots (faint salmoncolored macules on the abdomen and trunk). Septic symptoms from intestinal perforation may occur in second week
- DIAGNOSIS—blood, stool, urine, or bone marrow (highest sensitivity) culture; CBC may show leukopenia
- TREATMENTS—fluoroquinolones, ceftriaxone, azithromycin

DENGUE FEVER

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—flavivirus transmitted by mosquito → flu-like illness 4–7 days later → lymphadenopathy, maculopapular/petechial rash → dengue shock syndrome and dengue hemorrhagic fever if previously exposed to other serotypes
- CLINICAL FEATURES—acquired mostly from tropical and subtropical areas. Fever, headache, retro-orbital pain, severe myalgia/arthralgia ('break-bone fever'). Leukopenia and thrombocytopenia
- DIAGNOSIS—serology
- TREATMENTS—supportive

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

EBOLA FEVER

- EPIDEMIOLOGY flavivirus possibly transmitted by fruit bats → person-to-person transmission occurs from direct contact with blood or bodily fluids (saliva, blood, vomit, stool or semen) of infected symptomatic patients. Incubation period 2–21 days
- CLINICAL FEATURES—early symptoms include fever, headache, myalgia/arthralgia, vomiting, diarrhea, abdominal pain, conjunctival injection, and rash. Late symptoms include bleeding, shock, delirium and death
- DIAGNOSIS—high index of suspicion if patient has recently been in endemic area during an Ebola outbreak. Serology (sens 91%) and RT-PCR (sens ~100%, spc 97%)
- TREATMENTS—rapid isolation. Supportive measures are the mainstay. An experimental therapy, ZMapp[®], consists of 3 monoclonal antibodies against Ebola viral antigens. Vaccine now available to those traveling to high risk areas.

CHIKUNGUNYA FEVER

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—mosquito-borne viral infection acquired in Africa and Asia. Large outbreaks in Indian Ocean islands and India
- CLINICAL FEATURES—fever (usually within 2–4 days of exposure) with severe joint pains involving small joints of hands, wrists, and ankles; may be prolonged. Leukopenia, thrombocytopenia, and elevated transaminases may be seen
- **DIAGNOSIS**—serology (acute and convalescent)
- TREATMENTS—symptomatic with NSAIDs

ZIKA FEVER

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—mosquito borne flavivirus with outbreaks in Africa, Asia, and South America. Sexual transmission described (barrier protection or abstinence recommended if pregnant partner)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—fever, headache, myalgia, arthralgia (small joints hands and feet), conjunctivitis, maculopapular rash
- DIAGNOSIS—serology, urine, blood, semen PCR. Testing indicated for all pregnant women who have travelled to highly endemic regions due to increased risk of congenital anomalies
- TREATMENTS—supportive

RICKETTSIAL INFECTIONS (OUTSIDE OF NORTH AMERICA)

• **РАТНОРНУSIOLOGY**—African tick typhus (*Rick-ettsia africae*), Mediterranean tick typhus

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

(Rickettsia conorii), and scrub typhus (Orientia tsutsugamushi) are all tick-transmitted

- CLINICAL FEATURES—tick bite±inoculation eschar with a triad of fever, headache, and myalgia. Rash may be present. Lymphadenopathy, leukopenia, and thrombocytopenia
- DIAGNOSIS—serology
- TREATMENTS—doxycycline

RICKETTSIAL INFECTIONS (WITHIN NORTH AMERICA)—see FEVER AND RASH (p. 248) LEPTOSPIROSIS

- **PATHOPHYSIOLOGY**—*Leptospira* interrogans, zoonosis more common in tropical areas
- CLINICAL FEATURES—history of exposure to freshwater. Fever, headache, myalgia, rash, conjunctival suffusion. May be associated with aseptic meningitis, uveitis, elevated transaminases, jaundice, proteinuria, and microscopic hematuria; fulminant syndrome with jaundice, renal failure, and hemorrhage (Weil disease)
- DIAGNOSIS—serology; culture of blood, urine, and CSF
- TREATMENTS—doxycycline or amoxicillin for mild disease; penicillin/ampicillin or ceftriaxone/cefotaxime IV for severe disease

BRUCELLOSIS (undulant fever, Mediterranean fever)

- ратнорнузюсову—Gram-negative facultative intracellular coccobacilli
- CLINICAL FEATURES—transmitted by drinking or eating infected animal products (milk), inhalation, or direct animal contact through skin wounds. Other than fever, may involve any organ system, particularly joints (sacroiliitis), GU (epididymo-orchitis), CNS (meningitis), eyes (uveitis), cardiac (endocarditis), pulmonary (pneumonitis, pleural effusion, empyema), and can cause abscesses (hepatic,

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

splenic, thyroid, epidural). May develop into chronic hepatosplenic disease

- DIAGNOSIS—blood cultures, serology
- **TREATMENTS**—doxycycline plus streptomycin or rifampin

SCHISTOSOMIASIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY-trematode worms Schistosoma haematobium. Schistosoma mansoni, Schistosoma intercalatum in sub-Saharan Africa, S. mansoni in part of South America, Schistosoma japonicum in Asia, Schistosoma mekonai in Cambodia. Freshwater exposure \rightarrow cercariae penetrate skin \rightarrow larvae migrate to lung through venous circulation \rightarrow migrate to heart \rightarrow migrate to liver, where they mature and pair off \rightarrow migrate to mesenteric venules of bowel (S. mansoni, S. mekonai, S. japonicum, and S. intercalatum) bladder (Schistoma hematobium), where females lay $eqgs \rightarrow excreted$ into feces or urine \rightarrow mature to cercariae
- CLINICAL FEATURES—generally seen in patients from endemic areas instead of travelers. Initial penetration of skin may cause pruritus. Acute schistosomiasis (Katayama fever) includes fever, headache, myalgias, RUQ pain, bloody diarrhea, and dyspnea. Chronic schistosomiasis with granuloma formation is due to host's immune response to schistosome eggs, leading to hepatic (cirrhosis), intestinal (diarrhea) or genitourinary tract symptoms (hematuria, dysuria, calcification, fibrosis), and rarely CNS (seizures, focal deficit, transverse myelitis) involvement
- **DIAGNOSIS**—serology, schistosome eggs in feces or urine, biopsy of rectum or bladder
- TREATMENTS—praziquantel 20 mg/kg PO q8h×2 doses (3 doses for *S. japonicum* and *mekongi*); adjunctive corticosteroids for sp. Katayama fever

Pneumonia

See PNEUMONIA (p. 9)

Endocarditis

Meningitis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS FOR FEVER AND NEUROLOGICAL SYMPTOMS

★DIMS★

DRUGS—neuroleptic malignant syndrome, serotonin syndrome, sympathomimetics, alcohol withdrawal

INFECTIOUS

- MENINGITIS—bacterial (S. pneumoniae, Neisseria meningitidis, Haemophilus. influenzae, Listeria monocytogenes, Klebsiella, E. coli, Serratia, Pseudomonas), viral (enterovirus, VZV, influenza, mumps, HIV), TB, fungal (Cryptococcus)
- ENCEPHALITIS—HSV, West Nile, St. Louis, equine, La Crosse
- ABSCESS—bacterial

METABOLIC—thyroid storm

STRUCTURAL

- HEMORRHAGE—subarachnoid, epidural, subdural, intracerebral
- CEREBRAL INFARCT
- TUMOR
- PITUITARY APOPLEXY
- vascuLar—TTP/HUS, lupus, vasculitis, granulomatous angiitis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

ASSOCIATIONS WITH SPECIFIC ORGANISMS

- AGE 0-4 WEEKS—Streptococcus agalactiae, E. coli, L. monocytogenes, K. pneumoniae
- AGE 1–23 MONTHS—S. agalactiae, E. coli, S. pneumoniae, H. influenzae, N. meningitidis
- AGE 2–50 YEARS—S. pneumoniae, N. meningitidis
- AGE >50 YEARS—S. pneumoniae, N. meningitidis, L. monocytogenes, aerobic Gram-negative bacilli*
- IMMUNOCOMPROMISED—Listeria, aerobic Gramnegative bacilli*
- NEUROSURGERY/HEAD TRAUMA—S. aureus, Staphylococcus epidermidis, aerobic Gramnegative bacilli*
- CSF sникт—S. aureus, S. epidermidis, aerobic Gram-negative bacilli*, diphtheroids
- BASILAR SKULL FRACTURE—S. pneumoniae, H. influenzae, group A Streptococci

*aerobic Gram-negative bacilli include Klebsiella, E. coli, Serratia, and Pseudomonas

RISK FACTORS FOR S. PNEUMONIAE pneumonia, otitis media, mastoiditis, sinusitis, endocarditis, head trauma with CSF leak, alcoholism, splenectomy

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

RISK FACTORS FOR L. MONOCYTOGENES-

extremes of age, alcoholism, malignancy, immunosuppression, diabetes, hepatic failure, renal failure, iron overload, collagen vascular disease, HIV

COMPLICATIONS—neurologic complications include herniation, stroke, vasculitis, acute cerebral hemorrhage, and aneurysm formation of cerebral vessels, with symptoms such as seizures, hearing loss, and neuropsychological impairment. Systemic complications include septic shock, pneumonia, and ARDS

CLINICAL FEATURES

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS ADULT PATIENT HAVE ACUTE MENINGITIS?

| | Sens | Spc |
|---|------|-----|
| | (%) | (%) |
| History | | |
| Headache | 68 | |
| Nausea and vomiting | 52 | |
| Neck pain | 28 | |
| Physical | | |
| Fever | 87 | |
| Neck stiffness | 80 | |
| Altered mental status | 69 | |
| Focal neurological findings | 21 | |
| Rash | 13 | |
| Kernig sign (patient lying supine with hip flexed >90°. Extension of knee from this position elicits resistance or pain in lower back or posterior | 9 | 100 |
| thigh) Brudzinski sign (passive neck flexion in supine patient results in flexion of knees and hips) | - | - |
| Jolt accentuation of headache (patient turns head horizontally at a frequency of 2–3 rotations per second. Worsening headache represents positive sign) Combination of Findings | 97 | 60 |
| Classic triad (fever, neck | 46 | |
| stiffness, headache) | | |

UPDATE—individual findings are not sufficiently accurate to diagnose meningitis. Absence of all 3 signs of the classic triad of fever, neck stiffness,

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

and altered mental status is **not** sufficiently sensitive to rule out a diagnosis of meningitis. Fever and neck stiffness are the most sensitive findings of the triad. Kernig and Brudzinski signs have low sensitivity but high specificity. Jolt accentuation of headache may be a useful adjunctive maneuver for patients with fever and headache

> Attia et al. JAMA 1999;282(2) Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination. McGraw-Hill; 2009

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, Cr/urea, INR, PTT, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, fibrinogen, urinalysis
- MICROBIOLOGY—blood C&S, sputum Gram stain/AFB/C&S, urine C&S
- IMAGING—CXR, head CT (see below)
- LUMBAR PUNCTURE—(1) cell count and differential; (2) Gram stain, C&S and AFB; (3) cell count and differential; (4) protein, glucose, lactate; (5) PCR for HSV, VZV, enteroviruses; (6) cytology

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

LUMBAR PUNCTURE—suspect bacterial infection if high neutrophils, low glucose, high protein, positive culture. Suspect viral infection if high lymphocytes, *normal* glucose, and normal/ high protein

- OPENING PRESSURE—normal is 60–250 mmH₂O. Causes of elevated opening pressure include meningitis, pseudotumor cerebri, intracranial hemorrhage, tumors, and idiopathic
- CELL COUNT AND DIFFERENTIAL—normal WBC is <5/mm³. This can increase to 1000–5000/mm³ for bacterial meningitis (neutrophils mainly) and 50–1000/mm³ for viral meningitis (lymphocyte predominant). Other causes include seizure, intracerebral hemorrhage, tumor, and "traumatic tap" (correct by +1 WBC for every 500–1000 RBCs)
- XANTHOCHROMIA—lysed RBCs. Present in >90% of patients within 12 h of subarachnoid hemorrhage onset
- GRAM STAIN—sensitivity is 60–80% in untreated bacterial meningitis and 40–60% in partially treated cases

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

- culture—gold standard with sensitivity of 70–85% in untreated bacterial meningitis and 50% in partially treated cases. Viral, TB, and fungal cultures can also be done
- PROTEIN—normal is 0.18–0.58 g/L. Significantly elevated in bacterial meningitis and obstruction, variably elevated in fungal and TB infections, and only sometimes elevated in viral infections. Other causes include tumors, intracranial hemorrhage, multiple sclerosis, and Guillain–Barré syndrome
- GLUCOSE—normal is 2/3 of serum level, up to 16.7 mM [300 mg/dL]. Significantly lower in bacterial meningitis, mildly lower in fungal and TB infections, and usually normal in viral infections

Ellenby et al. NEJM 2006;355(e12)

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: HOW DO I PERFORM A LUMBAR PUNCTURE AND ANALYZE THE RESULTS TO DIAGNOSE BACTERIAL MENINGITIS?

 TECHNIQUE—use of an atraumatic needle compared with a standard needle and use of a 26-gauge standard needle compared with a 22-gauge standard needle have been shown to be associated with reduced risk of headache after lumbar puncture. Reinsertion of the stylet before needle removal should occur (ARR 11%). Patients do not require bed rest after the procedure

LR+

CSF analysis

| CSF blood glucose ratio \leq 0.4 | 18 |
|--|----|
| CSF glucose >2.2 mmol/L [>40 mg/dL] | 23 |
| CSF WBC \geq 500/ μ L | 15 |
| CSF lactate \geq 3.5 mmol/L [\geq 32 mg/dL] | 21 |

Straus et al. JAMA 2006;296(16)

CT HEAD—indicated before LP if age >60, immunocompromised, history of CNS disease, seizures within 1 week, focal neurological abnormalities, papilloedema, altered mental status

PROGNOSIS—mortality rate is 19–26% for *S. pneumoniae* meningitis and 3–13% for *N. meningitidis* meningitis. Factors conferring poor prognosis include systemic compromise, \downarrow level of consciousness, and *S. pneumoniae*

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O₂, IV, intubation. Droplet precautions for suspect *N. meningitidis* infection

EMPIRIC ANTIBIOTICS—steroid if acute bacterial meningitis and 15–20 min before first dose of antibiotics (dexamethasone 0.15 mg/kg or 10 mg IV q6h×4 days). Cefotaxime 2 g IV q6h or ceftriaxone 2 g IV q12h + vancomycin 500–750 mg IV q6h if concerned about penicillinresistant pneumococci. Add ampicillin 2 g IV q4h if age >50 for Listeria coverage. If neurosurgery/ trauma, CSF shunt, or basilar skull fracture, give meropenem 1 g IV q6h plus vancomycin. If HSV encephalitis, give acyclovir 10 mg/kg IV q8h

SPECIFIC ANTIBIOTICS—S. pneumoniae (penicillin G or ampicillin if MIC <0.1 µg/mL, ceftriaxone or cefotaxime \pm vancomycin \times 10–14 days if MIC >1.0 µg/mL), N. meningitidis (ceftriaxone, penicillin G or ampicillin ×7 days), L. monocytogenes (ampicillin or penicillin G, plus gentamicin×21 davs), H. influenzae (ampicillin, ceftriaxone, cefotaxime × 7 or davs), Enterobacteriaceae (ceftriaxone or cefotax $ime \times 7 davs$)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

CHRONIC MENINGITIS (>4 weeks symptoms and persistent CSF abnormalities)—consider TB, fungal infections, neurosarcoidosis, lymphoma, leptomeningeal carcinomatosis

RECURRENT MENINGITIS—congenital predisposition (myelomeningocele, dermal sinus), acquired (trauma, tumor, shunt), immunologic

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

defects (complement defects, antibody defects, splenectomy)

HSV ENCEPHALITIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—usually infects the temporal lobe → subacute illness with fever, focal neurologic abnormalities, aphasia, mental status changes, and seizures. May have long-term sequelae
- DIAGNOSIS—LP (mild lymphocytic pleocytosis <500 cells/µL, erythrocytes, xanthochromia, ↑ protein, normal glucose, PCR for HSV1/HSV2), MRI (hyperintense lesion in the inferior medial temporal lobe, often extending into the insula)
- TREATMENTS—acyclovir 10 mg/kg/dose q8h×14-21 days

WEST NILE VIRUS ENCEPHALITIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—Flavivirus West Nile virus transmitted by mosquitoes between late spring and early autumn
- CLINICAL FEATURES—wide spectrum from asymptomatic (30%) to severe neurologic disorder (0.5%). Fever, erythematous rash, meningitis, encephalitis, and flaccid paralysis. Risk of progression to severe neurological disease about 1/150, highest in the elderly
- DIAGNOSIS—LP (viral picture, PCR for West Nile virus), IgM antibody to West Nile virus in serum or CSF (samples from the acute and convalescent phases, submitted at least 2 weeks apart)
- TREATMENTS—supportive. Prevention is key (insect repellent, proper clothing)

Urinary Tract Infections and Sexually Transmitted Infections Canadian Guidelines on Sexually Transmitted Infections

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF DYSURIA

*****SUV*

SEXUALLY TRANSMITTED INFECTIONS— Chlamydia trachomatis, Neisseria gonorrhoeae, HSV, HIV, trichomonas

URINARY TRACT INFECTIONS (urethritis, cystitis, pyelonephritis, perinephric abscess) bacterial (★KEEPS★ Klebsiella, E. coli, Enterococci, Proteus, Staphylococcus saprophyticus)

VAGINAL INFECTIONS—Candida albicans, Trichomonas, bacterial vaginosis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF URINARY TRACT INFECTIONS

COMPLICATED UTI—presence of functional or anatomic abnormality of the urinary tract (e.g. polycystic kidney disease, nephrolithiasis, neurogenic bladder, diabetes, immunosuppression, pregnancy, indwelling urinary catheter, recent urinary tract instrumentation)

UNCOMPLICATED UTI—absence of risk factors for complicated UTI. In women, uncomplicated UTIs are usually treated for 3 days (or 5–7 days with nitrofurantoin)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF URINARY TRACT INFECTIONS (CONT'D)

PYELONEPHRITIS—fever, costovertebral angle tenderness, blood and urine cultures indicated RISK FACTORS FOR UTI

- YOUNG WOMEN—frequent or recent sexual activity
- ELDERLY WOMEN—age, estrogen deficiency, incontinence, diabetes, cystoceles, previous GU surgery

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF CATHETER-ASSOCIATED BACTERIURIA—bacteria establish biofilm in or on catheter and enter bladder intra- or extraluminally. Common organisms include *E. coli* and enterococci. Responsible for 80% of urosepsis. Risk factors: duration of catheterization, poor catheter care, diabetes mellitus, female sex

CLINICAL FEATURES OF URINARY TRACT INFECTIONS

HISTORY—dysuria, urinary frequency, urgency, suprapubic or flank pain, hematuria, cloudy/foul urine odor. Symptoms less clear in older women (consider chronic dysuria, urinary incontinence, confusion, falls, delirium). Pyelonephritis may have fever, chills, flank pain, nausea/vomiting, sepsis if severe (multiple organ system dysfunction, acute renal failure, shock)

PHYSICAL—fever, costovertebral angle tenderness, abdominal/suprapubic tenderness, pelvic examination in sexually active women for cervical motion/uterine tenderness to exclude pelvic inflammatory disease, DRE in men to exclude prostatitis

INVESTIGATIONS FOR URINARY TRACT INFECTIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, Cr/urea, urinalysis
- MICROBIOLOGY—urine C&S
- Imaging—US

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES FOR URINARY TRACT INFECTIONS

NUMBER OF BACTERIA—significant bacteria (>10⁵/mL) in clean catch suggests UTI (sens 50%). If using lower threshold to >10³/mL for women with symptoms, sensitivity increases and specificity only decreases slightly

URINALYSIS—nitrite or leukocyte esterase (sens 75%, spc 82%), pyuria (sens 95%, spc 71%),

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES FOR URINARY TRACT INFECTIONS (CONT'D)

bacteria (sens 40–70%, spc 85–95%). Not necessary in women with typical symptomatic uncomplicated UTI (helpful if atypical presentation)

URINE CULTURE—not always needed if symptomatic and biochemical evidence (i.e. leukocyte esterase) of uncomplicated UTI. However, antimicrobial resistance is increasing, so culture and sensitivity may become more important

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS ADULT PATIENT WITH SUSPECTED BACTEREMIA REQUIRE BLOOD CULTURES?

.....

| | LNT | LIV- |
|---|------|------|
| Chills in febrile patients | 2.2 | 0.56 |
| Shaking chills | 4.7 | - |
| Subjective fever | 1.0 | 0.95 |
| Temperature ≥38.0 °C | 1.9 | 0.54 |
| High clinical impression (≥50% probability of bacteremia) | 2.3 | - |
| Intermediate clinical impression (10–49%) | 0.49 | - |
| Low clinical impression (≤10%) | 0.48 | - |
| Systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS) | 1.8 | 0.09 |
| Shapiro clinical decision rule | 1.3 | 0.08 |

Shapiro Decision Rule: blood cultures indicated if 1 major or 2 minor criteria. Major criteria (suspicion of endocarditis, temperature >39.4 °C, indwelling catheter), minor criteria (temperature 38.3–39.3 °C, age >65 years, chills, vomiting, SBP < 90 mmHg, WBC >18,000/µL, creatinine >177 µmol/L

APPROACH—pretest probability of true positive blood cultures is low (4.1–7.3%), but depends on the clinical context (low risk: cellulitis, community acquired pneumonia; intermediate risk: pyelonephritis; high risk: sepsis, acute bacterial meningitis, septic shock). Blood cultures should not be ordered for isolated fever/leukocytosis. The Shapiro decision rule may identify low-risk patients not requiring further investigation. These findings do not apply if there is a suspicion for endocarditis or in immunocompromised patients

Coburn et al. JAMA 2012;308(5)

MANAGEMENT OF URINARY TRACT INFECTIONS

UNCOMPLICATED UTI IN WOMEN trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole (DS-160/800 mg) 1 tab PO BID × 3 days, nitrofurantoin monohydrate/macrocrystals 100 mg PO BID × 5–7 days, fosfomycin 3 g PO × 1 dose, pivmecillinam 400 mg PO BID × 5–7 days

COMPLICATED UTI—treatment duration 7–14 days, empiric therapy based on severity and risk factors for resistance. Consider antipseudomonal carbapenem for ESBL and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, vancomycin for MRSA

RECURRENT UTI (consider if >3–4 episodes of UTI/year)—daily low-dose prophylaxis (trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole DS ½ tab PO nightly × 6 months, nitrofurantoin 50 mg or macrocrystals 100 mg PO nightly × 6 months), postcoital prophylaxis (trimethoprimsulfamethoxazole DS ½-1 tab PO post-coital, nitrofurantoin 50 mg PO or macrocrystals 100 mg PO post-coital), patient-initiated treatment (start standard dose of antibiotics with onset of UTI symptoms)

SYMPTOM CONTROL—phenazopyridine 100–200 mg PO TID × 2 days

ACUTE UNCOMPLICATED PYELONEPHRI-TIS—treat empirically with oral fluoroquinolones × 7 d (*ciprofloxacin* 500 mg PO BID or *levofloxacin* 750 mg PO daily). If isolate susceptible, may treat with trimethoprim–sulfamethoxazole, amoxicillin, or amoxicillin–clavulanate × 14 d. Most healthy, non-pregnant women with pyelonephritis can be treated on an outpatient basis. Otherwise, treat with IV antibiotics, at least initially (aminoglycoside±ampicillin, third generation cephalosporin, or carbapenem)

CATHETER-ASSOCIATED BACTERIURIA remove or replace catheter and initiate antibiotics for symptomatic infection; switch to intermittent catheterization

PREGNANCY AND UTI—urinalysis for all pregnant women at 12–16 weeks. Treat all bacteriuria $(\geq 10^5 \text{ CFU/mL})$ with amoxicillin or nitrofurantoin \times 3–7 days even if asymptomatic as there is a 20–40% risk of pyelonephritis. Alternatives (cephalexin, cefpodoxime, fosfomycin, trimethoprimsulfamethoxazole). Avoid fluoroquinolones

VAGINITIS

CANDIDA—vulvovaginitis with cheesy vaginal discharge, intense itch. Diagnosis by microscopy with 10% KOH showing hyphae and budding yeast, pH 4–4.5 (normal). Treat with vaginal

VAGINITIS (CONT'D)

antifungal cream (3–14 days) or *fluconazole* 150 mg PO×1 dose

TRICHOMONIASIS—profuse purulent greenish vaginal discharge, strawberry cervix. Diagnosis by microscopy showing motile trichomonads, pH 5–6. Treat with oral *metronidazole* 2 g as a single dose (treatment of sexual partners indicated)

BACTERIAL VAGINOSIS—gray, fishy-smelling vaginal discharge. Diagnosis made by amine odor when KOH added to the discharge, pH >4.5 and clue cells (vaginal epithelial cells coated with bacteria) seen on microscopy. Treat if symptomatic or pregnant with metronidazole or clindamycin, orally or vaginally

SEXUALLY TRANSMITTED INFECTIONS (STI)

URETHRITIS IN MEN/CERVICITIS IN WOMEN

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—N. gonorrhoeae, C. trachomatis, and other non-gonococcal (Ureaplasma urealyticum, Mycoplasma genitalium, Trichomonas vaginalis, HSV)
- DIAGNOSIS—Gram stain of discharge, urine for chlamydia/gonorrhea (nucleic acid amplification test, NAAT) or urethral/cervical swab for gonorrhea culture; offer syphilis and HIV testing
- TREATMENTS—anti-gonococcal (ceftriaxone 125 mg IM×1 plus azithromycin 1 g PO×1), anti-chlamydial (azithromycin 1 g PO×1, or doxycycline 100 mg PO BID×7 days). If gonorrhea identified, empirically treat for both gonococcus and chlamydia since dual infection is common. Dual therapy is recommended for gonorrhea due to increasing incidence of resistance to third generation cephalosporins. Trace and treat all partners within the last 60 days

SYPHILIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—*T. pallidum* infection. Risk factors include men who have sex with men (MSM), sex trade, HIV infection
 - PRIMARY SYPHILIS—presents as chancre (painless, indurated, non-purulent ulcer) within 3–90 days
 - SECONDARY SYPHILIS—develops within 2 weeks to 6 months, symptoms include fever, maculopapular rash, mucocutaneous lesions, alopecia, lymphadenopathy, meningitis, uveitis, and cranial neuritis
 - TERTIARY SYPHILIS—develops after year(s) and may involve the heart (aortitis), eyes (iritis, Argyll Robertson pupil), bones/soft tissues (gummas), and neurologic system

SEXUALLY TRANSMITTED INFECTIONS (STI) (CONT'D)

(general paresis, rapidly progressive dementia with psychotic features, and tabes dorsalis, which affects posterior columns of the spinal cord and the dorsal roots, leading to pain episodes, decreased vibration and proprioception, absent reflexes, and bowel/bladder dysfunction)

SEXUALLY TRANSMITTED INFECTIONS (STI) (CONT'D)

 DIAGNOSIS—first-line diagnostic test of choice for a primary syphilitic chancre should be either direct fluorescent antibody (DFA) or PCR, if available. Otherwise, treponemal serologies are more sensitive and become positive earlier than non-treponemal serologies and would be preferred if primary syphilis is a consideration

| Diagnostic Method | Test(s) | Utility |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|
| Direct visualization | Dark field microscopy | Traditional but availability is limited |
| Visualization with fluorescent Ab | DFA | Diagnosis of 1 ° syphilis. Sensitive/specific |
| Molecular testing | PCR | Diagnosis of 1 ° syphilis. Most sensitive/ specific but not readily available |
| Treponemal serology (presence of Ab | FTA-ABS | Diagnosis of syphilis |
| against TP) | TPPA MHA-TP TP-EIA INNO-LIA | Sensitive; however, does not differentiate venereal from non-venereal treponematosis |
| Non-treponemal serology (presence | VDRL | Screening |
| of Ab against cardiolipin/lecithin) | RPR | RPR titer helpful in staging, check for reinfection, treatment monitoring |

Abbreviations: DFA direct fluorescent antibody, EIA enzyme immunoassay, FTA-ABS fluorescent treponemal antibody-absorption, MHA-TP microhemagglutination assay for antibody to TP, PCR polymerase chain reaction, RPR rapid plasma reagin test, TP Treponema pallidum, TPPA TP particle agglutination assay, VDRL Venereal Disease Research Laboratory, INNO-LIA line immunoassay

SEXUALLY TRANSMITTED INFECTIONS (STI) (CONT'D)

 TREATMENTS—for primary, secondary and early latent (<1 year) syphilis, benzathine penicillin G 2.4 M units IM×1 (preferred) or doxycycline 100 mg PO BID×2 weeks. For late latent (>1 year) syphilis, gummatous and cardiovascular syphilis, benzathine penicillin G 2.4 M units IM q7days×3 weeks. For neurosyphilis or syphilitic eye disease, give benzathine penicillin G 3–4 M units q4h IV×10–14 days. Follow-up is essential. Treatment failure is defined as persistent symptoms or failure of serologic test to decline by 4 fold within 6 months

PELVIC INFLAMMATORY DISEASE

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—includes endometritis, tubo-ovarian abscess, salpingitis, and pelvic peritonitis. Most commonly due to N. gonor-

SEXUALLY TRANSMITTED INFECTIONS (STI) (CONT'D)

- rhoeae, C. trachomatis, Mycoplasma hominis, U. urealyticum; may involve endogenous (gut) organisms including anaerobes. Complications include infertility, ectopic pregnancy, chronic pelvic pain
- CLINICAL FEATURES—lower abdominal pain, abnormal vaginal bleeding/discharge, and dyspareunia may be mild and non-specific. Findings include lower abdominal tenderness, adnexal tenderness, and cervical motion tenderness
- DIAGNOSIS—high index of clinical suspicion. Cervical swab and urine NAAT for chlamydia and gonorrhea. US Pregnancy test
- TREATMENTS—outpatients (ceftriaxone 250 mg IM×1 and doxycycline 100 mg PO

SEXUALLY TRANSMITTED INFECTIONS (STI) (CONT'D)

BID×14 days, or *levofloxacin* 500 mg PO daily×14 days); add *metronidazole* 500 mg PO BID×14 days if there are risk factors for anaerobic pathogens. **Inpatients** (*doxycycline* 100 mg PO q12h and *cefoxitin* 2 g IV

Soft Tissue Infections

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

DISCRETE LOCALIZED CUTANEOUS INFECTIONS—superficial (impetigo, folliculitis, furunculosis), deep (carbuncles, subcutaneous abscesses)

SPREADING DIFFUSE CUTANEOUS INFECTIONS (involves deeper dermis and subcutaneous tissues)—erysipelas, cellulitis

DEEP SOFT TISSUE INFECTIONS—necrotizing fasciitis (polymicrobial, *Streptococcus pyogenes*), gas gangrene (*C. perfringens*)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

RISK FACTORS FOR CELLULITIS

- сомряомизер sким—trauma, IDU, psoriasis, eczema, fungal disease (especially tinea pedis)
- COMPROMISED SENSORY/PROPRIOCEPTIVE NERVES diabetic neuropathy
- COMPROMISED BLOOD/LYMPHATIC VESSELS—diabetes, malignancy, lymphatic or venous insufficiency, radiation, prior cellulitis

CELLULITIS—acute spreading infection involving the dermis and subcutaneous tissue, mostly caused by Staphylococci and group A *Streptococcus*. Usually presents as a swollen, erythematous plaque with ill-defined border (mark borders to identify progress)

ERYSIPELAS—superficial cellulitis involving the upper dermis and lymphatics, mostly caused by group A *Streptococcus*. Usually presents as a raised, erythematous plaque with welldemarcated border. It occurs more commonly in infants and elderly

RISK FACTORS FOR SKIN AND SOFT TISSUE INFECTIONS DUE TO MRSA/CA-MRSA—previous MRSA infection, hospitalization, or household contacts of known MRSA; street involved/ shelters/incarceration, IDU, athletes, children/ day care

SEXUALLY TRANSMITTED INFECTIONS (STI) (CONT'D)

 $q6h \times 14$ days, or *clindamycin* 900 mg IV q8h and *gentamicin* 1.5 mg/kg IV q8h \times 14 days)

Canadian Guidelines on Sexually Transmitted Infections

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

COMMON PATHOGENS CAUSING CELLULITIS

- MOST COMMON—S. pyogenes (β-hemolytic group A Streptococcus), S. aureus, other β-hemolytic streptococci (B, C, G, and F)
- surgical wound—S. aureus, S. pyogenes
- human bite—oral anaerobes, Eikenella corrodens
- ANIMAL BITE—Pasteurella multocida, Capnocytophaga canimorsus
- тіск віте—В. burgdorferi, tularemia
- FRESHWATER—Aeromonas hydrophila
- seawater—V. vulnificus
- FISH EXPOSURE—Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae, Streptococcus iniae
- нот тив—*P. aeruginosa* folliculitis

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, lactate (if suspicion of necrotizing fasciitis)
- MICROBIOLOGY—swab of portal of entry or any open draining wound for Gram stain and C&S, blood C&S (indicated only if systemic symptoms)

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—incision and drainage of abscesses. Elevation of affected area if possible, compression and skin hydration. Antibiotics for mild cellulitis (*cephalexin* 500 mg PO QID, *dicloxacillin* 500 mg PO QID, or *clindamycin* 150–300 mg PO QID×5–14 days); for systemic toxicity or severe cellulitis (*cefazolin* 1–2 g IV q8h, *ceftriaxone* 1 g IV q24h, *nafcillin* 1–2 g IV q4–6 h×7–14 days). For MRSA associated skin infections, consider vancomycin 1–2 g IV q12h, *trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole* 1

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

DS tab PO BID, *daptomycin* 4–6 mg/kg IV daily, *tigecycline* 100 mg loading dose, then 50 mg IV q12h, *doxycycline* 100 mg PO BID, *linezolid* 600 mg PO/IV q12h. For mild erysipelas, consider *penicillin* 500 mg PO QID or *amoxicillin* 500 mg PO TID. For severe erysipelas with fevers and chills, consider *ceftriaxone* 1 g IV q24h or *cefazolin* 1–2 q IV q8h × 5–14 days

Daum NEJM 2007;357(4) 2014 IDDSA Update Guideline Skin Soft Tissue Infections

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

NECROTIZING FASCIITIS

- TYPES—type 1 (polymicrobial infections including Enterococci, E. coli, non-group A Streptococcus, Klebsiella, anaerobes. Mixed infections occurring postoperatively or in those with diabetes or peripheral vascular disease, e.g. Fournier gangrene of perineum in diabetics), type 2 (monomicrobial S. pyogenes; rarely, CA-MRSA. May occur at any age and in healthy hosts following minor trauma, penetrating injury, laceration, varicella, IDU, or childbirth)
- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (type 1)—inoculation of ischemic or devitalized tissue → host immune system and antibiotics relatively ineffective → rapid spreading of infection to sur-

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

rounding tissue \rightarrow late signs include fever, crepitus, shock \rightarrow complications include compartment syndrome, acute renal failure, sepsis. May be limb or life-threatening, requires urgent surgery. May develop over a few hours

- ASSOCIATIONS—host (age >50, cancer, alcoholism, immunocompromised, malnutrition, obesity), compromised skin (burns, trauma, postoperative infection), compromised blood vessels (peripheral vascular disease, diabetes)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—typically happens over body areas with limited fibrous tissue (trunk, extremities). Pain disproportionate to physical findings. Gangrenous skin changes, bullae, tense edema, and crepitus may be seen as late signs
- DIAGNOSIS—high index of suspicion (pain >> physical findings). Plain radiograph to check for gas with type 1 necrotizing fasciitis. CT or MRI may be useful. Early deep incisional biopsy is gold standard
- TREATMENTS—urgent surgical debridement of all necrotic tissue. Consider IVIG if significant hypotension in Group A Streptococcus necrotizing fasciitis. Polymicrobial (piperacillin-tazobactam 4.5 g IV q8h plus vancomycin 25 mg/kg IV q12h), Streptococcus (penicillin G 4 MU IV q4h plus clindamycin 600–900 mg IV q8h)

Osteomyelitis

CAUSES

HEMATOGENOUS (monomicrobial)—S. aureus, coagulase-negative staphylococci, Gram-negative bacilli (P. aeruginosa, Serratia, E. coli), TB, fungi

CONTIGUOUS SPREAD FROM SOFT TISSUE OR JOINTS (polymicrobial)— S. aureus, coagulase-negative staphylococci, S. pyogenes, Enterococcus, Gram-negative bacilli, anaerobes

CONTIGUOUS SPREAD WITH GENERALIZED VASCULAR INSUFFICIENCY (polymicrobial)— S. aureus, Streptococcus, Enterococcus, Proteus mirabilis, P. aeruginosa, anaerobes

DIRECT INOCULATION THROUGH TRAUMA OR SURGERY (monomicrobial or polymicrobial)—may involve skin or environmental commensal organisms

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

ROUTE OF INFECTION

- HEMATOGENOUS—mainly central (vertebrae, sternoclavicular, sacroiliac) and sometimes long bones (femur, tibia, humerus)
- CONTIGUOUS SPREAD FROM SOFT TISSUE INFEC-TIONS—trauma, surgery, orthopedic prosthesis, decubitus ulcer
- CONTIGUOUS SPREAD FROM SOFT TISSUE INFECTIONS WITH GENERALIZED VASCULAR INSUFFICIENCY—ischemic ulcers, diabetic ulcers

RISK FACTORS FOR OSTEOMYELITIS

- systemic—diabetes, sickle cell disease (Salmonella)
- LOCAL—vascular compromise (arterial insufficiency, neuropathy venous stasis), orthopedic surgery

CLINICAL FEATURES

DIABETIC FOOT ULCER—either probing of bone or ulcer area above 2 cm² is associated with ~90% chance of having underlying osteomyelitis (sens 66%, spc 85%, PPV 89%). Further noninvasive testing unlikely to improve diagnostic accuracy

HISTORY

 ACUTE OSTEOMYELITIS (<2 weeks)—typically associated with bone pain, tenderness,

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT WITH DIABETES HAVE OSTEOMYELITIS OF THE LOWER EXTREMITY?

- Wagner grading scale
 - 0—no open lesions; may have evidence of healed lesions or deformities
 - 1—superficial ulcer
 - 2—deeper ulcer to tendon, bone, or joint capsule
 - 3—deeper tissues involved, with abscess, osteomyelitis, or tendinitis
 - 4—localized gangrene of toe or forefoot
 - 5-gangrene of foot (partial or total)

| | LR+ | LR– |
|--------------------------------|-----|------|
| Clinical gestalt | | |
| Clinical judgment | 9.2 | 0.70 |
| Wagner grade >2 | 5.5 | 0.54 |
| Physical | | |
| Bone exposure | 9.2 | 0.70 |
| Positive probe to bone finding | 6.4 | 0.39 |
| Ulcer area >2 cm ² | 7.2 | 0.48 |
| Ulcer inflammation | 1.5 | 0.84 |
| Laboratory | | |
| $ESR \ge 70 \text{ mm/h}$ | 11 | 0.34 |
| Swab culture | 1 | 1 |
| Abnormal plain radiograph | 2.3 | 0.63 |
| Abnormal MRI | 3.8 | 0.14 |

APPROACH—"An ulcer area >2 cm², a positive probe-to-bone test result, an ESR \geq 70 mm/h, and an abnormal plain radiograph ... are helpful in diagnosing the presence of lower extremity osteomyelitis in patients with diabetes. A negative MRI result makes the diagnosis much less likely when all of these findings are absent."

Butalia et al. JAMA 2008;299(7)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

warmth, swelling, fever, and chills. Hip, vertebrae, and pelvis tend to manifest fewer signs and symptoms

- SUBACUTE OSTEOMYELITIS (weeks to few months)—longer duration of above symptoms, but less severe. Over time, draining sinus tracts, deformity, instability, and vascular/neurologic changes may develop
- CHRONIC OSTEOMYELITIS (>few months)—similar to subacute osteomyelitis

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, ESR (monitor disease progress if elevated), urinalysis
- місковіоLogy—blood C&S, urine C&S
- IMAGING—plain films (specific but insensitive), three-phase bone scan (sensitive), CT, MRI (most sensitive and specific, particularly spine and diabetic foot), indium-labeled WBC scan (specific), US, bone marrow scan, dual tracer scan

SPECIAL

- ULCER PROBING
- BONE BIOPSY—C&S, AFB, TB culture, fungal culture, histology; generally required for vertebral osteomyelitis (CT-guided biopsy can provide microbiological diagnosis to guide therapy)
- ANKLE BRACHIAL INDEX—ischemic ulcers suspected

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

PLAIN FILMS—soft tissue swelling and gas, cortical destruction, periosteal new bone formation, deformities, fractures, and soft tissue gas. May not detect osteomyelitis changes until after 2–3 weeks of infection. May help make diagnosis of osteomyelitis but never excludes it (sens 61%, spc 72%, PPV 80% for diabetic foot osteomyelitis)

BONE SCAN—more sensitive but less specific than plain films (sens 70–100%, spc 36% for diabetic foot osteomyelitis). Useful for ruling out osteomyelitis

INDIUM-LABELED LEUKOCYTE SCAN—better sensitivity and specificity (but still poor) than bone scans in diabetic foot. Since WBC accumulates in the marrow, the scan is less sensitive in

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

areas with red marrow (vertebrae, pelvis). Excellent for fracture nonunion osteomyelitis (sens 91%, spc 97%)

MRI—provides best anatomic details, more sensitive and specific than bone scan. Imaging of choice for specific body sites (vertebrae, diabetic foot)

BONE BIOPSY—gold standard for osteomyelitis and generally required in vertebral osteomyelitis. Positive blood cultures and corresponding radiologic findings may support diagnosis and sometimes replace bone biopsy. Consider holding off antibiotic therapy if not life-threatening infection to facilitate identification of organisms. Organisms from superficial skin swabs have little correlation with the actual organisms growing inside the bone, except for *S. aureus*

MANAGEMENT

HEMATOGENOUS—for vertebral osteomyelitis, need blood and bone cultures, then start empiric antibiotics with *cloxacillin* 2 g IV q4–6 h or *cefazolin* 2 g IV q8h. Consider *vancomycin* 15 mg/kg IV q12h if high local MRSA rates. Once organism identified, treat with specific antibiotic (total 6–12 weeks of antibiotics guided by susceptibility from time of biopsy or definitive surgery, with at least 2 weeks of IV therapy). If failed therapy, consider bone/soft tissue debridement and another 4–6 weeks of antibiotics after definitive surgery

CONTIGUOUS SPREAD WITHOUT VASCU-LAR INSUFFICIENCY—after orthopedic surgery and specimen collection, start *vancomycin* 15 mg/kg IV q12h. For sternal osteomyelitis, give *vancomycin* 15 mg/kg IV q12h, then switch to specific antibiotics (total 6 weeks of antibiotics from time of definitive surgery, usually intravenous for the duration)

CONTIGUOUS SPREAD WITH VASCULAR INSUFFICIENCY—polymicrobial. Base therapy

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

on bone culture, empirical coverage should include anaerobes (e.g. carbapenems, piperacillin-tazobactam)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

VERTEBRAL OSTEOMYELITIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—usually results from discspace seeding through hematogenous dissemination, seeding from urinary tract, trauma, extension of infection from adjacent structures, or as a complication of spine and disc surgery. Risk factors include extraspinal infection site, urinary tract instrumentation, vascular catheter, hemodialysis, intravenous drug abuse, cancer, and diabetes mellitus
- clinical FEATURES—severe back pain, limited function, and fever (52%)
- DIAGNOSIS—MRI, blood cultures. Bone biopsy generally required for confirmation and microbiological diagnosis to guide therapy
- TREATMENTS—cloxacillin 2 g IV q4–6 h or cefazolin 2 g IV q8h. Consider vancomycin 15 mg/kg IV q12h if high local MRSA rates

PROSTHETIC JOINT INFECTIONS

- ратнорнузюсову—most commonly due to coagulase-negative staphylococci
- TREATMENTS-debridement with retention of prosthesis may be possible with early-onset infection (within 3 months of surgery), short duration of symptoms (<3 weeks) with no sinus tract, a stable implant **and** a causative organism susceptible to guinolones (or trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole) and rifampin, which are given for 3 months (hips) to 6 months (knees) after an initial course of appropriate IV antibiotic therapy for at least 2 weeks. If debridement and retention are not appropriate, removal of the infected prosthesis with one-stage or two-stage exchange; IV antibiotic therapy is also provided for 6 weeks following the initial surgery

Del Pozo et al. NEJM 2009;361(8)

Tuberculosis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

ORGANISMS—genus *Mycobacterium* consists of >50 species. TB is caused by *M. tuberculosis* complex including *M. tuberculosis*, *M. bovis*, and others. The cell envelope contains mycolic acid \rightarrow resists destaining by acid alcohol, thus termed acid fast bacilli

TRANSMISSION—TB transmission is almost exclusively airborne through inhalation of minute droplet nuclei. Therefore, lungs are the primary focus. However, any organ can become infected during the bacteremia that follows initial lung infection

LATENT TB INFECTION (LTBI)—follows initial infection; asymptomatic; detected by tuberculin skin test (TST) or interferon-gamma release assay (IGRA). Risk of active infection generally is 5% in the first 2 years with 5% risk of reactivation thereafter

FACTORS THAT INCREASE THE RISK OF INFECTION—1/3 of the world's population is infected with TB. Birth in endemic area (less commonly travel) is the major risk factor; other risk factors include Indigenous populations and racial/ ethnic minorities, household/institutional contacts and crowding (healthcare workers, longterm care, correctional facilities, substance abuse, and shelters)

FACTORS INCREASING THE RISK OF REACTIVATION OF LTBI—HIV infection (most important risk factor, always test those with active TB for HIV), fibronodular disease on CXR, chronic renal failure, increasing age, malignancy, transplant/ immunosuppression, silicosis, chronic steroid use, TNF- α inhibitors, alcohol abuse, malnutrition, liver or kidney disease, poorly controlled diabetes, smoking, gastrectomy, jejunoileal bypass

CLINICAL FEATURES

PRIMARY TB

- symptoms—fever, night sweats, pleuritic chest pain, chronic cough, anorexia, weight loss, fatigue, erythema nodosum
- signs—often none. Primary TB usually involves the mediastinal lymph nodes (Ghon complex); hilar lymphadenopathy in the presence of *RML* collapse is the most common radiologic finding (2/3) with pleural effusion in 1/3. Lung infil-

2014 Canadian Tuberculosis Standards, 7th ed.

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

trates may be seen and involve lower lungs or middle lung fields most commonly with possible cavitation in areas of consolidation

REACTIVATION TB (active pulmonary)

- symptoms—subacute progressive cough, yellow-green sputum, hemoptysis (25%), chest pain/dyspnea (33%), fever/night sweats (50%), fatigue (50–66%), weight loss
- signs—reactivation TB usually involves the apical-posterior segments of upper lobes (80–90%), cavitation (19–40%), hilar lymphadenopathy
- ELDERLY WITH REACTIVATION TB—presents with fever, night sweats, or hemoptysis less often. Lesions less often cavitary and less often TST positive

COMPLICATIONS OF PULMONARY TB hemoptysis (rarely massive), pneumothorax (more common in endemic countries), bronchiectasis, and pulmonary destruction (rare)

Related Topic

Tuberculosis in Pregnancy (p. 470)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, albumin, urinalysis
- мисковносоду—blood C&S with mycobacterial culture, sputum Gram stain/AFB/C&S, urine AFB/C&S, HIV serology
- IMAGING—CXR, CT chest

SPECIAL

- TUBERCULIN SKIN TEST—see Diagnostic Issues for details
- INTERFERON GAMMA RELEASE ASSAYS— QuantiFERON®-TB Gold In-Tube (QFT-GIT) assay, and T-SPOT® TB assay
- PCR
- MOLECULAR FINGERPRINTING—tracing outbreaks
- SUSCEPTIBILITY TESTING—1 extra week
- THORACENTESIS—if effusion. Send for fluid AFB and TB culture
- PLEURAL BIOPSY
- CSF—AFB, TB culture

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

TUBERCULIN SKIN TEST (TST)—gold standard for diagnosing latent tuberculosis (epidemiologic tool), but not sensitive or specific to include or exclude active pulmonary TB. Given as 5 units TST-S (purified protein derivative) intradermally, measure extent of induration after 48–72 h. Skin test reaction cutoffs and corresponding population groups when test considered positive (in North America) are as follows:

- 0-4 мм—in general, considered negative; no treatment indicated unless child <5 years of age and high risk of TB infection
- ≥5 мм—HIV positive, recent infectious TB contact within 2 years, CXR signs (fibronodular disease), immunosuppression (TNFα inhibitors, organ transplantation, glucocorticoid treatment equivalent of ≥15 mg/day prednisone ×≥1 month), end stage renal disease
- ≥10 мм—all others, including TST conversion within 2 years, diabetes, malnutrition (<90% ideal body weight), cigarette smoking, daily alcohol consumption >3 drinks/day, silicosis, hematologic malignancies (leukemia/lymphoma) and certain carcinomas (e.g. head and neck, lung)

INTERFERON GAMMA RELEASE ASSAYS in-vitro blood test of cell-mediated immune response from T-cell release of interferon gamma after stimulation by antigens. IGRA does not distinguish latent from active TB infection, should not be used for diagnosis of active TB. Sens >95%; not affected by prior bacillus Calmette-Guerin (BCG) vaccination. Most useful for evaluation of latent TB in those with +TST and previously vaccinated with BCG

SPUTUM SMEAR

- UTILITY—morning sputum×3 days (AFB, TB culture), induced sputum if necessary, bronchoscopic lavage if cannot obtain sputum. Three consecutive AFB-negative sputum samples support that patient is non-infectious and can come off isolation
- LIMITATIONS—smear only detects 50% of culture positive TB, and in non-endemic areas positive smear may represent non-TB mycobacterium
- STAINING AGENTS—standard is Ziehl–Neelsen (acid fast stain); auramine–rhodamine or auramine O fluorescence staining improves sensitivity but must be confirmed with acid fast

SPUTUM CULTURE—2–8 weeks in egg media, 4–14 days if radiometric (sens 80–85%, spc 98–99%)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

POLYMERASE CHAIN REACTION (PCR) more useful in non-endemic countries to rule out other common mycobacteria. High specificity but variable sensitivity (if AFB positive, sens 94–96%, spc 99.7–100%. If AFB positive, sens 9–100%, spc 25–100%)

MANAGEMENT

LATENT TB INFECTION—*rifampin* 10 mg/kg to 600 mg maximum PO daily × 4 months or *isoniazid* 5 mg/kg to 300 mg maximum PO daily × 9 months. A "decision to tuberculin test is a decision to treat" with no age cutoff for treatment and regardless of BCG vaccination status. Exclude active TB with sputum culture and CXR before treatment. HIV, immunosuppressed, and newly infected patients should be priority for treatment of latent TB

PRIMARY OR REACTIVATION TB—in hospital, patients should be isolated in single rooms with negative air pressure. TB therapy should be undertaken in consultation with an expert. Susceptibility testing is necessary to guide treatment. Directly observed treatment (DOT) is the standard of care for all patients. TB therapy consists of an intensive phase of daily therapy followed by a continuation phase of twice- or thrice-weekly therapy. ***RIPE*** *Rifampin* 10 mg/kg or 600 mg PO daily, isoniazid 5 mg/kg or 300 mg PO daily, pyrazinamide 20-25 mg/kg PO daily×8 weeks. Ethambutol 15-20 mg/kg PO daily is added until drug susceptibility results are available. This is followed by isoniazid and rifampin daily, twice weekly, or three times weekly for 16 more weeks

TREATMENT ISSUES

VACCINATION WITH BCG (Bacillus Calmette-Guerin)—decreases miliary and meningeal TB by 75–86% and pulmonary TB by 50% in children. However, BCG leads to false-positive skin test, which may compromise contact tracing and decision to treat latent TB infection. Not routinely performed in areas with low endemic TB risk

DIRECTLY OBSERVED TREATMENT—most effective method to prevent multi-drug-resistant tuberculosis according to the WHO

MEDICATION DETAILS

 RIFAMPIN (RIF)—bactericidal. Side effects include hepatic toxicity (less than INH, but induces hepatic microsomal enzymes →↑ clearance and ↓ effects of many drugs), flu-like symptoms, red-orange urine, sweat, tears

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- ISONIAZID (INH)—bactericidal and inexpensive. Side effects include hepatitis († with increased age and alcohol use), peripheral neuropathy (↓ with *pyridoxine* 10 mg PO daily or 25 mg PO daily if HIV, diabetes, malnourished, renal failure, pregnancy, or breast feeding)
- PYRAZINAMIDE (PZA)—bactericidal at acidic pH in cells. Side effects include GI intolerance, hepatic injury, hyperuricemia due to ↓ renal excretion, arthralgias
- ETHAMBUTOL—mostly bacteriostatic. Main side effect is optic neuritis

DRUG MONITORING

 BASELINE—platelet, Cr, AST, ALP, bilirubin, uric acid (pyrazinamide), visual acuity, and redgreen color discrimination (ethambutol)

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

FOLLOW-UP—symptoms of hepatotoxicity and visual disturbance

TREATMENT OF CO-INFECTION WITH TB AND HIV—similar treatment outcome with or without HIV, but treatment of active TB infection in HIV patients should be extended beyond 6 months if bacteriologic or clinical response is slow or suboptimal. Also beware of TB and HIV drug interactions (protease inhibitors and nonnucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors may cause toxic levels of rifampin, which should be replaced by rifabutin)

Approach to Gram Stain, Culture, and Sensitivity

GRAM-POSITIVE COCCI

CLUSTERS (catalase positive, staphylococci)

- coagulase positive—S. aureus
- COAGULASE NEGATIVE—S. epidermidis, S. saprophyticus, Staphylococcus hominis, Staphylococcus lugdunensis, Staphylococcus schleiferi

PAIRS/CHAINS (catalase negative)

- α-немоlутіс streptococci—S. pneumoniae, viridians group streptococci
- β-HEMOLYTIC STREPTOCOCCI—S. pyogenes (group A strep), S. agalactiae (group B strep), group C, F, G strep
- ENTEROCOCCUS—E. faecalis, E. faecium
- отнекs—Abiotrophia, Granulicatella ("nutrient variant strep"), Leuconostoc, Lactococcus, Aerococcus

ANAEROBIC—Peptostreptococcus, Streptococcus, Peptococcus, Anaerococcus

GRAM-POSITIVE BACILLI

ACID FAST (Mycobacterium)—M. tuberculosis, M. leprae, M. avium-intracellulare complex, or non-tuberculous Mycobacteria (NTM, also known as mycobacteria other than TB [MOTT]). These organisms have Gram-positive-type cell walls, but do not stain Gram-positive due to the waxy mycolic acids in the cell envelope

SPORE FORMING

- AEROBIC—Bacillus anthrax, Bacillus cereus
- ANAEROBIC—Clostridium perfringens, C. difficile, Clostridium botulinum

GRAM-POSITIVE BACILLI (CONT'D)

NON-SPORE FORMING

- AEROBIC, FACULTATIVE, AEROTOLERANT—Corynebacterium/diphtheroids, Lactobacillus, Listeria, Gardnerella, Nocardia
- ANAEROBIC—Actinomyces, Cutibacterium, Eubacterium

 BRANCHING
 BACILLI → ★ ABCD-LMN★

 Actinomyces
 (acid fast negative), Bacillus,

 Clostridium,
 Diphtheroids, Listeria,

 Lactobacillus,
 Mycobacterium (modified and

 Ziehl-Neelsen
 acid fast), Nocardia (modified acid fast)

GRAM-NEGATIVE COCCI

NEISSERIA—N. meningitidis (diplococci), N. gonorrhoeae (diplococci), other Neisseria MORAXELLA—M. catarrhalis

GRAM-NEGATIVE BACILLI

AEROBIC

- GLUCOSE FERMENTING AND LACTOSE FERMENTING a number of Enterobacteriaceae including E. coli, Citrobacter, Enterobacter, Klebsiella, Serratia
- GLUCOSE FERMENTING BUT NON-LACTOSE FERMENTING—Shigella, Salmonella, Hafnia, Morganella, Proteus, Yersinia, Edwardsiella, Vibrio (oxidase positive), Aeromonas (oxidase positive). Pleisiomonas (oxidase positive)
- NON-GLUCOSE AND NON-LACTOSE FERMENTING

GRAM-NEGATIVE BACILLI (CONT'D)

- OXIDASE POSITIVE—Pseudomonas, Ralstonia, Burkholderia, Roseomonas, Sphingomonas
- **OXIDASE NEGATIVE**—Stenotrophomonas, Acinetobacter, Chryseomonas

ANAEROBIC—Bacteroides fragilis, Fusobacterium, Prevotella, Porphyromonas

OTHERS—Eikenella*, Pasteurella (cats), Capnocytophaga (dogs), Kingella*, Actinobacillus*, Cardiobacterium*, Haemophilus* (coccobacilli, pleomorphic), Legionella (BCYE agar), Campylobacter (boomerang)

*HACEK organisms in endocarditis

SPECIFIC ORGANISMS

NON-GRAM-STAINABLE—Chlamydia, Mycoplasma, Ureaplasma, Rickettsia, Treponema, Coxiella, Ehrlichia, Mycobacteria

ANTIBIOTIC SUSCEPTIBILITY AND RESISTANCE

GROUP A STREPTOCOCCAL INFECTIONS resistant to clindamycin

STREPTOCOCCUS PNEUMONIAE—may develop resistance to penicillin by altered penicillin-binding protein

S. AUREUS (MSSA)—may develop resistance to penicillin by β-lactamase

PSEUDOMONAS—various intrinsic mechanisms conferring resistance. Need to treat with dual antibiotic therapy for serious infections if therapy for >2 weeks or if susceptibility not yet available

ANTIBIOTIC SUSCEPTIBILITY AND RESISTANCE (CONT'D)

VRE—vancomycin-resistant enterococci

MRSA—*S. aureus* that is resistant not only to penicillin, but also penicillinase-resistant penicillins (methicillin, nafcillin, oxacillin). In general, hospital MRSA strains have broader resistance (e.g. clindamycin, trimethoprim–sulfamethoxazole, tetracyclines) than communityassociated MRSA strains (CA-MRSA). Risk factors for hospital MRSA infections include frequent hospital visits and contact with MRSA-infected individuals; CA-MRSA is associated with crowding, acute and chronic skin disease, poor hygiene, sharing of contaminated items, contact sports, and IDU

 β-LACTAMASE-RESISTANT
 BACTERIA—

 constitutive (E. coli*, Klebsiella*, Haemophilus, Neisseria, Bacteroides), inducible (S. aureus, Serratiat**, Providenciat, Pseudomonas, Indole-positive Proteust*, Citrobactert*, Enterobactert*, Hafniat**, Acinetobactert*, Morganellat*)

+★SPICE-HAM★ organisms with inducible, chromosomally mediated cephalosporinases (AmpC type β-lactamases) are resistant to penicillins, first and second generation cephalosporins, cephamycins, and β-lactamase inhibitors

*These organisms may have extended spectrum β -lactamase (ESBL) resistant to all β -lactams except carbapenems

ANTIBIOTICS

| Antibiotics | Mechanism | Gram-positive | Gram-negative | Anaerobes | Others | Renal adjustments |
|--|---|---------------------|--------------------------|-----------|----------|-----------------------|
| Penicillins | | | | | | |
| Penicillin G 2–4 M units IV q4–6 h | Bactericidal, cell wall synthesis inhibition and lysis | ++ Strep | Meningococcus | ++ | Syphilis | Yes (dose + interval) |
| Penicillin V 250–500 mg PO TID/QID | | ++ Strep | | ++ | | Yes (dose + interval) |
| Cloxacillin/nafcillin/ oxacillin 1–2 g IV q4–6 h | | ++S. aureus | | | | No |
| Amino-Penicillins | | | | | | |
| Ampicillin 1–2 g IV q4–6 h | Bactericidal, cell wall synthesis inhibition and lysis | +++Strep/ Entero | +/-H. flu, +/-E. coli | | Listeria | Yes (interval) |

ANTIBIOTICS (CONT'D)

| Antibiotics | Machanicm | Gram nacitiva | Gram nagativa | Anaerahas | Others | Renal |
|--|---|---------------------|-----------------------------|-----------|--------|-----------------------|
| Antibiotics | wechanism | Gram-positive | Gram-negative | Anaeropes | Others | adjustments |
| Amoxiciliin 250–1,000 mg PO TID | | +++Strep/ Entero | +/—H. fiu, +/—E. coli | | | res (Interval) |
| Amox/clavulanate 875/125 mg PO BID | | +++Strep/ Entero | ++H. flu, <i>E. coli</i> | +++ | | Yes (interval) |
| Anti-pseudomonal | Penicillins | | | | | |
| Piperacillin 3–4 g IV q4–6 h | Bactericidal, cell wall synthesis inhibition and lysis | ++ | ++Pseudo | ++ | | Yes (dose + interval) |
| Piperacillin/ Tazobactam 3.375 g q6h–4.5 g IV q8h | | ++Staph | ++Pseudo/H. flu | +++ | | Yes (dose + interval) |
| Ticarcillin 3–4 g IV q4–6 h | | ++ | ++Pseudo | ++ | | Yes (dose + interval) |
| Ticarcillin/ clavulanate 3.1 g IV q4–6 h | | ++ | ++Pseudo | +++ | | Yes (dose + interval) |
| Monobactam and | Carbapenems | | | | | |
| Aztreonam 1–2 g IV q6–8 h | Bactericidal, cell wall synthesis inhibition and lysis | | +++Pseudo | +++ | | Yes (dose) |
| lmipenem 500 mg IV q6h | | +++ | ++Pseudo | +++ | | Yes (dose + interval) |
| Meropenem 1 g IV q8h | | ++ | +++Pseudo | +++ | | Yes (dose + interval) |
| Ertapenem 1 g IV q24h | | ++ | ++(no Pseudo) | +++ | | Yes (dose) |
| Doripenem 500 mg IV q8h | | ++ | +++ | +++ | | Yes (dose + interval) |
| First-Generation Co | phalosporins | | | | | |
| Cefazolin 1–2 g IV q8h | Bactericidal, cell wall synthesis inhibition and lysis | +++ | + | | | Yes (interval) |
| Cephalexin 250–1000 mg PO QID | | +++ | + | | | Yes (interval) |
| Second-Generation | Cephalosporins | | | | | |
| Cefuroxime 750–1500 mg IV q8h | Bactericidal, cell wall synthesis inhibition and lysis | ++ | ++ | | | Yes (interval) |
| Cefuroxime 125–500 mg PO BID | | ++ | ++ | | | Yes (interval) |
| Cefprozil 250–500 mg PO q12h | | ++ | ++ | | | Yes (interval) |
| Cefaclor 250–500 mg PO BID | | ++ | ++ | | | Yes (interval) |

| ANTIBIOTICS (C | ONT'D) | | | | | |
|---|---|-----------------|----------------|-------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Antibiotics | Mechanism | Gram-positive | Gram-negative | Anaerobes | Others | Renal adjustments |
| Third/Fourth Gene | ration Cephalospori | ns . | 2 | | | |
| Cefoxitin 1–2 g IV q6–8 h | Bactericidal, cell wall synthesis inhibition and lysis | +++ | +++ | ++ | | Yes (interval) |
| Cefotaxime 1–2 g IV q6–8 h | | +++ | +++ | | | Yes (interval) |
| Ceftriaxone 1–2 g IV q24h | | +++ | +++ | | | No |
| Ceftazidime 1 g IV q8–12 h | | +++ | +++Pseudo | | | Yes (interval) |
| Cefepime 1–2 g IV q12h | | + | +++Pseudo | | | Yes (interval) |
| Cefixime 400 mg PO daily | | + | ++ | | | Yes (interval) |
| Ceftaroline 600 mg IV q8–12 h | | +++MRSA | +++ | | | Yes (interval) |
| Aminoglycosides | | | | | | |
| Gentamicin 5–7 mg/ kg IV q24h | Bactericidal, binds to 30S and 50S ribosomes | Entero (syn) | +Pseudo | | | Yes (dose + interval) |
| Tobramycin 5–7 mg/ kg IV q24h | | +/-Entero (syn) | ++Pseudo | | | Yes (dose + interval) |
| Amikacin 7.5 mg/kg q12h | | +/-Entero (syn) | ++Pseudo | | | Yes (dose + interval) |
| Streptomycin 15 mg/ kg IM or IV q24h | | Entero (syn) | ++Pseudo | AFB, Plague | | Yes (dose + interval) |
| Fluoroquinolones | | | | | | |
| Ciprofloxacin 500 mg PO/400 mg IV BID | Bactericidal, inhibit DNA synthesis through inhibition of DNA gyrase and topoisomerase | | +++Pseudo | | AFB | Yes (interval) |
| Norfloxacin 400 mg PO BID | | | +++ | | | Yes (dose \pm interval) |
| Ofloxacin 200–400 mg PO BID | | | ++ | | AFB | Yes (dose \pm interval) |
| Levofloxacin 500–750 mg PO/IV daily | | ++ | +++ | | AFB | Yes (dose \pm interval) |
| Moxifloxacin 400 mg PO/IV daily | | ++ | +++ | ++ | AFB | Yes (dose \pm interval) |
| Gemifloxacin 320 mg PO daily | | ++ | +++ | | AFB | Yes (dose \pm interval) |
| Macrolides | | | | | | |
| Azithromycin 250 mg PO daily | Bacteriostatic, binds to 50S ribosomes | + | +H. flu/Legion | | ++Mycoplasma and Chlamydia | No |
| Clarithromycin 250– 500 mg PO BID | | + | +H. flu/Legion | | for all macrolides | Yes (dose) |

| ANTIBIOTICS (CONT'D) |
|----------------------|

| Antibiotics | Mechanism | Gram-positive | Gram-negative | Anaerobes | Others | Renal adjustments |
|---|--|-------------------------------------|--|------------|------------|----------------------|
| Erythromycin | | + | +Legion | | | No |
| q6–12 h | | | | | | |
| Tetracyclines | | | | | | |
| Doxycycline 100 mg PO/IV q12h | Bacteriostatic, binds to 30S ribosomes | | + | | +Chlamydia | No |
| Minocycline 50–100 mg PO daily-BID | | + | + | | +Chlamydia | No |
| Tetracycline 500 mg PO QID | | | + | | +Chlamydia | Avoid |
| Tigecycline 100 mg IV, then 50 mg q12h | | +++MRSA, VRE | ++Acinetobacter | | +Chlamydia | No |
| Sulfa | | | | | | |
| Sulfamethoxazole/ Trimethoprim 1–2 | Bactericidal, blocks DNA synthesis | + | ++Steno, +PJP | | | Yes (interval) |
| SS/DS tab PO BID (also available IV) | | | | | | |
| Clindamycin | | | | | | |
| Clindamycin 150–450 mg PO QID or 300–600 mg IV q6–12 h | Bacteriostatic, binds to tRNA complex | ++ | | +++ | | No |
| Metronidazole | | | | | | |
| Metronidazole 500 mg PO/IV q12h | Bactericidal, DNA breakage | | H. pylori, Gardnerella vaginalis | +++C. diff | ++protozoa | No |
| Glycopeptides | | | | | | |
| Vancomycin 15 mg/ kg IV q12h | Bactericidal, interferes with peptidoglycan and RNA synthesis | +++ | | | | |
| | | S. epidermidis, MRSA, Entero | | ++C. diff | | Yes (interval) |
| Oxazolidinones | | | | | | |
| Linezolid 600 mg PO/ IV q12h | Bactericidal (Strep) and bacteriostatic (Staph, Entero), binds to 50S ribosomes | ++MRSA, VRE | | + | ++AFB | No |
| Streptogramins | | | | | | |
| Quinupristin/ Dalfopristin 7.5 mg/kg IV q8h via central line | Inhibits late + early protein synthesis | ++MRSA, VRE (not E. faecalis) | | + | | No |

ANTIBIOTICS (CONT'D)

| Antibiotics Lipopeptides | Mechanism | Gram-positive Gram-negative | Anaerobes Others | Renal adjustments |
|--|---|-----------------------------|------------------|----------------------|
| Daptomycin 4–6 mg/kg q24h Abbreviations: SS sing | Bactericidal, disrupts cell membrane le strength, DS double s | ++MRSA, VRE | + | Yes (interval) |

VANCOMYCIN TOXICITY AND DOSING

TOXICITY—rash, infusion-related red man syndrome, rarely nephrotoxicity (especially when combined with aminoglycoside), and ototoxicity. However, serum vancomycin levels do not predict toxicity

LOADING DOSE—15-20 mg/kg (usually 1-1.5 g) IV

MAINTENANCE DOSE—30 mg/kg (actual body weight) per day divided into 2–4 doses (maximum usually 1.5 g/dose). New recommendations to use area under curve (AUC)/minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) for drug monitoring with target AUC 400-600 mg*hour/L when treating serious MRSA infections but this is not available in all laboratories

- START—monitoring after steady state, i.e. usually after third dose, or after second dose if dosing interval >48 h. Monitor only if treatment duration >14 days in patients with stable renal function and mild/moderate infection, or treatment duration >4 days in patients with unstable renal function or severe infection
- TROUGH LEVELS—obtained 30–60 min before next scheduled dose. Should be at least 6.9–10.4 μmol/L [10–15 μg/mL]; adjust to 10.4–13.8 μmol/L [15–20 μg/mL] for serious infections (endocarditis, osteomyelitis)
- PEAK LEVELS—does not correlate for efficacy or toxicity and therefore should not be monitored
- ADJUSTMENTS—dosing interval is dependent on renal function (CrCl >100 mL/min, q12h; 80–100 mL/min, q18h; 60–80 mL/min, q24h; 40–60 mL/min, q36h; 25–40 mL/min q48h; <25 mL/min, single dose then measure serum concentration and give PRN). Changes in dose without changes in interval will result in proportional changes in both peak and trough serum drug concentrations. Prolongation of dosing interval will also reduce both, particularly trough level

2020 ASHSP/IDSA/PIDS/SIDP Revised Guideline Vancomycin MRSA Infections

PENICILLIN ALLERGY

HISTORY—characterize reaction (age when reaction occurred, timing of reaction after penicillin administration, type of reaction, route of administration, reason for penicillin, any other medications at the time, resolution), any similar antibiotics since

CROSS-REACTIVITY—incidence of crossreactivity to cephalosporins when patient has penicillin allergy by history is <2%. It is often safe to use these medications, with the first dose monitored. If safety unclear, skin testing provides reassurance. For patients with a history of penicillin allergy, those with positive and negative skin test have 5.6% and 1.7% chance of developing cross-reactivity with cephalosporin, respectively

TYPES OF ALLERGIC REACTIONS

★ACID★ Antibody-mediated (IgE), Cytotoxic (antibody-dependent), Immune-complexmediated, Delayed hypersensitivity reaction

- TYPE I—immediate <1 h, drug-specific IgE mediated, anaphylaxis, hypotension, laryngeal edema, wheezing, angioedema, urticaria
- TYPE II—>72 h, IgG and complement mediated, increased clearance of RBC and platelets by lymphoreticular system
- TYPE III—>72 h, IgG and IgM immune complexes mediated, serum sickness, tissue injury
- TYPE IV—>72 h, contact dermatitis
- OTHERS—>72 h, maculopapular or morbilliform rashes

APPROACH—detailed history of a patient's reaction to penicillin is most helpful tool for excluding true penicillin allergy. Patients with a concerning history of type I penicillin allergy and have a compelling need for penicillin-containing drug should undergo skin testing. Negative skin test result decreases the likelihood of a life-threatening reaction

Approach to Empiric Antibiotics

GENERAL APPROACH

CHOICE OF EMPIRIC ANTIBIOTIC—based on the most likely and deadly organisms for each type of infection. Thus, a good understanding of the pathophysiology of each infection and the local resistance pattern of various organisms is essential

CULTURE AND SUSCEPTIBILITY—should always be performed to facilitate targeted antibiotic treatment except for mild infections. However, the specific organism may not be identified even if multiple cultures are taken. In this case, the clinician must rely on clinical judgment and continue treatment with empiric antibiotic(s)

SPECIFIC INFECTIONS AND EMPIRIC ANTIBIOTIC CHOICES

SEPSIS—appropriate choice depends on the suspected source. For pulmonary source, azithromycin plus ceftriaxone or respiratory fluoroquinolone. For hospital acquired pneumonia, anti-pseudomonal agent such as piperacillin-tazobactam or ceftriaxone. For urinary source, ceftriaxone, carbapenem, fluoroquinolone or aminoglycoside. For intraabdominal source, piperacillin–tazobactam or a carbapenem. Duration of treatment is at least 7–14 days with rationalization of antibiotics when susceptibility results available. See p. 118 for details

MENINGITIS (S. pneumoniae, N. meningitidis, Listeria, HSV)—ceftriaxone/cefotaxime + vancomycin + dexamethasone±ampicillin (depending on age and risk factors). Add acyclovir if CSF suggests viral picture or presence of confusion to suggest encephalitis. Duration of treatment is 7–21 days. See p. 257 for details

COMMUNITY-ACQUIRED PNEUMONIA (S. pneumoniae, Klebsiella, Mycoplasma) macrolides, ceftriaxone or respiratory fluoroquinolones. Duration of treatment is usually 7 days. See p. 9 for details

ASPIRATION PNEUMONIA (anaerobes, Staph, GNB)—ceftriaxone or levofloxacin plus metronidazole. Duration of treatment is usually 7 days. See p. 9 for details

ICU/VENTILATOR-ASSOCIATED PNEUMO-NIA (GNB, Pseudomonas)—piperacillin-tazobactam or carbapenem. Duration of treatment is usually 7 days. See p. 107 for details

SPECIFIC INFECTIONS AND EMPIRIC ANTIBIOTIC CHOICES (CONT'D)

ENDOCARDITIS (S. aureus, S. viridans, Enterococcus) Duration of treatment is highly variable. See AHA guidelines and p. 65 for details

- NATIVE VALVE DISEASE—vancomycin plus ceftriaxone or gentamicin
- PROSTHETIC VALVE DISEASE—vancomycin plus gentamicin plus rifampin

Hoen et al. *NEJM* 2013;368(15) Wang et al. *JAMA* 2018;320(1)

ACUTE BLOODY DIARRHEA (*Salmonella*, *Shigella*, *Campylobacter*)—may or may not require treatment with ciprofloxacin. Duration of treatment is 3 days. See p. 137 for details

ANTIBIOTIC-ASSOCIATED DIARRHEA (C. difficile)—oral vancomycin. Duration of treatment is 10–14 days. See p. 138 for details

PERITONITIS/INTRA-ABDOMINAL SEPSIS (coliforms, anaerobes)—piperacillin tazobactam, carbapenem, or ceftriaxone plus metronidazole. Treat until WBC/peritonitis resolved

FEVER IN SPLENECTOMIZED PATIENT (*H. influenza, N. meningitidis, S. pneumoniae, Capnocytophaga canimorsus*) cefotaxime/ceftriaxone. Duration of treatment is usually 10–14 days. See p. 165 for further information

URINARY TRACT INFECTION (E. coli, Klebsiella, Enterococcus, Proteus, S. saprophyticus)—nitrofurantoin, trimethoprim–sulfamethoxazole, fosfomycin. Duration of treatment is 3 days if uncomplicated UTI, otherwise 10–14 days. See p. 259 for details

CELLULITIS (Staphylococcus, Streptococcus) cefazolin, cloxacillin, or cephalexin. Vancomycin, doxycycline or TMP/SMX if MRSA suspected. Duration of treatment is usually 7–10 days. See p. 263 for details

HUMAN BITE (Gram-positive, Eikenella, anaerobes)—amoxicillin–clavulanate, or clindamycin plus ciprofloxacin

DIABETIC FOOT (polymicrobial)—amoxicillin-clavulanate or piperacillin-tazobactam (depending on severity). Consider surgical consult if necrotic tissue or abscess. See p. 265 for details

NECROTIZING FASCIITIS—surgical treatment is mandatory. For type I infection piperacillin–tazobactam + vancomycin or ceftriaxone + metronidazole + vancomycin. For *Streptococcus*, penicillin G plus clindamycin. See p. 264 for details

SPECIFIC INFECTIONS AND EMPIRIC ANTIBIOTIC CHOICES (CONT'D)

OSTEOMYELITIS (Gram-positive, Gramnegative, anaerobes)—for Gram-positive coverage, cefazolin or vancomycin. For Gramnegative coverage, ceftriaxone. Important to get a microbiologic diagnosis to guide definitive therapy (consider bone biopsy if blood or tissue cultures non diagnostic). Duration of

Hepatitis B

SPECIFIC INFECTIONS AND EMPIRIC ANTIBIOTIC CHOICES (CONT'D)

therapy usually at least 6 weeks. See p. 264 for details

SEPTIC ARTHRITIS—vancomycin + cefazolin for empiric coverage as generally caused by Grampositive bacteria. Important to get a microbiologic diagnosis to guide definitive therapy. Usual duration 4 weeks. See p. 293 for details

See HEPATITIS B (p. 147)

Hepatitis C

Herpes Simplex Virus Infection

Human Immunodeficiency Virus

RISK FACTORS FOR HIV INFECTION

SEXUAL CONTACT

PARENTERAL—IDU, transfusion or unsafe needle use in healthcare settings in the developing world, health workers

MATERNAL-FETAL—in-utero, delivery, breast feeding

ACUTE HIV INFECTION

STRAINS—HIV1 globally; HIV2 mainly in West Africa

SYMPTOMS—acute febrile "mononucleosis-like" illness, lymphadenopathy, pharyngitis, rash and headache within 1–6 weeks post-exposure. Hematologic (lymphopenia, thrombocytopenia) and liver enzyme abnormalities

DIAGNOSIS—ELISA assay (sens ~100%, spc <100%) \rightarrow if positive, repeat ELISA \rightarrow if positive, Western blot for confirmation \rightarrow if indeterminate, repeat Western blot. If during window period

HIV/AIDS Treatment Guidelines/ Clinical Info Ghosn et al. *Lancet* 2018;392(10148)

See HERPES SIMPLEX VIRUS (p. 405)

ACUTE HIV INFECTION (CONT'D)

within 2 weeks postexposure, consider viral load testing

BASIC WORKUP FOR THE NEWLY DIAGNOSED

- HIV status—viral load, CD4 count, genotypic antiretroviral drug resistance testing
- BASELINE—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, TSH, glucose, fasting lipid profile, lipase, CK, HLA B*5701 (for abacavir hypersensitivity), βhCG, CXR, ECG, urinalysis
- CO-EXISTING/OPPORTUNISTIC INFECTIONS—HAV serology, HBV testing (HBsAg, HBsAb, HBcAb. If HBsAg or HBcAb positive, check HBV DNA as well), HCV testing (anti-HCV). If anti-HCV positive, check HCV RNA and FibroScan® to assess liver fibrosis. Pap smear, anal screening for HPV in MSM, chlamydia and gonorrhea screen, syphilis testing, TST or IGRA, Toxoplasma serology, CMV serology

NATURAL HISTORY OF HIV

VIRAL LOAD—rate of progression (speed of train). Indicates activity of viral replication. Critical measure of effect of antiretroviral therapy, once started

CD4 COUNT—progress and stage of disease (distance to crash). Indicates relative health of immune system and risk of opportunistic complications

FOLLOW-UP—viral load and CD4 count (usually 3–6 month intervals once viral load is suppressed) AIDS—CD4 <200/mm³ or any AIDS-defining diseases

- BACTERIAL—MAC, TB, recurrent Salmonella sepsis
- VIRAL—CMV retinitis, chronic HSV, PML
- FUNGAL—esophageal candidiasis, extrapulmonary coccidioidomycosis, histoplasmosis or cryptococcosis
- PARASITIC—Pneumocystis jirovecii pneumonia (PJP), toxoplasmosis, chronic cryptosporidiosis or isosporiasis
- HIV—HIV encephalopathy, wasting syndrome
- NEOPLASMS—Kaposi sarcoma, CNS lymphoma, non-Hodgkin lymphoma, cervical carcinoma

MAJOR CAUSES OF DEATH IN HIV PATIENTS—varies by geographic location and CD4 count. Includes: AIDS (30%), liver disease (14%), accidents and overdose (15–20%) cardiovascular disease (9%), non-AIDS cancers (8%)

CD4 COUNT AND PATHOLOGIES IN HIV

| PATIENTS | | | | |
|--------------|------|------|------|------|
| CD4 count | | 200- | 100- | |
| (/mm³) | >500 | 500 | 200 | <100 |
| Kaposi | + | + | + | + |
| sarcoma | | | | |
| Bacterial | + | + | + | + |
| ТВ | + | + | + | + |
| HSV | + | + | + | + |
| Candida | | + | + | + |
| Coccidioides | | + | + | + |
| Histoplasma | | + | + | + |
| PJP | | | + | + |
| Cryptococcus | | | | + |
| Toxoplasma | | | | + |
| CMV | | | | + |
| MAC | | | | + |
| CNS | | | | + |
| lymphoma | | | | |

CNS LESIONS IN HIV PATIENTS

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

- BRAIN ABSCESS—toxoplasma (CD4 <100/mm³, usually multiple ring-enhancing lesions), tuberculosis (any CD4), Cryptococcus (CD4 <100/mm³), Histoplasma (CD4 <500/ mm³), aspergillosis
- сns lymphoma (CD4 <100/mm³)
- PROGRESSIVE MULTI-FOCAL LEUKOENCEPHALOPATHY (PML, CD4 <100/mm³)—reactivation of JC virus, hypodense white matter lesion (nonenhancing on MRI)

DIAGNOSIS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, blood C&S, toxoplasma IgG antibodies, EBV PCR, JC virus PCR, CT/MR head, PET scan (CNS lymphoma has higher activity than abscess), brain biopsy (if suspect CNS lymphoma). The combination of (1) multiple ring enhancing lesions, (2) positive antitoxoplasmosis antibodies, and (3) lack of toxoplasma prophylaxis in a HIV patient with CD4 count <100/mm³ has 90% PPV for diagnosing toxoplasma

TREATMENT OF TOXOPLASMOSIS pyrimethamine plus either sulfadiazine or clindamycin

CHRONIC MENINGITIS IN HIV PATIENTS

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

- скуртососсия (CD4 <100/mm³)—ubiquitous fungus. High opening pressure (>200 cmH₂O)
- BACTERIAL MENINGITIS (any CD4)—N. meningitis, S. pneumoniae, Listeria, Gram-negative bacilli
- VIRAL MENINGITIS (any CD4)—HSV encephalitis

DIAGNOSIS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, blood C&S, serum cryptococcal antigen (sens 95% for *Cryptococcus*), CT head, lumbar puncture (for *Cryptococcus* and cryptoantigen)

TREATMENT OF CRYPTOCOCCUS—induction with *amphotericin B* 0.7 mg/kg IV daily plus *flucytosine* 25 mg/kg PO QID, switch to *fluconazole* 400 mg PO daily × 2 months for consolidation, followed by *fluconazole* 200 mg PO daily as maintenance. Management of increased intracranial pressure may be needed (neuroimaging to rule out concomitant space-occupying lesions, repeated LP to decrease ICP)

RESPIRATORY INFECTIONS IN HIV PATIENTS

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

- COMMUNITY-ACQUIRED PNEUMONIA (any CD4) most common cause is S. pneumoniae. Others include Moraxella, H. influenzae
- TUBERCULOSIS (any CD4)—170 × increased risk in HIV patients. May be extrapulmonary

RESPIRATORY INFECTIONS IN HIV PATIENTS (CONT'D)

- NON-TB MYCOBACTERIUM—MAC (CD4 <100/mm³, pulmonary involvement alone is rare, usually disseminated)
- FUNGAL (CD4 <500/mm³)—Histoplasma, Coccidioides, Cryptococcus
- *pneumocystis jiroveci* pneumonia (PJP, CD4 <200/mm³)

DIAGNOSIS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, LDH (\uparrow in PJP but non-specific), blood C&S and mycobacterial culture, sputum C&S and AFB, ABG (for PaO₂ and A-a gradient), urine C&S, CXR, bronchoscopy (lavage, biopsy)

TREATMENT OF PJP—*trimethoprim*sulfamethoxazole 15 mg of TMP/kg PO/IV divided q8h daily ≥ 21 days. If severe disease (PaO₂ ≤ 70 mmHg or A-a gradient ≥ 35 mmHg on room air), add *prednisone* 40 mg PO BID ≥ 5 days, then 40 mg PO daily ≥ 5 days, then 20 mg PO daily ≥ 11 days. Alternatives to trimethoprim–sulfamethoxazole include dapsone plus trimethoprim, or clindamycin plus primaquine, pentamidine IV. Use atovaquone in patients with G6PD deficiency

ESOPHAGITIS IN HIV PATIENTS

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

- INFECTIONS
 - candida (CD4 <500/mm³)-50-70%
 - **HSV** (any CD4)—5–10%
 - CMV (CD4 <100/mm³)—5–15%
- NON-INFECTIOUS—GERD, pill esophagitis, neoplasms
- IDIOPATHIC (any CD4)—10–30%

DIAGNOSIS—empiric therapy (fluconazole), endoscopy with cultures for fungus, virus, and biopsy for histopathology

HEPATITIS/CHOLANGITIS/PANCREATITIS IN HIV PATIENTS

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

- INFECTIONS
 - **TB** (any CD4)
 - MYCOBACTERIUM AVIUM COMPLEX (MAC, CD4 <100/mm³)—M. avium, M. intracellulare
 - viruses—HBV, HCV, CMV
 - PARASITES—Cryptosporidium, Microsporidium, Cyclospora
- ALCOHOL
- DRUGS—antiretrovirals, antibiotics (sulfa, isoniazid, rifampin, ketoconazole, fluconazole)

HEPATITIS/CHOLANGITIS/PANCREATITIS IN HIV PATIENTS (CONT'D)

DIAGNOSIS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, lipase, INR, cultures and serologies, US abd, CT abd, ERCP

COLITIS/DIARRHEA IN HIV PATIENTS

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

- INFECTIONS
 - BACTERIAL—Salmonella, Shigella, Campylobacter, Yersinia, EHEC, EIEC, C. difficile
 - тв (any CD4)
 - мусовастелим аvиим сомрыех (МАС, CD4 <100/mm³)—М. avium, М. intracellulare
 - CMV (CD4 < 100/mm³)
 - PARASITIC *MAGIC*—Microsporidium, EntAmoeba, Giardia, Isospora, Cryptosporidium
- MEDICATIONS—antiretrovirals, antibiotics
- AIDS ENTEROPATHY—diagnosis of exclusion

DIAGNOSIS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, stool C&S, stool O&P with acid fast staining, stool MAC, *C. diff* toxin, fecal WBC, *Cryptosporidium*, microsporidium

TREATMENT OF MAC—clarithromycin 500 mg PO BID or azithromycin 600 mg PO daily, plus ethambutol 15 mg/kg PO daily, plus rifabutin 600 mg PO daily for at least 12 months and at least 6 months of immune reconstitution (CD4 > 100–200/mm³)

AIDS-ASSOCIATED MALIGNANCIES

AIDS-DEFINING MALIGNANCIES

- KAPOSI SARCOMA (any CD4)—strongly associated with HHV8. Lesions may involve skin, oral mucosa, lungs, and Gl tract. Treat with liposomal doxorubicin. Lesions may also resolve with antiretroviral treatment
- NON-HODGKIN LYMPHOMA (CD4 <100/mm³)—diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, primary effusion lymphoma (associated with HHV8 and EBV), and plasmablastic lymphomas. Treat with combination chemotherapy (CHOPR)
- PRIMARY CNS LYMPHOMA (CD4 <100/mm³) strongly associated with EBV. Treat with radiation and/or high-dose methotrexate or intrathecal chemotherapy
- CERVICAL CARCINOMA (any CD4)—strongly associated with HPV. Treat with surgery, radiation, and/or chemotherapy (cisplatin)

AIDS-ASSOCIATED MALIGNANCIES (CONT'D)

NON-AIDS-DEFINING MALIGNANCIES increased incidence of Hodgkin lymphoma, multiple myeloma, anogenital cancer, testicular cancer (seminoma), and basal cell carcinoma in HIV patients. Lung cancer, colorectal cancer, melanoma, squamous cell carcinoma of skin, and head and neck cancer may also be increased

EDUCATION, PROPHYLAXIS, AND IMMUNIZATION FOR HIV PATIENTS

EDUCATION AND COUNSELING—patient MUST be told to reveal HIV status to sexual partners (reportable disease). Advise regarding condom use and safe sex practices. Risk reduction strategies should be explored for substance abuse (e.g. avoid sharing needles or other drug paraphernalia), tobacco use, and other social issues. HIV is a chronic disease that can be **successfully treated**

PJP PROPHYLAXIS-for patients with CD4 < 200/mm³. Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole SS 1 tab PO daily, or trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole DS 1 tab PO dailv, or trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole DS 1 tab PO three times a week. If allergic, desensitize or use dapsone or inhaled pentamidine

TOXOPLASMOSIS PROPHYLAXIS—for patients with positive *Toxoplasma* serology and CD4 <100/mm³. *Trimethoprim—sulfamethoxazole* DS 1 tab PO daily. If allergic, dapsone plus pyrimethamine plus folinic acid are alternatives

MAC PROPHYLAXIS—for patients with CD4 <50/mm³. *Azithromycin* 1200 mg PO once weekly

HISTOPLASMOSIS PROPHYLAXIS—for patients with CD4 <150/mm³ and living in endemic area. *Itraconazole* 200 mg PO daily

TB PROPHYLAXIS—for patients with positive TST reaction (induration \geq 5 mm) and not treated for TB previously. *Isoniazid* 5 mg/kg/day PO to max 300 mg/day, or 900 mg thrice weekly×9 months. *Rifampin* 600 mg PO daily×4 months restricted to exposures to INH-resistant, RIFsusceptible isolates. Should be followed by a TB specialist

VACCINATIONS

 GIVE—Prevnar followed by pneumococcal polysaccharide vaccine at least 8 weeks later. Pneumococcal vaccine should be repeated every 5 years up to 3 doses. Hepatitis B vaccine (if non-immune), hepatitis A vaccine (if non-

EDUCATION, PROPHYLAXIS AND IMMUNIZATION FOR HIV PATIENTS (CONT'D)

immune and especially if homosexual), influenza vaccine annually are all recommended

 GENERALLY AVOID—live vaccines (oral polio, varicella, measles-mumps-rubella, or yellow fever immunizations) if CD4 count is <200/mm³

Related Topics

Hepatitis B (p. 147) Hepatitis C (p. 148) HIV in Pregnancy (p. 470) Needle Stick Injury (p. 290) Tuberculosis (p. 267)

ANTIRETROVIRAL THERAPY FOR HIV PATIENTS

NUCLEOSIDE AND NUCLEOTIDE REVERSE TRANSCRIPTASE INHIBITORS (NRTI)—zidovudine (ZDV, AZT), stavudine (d4T), didanosine (ddl), lamivudine (3TC), abacavir (ABC), tenofovir (TDF), and emtricitabine (FTC). Major side effects include hepatic steatosis, lactic acidosis, neuropathy, anemia, pancreatitis, and renal disease

NON-NUCLEOSIDE REVERSE TRANSCRIP-TASE INHIBITORS (NNRTI)—efavirenz (EFV), nevirapine (NVP), etravirine (ETR) and rilpivarine (RPV). Major side effects include rash, Stevens– Johnson syndrome, hepatitis, and CNS complications

PROTEASE INHIBITORS (PI)—saquinavir (SQV), indinavir (IDV), nelfinavir (NFV), lopinavirritonavir (LPV/RTV), fosamprenavir (FPV), atazanavir (ATV), tipranavir (TPV), and darunavir (DRV). Major side effects include hyperglycemia, fat redistribution syndrome, insulin resistance, and Gl intolerance

INTEGRASE INHIBITORS—raltegravir, dolutegravir, elvitegravir

FUSION INHIBITOR (FI)—enfuvirtide (T-20) CCR5 ANTAGONIST—maraviroc

EXAMPLES OF PREFERRED HIGHLY ACTIVE ANTIRETROVIRAL THERAPY (HAART) REGIMENS (Clinicalinfo.HIV.gov)

- BICTEGRAVIR/TENOFOVIR ALAFENAMIDE/EMTRICITABINE
- DOLUTEGRAVIR/ABACAVIR/LAMIVUDINE—only for individuals who are HLA-B*5701 negative and without chronic HBV coinfection

ANTIRETROVIRAL THERAPY FOR HIV PATIENTS (CONT'D)

- DOLUTEGRAVIR OR RALTEGRAVIR—plus (emtricitabine or lamivudine) plus (tenofovir alafenamide or tenofovir disoproxil fumarate)
- DOLUTEGRAVIR/LAMIVUDINE—except for individuals with HIV RNA >500,000 copies/mL, HBV coinfection, or in whom ART is to be started before the results of HIV genotypic resistance testing for reverse transcriptase or HBV testing are available

THERAPEUTIC DECISIONS IN HIV

GOALS OF HIV THERAPY—durable suppression of HIV viral load to undetectable levels, reduction in HIV related morbidity, improvement in quality of life, prolongation of survival, restoration of immune function, and prevention of HIV transmission

APPROACH—start treatment in all patients regardless of CD4 count. Even those with CD4 count >500 are likely to benefit from ART

RESPONSE—successful if viral load \downarrow by 2 logs after 8 weeks and \downarrow to <50 copies/mL after 6 months of therapy. Need to continue therapy or may develop viral load rebound or drug resistance. If failure, consider non-adherence and/or resistance. Resistance testing should be performed, and the regimen should be changed based on resistance profile

2016 IAS-USA Recommendations Antiretroviral Drugs HIV Infection

IMMUNE RECONSTITUTION INFLAMMATORY SYNDROME (IRIS) IN HIV PATIENTS

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—delayed (1 week to several months) inflammatory response as the immune system is restored by antiretrovirals, leading to acute, paradoxical deterioration of preexisting infections (TB, MAC, PJP, histoplasma, HCV, HBV). Clinical features highly variable. IRIS is a diagnosis of exclusion after considering drug reactions, non-adherence, new onset or progression of opportunistic infection. May occur in up to 25% of patients with opportunistic infections started on HAART (e.g. lymphadenopathy after starting antiretrovirals in patients with

IMMUNE RECONSTITUTION INFLAMMATORY SYNDROME (IRIS) IN HIV PATIENTS (CONT'D)

disseminated MAC or worsening CXR and fever in patients with TB)

TREATMENTS—supportive, continue antiretrovirals, corticosteroids

VIRAL HEPATITIS IN HIV CO-INFECTED PATIENTS

HEPATITIS B

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—HIV/HBV co-infection rate is up to 20–30% in Asia/sub-Saharan Africa where transmission is mostly vertical or between young children and 5–10% in the USA and Europe where transmission is mostly via IDU and sexual contact. Co-infection associated with progression to end-stage liver disease
- DIAGNOSIS—for patients with isolated HBcAb, 10–45% have occult HBV infection with detectable levels of HBV DNA
- **PREVENTION**—hepatitis B vaccination of family and sexual partners
- TREATMENTS—long-term combination therapy with a nucleoside analogue and nucleotide analogue (e.g. tenofovir plus either emtricitabine or lamivudine) is recommended in coinfected patients. US and AFP recommended every 6 months for hepatocellular carcinoma screening

HEPATITIS C

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—HIV/HCV co-infection rate up to 70–95% for patients with IDU and hemophilia and 1–12% for MSM. Coinfection results in more aggressive HCV, with more rapid progression to liver failure and hepatocellular carcinoma
- DIAGNOSIS—HCV AB and RNA. FibroScan[®] or APRI can be done to determine degree of fibrosis and need for monitoring for HCC
- PREVENTION—risk reduction and safer needle use
- TREATMENTS—all coinfected patients should be offered treatment for hepatitis C infection as treatment is now well tolerated and accessible, high likelihood of achieving sustained virologic response (see p. 148)

Influenza

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

VIRAL—influenza A/B, parainfluenza, RSV, metapneumovirus, adenovirus, enterorhinovirus, coronavirus (seasonal and pandemic)

BACTERIAL PNEUMONIA—S. pneumoniae, S. aureus, Haemophilus, Moraxella

ATYPICAL—Mycoplasma, Chlamydia, Legionella, TB, community-acquired MRSA

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION—influenza A, B. Influenza A classified into subtypes based on the combination of two surface glycoproteins: neuraminidase (1 of 9 subtypes) and hemagglutinin (1 of 16 subtypes), e.g. H1N1, H1N2, and H3N2. Influenza A subtypes and influenza B further classified into various strains that arise due to antigenic drift

HOSTS—influenza B viruses mainly affect humans. Influenza A can infect both humans and animals, including wild birds, poultry, pigs, dogs, and horses. Some influenza A strains are highly pathogenic and can cause severe disease in specific hosts, while others are associated with low pathogenicity

ANTIGENIC DRIFT—a gradual change in viral RNA sequence that occurs in both influenza A and B. This process is due to random point mutations in the genes encoding neuraminidase or hemagglutinin, creating strains of virus with new surface glycoproteins. Thus, antibodies against previous strains are ineffective. Can result in seasonal epidemics

ANTIGENIC SHIFT—an abrupt and significant emergence of novel viral strains. Only happens with influenza A. Antigenic shift occurs through mixing of human influenza A and animal (e.g. pig, bird) influenza A virus genes to create a new influenza A subtype through genetic reassortment (e.g. swine flu, avian flu). Rarely, avian strains of influenza may directly infect humans. Antigenic shift generates new virus and triggers pandemics as the majority of the population has no immunity against this new virus

PANDEMIC (worldwide outbreak)—based on the following criteria: (1) emergence of a new subtype of influenza A virus, (2) this virus is able to infect humans, (3) this virus can spread easily from person to person in a sustained manner

Glezen NEJM 2008;359(24)

| PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D) | | |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------|
| DISTINGUIS | HING FEATURES | BETWEEN |
| INFLUENZA A, B, | | |
| | Influenza A | Influenza B |
| Hosts | Humans, Birds, Mammals | Humans only |
| Antigenic shift | Yes, creating new subtypes | No |
| Antigenic drift | Yes, creating new strains | Yes |
| Epidemics | Yes | Yes |
| Pandemics | Yes | No |

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—acute onset of systemic symptoms, such as fever, headache, myalgia, arthralgia, fatigue, and respiratory symptoms such as cough, dyspnea, and sore throat. Clinical findings of influenza-like illness (ILI) cannot be used to confirm/exclude diagnosis; use epidemiologic data and treat empirically or obtain rapid influenza test to assist with management decisions

COMPLICATIONS—respiratory (bacterial pneumonia), muscular (rhabdomyolysis, myositis), neurologic (encephalitis, aseptic meningitis, transverse myelitis, Guillain–Barré syndrome)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, urinalysis
- MICROBIOLOGY—nasopharyngeal swab for rapid assays (variable sensitivity/specificity), RT-PCR (preferred), or DFA (direct fluorescent antigen detection). Blood C&S, sputum Gram stain/AFB/C&S, urine C&S
- IMAGING—CXR

SPECIAL

LUMBAR PUNCTURE—if neurologic symptoms

• ABG

MANAGEMENT

PREVENTION IS KEY—annual vaccination is recommended for all individuals. Highly recommended for those at risk for severe disease: ≥50 years, children 6–24 months or taking long-term
MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

salicylates, any chronic medical condition, pregnant women, healthcare workers, household contacts of those at risk, and residents of chronic care facilities. Depending on the match between vaccine and circulating virus, the efficacy can range from 70% to 90% for a good match and 20% to 50% for poor matches

TREATMENT—neuraminidase inhibitors (oseltamivir 75 mg PO BID×5 days, or zanamivir 10 mg inhaled BID×5 days) are active against influenza A and B. Antiviral treatment is most effective when started within 48 h of symptom onset. Treatment decreases symptom duration by one day, reduces viral shedding, may reduce complications in those at risk. Inhaled zanamivir relatively contraindicated in patients with asthma or chronic respiratory conditions. Household contacts of infected patients should be vaccinated. may be given prophylaxis (oseltamivir 75 mg PO daily). Resistance to oseltamivir occurs in some strains of influenza A and amantadine or rimantidine may have a role. Treatment of secondary bacterial pneumonia with antibiotics

TREATMENT ISSUES

NEURAMINIDASE INHIBITORS—neuraminidase plays an important role for viral release from the host cell. Oral oseltamivir and inhaled zanamivir are active against both influenza A and influenza B

ADAMANTANES—block replication of influenza A RNA through inhibition of M2 protein ion channels. Amantadine and rimantadine are inactive against influenza B and resistance is now widespread in influenza A

VACCINE PRODUCTION—every February/ March, WHO makes recommendations regarding the four strains (2 A and 1 or 2 B) of influenza viruses that are most likely to cause outbreaks in the fall/winter in the upcoming season. Vaccines are then produced based on this decision. There are both trivalent (active against 2 strains of influenza A and 1 strain of influenza B) and quadrivalent vaccines (2 strains of influenza A and 2 strains of influenza B) available

Antiviral Agents

| Antiviral agents Acyclovir 200–800 mg PO BID 5 × /day; 5–10 mg/kg IV q8h | Mechanism Nucleoside analogues— activated by viral thymidine kinase, inhibit viral DNA polymerase (vDNAp); also incorporated into viral DNA and act as a chain terminator | HSV, VZV ++ | СМV | Influenza A Influenza B |
|---|---|----------------|-----|-------------------------|
| Valacyclovir 500–1000 mg PO daily–TID | | ++ | | |
| Famciclovir 250–1000 mg PO BID | | ++ | | |
| Penciclovir 10 mg/g topically q2h × 4 days | Applied topically for treatment of oral cold sores | ++ | | |
| Ganciclovir 5 mg/kg IV q12h or 1000 mg PO TID (maintenance) | Nucleoside analogue that inhibits viral DNA polymerase | ++ | ++ | |
| Valganciclovir 900 mg PO daily–BID | | ++ | +++ | |

| Antiviral agents | Mechanism | HSV, VZV | CMV | Influenza A | Influenza B |
|-----------------------------------|---|----------|-----|-------------|-------------|
| Foscarnet 90 mg/kg IV q12–24 h | Pyrophosphate analogue that inhibits viral DNA polymerase | ++ | +++ | | |
| Cidofovir 5 mg/kg IV q week | Nucleoside analogue that inhibits viral DNA polymerase | ++ | +++ | | |
| Amantadine 100 mg PO BID | Inhibits M2 Protein (ion channel) of influenza A, blocking uncoating of virus genome within newly infected cells | | | ++ | |
| Rimantadine 100 mg PO BID | | | | ++ | |
| Zanamivir 10 mg INH q12–24 h | Neuraminidase Inhibitors. Block release of influenza virus from infected cells | | | ++ | ++ |
| Oseltamivir 75 mg PO daily–BID | | | | ++ | ++ |

Coronavirus

This section addresses the ongoing coronavirus 19 (COVID-19) pandemic, caused by the SARS-CoV-2 virus. Data regarding the presentation, treatment, and prevention of COVID-19 is rapidly changing and the editors recommend consulting the most recent local guidance for management decisions

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

VIRAL PNEUMONIA—influenza A/B, parainfluenza, RSV, metapneumovirus, other coronaviruses, adenovirus, rhinovirus

BACTERIAL PNEUMONIA—S. pneumoniae, S. aureus, Haemophilus, Moraxella

ATYPICAL PNEUMONIA—Mycoplasma pneumoniae, Chlamydia pneumoniae, TB, Legionella, non-TB mycobacteria

OTHER INFECTIOUS—pertussis, upper respiratory infections, ARDS from non-pulmonary source NON-INFECTIOUS—heart failure decompensation, asthma, COPD exacerbation, PE, cryptogenic organizing pneumonia, aspiration pneumonitis, hypersensitivity pneumonitis, drug reaction, GERD, cocaine-induced lung injury, vasculitis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION—SARS-CoV-2 virus is an enveloped, RNA virus in the *Coronaviridae* family, similar to MERS-CoV (Middle Eastern Respiratory

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

Syndrome, 2012) and SARS-CoV (Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome, 2002)

TRANSMISSION—transmitted through respiratory droplets by individuals speaking, coughing, or sneezing. Also transmitted through fomites and aerosols. Initial zoonotic vector was the bat with possible intermediate transmission through the pangolin. First isolated from China's Wuhan province, where both zoonotic and human-tohuman spread likely occurred. Vertical transmission from mother to infant is very uncommon

PATHOGENESIS—virus spike protein binds to the ACE2 receptor on nasal and bronchial epithelial cells to gain cellular entry. Type 2 alveolar epithelial cells are enriched in ACE2 receptors, hence the predominance of lower respiratory symptoms. Direct lymphocyte infection and destruction as well as activation of the innate immune response with proinflammatory factors suppressing lymphopoiesis cause lymphopenia. In severe infection, the pulmonary epithelial-endothelial barrier is compromised, causing neutrophilic invasion of the alveoli, then pulmonary edema with decreased diffusing capacity. Coagulopathy and fulminant DIC may also occur

INCUBATION AND INFECTIVITY—may incubate for up to 14 days. Median time to symptoms

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

is 4–5 days. Viral shedding may occur 2–3 days prior to symptoms but has been reported as early as 12 days prior to symptoms. Median time from initial symptoms to critical illness is 10 days. True asymptomatic infection is uncommon; 97.5% of those with a positive test result will become symptomatic

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—fever, cough, and fatigue are the most common symptoms. Other symptoms include headache, myalgias, pharyngitis, rhinorrhea, dyspnea, hemoptysis, nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, anosmia (high specificity), ageusia, altered mental status PHYSICAL—maculopapular viral exanthem, conjunctivitis, urticaria, vasculitic lesions including livedo reticularis, purpura, and chilblains ("COVID toes")

RISK FACTORS FOR SEVERE DISEASE—cardiac disease including CAD and HF, CKD, COPD, frailty, obesity, malignancy, sickle cell disease, solid-organ transplant recipients on immunosuppression, type 2 diabetes mellitus. Possible risk factors: moderate-to-severe asthma, CVD, cystic fibrosis, HIV, HTN, other immunosuppression, liver disease, pregnancy, IPF, thalassemia, tobacco use

COMPLICATIONS—bacterial co-infection (7%), viral co-infection (3%), acute kidney injury (5%), neurologic (CVA), hematologic (VTE, DIC), arrhythmia, myocarditis

PROGNOSIS—80% mild infection; 15% may need hospitalization and 5% critical care

- PREDICTION TOOLS—COVID-GRAM (CXR, age, dyspnea, unconsciousness, hemoptysis, comorbidities, cancer history, LDH, bilirubin, neutrophil-lymphocyte ratio); CALL score (comorbidities, age, lymphocyte count, LDH)
- MORTALITY AND RECOVERY—mortality increases with age (<0.1% if <18 years, 30% if >85 years). Recovery 2 weeks with mild illness but longer if severe disease
- REINFECTION—possible with emergence of multiple strains of SARS-CoV-2

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC (neutrophil/lymphocyte ratio, lymphopenia, thrombocytopenia), lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, CRP, bilirubin, LDH, troponin
- MICROBIOLOGY—nasopharyngeal, nasal, or oropharyngeal swab for NAAT, blood C&S, sputum NAAT/Gram stain/C&S/AFB, urine culture
- IMAGING—CXR

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

SPECIAL

- ABG
- coagulopathy—D-dimer, INR/PTT, fibrinogen
- IMAGING—CT chest, lung US
- BAL/ETT ASPIRATE—or other lower respiratory tract specimens for NAAT
- LUMBAR PUNCTURE
- covid-19 seroLogy—consider testing immunocompromised and unvaccinated patients who may be candidates for Regen-COV (seronegative patients more likely to benefit)

MANAGEMENT

PREVENTION

- PUBLIC HEALTH MEASURES—masking, eye protection and handwashing reduce transmission in healthcare facilities, long-term care, and community settings. Physical distancing and mass gathering restrictions slow community transmission in the community. Contact tracing, testing and isolation measures important for suspected and confirmed cases, masking to limit pre-symptomatic transmission
- IMMUNIZATION—multiple types of vaccines in development including inactivated whole virus vaccines, protein-based vaccines (fragment of protein/protein shell to generate immune response), viral vector vaccines (virus genetically engineered to produce coronavirus proteins to generate immune response but cannot cause disease), and RNA/DNA vaccines (e.g. using messenger RNA, which is translated into target spike protein that elicits immune response). Four vaccines have been Health Canada approved for use (BNT162b2 [mRNA vaccine by Pfizer], mRNA1273 [mRNA vaccine by Moderna], ChAdOx1-S [adenovirus vector vaccine by Astra Zeneca] and Ad26.CoV2-S [adenovirus vector vaccine by J&J/Janssen])

TREATMENT SETTING

- INFECTION CONTROL PRECAUTIONS—contact and droplet isolation for all patients with suspected or confirmed COVID-19 infection. N95 is recommended for care of patients undergoing aerosolgenerating medical procedures (AGMP). Cohort patients within specific units/facilities when possible, minimize inter-facility transfer
- DISCONTINUING INFECTION CONTROL—precautions may be discontinued when patients have been afebrile for >24 hours, had symptom onset >14 days prior, and respiratory symptoms improving. Repeat testing to remove precautions not indicated as PCR-based testing positive for many weeks but does not represent infectivity

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

- PPE REQUIREMENTS—surgical face mask, eye protection, disposable gloves, and gown required for contact and droplet precautions along with appropriate hand hygiene. N95 or equivalent respirator required for airborne precautions
- AEROSOL GENERATING MEDICAL PROCEDURES intubation, bronchoscopy, NIPPV, bag-valvemask ventilation. High-flow/humidified oxygen via nasal cannula, CPR, airway suctioning, sputum induction, nebulized medications may generate aerosols

TREATMENTS

- OXYGENATION—titrate supplemental oxygen to maintain SpO₂ 92–96%. High-flow nasal cannula is preferred over NIPPV. Early involvement of ICU services if decompensation occurs. Follow ARDS management for critically ill, ventilated patients including prone positioning, conservative fluids, and low tidal volume
- ANTIMICROBIALS—empiric treatment for bacterial pneumonia and influenza as per local guidance and seasonal patterns only if clinical suspicion for a pulmonary infection other than COVID-19 remains after clinical assessment
- CORTICOSTEROIDS—dexamethasone 6 mg PO/IV daily for 10 days or until discharge from hospital for patients requiring supplemental oxygen. Reduces mortality

ANTIVIRAL THERAPIES

- REMDESIVIR—causes premature termination of RNA transcription. *Remdesivir* 200 mg IV on day one, then 100 mg IV daily on days 2–10 for patients on mechanical ventilation or ECMO, or days 2–5 for patients on supplemental oxygen alone (may be extended to 10 days if no improvement or ended on day of discharge if < 5 days). May shorten time to clinical improvement. Limited by availability
- MOLNUPIRAVIR (LAGEVRIO)—inhibits viral genome replication. Molnupiravir 800 mg PO every 12 hours for 5 days for patients with mild-moderate symptoms for < 5 days and at high risk for progression to severe COVID-19 (hospitalization or death). Reduced composite death/hospitalization outcome in interim analysis of MOVe-OUT
- NIRMATRELVIR WITH RITONAVIR (PAXLOVID)—viral protease inhibitor with CYP inhibitor. Nirmatrelvir 300 mg with ritonavir 100 mg PO twice daily for 5 days for patients with mild-moderate symptoms for < 5 days and at high risk for progression to severe COVID-19 (hospitalization or death). Reduced compos-

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

ite death/hospitalization outcome in interim analysis of EPIC-HR

- ADJUNCTIVE THERAPY—for patients with severe disease and high oxygen requirements or ventilation on dexamethasone and remdesivir, consider adding *baricitinib* (selective Janus kinase 1 and 2 inhibitor) 4 mg PO daily x 14 days or *tocilizumab* (monoclonal antibody against IL-6) 8 mg/kg IV x 1 dose
- NEUTRALIZING ANTIBODIES—monoclonal antibodies targeting the COVID-19 spike protein. For patients with mild-moderate symptoms at high risk for progression to severe COVID-19 (hospitalization or death) and/or those who either have significant immunosuppression preventing adequate serologic response to vaccination or who are unvaccinated and have a negative COVID-19 serologic test, consider one of the following: casirivimab-imdevimab (REGEN-COV) 1.2–1.2 g or 0.6–0.6 g IV x 1 dose; or sotrovimab (Xevudy) 500 mg IV x 1 dose. Each COVID-19 variant has a different susceptibility to neutralizing antibodies. Check the latest susceptibility reporting for efficacy against variants of interest

OTHER TREATMENT ISSUES

- ANTICOAGULATION—thromboprophylaxis with LMWH or sequential compression devices for inpatients. Consider therapeutic-dose LMWH for non-ICU inpatients with low risk of bleeding for the duration of hospitalization (increased survival to hospital discharge without need for organ support)
- PALLIATIVE CARE—assess patient frailty on admission. Distinguish between resource rationing and appropriateness of a therapy when explaining treatment decisions to patients. Consider appropriate pharmacotherapy for symptom control and goals of care discussions (see p. 431)
- THERAPEUTIC MYTHS
 - HYDROXYCHLOROQUINE/CHLOROQUINE—no evidence of benefit for treatment or prophylaxis, with or without azithromycin. Risk of cardiac arrhythmia
 - IVERMECTIN—for treatment of parasitic worms, head lice and rosacea. No evidence of benefit for treatment or prevention of COVID-19. High doses of ivermectin may lead to hypotension, ataxia, seizures and death
 - RAAS BLOCKERS (ACE INHIBITOR OR ARB)—no evidence of harm. Do not stop if patients appropriately on these medications
 - NSAIDs—no evidence of specific harm in COVID-19 patients

Fungal Infections

GENERAL APPROACH

CLASSIFICATION—fungal infections can be classified into 3 main categories: yeasts, molds ("filamentous fungi"), and dimorphic fungi

- YEASTS—grow as single cells (via budding) and include Candida, Malassezia, Rodotorula, Trichosporon
- MOLDS—filamentous fungi grow as hyphae (via sexual and asexual reproduction) and include Aspergillus, Mucormycetes (formerly Zygomycetes), Fusarium, and dematiaceous (pigmented) fungi. Ubiquitous in the environment (e.g. soil, decaying vegetation, water, air). Infection may cause blood vessel invasion, thrombosis, and obstruction. Clinical syndromes include cerebral parenchymal infections, pulmonary parenchymal infections, hepatosplenic abscesses, and otitis externa
- DIMORPHIC FUNGI—exist as both molds and yeasts and include Coccidioides, Histoplasma, Blastomyces, and Cryptococcus. At low temperatures, found as multicellular molds (which release spores that are inhaled). In warm temperatures (e.g. inside the body), inhaled spores germinate into yeasts, which are infectious to the patient, but no longer contagious (i.e. these patients do not require isolation)

CANDIDIASIS

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—C. albicans ("germ-tube positive" with pseudohyphae) or non-albicans species ("germ-tube negative," e.g. Candida glabrata, Candida tropicalis, Candida parapsilosis, Candida krusei, Candida auris), mostly in patients with hematological malignancy, neutropenia, immunosuppressed, IDU, or those in the ICU with hemodialysis, broad-spectrum antibiotics, surgery, central venous catheters, or parenteral nutrition

CLINICAL FEATURES—localized mucocutaneous infections (thrush and vaginitis), serious focal infections (endophthalmitis, meningitis, osteomyelitis), or disseminated infection (candidemia) with pustular skin lesions, retinal lesions. Candiduria is common in ICU patients, but usually represents colonization unless patient is symptomatic

TREATMENTS

- OROPHARYNGEAL—nystatin suspension (500,000 U) or nystatin pastilles (200,000 U) 4 × daily, fluconazole 100 mg PO/IV daily×1–2 weeks
- ESOPHAGITIS—fluconazole 400 mg loading dose, then 200 mg PO/IV daily × 14 days
- CANDIDURIA—remove catheter, indications for treatment include kidney transplant recipients,

CANDIDIASIS (CONT'D)

prior to cystoscopy or invasive GU procedure, neonates, severe illness, *fluconazole* 200 mg PO/IV daily × 2 weeks

- ACUTE DISSEMINATED CANDIDEMIA—remove all intravascular devices. Fluconazole 800 mg IV loading dose, then 400 mg PO/IV daily×2 weeks (minimum), or one of the echinocandins, including caspofungin 70 mg then 50 mg IV daily, micafungin 100 mg IV daily, or anidulafungin 200 mg loading, then 100 mg IV daily × 2 weeks (minimum) after last positive culture for C. albicans. Echinocandin is preferred for initial therapy in neutropenic patients. Almost all (>95%) C. albicans are sensitive to fluconazole. Some laboratories report C. albicans as "C. albicans complex" because of structural resemblance between C. albicans and Candida dubliniensis. This is of no clinical significance because albicans and dubliniensis have the same susceptibility patterns. Susceptibility patterns for other non-albicans infections may significantly differ. Consider echinocandin for non-albicans candidiasis
- CANDIDA AURIS—an emerging hospital acquired pathogen that can cause candidemia, otitis and disseminated disease. Often resistant to fluconazole and requires treatment with an echinocandin
 - 2016 IDSA Update Guideline Candidiasis

ASPERGILLOSIS

MICROBIOLOGY—genus contains >185 species including Aspergillus fumigatus (80% of clinical infections), Aspergillus flavus, Aspergillus niger, and Aspergillus terreus

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—mostly in patients with neutropenia, organ or stem cell transplants, advanced AIDS, corticosteroids. Invasive aspergillosis has mortality of >50%

CLINICAL FEATURES—spectrum of pulmonary involvement includes colonization, pulmonary aspergilloma ("fungal ball"), allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis (ABPA), chronic necrotizing aspergillus pneumonia (CNPA), and invasive aspergillosis. Second most common cause of fungal endocarditis (after *Candida*). Cutaneous involvement may follow trauma or dissemination from respiratory tract

DIAGNOSIS—often difficult and may require biopsy with culture and histology. Check quantitative immunoglobulin, aspergillus IgG and IgE, galactomannan levels (suggestive of invasive aspergillosis). CT chest may show multiple nodular

ASPERGILLOSIS (CONT'D)

lesions (halo sign = nodule with surrounding hemorrhage, air crescent sign = necrosis and cavitation). Sputum fungal culture and eosinophils, bronchoalveolar lavage, or lung biopsy. The galactomannan assay is relatively specific for invasive aspergillosis, and, in the right clinical context, provides adequate evidence of invasive pulmonary disease. This assay can be done on serum or BAL specimens

TREATMENTS—voriconazole 6 mg/kg q12h × 24 h then 4 mg/kg IV q12h or 200 mg PO BID until resolved, Alternatives include *caspofun*gin 70 mg then 50 mg IV q24h, lipid-formulation amphotericin B 3–5 mg/kg IV daily, micafungin 100–150 mg IV daily, posaconazole 200 mg PO QID then 400 mg BID after clinical stabilization. Some species, especially A. terreus, are resistant to amphotericin. Aspergillus is the only filamentous fungus that can be treated with echinocandins

2016 IDSA Update Guideline Aspergillosis

MUCORMYCOSIS (FORMERLY CALLED ZYGOMYCOSIS)

MICROBIOLOGY—large group of filamentous fungi including *Rhizopus, Absidia, Rhizomucor, Mucor,* and *Cunninghamella*

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—mostly affecting immunocompromised patients and those with diabetes. Prognosis extremely poor

CLINICAL FEATURES—CNS, pulmonary, GI, and cutaneous involvement. Infection can cause devastating rhino-orbital-cerebral and pulmonary infections

TREATMENTS—antifungal therapy frequently needs to be combined with surgical debridement. Empiric treatment options include lipid formulations of *amphotericin B* and *posaconazole*. Note that susceptibility testing of *Mucormycetes* (formerly *Zygomycetes*) is not always reliable, and that *caspofungin* and "azoles" (apart from posaconazole) are not generally effective

HISTOPLASMOSIS

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—H. capsulatum endemic along St. Lawrence seaway and in Midwestern states located along the Ohio and Mississippi River valleys. Symptoms typically occur in patients who are immunocompromised or exposed to a large inoculum

CLINICAL FEATURES—usually asymptomatic. Pulmonary manifestations may mimic sarcoidosis and include pneumonia (localized or diffuse), granuloma/cavitary lung lesions, and hilar and mediastinal lymphadenopathy. Pericarditis, arthritis, arthralgia and erythema nodosum may also occur without pulmonary symptoms. Disseminated disease may

HISTOPLASMOSIS (CONT'D)

present with hepatosplenomegaly, pancytopenia, oropharyngeal ulcers, skin, and CNS involvement **DIAGNOSIS**—fungal culture of blood and tissue, urine antigen, *Histoplasma* serology, and histopathology. *Histoplasma* is predominantly an intracellular pathogen; therefore cultures need to be placed in "isolator tube" (containing cell lysis product)

TREATMENTS—*itraconazole* 200 mg PO TID × 3 days, then 200 mg PO daily–BID, lipid formulation of *amphotericin B* (preferred for ill patients)

2007 IDSA Update Guidelines Histoplasmosis

CRYPTOCOCCOSIS

MICROBIOLOGY—dimorphic but unlike other dimorphic fungi (e.g. *Histoplasma*, *Blastomyces*, and *Coccidioides*), *Cryptococcus* is ubiquitous and not geographically isolated. *Cryptococcus neoformans* has two varieties: var. *neoformans* and var. *gattii*

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

- C. NEOFORMANS—almost invariably in immunocompromised patients including HIV with CD4 <100/mm³, transplantation, hematologic malignancies, chronic kidney diseases, diabetes mellitus, cirrhosis, or corticosteroid use. This pathogen is inhaled, then disseminates with predilection for CNS with meningitis more common than focal parenchymal infections
- C. GATTII—seen more commonly in immunocompetent hosts and paradoxically uncommon in immunosuppressed hosts. Symptomatic infection is usually pulmonary±focal parenchymal brain infection

CLINICAL FEATURES—CNS (chronic meningitis), pulmonary, and cutaneous involvement (but may involve any organ)

TREATMENTS—**CNS infection** (lumbar puncture to lower intracranial pressure, *amphotericin B* plus *flucytosine*, followed by *fluconazole*), **pulmonary or cutaneous infection** (*fluconazole* or *itraconazole*)

2010 IDSA Update Guidelines Cryptococcal Disease

COCCIDIOIDOMYCOSIS

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—endemic to lower deserts of southern Arizona, central California, southwestern New Mexico, and west Texas in USA. Also Mexico, Central and South America. Peak incidence from May–July and October–December. Affects mostly patients with immunosuppression CLINICAL FEATURES—an acute pulmonary infection that is often asymptomatic, but can cause a flu-like illness or pneumonia. Pulmonary

COCCIDIOIDOMYCOSIS (CONT'D)

symptoms include chest pain, cough, fever, and hemoptysis if cavitary lesions. Radiologically, unilateral infiltrate and hilar adenopathy are common. Cutaneous symptoms include erythema nodosum and erythema multiforme. Most common sites of dissemination are skin, bone, and meninges

DIAGNOSIS—fungal culture and serology. Note that *Cocciodioides* is a level 3 pathogen. Therefore, cultures should be processed in **highlevel isolation unit** and labeled carefully to avoid iatrogenic infection of laboratory personnel **TREATMENTS**—usually resolves spontaneously if uncomplicated disease. Antifungal therapy may need to be combined with surgery for certain pulmonary infections. *Fluconazole* 400 mg PO daily, *itraconazole* 200 mg PO daily (duration dependent on site of infection and may last months to years). *Coccidioides* meningitis should be treated with amphotericin B

2016 IDSA Guideline Coccidioidomycosis

BLASTOMYCES

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—mostly found in northwest Ontario, the Great Lakes, and some Eastern states (e.g. Ohio, Mississippi River valley). Infection occurs by inhalation of aerosolized spores from soil CLINICAL FEATURES—asymptomatic infection is common. Pulmonary symptoms of acute or chronic pneumonia (incubation time 45–100 days). Extrapulmonary dissemination to skin, bone/joint, GU tract, usually associated with pulmonary disease

DIAGNOSIS—fungal culture. Presence of "broad-based budding yeast" in clinical specimens strongly suggests *Blastomyces*

TREATMENTS—amphotericin B or lipid formulation for moderate-to-severe disease or CNS involvement. Itraconazole for mild disease or stepdown but has poor blood–brain barrier penetration; alternatives are voriconazole or fluconazole

2008 IDSA Update Guideline Blastomycosis

INDICATIONS FOR VORICONAZOLE

INVASIVE ASPERGILLOSIS—first line treatment for invasive and CNS

INVASIVE CANDIDIASIS—second or third line treatment for patients who are refractory or intolerant of fluconazole (first line for some)

FUNGEMIA—empiric treatment for fungi not yet speciated where neither amphotericin B nor fluconazole can be used

FEBRILE NEUTROPENIA—empiric antifungal treatment for patients with suspected aspergillus infection

INDICATIONS FOR CASPOFUNGIN/MICAFUNGIN

INVASIVE ASPERGILLOSIS—third line treatment for patients who are refractory or intolerant of voriconazole (first line) or amphotericin B (second line)

INVASIVE CANDIDIASIS—second line treatment for patients who are refractory or intolerant of fluconazole (first line for some)

FUNGEMIA—empiric treatment for fungi not yet speciated where neither amphotericin B nor fluconazole can be used

FEBRILE NEUTROPENIA—empiric antifungal treatment

TREATMENT DEFINITIONS

REFRACTORY—persistence of positive cultures or lack of clinical response despite \geq 5 days of therapy and removal of catheter if applicable

INTOLERANCE—serum creatinine doubling from baseline **and** \geq 450 µmol/L [\geq 5.1 mg/dL], tripling of serum creatinine from baseline, creatinine clearance \leq 40 mL/min or concomitant administration of nephrotoxins, documented allergy, or intolerable infusion reactions

Antifungal Agents

| | Mechanism | Candida | Cryptococcus | Aspergillus | Other molds ^a | Dimorphic ^b | Mucoromycota | Renal adjustments |
|---|---|----------|--------------|-------------|-----------------------------|------------------------|--------------|----------------------|
| Azoles | | | | | | | | |
| Fluconazole ^d 100–400 mg PO/ IV daily | Inhibits CP450 (convert lanosterol to | ++C. alb | +++ | | | + | | Yes (dose) |
| Itraconazole ^e 100–200 mg PO daily–BID | ergosterol on cell membrane) | +++ | | ++ | ++ | ++ | | No |
| Voriconazole ^f 4 mg/ kg IV q12h or 200 mg PO BID | | +++ | | +++ | ++Fusa/ Scedo | ++ | | No but avoid IV form |

Antifungal Agents (Cont'd)

| | Mechanism | Candida | Cryptococcus | Aspergillus | Other molds ^a | Dimorphic ^b | Mucoromycota | Renal adjustments |
|--|--|---------|--------------|-------------|-----------------------------|------------------------|--------------|----------------------|
| Posaconazole 200 mg PO QID | | +++ | +++ | +++ | +++Fusa | ++ | +++ | No |
| Amphotericin B ⁹ | | | | | | | | |
| Amphotericin B 0.3–1 mg/kg IV q24h | Binds to ergosterol on cell wall, | +++ | +++ | ++ | + | +++ | +++ | Yes (interval) |
| Liposomal AmphoB 3–5 mg/kg IV q24h | causing cell leakage | +++ | +++ | ++ | + | +++ | +++ | Yes (interval) |
| AmphoB colloidal dispersion | | +++ | +++ | ++ | + | +++ | +++ | Yes (interval) |
| AmphoB lipid complex 5 mg/kg IV q24h | | +++ | +++ | ++ | + | +++ | +++ | Yes (interval) |
| Echinocandin ^h | | | | | | | | |
| Caspofungin 70 mg then 50 mg IV q24h | Inhibits synthesis of β-1,3-d- glucan on cell wall | +++ | | +++ | +Scedo | +/- | | No |
| Micafungin 150 mg IV q24h | | +++ | | +++ | | | | No |
| Anidulafungin 200 mg then 100 mg IV q24h | | +++ | | +++ | | | | No |
| 5-Flucytosine 5 Flucytosine | Inhibits synthesis of DNA (thymidylate synthetase) | +++ | +++ | | | | ++ | Yes (dose) |

other than Aspergillus, Fusarium, Scedosporium, and Pseudallescheria boydii are all examples of molds

^bdimorphic fungi include Histoplasma capsulatum, Coccidioides immitis, Blastomyces dermatitidis, Paracoccidioides brasiliensis, and Sporothrix schenckii

Mucoromycota fungi include Rhizopus, Mucor, and Absidia

^dfluconazole is ineffective against some Candida, molds, and Mucormycetes (formerly Zygomycetes)

Straconazole is ineffective against some Candida, Scedosporium, and Mucormycetes (formerly Zygomycetes). It has activity against Cryptococcus, but has less CSF penetration than fluconazole

voriconazole is ineffective against some Candida, Scedosporium, and Mucormycetes (formerly Zygomycetes). It has activity against Cryptococcus, but has less CSF penetration than fluconazole

*amphotericin B is ineffective against molds (Fusarium, Scedosporium, Trichosporum, Aspergillus terreus), C. guilliermondii and C. lusitaniae *caspofungin is ineffective against Mucormycetes (formerly Zygomycetes), Cryptococcus, and Fusarium but probably has activity against other molds

Infection Control

NOSOCOMIAL INFECTIONS

DEFINITION—infections acquired in hospital that occur between 48 and 72 h after admission and up to 72 h after discharge (up to 30 days for surgical procedures)

URINARY TRACT INFECTIONS—secondary to urinary catheters. Infection rates are 1–5%, up to 100% for long-term catheterization. Complications include cystitis, prostatitis, pyelonephritis, and urosepsis

VENTILATOR-ASSOCIATED PNEUMONIAS secondary to mechanical ventilation (after >48 h, p. 107)

NOSOCOMIAL INFECTIONS (CONT'D)

BACTEREMIA—secondary to peripheral central venous catheters. Infection rates are 1–5%

SURGICAL SITE INFECTIONS

PREVENTION STRATEGIES—hand washing critical! Education, isolation, and surveillance are important. Practice routine/standard/universal precautions with the use of gloves when handling all body fluids except sweat. Always use sterile technique when inserting urinary and central venous catheters. Minimize NG tube insertion and keep patient head of bed 30–45° if intubated. Ensure receipt of prophylactic antibiotics prior to surgical procedures.

NOSOCOMIAL INFECTIONS (CONT'D)

ISOLATION

- AIRBORNE (negative pressure room with highefficiency particulate aerator filter, fit tested N95 respirator for personal protection)—varicella, TB, measles
- DROPLET (mask within 3–6 ft; eye protection, gown and gloves)—H. influenza B, N. meningitidis, invasive group A strep (for first 24 hours of appropriate antibiotics) influenza, coronavirus, RSV, pertussis, parainfluenza, adenovirus, human metapneumovirus and other respiratory viruses
- contact (glove, gown, wash hands)—C. difficile, VRE, MRSA, carbapenem-resistant organism (CRO), ESBL

N. MENINGITIDIS PROPHYLAXIS

- CHEMOPROPHYLAXIS—for exposures in last 7 days with *ciprofloxacin* 500 mg PO×1 dose or *rifampin* 600 mg PO BID×2 days can be used to reduce the risk of *N. meningitidis* in "close contacts." Vaccines not recommended for primary prophylaxis post-exposure, but may be useful for epidemic control on a population basis
- CLOSE CONTACTS—defined as healthcare workers with direct exposure to respiratory secretions (e.g. mouth-to-mouth resuscitation or intubation), household members, intimate contacts, children in school environments, coworkers in the same office, young adults in dormitories, and recruits in training centers. Not recommended for most medical personnel (i.e. those without direct exposure to patient's oral secretions) or for casual or indirect contacts (e.g. school or workmates)

NEEDLE STICK INJURY

PREVENTION—routine/standard/universal precautions (gloves, gowns, masks if risk of exposure of body fluids), never recap needles, education

NEEDLE STICK INJURY (CONT'D)

PRE-EXPOSURE PROPHYLAXIS—immunization (hepatitis B vaccine at 0, 1, 6 months)

RISK OF TRANSMISSION—depends on the mechanism of exposure, source patient characteristics, pre and post-exposure prophylaxis

- HBV-6-30% if source positive
- HCV—1.8% if source positive
- HIV—0.3% if source positive
- POST-EXPOSURE PROCEDURE
- SOURCE PATIENT TESTING—HBV, HCV, HIV
- EXPOSED PERSON BASELINE TESTING—HBV, HCV, HIV (ELISA, Western), CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bili
- HBV PROPHYLAXIS—HB Ig (only if source patient is HBsAg positive or unknown and the exposed person is unvaccinated) and start vaccination for HBV
- HIV PROPHYLAXIS—antiretroviral therapy for 30 days (if source patient HIV positive or source patient unknown and high risk). Therapy should include dolutegravir and tenofovir/emtricitabine. If source patient ARV resistance testing known, post-exposure procedure can be tailored accordingly. Treatment started within 4 h
- COUNSELING—protective sexual intercourse, hold blood donation and breastfeeding, side effects of prophylactic medication(s), followup in 2 weeks

PROPHYLAXIS FOR OTHER INFECTIOUS AGENTS—diphtheria (penicillin or erythromycin), pertussis (trimethoprim—sulfamethoxazole, erythromycin), rabies (rabies immune globulin, vaccine), varicella zoster (varicellazoster immune globulin, vaccine), hepatitis A (immune globulin, vaccine)

PRE-EXPOSURE PROPHYLAXIS—PrEP for prevention of HIV infection indicated in those at high risk for infection. Treatment generally consists of tenofovir/emtricitabine given daily with quarterly follow up for HIV Ab, and other STI testing

Immunization for Adults

Canadian Immunization Guide: Vaccination of Specific Populations

NOTE—Vaccination schedule varies by jurisdiction. Please consult local guidelines for recommendations.

| Immunization | n for Adults | (Cont′d) | | |
|---------------------------|--------------|------------------------------------|---|---|
| Vaccine Viral vaccines | Туре | Schedule | Indications | Contraindications |
| Measles SC | Live | 0, +1 months (if high risk) | All adults not previously immunized in childhood | Preg, immunocomp. |
| Mumps SC | Live | 0, +1 months (if high risk) | All adults not previously immunized in childhood | Preg, immunocomp. |
| Rubella SC | Live | 0, +1 months (if high risk) | All adults not previously immunized in childhood | Preg, immunocomp. |
| Polio IM/SC | Inactivated | - | Not routinely recommended for adults | - |
| HBV IM | Recombinant | 0, +1 months, +6 months | All adults not previously immunized in childhood, particularly high-risk groups for parenteral or sexual exposure, chronic liver disease (e.g. chronic HCV/HBV), chronic renal disease, healthcare workers, MSM, household and sexual contacts of those with chronic HBV, those with or evaluated for STDs | - |
| HAV IM | Inactivated | 0, +6 months | Travelers (esp. developing world), chronic liver disease (e.g. chronic HCV/HBV), MSM, ?food handlers | - |
| Influenza IM | Inactivated | Annually (Oct) | Available and recommended for all adults | |
| Varicella SC | Live | 0, 1–2 months | All who have not had chicken pox by adulthood, especially healthcare workers | Preg, immunocomp. |
| Herpes zoster SC | Live | 1 dose | Adults >60 years. Note this vaccine has higher dose of attenuated virus than varicella vaccine | Preg, immunocomp, no history of varicella |
| HPV IM | Recombinant | 0, +1-2 months, +6 months | Females aged 9–26 years (licensed also for males in some countries) Controversial as outcomes data pending | - |
| Bacterial vaccines | | | , , | |
| Pertussis | Cellular | 1 dose | All adults not previously immunized in childhood; single dose of acellular pertussis vaccine combined with tetanus/diphtheria (Tdap) recommended for adults aged 19–64 | - |

Immunization for Adults (Cont'd)

| Vaccine | Туре | Schedule | Indications | Contraindications |
|--------------------------------|------------------------|--|---|-------------------|
| Td (tetanus, diphtheria) IM | Toxoid, inactivated | 0, +2 months, +6-12 months, q10 year | All adults not previously immunized in childhood (see Tdap under Pertussis) | - |
| Pneumococcal IM/SC | Polysaccharide | 0, +5 year | Adults >65 years, >6 months-50 years with chronic disease, pregnancy, splenectomy, malignancy, smokers | - |
| Haemophilus type B | Conjugated | 1 dose | Splenectomy | - |
| Meningococcal SC | Polysaccharide | 1 dose | Splenectomy, college dormitory students, lab workers, travelers to endemic areas | - |

PRINCIPLES

RISK FACTORS FOR SPECIFIC ORGANISMS

- HBV—household contacts/sexual partners of hepatitis patients, IDU, homosexual, multiple sexual partners, tattoo, piercing, transfusions, healthcare workers (prior to vaccine era), residents/workers of institutions for mentally ill or criminals, birth in endemic country
- HCV—sexual partners (controversial), IDU, tattoo, piercing, transfusions, residents/workers of institutions for mentally ill or criminals

PRINCIPLES (CONT'D)

 PNEUMOCOCCAL, MENINGOCOCCAL, H. INFLUENZAE splenectomy

CONTRAINDICATIONS

- ALL VACCINES—anaphylaxis, severe illness
- LIVE VACCINES—pregnancy, immunocompromised (B-cell depleting therapies, high dose corticosteroids, monoclonal biologic agents, AIDS but not HIV, malignancies)

SIDE EFFECTS—local erythema, fever



9 RHEUMATOLOGY Britney Jones and Steven J. Katz

Septic Arthritis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF MONOARTHRITIS

★ICU RN★ INFECTIONS

- BACTERIAL—Gonococci, Staphylococcus aureus, Streptococcus, Enterobacteriaceae, Borrelia burgdorferi, Syphilis, Whipple disease, mycobacteria
- VIRAL—HIV, HBV, parvovirus, rubella, mumps, enterovirus, adenovirus
- FUNGAL—Cryptococcus, Blastococcus

osteomyeLitis/osteonecrosis extending to Joint CRYSTAL—gout, pseudogout, hydroxyapatite, basic calcium phosphate UNCLASSIFIED

- OSTEOARTHRITIS
- HEMARTHROSIS—coagulopathy, thrombocytopenia, pigmented villonodular synovitis, trauma
- NON-ARTHRITIS
 - воме—osteomyelitis, avascular necrosis, fracture
 - soft tissue—tendonitis, ligament tear, bursitis, myositis, meniscus tear

RHEUMATOLOGIC (early stage, unusual presentation as monoarthritis)

- SEROPOSITIVE ★ PSSR ★ Polymyositis, Palindromic rheumatism, SLE, Scleroderma, Rheumatoid arthritis
- SERONEGATIVE ★ PEAR ★ Psoriatic arthritis, Enteric arthritis, Ankylosing spondylitis, Reactive arthritis
- SARCOIDOSIS, POLYMYALGIA RHEUMATICA

NEOPLASTIC—chondrosarcoma, osteoid osteoma, metastasis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

RISK FACTORS—50% of sexually active adults with septic arthritis are due to gonococcal infections. Most patients with risk factors for septic arthritis listed below are due to non-gonococcal

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

infections (S. aureus, Streptococci, Gram-negative bacilli)

- сомоявилитея—diabetes, chronic kidney disease, rheumatologic disease, cancer
- TREATMENT RELATED—immunosuppressive therapy (glucocorticoids, cytotoxic agents), prosthetic joint
- specifics—IDU (more axial joints with MRSA, Gram-negative especially *Pseudomonas*), endocarditis (sterile fluid as autoimmune process)

GONOCOCCAL ARTHRITIS—less destructive and better outcomes than non-gonococcal arthritis. Synovial fluid Gram stain + in <10% and culture often negative

COMPLICATIONS—osteomyelitis (30%), permanent joint damage, sepsis

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—arthritis (location, duration, pain, range of motion, function), adenopathy, fever, rash, oral ulcers, alopecia, Raynaud phenomenon, photosensitivity, sicca, trauma, recent infections, cervical/urethral discharge, sexual encounters, diarrhea, recent travel, past medical history (preexisting joint disease, gout, rheumatoid arthritis, SLE, IBD, psoriasis, diabetes, IDU), medications (anticoagulants)

PHYSICAL—vitals (fever), joint examination (tenderness, swelling, range of motion). Look for nail pitting, onycholysis, tophi, rheumatoid nodules, track marks, psoriasis, keratoconjunctivitis sicca, uveitis, conjunctivitis, episcleritis, murmurs, urethral discharge, and penile ulcers. Soft tissue injuries (bursitis, tendonitis, muscles) usually have decreased active range of motion but normal passive range of motion, while both active and passive range of motion would be affected in joint diseases. Pelvic examination to inspect the cervix and to look for pelvic inflammatory disease

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CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS ADULT PATIENT HAVE SEPTIC ARTHRITIS?

| | Sens (%) | Spc (%) | LR+ | LR— |
|-------------------|-------------|------------|-----|------|
| Investigations | , | | | |
| Elevated WBC | 90 | 36 | 1.4 | 0.28 |
| Elevated ESR | 95 | 29 | 1.3 | 0.17 |
| Elevated CRP | 77 | 53 | 1.6 | 0.44 |
| Synovial fluid an | alysis | | | |
| WBC >100,000/mL | 29 | 99 | 28 | 0.71 |
| WBC >50,000/mL | 62 | 92 | 7.7 | 0.42 |
| WBC >25,000/mL | 77 | 73 | 2.9 | 0.32 |
| PMN ≥90% | 73 | 79 | 3.4 | 0.34 |
| | | | | |

APPROACH—"when evaluating a patient with a painful, peripheral, swollen joint, the underlying pathology of a monoarthritis may be difficult to diagnose by clinical history and examination alone due to nonspecific symptoms and signs. Identifiable risk factors and arthrocentesis are most helpful in predicting septic arthritis. In particular, synovial WBC count and percentage of polymorphonuclear cells provide the best utility in identifying septic arthritis while waiting for Gram stain and culture test results. There is no evidence that a patient's symptoms or the physical examination are useful for predicting non-gonococcal bacterial arthritis."

Margaretten et al. JAMA 2007;297(13)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, uric acid, ANA, RF, ESR, CRP, INR, PTT
- IMAGING—joint X-ray (chondrocalcinosis in pseudogout; the presence of crystals does not rule out sepsis) +/- MRI or bone scan
- ARTHROCENTESIS—★3C★ (Cell count with diff, Culture and Gram stain, Crystals)

SPECIAL

 INFECTIOUS WORKUP—urethral/rectal swabs, blood C&S

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

GOLDEN RULE—patients with monoarthritis have septic arthritis until proven otherwise. Joint infection is a rheumatologic emergency as permanent damage can occur. Presence of crystal does not rule out infection. In up to 75% of patients with septic arthritis, a focus of infection may be found

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

ARTHROCENTESIS FLUID ANALYSIS

| | | Non- | | |
|-----------------------------|--------|------------|-------------|---------|
| | Normal | Infectious | Infectious | Septic |
| WBC (/ mm ³) | <200 | 200–2000 | 2000-50,000 | >50,000 |
| PMNs | <25% | <25% | 25-50% | >50% |

JOINT ASPIRATIONS/INJECTIONS—for diagnostic and sometimes therapeutic reasons. Overlying infection at site of injection is absolute contraindication. Relative contraindications: significant hemostasis defects and bacteremia

- KNEE—flex 10–15°, enter either medially or laterally immediately beneath the undersurface of the patella slightly above midway
- ANKLE—foot perpendicular to leg, medial approach immediately medial to the extensor hallucis longus tendon. Lateral approach just distal to fibula
- WRISTS—flex slightly. Medial approach at dorsal surface between the distal ulna and the carpal bones. Lateral approach at dorsum just distal to the end of the radius, between the extensor tendons of the thumb
- ADVERSE EFFECTS OF ASPIRATIONS/INJECTIONS hypersensitivity to anesthetic, pain, infection, tendon rupture, subcutaneous atrophy, postinjection flare, systemic steroid absorption, hemorrhage, steroid arthropathy

Thomsen et al. NEJM 2006;354(e19)

MANAGEMENT

ALWAYS ASPIRATE BEFORE PROCEEDING TO TREATMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL—NSAIDs/opioids for pain TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—joint draintherapeutic arthrocentesis, age bv arthroscopic or surgical drainage (if joint inaccessible to needle drainage, organism resistant to antibiotics, or no clinical response in 3-4 days). Empiric (if not at risk for sexually transmitted disease, nafcillin 2 g IV g4h or vancomycin 1 g IV q12h, plus ceftriaxone 1 q IV q24h. If at risk of sexually transmitted disease, ceftriaxone 1 g IV q24h + azithromycin 1q PO x 1 day if Gram stain negative). Gonococcal (ceftriaxone 1 g IV g24h). Lyme arthritis (amoxicillin 500 mg PO TID, doxycycline 100 mg PO BID, or cefuroxime 500 mg PO BID×28 days)

Gout

20.

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CAUSES

DECREASED URATE EXCRETION (90%)

- RENAL DISEASE
- DRUGS ★CAN'T LEAP★—Cyclosporine, Alcohol, Nicotinic Acid, Thiazides, Loop diuretics, Ethambutol, ASA (low dose), Pyrazinamide

INCREASED URATE PRODUCTION (10%)

- METABOLIC SYNDROME—obesity, hyperlipidemia, hypertension
- INCREASED METABOLISM—alcohol, hemolytic anemia, psoriasis, Lesch–Nyhan syndrome
- NEOPLASTIC—myeloproliferative disease, lymphoproliferative disease, chemotherapy

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

IMBALANCE—decreased urate excretion and/ or increased urate production → uric acid crystals deposited in joints, skin, and kidneys → arthritis, tophi, and renal failure. Gout almost never occurs in pre-menopausal women (estrogen promotes higher urinary fractional excretion of urate)

PRECIPITANTS—surgery, dehydration, fasting, binge eating/drinking, exercise, trauma

CLINICAL FEATURES

SYMPTOMS

- ARTHRITIS—mono/oligo and asymmetric, especially first MTP joint. Podagra, inflammation of the first MTP joint, is the presenting symptom in 75% of gout patients. However, the first MTP is also commonly affected in pseudogout, psoriatic arthritis, sarcoidosis, osteoarthritis, and trauma
- торні—yellowish-white nodular urate crystals collection in subcutaneous tissues (particularly colder extremities such as ear, fingers, olecranon bursa, ulnar aspect of forearm), bone, tendons (Achilles), cartilage, and joints. Generally painless but may lead to erosions
- **KIDNEYS**—urolithiasis (radiolucent), uric acid nephropathy (reversible acute renal failure secondary to acute lysis), urate nephropathy (chronic renal failure secondary to interstitial deposits)

2020 ACR Guidelines Management of Gout 2020

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, uric acid (sens 75%), AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, TSH, urinalysis, 24-h urine uric acid collection (<800 mg/day suggests ↓ excretion)
- IMAGING—joint X-ray, dual energy CT, MSK US
- ARTHROCENTESIS → ★3C★ (Cell count with diff, Culture and Gram stain, Crystal, for gout, sens 85%, spc 100%)

SPECIAL

TOPHUS ASPIRATION

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

SERUM URIC ACID LEVELS—may be falsely lowered in an acute attack

JOINT X-RAY—soft tissue swelling, normal joint space, erosions ("punched out" and sclerotic lesions with overhanging edge)

JOINT ULTRASOUND—double contour sign, visible tophi

JOINT FLUID—ALWAYS confirm diagnosis with a synovial fluid aspirate if possible. Microscopy shows predominantly neutrophilic infiltrate with some intracellular monosodium urate crystals (needle shaped, negative birefringence, i.e. yellow when parallel to plane of polarized light)

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—NSAIDs (first line, avoid if renal/hepatic failure; naproxen 375–500 mg PO BID×3 days, then 250-375 mg PO BID×4-7 days; indomethacin 25-50 mg PO TID × 3 days, then 100 mg PO div BID-QID×4-7 days; celecoxib 200 mg PO BID×1 day, then 100 mg PO BID×6-10 days). Systemic corticosteroids (avoid if joint sepsis not excluded; prednisone 30–60 mg PO daily×3 days, then ↓ 10-15 mg daily×3 days until discontinuation, triamcinolone 50 mg IM×1 dose). Intra-articular corticosteroids (for mono- and oligoarthritis only. Methylprednisolone 40-80 mg intra-articularly once). Colchicine 0.6 mg PO daily-BID during acute attack (avoid approach of giving colchicine g1h until development of diarrhea). Low dose colchicine regimens (\leq 1.8 g daily) as effective and are better tolerated than higher dose regimens. Anakinra (anti-IL1R) 100 mg subcutaneously daily x 3 days

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT—purine-restri**cted diet** (↓ red meats, ↓ seafood, ↑ low-fat dairy portive evidence. Avoidance of beer and sugar-laden beverages. Xanthine oxidase inhibitors: Allopurinol 50-300 mg PO daily (first line, xanthine oxidase inhibitor, renal dose adjustment required; continue allopurinol if already on it prior to acute attack). Febuxostat 80 mg PO daily can be used in patients intolerant of allopurinol or with mild-to-moderate renal failure; however, need to discuss increased CV risk. Probenecid 250–1000 ma PO BID (first line uricosuric, 1 renal urate reabsorption; ensure normal renal function and use with caution in G6PD deficiency). Colchicine 0.6 mg PO BID×6 months (for prophylaxis against recurrent attacks only. Do not give colchicine IV)

TREATMENT ISSUES

LONG-TERM THERAPY—consider if patients have frequent attacks (≥2/year, tophaceous deposits, CKD, history of urolithiasis)

ALLOPURINOL OR FEBUXOSTAT TREAT-MENT—start colchicine or NSAIDs prior to allopurinol and overlap therapy to prevent precipitating flare. Allopurinol alone can cause an abrupt decrease in serum uric

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

acid \rightarrow breakdown and release of synovial urate crystal deposits \rightarrow inflammation. Aim to decrease serum uric acid level below 357 µmol/L [6 mg/dL]. Do not start or stop allopurinol during an acute attack

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

CALCIUM PYROPHOSPHATE DEPOSITION DISEASE (CPPD, pseudogout)—associated with normal urate levels and chondrocalcinosis that may be visible radiographically. Rhomboid crystals, positive birefringence (blue when parallel to polarized light, yellow when perpendicular). Risk factors: old age, advanced osteoarthritis, neuropathic joint, gout, hyperparathyroidism, hemochromatosis, diabetes, hypothyroidism, hyoomanesemia. and trauma

BASIC CALCIUM PHOSPHATE CRYSTALS (**BCPC**)—crystals appear snowball-like with Alizarin Red S stain. Implicated in bursitis, inflammation superimposed on osteoarthritis, and calcinosis cutis in systemic sclerosis and CREST

DIALYSIS PATIENTS—develop destructive arthritis and tendonitis from calcium oxalate, monosodium urate, calcium pyrophosphate, and basic calcium phosphate crystals. Amyloidosis may also contribute to arthritis

Polyarticular Joint Pain and Fever

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

★RICE★

RHEUMATOLOGIC

- seropositive—SLE, rheumatoid arthritis
- SERONEGATIVE—psoriatic arthritis, enteric arthritis, reactive arthritis, ankylosing spondylitis
- vasculitis—granulomatosis with polyangiitis, Behçet disease, Still disease

INFECTIONS

- BACTERIAL—septic (gonococci), meningococci, endocarditis, Lyme disease, Whipple disease, mycobacteria
- VIRAL—parvovirus, rubella, HBV, HCV, HIV, EBV
- FUNGAL
- POST-INFECTIOUS/REACTIVE—enteric infections (Salmonella, Shigella, Campylobacter, Yersinia), genitourinary infections

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

(*Chlamydia*), rheumatic fever, inflammatory bowel disease

CRYSTAL—gout, pseudogout ETC

- MALIGNANCIES—acute leukemia
- sarcoidosis—Lofgren syndrome
- FAMILIAL MEDITERRANEAN FEVER
- POLYMYALGIA RHEUMATICA

CLINICAL FEATURES

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES

- TEMPERATURE >40 °C [>104 °F]—Still disease, bacterial arthritis, SLE
- FEVER PRECEDING ARTHRITIS—viral arthritis, Lyme disease, reactive arthritis, Still disease, bacterial endocarditis
- MORNING STIFFNESS—RA, PMR, Still disease, some viral/reactive arthritis

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

- MIGRATORY ARTHRITIS—rheumatic fever, gonococcemia, meningococcemia, viral arthritis, SLE, acute leukemia, Whipple disease
- EPISODIC RECURRENCE—palindromic rheumatism, Lyme disease, crystal-induced arthritis, IBD, Whipple disease, familial Mediterranean fever, Still disease, SLE
- PAIN DISPROPORTIONATELY GREATER THAN EFFU-SION—rheumatic fever, familial Mediterranean fever, acute leukemia, AIDS
- EFFUSION DISPROPORTIONATELY GREATER THAN PAIN—tuberculosis arthritis, bacterial endocarditis, IBD, giant cell arteritis, Lyme disease
- SYMMETRIC SMALL JOINT SYNOVITIS—RA, SLE, viral arthritis
- LEUKOCYTOSIS (>15×10°/L)—bacterial arthritis, bacterial endocarditis, Still disease, systemic vasculitis, acute leukemia
- LEUKOPENIA—SLE, viral arthritis
- POSITIVE RHEUMATOID FACTOR—RA (sens 70%, spc 70%), viral arthritis, tuberculosis arthritis, bacterial endocarditis, SLE, sarcoidosis, systemic vasculitis
- POSITIVE ANTI-CYCLIC CITRULLINATED PEPTIDE ANTI-BODIES—RA (not sensitive but highly spc 95%)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, uric acid, TSH, ESR, CRP, RF, anti-CCP, ANA,

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

serologies (*B. burgdorferi*, streptococci, parvovirus, HBV, HCV, HIV), c-ANCA, urinalysis

имадимд—CXR, X-rays of affected joints

SPECIAL

 ARTHROCENTESIS—★3C★ (Cell count with diff, Culture and Gram stain, Crystal)

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE SYMPTOM CONTROL

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

ADULT-ONSET STILL'S DISEASE

- ратнорнузюLogy—unknown. Most consider this a diagnosis of exclusion
- DIAGNOSIS—major criteria: fever ≥39 °C [≥102.2 °F] (quotidian vs. diquotidian), salmon color maculopapular rash, arthralgia/arthritis ≥2 weeks, leukocytosis. Minor criteria: pharyngitis, lymphadenopathy, abnormal liver enzymes, hepatomegaly/splenomegaly, negative ANA, and negative RF. Need at least 2 major criteria and 3 minor criteria to make diagnosis (sens 93%). Important to exclude infections, malignancy, and acute rheumatologic disease. Significantly elevated serum ferritin
- TREATMENTS—NSAIDs, corticosteroids, methotrexate, recombinant IL-1 receptor antagonist (anakinra); IL-6 antagonist

Rheumatoid Arthritis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF INFLAMMATORY POLYARTHRITIS

★RICE★

RHEUMATOLOGIC (>6 weeks)

- SEROPOSITIVE ★PSSR★—Polymyositis, Palindromic rheumatism, SLE, Scleroderma, Sjögren syndrome, Rheumatoid arthritis
- SERONEGATIVE ★PEAR★—Psoriatic arthritis, Enteric arthritis, Ankylosing spondylitis, Reactive arthritis, undifferentiated
- vasculitis—granulomatosis with polyangiitis, Behçet disease, Still disease

INFECTIONS (<6 weeks)

 BACTERIAL—sepsis, endocarditis, Lyme disease, Whipple disease, mycobacteria

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF INFLAMMATORY POLYARTHRITIS (CONT'D)

- viral—parvovirus, rubella, HBV, HCV, HIV
- FUNGAL
- POST-INFECTIOUS/REACTIVE—enteric infections, genitourinary infections, rheumatic fever, inflammatory bowel disease

CRYSTAL—gout, pseudogout, hydroxyapatite, basic calcium phosphate ETC

- MALIGNANCIES—leukemia
- sarcoidosis—Lofgren syndrome
- FAMILIAL MEDITERRANEAN FEVER
- POLYMYALGIA RHEUMATICA

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION OF ARTHRITIS

- MONOARTHRITIS—1 joint involved
- OLIGOARTHRITIS—2–4 joints involved
- POLYARTHRITIS—≥5 joints involved

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—T-helper 1 mediated process \rightarrow proteases produced by synovial cells destroy proteoglycans in the articular cartilage \rightarrow irreversible damage 6 months to 1 year from disease onset

POSSIBLE TRIGGERS—viruses (parvovirus, EBV, HTLV), super-antigens (from bacteria/ viruses), autoantigens (QKRAA)

RISK FACTORS—age >50, female (3:1), firstdegree relative with rheumatoid arthritis, smoking, low socioeconomic status, genetic (HLA DR4)

CLINICAL FEATURES

JOINT SYMPTOMS—symmetric polyarthritis with joint pain, swelling, redness, morning stiffness (>1 h), and dysfunction

- HANDS—MCP, PIP, and wrist joints most commonly involved. Deformities include boutonnière, swan neck, Z (thumb), ulnar deviation at MCP joint, volar subluxation of proximal phalanx from MCP head, radial deviation of carpus, compression of the carpal bones, subluxation at the wrist
- FEET—MTP joints involved. Deformities include valgus of the ankle and hindfoot, pes planus, forefoot varus and hallux valgus, cock-up toes
- LEGS—knees (80%), ankles (80%), hips (50%)
- ARMS—shoulders (60%), elbows (50%), acromioclavicular (50%)
- ATLANTOAXIAL—subluxation may lead to spinal cord compression (cervical myelopathy with hand weakness/numbness)
- TEMPOROMANDIBULAR (30%)
- отнекя—related disorders include Baker cyst, tenosynovitis, carpal tunnel syndrome

EXTRA-ARTICULAR MANIFESTATIONS only in seropositive patients

- RHEUMATOID NODULES (20%)
- PULMONARY—pleural effusion (exudative, low glucose), pulmonary nodules (Caplan syndrome), acute interstitial pneumonitis, bronchiolitis obliterans
- CARDIAC—valvular abnormalities, myocarditis, pericardial effusion, constrictive pericarditis
- GI—elevated transaminases (especially ALP), nodular hyperplasia (portal hypertension, hypersplenism)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

- HEMATOLOGIC—anemia of chronic disease, Felty syndrome (triad of seropositive rheumatoid arthritis, neutropenia and splenomegaly; often associated with anemia and thrombocytopenia). Patients at risk for leukemia, lymphoma
- NEUROLOGIC—peripheral sensory neuropathy (not motor), myelopathy from cervical vertebral subluxation
- орнтнаLMIC—keratoconjunctivitis sicca (Sjögren syndrome), scleritis, episcleritis
- DERMATOLOGIC—vasculitis (digital arteritis, cutaneous ulceration, visceral arteritis)
- отнекс—amyloidosis

CONSTITUTIONAL SYMPTOMS—fatigue (40%), fever (low grade), sweats, weight loss, myalgia

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN INFLAMMATORY AND NON-INFLAMMATORY ARTHRITIS

| | Inflammatory | Non- inflammatory |
|--------------------------|--------------|----------------------|
| Classic example | RA | OA |
| Morning stiffness | >1 h | +/- |
| Resting | Worsens | Improves |
| Activity | Improves | Worsens |
| Synovitis, redness | + | - |
| Fever, weight loss | + | - |
| ESR, CRP, platelets | 1 | No change |

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, ESR, CRP, RF (IgM), anti-CCP (more specific), ANA, urinalysis
- IMAGING—X-rays of affected joints (particularly hands, knees, and ankles; soft tissue swelling, periarticular osteopenia, narrowing of joint space, marginal bony erosions, subluxation, joint destruction, bony ankylosis); MSK US

SPECIAL

 INFECTIOUS WORKUP—serologies (parvovirus, HBV, HCV, EBV, CMV, B. burgdorferi)

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

 ARTHROCENTESIS → ★ 3C's ★ (Cell count with diff, Culture and Gram stain, Crystal). Cannot make definite diagnosis of rheumatoid arthritis from arthrocentesis

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

ACR CLASSIFICATION CRITERIA FOR RHEU-MATOID ARTHRITIS—add score of categories A to D, with a score of $\geq 6/10$ classified as definite RA

- A. JOINT INVOLVEMENT—one large joint (0), 2–10 large joints (1), 1–3 small joints with or without involvement of large joints (2), 4–10 small joints with or without involvement of large joints (3), >10 joints with at least 1 small joint (5);
- B. SEROLOGY—negative RF and negative anticitrullinated protein antibodies (ACPA) (0), low-positive RF or low-positive ACPA (2), highpositive RF or high-positive ACPA (3);
- c. ACUTE PHASE REACTANTS—normal CRP and normal ESR (0), abnormal CRP or abnormal ESR (1);
- D. DURATION OF SYMPTOMS— < 6 weeks (0), ≥ 6 weeks (1)

PROGNOSIS—increased number of joints involved, rheumatoid nodules, erosions, elevated inflammatory markers and seropositivity all suggest more severe disease

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL—physical therapy, diet (Ω -3 fatty acids). Joint protection (range of motion exercises, orthotics, splints). NSAIDs (antiinflammatory dose). Intraarticular steroid injections (if severe pain). Patient education DISEASE-MODIFYING AGENTS OF RHEUMA-TOID DISEASE (DMARDs)—single agent (methotrexate with folic acid, sulfasalazine, hvdroxychloroquine, cyclosporine). Combination triple therapy (methotrexate plus sulfasalazine plus hydroxychloroquine). Selective pyrimidine synthesis inhibitor (leflunomide). TNFα inhibitors (infliximab, etanercept, adalimumab, golimumab, certolizumab). B-cell inhibitor (rituximab, an anti-CD20 monoclonal antibody). T-lymphocyte activation inhibitor (abatacept), IL-6 inhibition (tocilizumab, sarilumab). JAK inhibitors (tofacitinib, baricitinib, upadacitinib, peficitinib). Surgical intervention

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

RESPIRATORY DISEASES IN RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS

- AIRWAY—cricoarytenoid arthritis with central airway obstruction, bronchiectasis, obliterative bronchiolitis, chronic small airway obstruction
- PARENCHYMA—pneumonia, interstitial fibrosis, bronchiolitis obliterans with organizing pneumonia, rheumatoid nodules, rheumatoid pneumoconiosis, apical fibrobullous disease, drug-related pneumonitis and fibrosis (methotrexate, gold, penicillamine, NSAIDs, cyclophosphamide, azathioprine, sulfasalazine)
- vascular—pulmonary hypertension, vasculitis
- PLEURAL—pleuritis, pleural effusion, pleural thickening

PALINDROMIC RHEUMATISM—episodic arthritis with one or more joints being affected sequentially for hours to days, and symptom-free periods in between for days to months. May be anti-CCP positive and occasionally progresses to other rheumatic disorders (RA, SLE). Treatment with hydroxychloroquine can be useful

SJÖGREN SYNDROME

- ратнорнузюLogy—CD4 lymphocytic infiltration of salivary and lacrimal glands
- causes—primary (sicca plus episodic, nondeforming polyarthritis), secondary (RA, SLE, scleroderma, polyarteritis nodosa, polymyositis, HIV)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—sicca (dry eyes and dry mouth, impaired taste, parotid gland enlargement, dental caries), dyspareunia, arthralgia, arthritis, and constitutional symptoms. May be associated with Raynaud phenomenon, cutaneous vasculitis, cerebritis, CNS vasculitis, stroke, distal renal tubular acidosis, and peripheral neuropathy. Increased risk of non-Hodgkin lymphoma
- INVESTIGATIONS—CBC, quantitative Ig, RF, ANA, ENA (SS-A, SS-B), urinalysis. Labial minor salivary gland biopsy. Schirmer test. Check for secondary causes
- TREATMENTS—symptomatic (artificial tears, pilocarpine 5 mg PO QID), hydroxychloroquine for extraglandular complications, rituximab may have a role

LOFGREN SYNDROME—usually a benign selflimited form of sarcoidosis. Tetrad of erythema nodosum, hilar lymphadenopathy, arthritis (ankles and sometimes knees), and fever. Treatment with NSAIDs

Seronegative Spondyloarthropathies

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF OLIGOARTHRITIS

*****RICE*****

RHEUMATOLOGIC (>6 weeks)

- SEROPOSITIVE ★PSSR★—Polymyositis, Palindromic rheumatism, SLE, Scleroderma, Rheumatoid arthritis
- SERONEGATIVE ★PEAR★—Psoriatic arthritis, Enteric arthritis, Ankylosing spondylitis, Reactive arthritis, undifferentiated
- vasculitis—granulomatosis with polyangiitis, Behçet disease, Still disease

INFECTIONS (<6 weeks)

- BACTERIAL—sepsis, endocarditis, Lyme disease, Whipple disease, mycobacteria
- viral—parvovirus, rubella, HBV, HCV, HIV
- FUNGAL
- POST-INFECTIOUS/REACTIVE—enteric infections, urogenital infections, rheumatic fever, inflammatory bowel disease

CRYSTAL—gout, pseudogout, hydroxyapatite, basic calcium phosphate

ETC

- MALIGNANCIES—leukemia
- sarcoidosis—Lofgren syndrome
- FAMILIAL MEDITERRANEAN FEVER
- POLYMYALGIA RHEUMATICA

CLINICAL FEATURES

CARDINAL FEATURES

- DISTRIBUTION—male preponderance, age 20–40
- spondyloarthropathy—spondylitis, sacroiliitis, morning stiffness >30 min
- OLIGOARTHRITIS—asymmetric, usually involving hands and below waist, <5 joints
- ENTHESOPATHY—inflammation at the sites of insertion of ligaments, tendons, joint capsule, and fascia to bone, with destruction and new bone formation. This results in Achilles tendonitis, plantar fasciitis, tenosynovitis, and dactylitis/sausage digits
- serology—HLA-B27 positive, rheumatoid factor negative

BACK EXAMINATION

 INSPECTION—swelling, erythema, atrophy, scars, and loss of thoracic kyphosis and cervical/lumbar lordosis

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

- RANGE OF MOTION—check gait and flexion, extension, lateral bending, rotation
- PALPATION—tenderness over spinous processes and sacroiliac joints
- SPECIAL TESTS—Modified Schober test (place mark 5 cm below and 10 cm above the spine at level of PSIS/L5 with patient standing. A distance increase of <5 cm [<2 in.] between the marks with the patient bending forward suggests limited lumbar flexion), finger-to-floor distance, occiput to-wall distance. FABER test (SI joint stability) and straight leg raising test (sciatica)
- EXTRAARTICULAR CHANGES—nail pitting, onycholysis, psoriasis, tenosynovitis, dactylitis, synovitis, acute uveitis, aortic regurgitation, apical pulmonary fibrosis, chin to chest distance, occiput-to-wall distance, decreased chest expansion resulting in functional restrictive lung disease, cauda equine compression, and enthesitis (costochondritis, patellar and Achilles tendonitis, plantar fasciitis). Also assess for extraintestinal manifestations of inflammatory bowel disease

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN VARIOUS SERONEGATIVE SPONDYLOAR-THROPATHIES

- PSORIATIC ARTHRITIS—history of psoriasis, DIP involvement, nail changes
- ENTEROPATHIC ARTHRITIS—history of IBD, pyoderma gangrenosum
- ANKYLOSING SPONDYLITIS—back involvement, ankylosis
- REACTIVE ARTHRITIS—history of urethritis/ cervicitis/diarrhea, eye involvement
- UNDIFFERENTIATED—does not fit any of the above

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, ESR, CRP, urinalysis, RF
- IMAGING—X-rays of affected joints (lumbosacral spine, peripheral) +/- MRI (bone marrow edema)

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

SPECIAL

- INFECTIOUS WORKUP—HIV serology (if suspect reactive arthritis), chlamydial PCR (if suspect reactive arthritis), stool culture (if suspect reactive arthritis)
- HLA-B27—association with seronegative spondyloarthropathy, most commonly ankylosing spondylitis (only order once)
- ARTHROCENTESIS—★3C★ (Cell count with diff, Culture and Gram stain, Crystal)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

EUROPEAN SPONDYLOARTHROPATHY STUDY GROUP CRITERIA—one of inflammatory spinal pain or synovitis (asymmetric or predominantly in the lower limbs) plus one of positive family history, psoriasis, inflammatory bowel disease, urethritis/cervicitis/acute diarrhea (within 1 month prior to arthritis), alternating buttock pain, enthesopathy, sacroiliitis (sens 75%, spc 87%)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

ANKYLOSING SPONDYLITIS (AS)

- CLINICAL FEATURES—chronic inflammatory low back, hip, knee, shoulder, and +/- peripheral joint pain. Morning stiffness lasting > 30 minutes. Loss of lumbar lordosis and thoracic kyphosis with significant decreased range of motion and chest expansion, positive Schober test and occiput-to-wall test. Extraarticular manifestations include anterior uveitis, enthesitis, dactylitis, C1-2 subluxation, restrictive lung disease, aortic regurgitation, conduction abnormalities, and secondary amyloidosis. Imaging reveals sacroiliitis/spondylitis, bamboo spine (syndesmophytes), shiny corners (squaring and increased density anteriorly of vertebral bodies), and whiskering (new bone and osteitis at tendon and ligament insertions). MRI showing bone marrow edema and structural abnormalities (sclerosis, fat metaplasia, erosions, ankylosis)
- ASAS CLASSIFICATION CRITERIA FOR AXIAL SPONDYLO-ARTHRITIS (sens 80%, spc 83%)—patients should have ≥3 months of back pain, age of onset <45 years and either
 - A. Sacroiliitis on imaging and at least 1 AS feature (i.e. inflammatory back pain, arthritis, enthesitis, uveitis, dactylitis, psoriasis,

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

IBD, good response to NSAIDS, family history of AS, HLA-B27 positive, and elevated CRP) **or**

- B. HLA-B27 positive **and** at least 2 other AS features
- ASAS CLASSIFICATION CRITERIA FOR PERIPHERAL SPON-DYLOARTHRITIS (SENS 78%, SPC 82%)—peripheral arthritis +/or enthesitis +/or dactylitis and either
 - A. At least 1 of: uveitis, psoriasis, IBD, preceding infection, HLA-B27, sacroiliitis on imaging or
 - B. At least 2 of: arthritis, enthesitis, dactylitis, inflammatory back pain (ever), family history of SpA
- TREATMENTS
 - AXIAL—NSAIDs first line (avoid if renal/ hepatic failure; naproxen 500 mg PO BID; ibuprofen 800 mg PO TID; celecoxib 200 mg PO BID), TNF antagonists (etanercept, infliximab, adalimumab, golimumab, certolizumab), anti-IL-17 agents (secukinumab, ixekizumab), JAK inhibitors (tofacitinib, upadacitinib). Physical therapy
 - PERIPHERAL—NSAIDs, intra-articular glucocorticoids, DMARDs (sulfasalazine recommended over methotrexate), TNF antagonist

ENTEROPATHIC ARTHRITIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—10–20% of IBD patients (more common in Crohn disease than ulcerative colitis). May be first sign of IBD (especially if joint pain with anemia)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—spondylitis, sacroiliitis, morning stiffness, and large joint arthritis correlates with the activity of IBD. Other extraintestinal manifestations of IBD include fever, clubbing, uveitis, iritis, anemia, jaundice (primary sclerosing cholangitis), aphthous ulcers, arthritis, erythema nodosum, pyoderma gangrenosum, DVT, and amyloidosis
- TREATMENTS
 - TYPE I ARTHROPATHY—acute, pauciarticular peripheral arthritis±spondylitis and sacroiliitis, associated with flares. Usually selflimited and resolves with treatment of IBD (but not axial arthritis)

TYPE II ARTHROPATHY—polyarticular peripheral arthritis that does not parallel bowel disease. Consider sulfasalazine, methotrexate, azathioprine, and glucocorticoids. Avoid NSAIDs if possible (worsens bowel symptoms)

PSORIATIC ARTHRITIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—patients with psoriatic arthritis usually have psoriasis, although psoriasis can be in a first degree relative. Arthritis may appear after (70%), before (15%), or at the same time (15%) as skin lesions
- CLINICAL FEATURES—variable pattern of arthritis (distal DIP joints, asymmetric oligoarthritis of lower limbs, symmetric polyarthritis, arthritis mutilans, spondyloarthritis), enthesitis (Achilles tendonitis, plantar fasciitis, tenosynovitis, dactylitis), nail changes (pits, onycholysis), dactylitis, pitting edema and uveitis (usually chronic, bilateral, posterior). Imaging reveals co-existence of erosive changes and new bone formation in the distal joints with lysis of the terminal phalanges, fluffy periostitis, "pencil-in-cup" appearance, and the occurrence of both joint lysis and ankylosis in the same patient. Rheumatoid factor positive in 2-10%, CCP positive in 8-16%, HLA-B27 positive in 40-60% if axial involvement
- CASPAR CRITERIA—requires 1 major and 3 minor criteria
 - MAJOR—presence of musculoskeletal inflammation (inflammatory arthritis, enthesitis, back pain)
 - милок—skin psoriasis, nail lesions, dactylitis, negative rheumatoid factor, and juxtaarticular bone formation on X-ray
- TREATMENTS—methotrexate, sulfasalazine, leflunomide, anti-TNF agents, anti-IL 12/23 (ustekinumab), anti-IL 17 (secukinumab, ixekizumab, brodalumab), CTLA4-Ig (abatacept), JAK inhibitor (tofacitinib)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

REACTIVE ARTHRITIS

★CAN'T SEE, CAN'T PEE, CAN'T CLIMB A TREE★

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—preceding/ongoing infectious disorders such as urethritis (*Chlamydia*), diarrhea (*Shigella, Salmonella, Campylobacter, Yersinia*) or HIV, usually within 6 weeks. Overall, 75% achieve remission within 2 years (about one-third of them may experience intermittent relapses), and 25% develop chronic disease (with 5–10% developing ankylosing spondylitis)
- clinical FEATURES—acute asymmetric oligoarthritis (spondylitis, sacroiliitis, lower limbs), morning stiffness, and enthesitis (Achilles tendonitis, plantar fasciitis, chest wall changes, and sausage fingers/toes). Other important findings include genital lesions (circinate balanitis with shallow painless ulcers on the glans or urethral meatus, urethritis, prostatitis), skin lesions (keratoderma blennorrhagica with vesicles that progress to macules, papules and nodules on palms and soles), eye lesions (conjunctivitis, iritis [acute, unilateral, photophobia, pain, redness, impaired vision]), bowel inflammation (acute enterocolitis, chronic ileocolitis), and cardiac abnormalities (aortic regurgitation, conduction abnormalities). Imaging is non-specific but can show periosteal spurs, sacroiliitis
- ACR DIAGNOSTIC CRITERIA—episode of arthritis of more than 1 month with urethritis and/or cervicitis, episode of arthritis of more than 1 month and either urethritis or cervicitis, or bilateral conjunctivitis, episode of arthritis, conjunctivitis, and urethritis, episode of arthritis of more than 1 month, conjunctivitis, and urethritis
- TREATMENTS—NSAIDS (pain control), sulfasalazine, anti-TNF agents, methotrexate, leflunomide. Most patients will enter remission within 6-12 months

Back Pain

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

MECHANICAL

- TRAUMA—sprain, strain, fracture
- FRACTURE—compression, traumatic
- SPONDYLOSIS—disc, annulus, facet
- SPONDYLOLISTHESIS

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

INFLAMMATORY

 RHEUMATOLOGIC—psoriatic arthritis, enteric arthritis, ankylosing spondylitis, reactive arthritis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

- MALIGNANCY—multiple myeloma, epidural metastasis, leptomeningeal metastasis
- INFECTIONS—epidural abscess

REFERRED PAIN

- GI—pancreatitis, cholecystitis
- **RENAL**—stones, pyelonephritis, abscess
- PELVIC
- AORTIC ANEURYSM RUPTURE

CLINICAL FEATURES

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: WHAT CAN THE HISTORY AND PHYSICAL EXAMINATION TELL US ABOUT LOW BACK PAIN?

HISTORY—history of cancer, unexplained weight loss, pain duration >1 month, failure to improve with conservative therapy are all relatively specific for cancer pain. IDU or urinary infection suggests spinal infection. Back pain in young men raises possibility of ankylosing spondylitis. Failure to improve with rest is sensitive for systemic conditions. Sciatica or pseudoclaudication suggests neurological involvement. Bladder dysfunction and saddle anesthesia suggest cauda equina syndrome

PHYSICAL—vertebral tenderness (sensitive but not specific) and fever suggest spinal infection. Straight leg raising should be assessed bilaterally in sciatica or neurogenic claudication. In addition to back examination, tone, strength, reflexes and sensory examination of lower limbs should be done

UPDATE—positive sit-to-stand test predicts upper lumbar herniation (LR+ 26, LR- 0.35). Positive crossed straight leg raise predicts disk herniation (LR+ 1.6–5.8, LR– 0.59–0.90)

> Deyo et al. JAMA 1992;268(6) Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination McGraw-Hill; 2009

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- IMAGING—spine X-ray should be obtained if red flag features but age-related degenerative changes may be unrelated to symptoms
- SPECIAL
- IMAGING—CT spine, MRI spine (if surgery), myelogram (gold standard but seldom used)
- MYELOMA WORKUP—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, ESR, serum protein electrophoresis, urinary protein electrophoresis, serum free light chain assay

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

Related Topics

Ankylosing Spondylitis (p. 301) Radiculopathy (p. 347) Spinal Cord Compression (p. 243)

DIAGNOSTIC FEATURES

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN INFLAMMATORY AND MECHANICAL BACK PAIN

| | Inflammatory | Mechanical |
|-------------------|--------------|------------|
| Age | Younger | Older |
| Onset | Insidious | Abrupt |
| Duration | >3 months | Shorter |
| AM stiffness | ++ | +/- |
| Resting | Worsens | Improves |
| Activity | Improves | Worsens |
| Sacroiliac joints | ++ | - |

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL—pain control TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—flexion and extension exercises

Carette et al. NEJM 2005;353(4)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

SPINAL CORD COMPRESSION—compression of spinal cord (upper motor neuron findings). Lower limb weakness, increased tendon reflexes in legs, sensory loss usually 1–5 levels below cord lesion with sacral sparing

CAUDA EQUINA SYNDROME—compression of lumbosacral nerve roots (lower motor neurons, mostly below L1 level). Symptoms include lower limb weakness, depressed tendon reflexes in legs, and sacral paresthesia

SCIATICA (LUMBOSACRAL RADICULOPA-THY)—pain radiating in the dermatomal distribution. The classic features are aching pain in the buttock and paresthesias radiating into the posterior thigh and calf or into the posterior lateral thigh and lateral foreleg. Radiating pain below the knee is more likely to indicate a true radiculopathy than radiation only to the posterior thigh

SPONDYLOLISTHESIS—forward slipping of one vertebra on another, usually as a result of repeated stress on pars interarticularis. Symptoms include sciatica and low back pain, although it can also be asymptomatic

| Disc/ | | | | |
|---------------|---|--|---|-----------|
| Root | Pain | Sensory | Weakness | Reflex |
| C4–5 (C5) | Medial scapula, lateral upper arm | Shoulder | Deltoid, supraspinatus, infraspinatus | Supinator |
| C5–6 (C6) | Lateral forearm, thumb, and index finger | Thumb and index finger | Biceps, brachioradialis, wrist extension | Biceps |
| C6–7 (C7) | Medial scapula, posterior arm, dorsum of forearm, third finger | Posterior forearm, third finger | Triceps, wrist flexion, finger extension | Triceps |
| C7–T1 (C8) | Shoulder, ulnar side of forearm, fifth finger | Fifth finger | Intrinsic hand muscles, thumb flexion, and abduction | None |
| L3–4 (L4) | Anterior thigh | Lateral leg to medial malleolus | Hip flexion, dorsiflexion, and inversion | Knee |
| L4–5 (L5) | Posterior lower limb | Lateral leg, dorsal foot including first web space | Hip extension and abduction, dorsiflexion, plantarflexion, and ankle eversion and inversion | None |
| L5–S1 (S1) | Posterior lower limb, often to ankle | Posterior leg, lateral foot | Hip extension and abduction, dorsiflexion, plantarflexion, and ankle eversion | Ankle |
| S2-S4 | Sacral or buttock, radiate to posterior leg or perineum | Perineum (sacral paresthesia) | Bowel and bladder dysfunction | None |

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

DISC HERNIATION—prolapse of nucleus pulposus through the annulus, due to intervertebral pressure and degeneration of the ligamentous fibers. Occurs more commonly in younger patients. If the prolapsed material presses on a nerve root, may cause inflammation and sciatic symptoms. Over 95% of herniated discs affect L4–5 or L5–S1 interspace. Most herniated discs resolve in 1–2 weeks with conservative treatment **SPINAL STENOSIS**

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—narrowing of the spinal canal, with compression of nerve roots → exerts pressure on venules around nerve roots → ischemic nerve injury causing back pain and neurologic symptoms
- cAUSES—degenerative disc disease, osteoarthritis of facet joints with osteophyte and cyst

Systemic Lupus Erythematosus

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

POPULATION—typically affects women aged 15–45

PATHOGENESIS—antibody-immune complex deposition in kidneys (glomerulonephritis), auto-antibodies against cell surface antigens on hema-topoietic progenitor cells (anemia, neutropenia,

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

formation, ligamentum flavum hypertrophy, and spondylolisthesis. Laminectomy, spinal fusion, trauma, Cushing syndrome, Paget disease, and acromegaly are also associated with spinal stenosis

- CLINICAL FEATURES—neurogenic claudication characterized by worsening back and/or lower extremity pain with walking, relieved with flexion, sitting or walking up hill. Neurologic examination may reveal motor/sensory deficits in lower extremities
- **DIAGNOSIS**—CT/MRI spine, lumbar myelogram
- TREATMENTS—pain control (acetaminophen, NSAIDs, opioids (for selected patients), lumbar epidural corticosteroid injections), decompression surgery with laminectomy and partial facetectomy. Physiotherapy consultation

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

thrombocytopenia), antiphospholipid antibodies (thrombosis)

ACR CLASSIFICATION CRITERIA—requires one clinical criterion and score of >10 in patients with positive ANA. Within each domain, count highest weighted criterion

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

Clinical Domains

Constitutional: fever (2)

Hematologic: leukopenia (3), thrombocytopenia (4), autoimmune hemolysis (4)

Neuropsychiatric: delirium (20), psychosis (3), seizure (5)

Mucocutaneous: non-scarring alopecia (2), oral ulcers (2), subacute cutaneous **or** discoid (4), acute cutaneous SLE (6)

Serosal: pleural or pericardial effusion (5), acute pericarditis (6)

MSK: joint involvement (6)

Renal: proteinuria >5g/24h (4), Class II or V lupus nephritis (8), class III or IV lupus nephritis (10)

Immunology Domains

Antiphospholipid antibodies: anti-cardiolipin **or** anti-B2GP1 **or** lupus anticoagulant (2)

Complements: low C3 or C4 (3), low C3 and C4 (4)

SLE-specific antibodies: anti-dsDNA ab **or** anti-Smith ab (6)

CLINICAL FEATURES

JOINT SYMPTOMS—symmetric non-erosive polyarthritis with joint pain, swelling, redness, morning stiffness (>1 h), and dysfunction

- HANDS—Jaccoud arthritis (joint deformities are unusual), fingers and wrists
- LEGS—knees more commonly affected
- AVASCULAR NECROSIS—hip, shoulder, and knee may be affected

EXTRA-ARTICULAR MANIFESTATIONS

- PULMONARY—pleuritis, pulmonary hypertension, PE, alveolar hemorrhage, shrinking lung syndrome (dyspnea, pleuritic chest pain, progressive reduction in lung volume, elevated diaphragms)
- CARDIAC—pericarditis, myocarditis, Libman– Sacks endocarditis
- RENAL—proteinuria or active sediment, glomerulonephritis
 - ISN CLASSIFICATION OF LUPUS NEPHRITIS—class I (asymptomatic), class II (mesangial proliferative; nephritic syndrome with proteinuria); class IV (diffuse proliferative; nephritic syndrome and nephrotic syndrome); class V (membranous glomerulonephritis; nephrotic syndrome); class VI (advanced glomerulosclerosis; uremia)
 - severity—VI > IV > III > II. Consider aggressive treatment for class III/IV
- GI—mesenteric thrombosis and vasculitis, transaminitis/hepatitis

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

- HEMATOLOGIC—anemia of chronic disease, autoimmune hemolytic anemia, lymphopenia, thrombocytopenia, lymphadenopathy, antiphospholipid antibody syndrome
- NEUROLOGIC—aseptic meningitis, transverse myelitis, stroke, seizures, organic brain syndrome, psychosis, depression, peripheral neuropathy
- DERMATOLOGIC—photosensitivity, malar rash (nasolabial folds spared), discoid lupus (erythematous papules/plaques with central hypopigmentation, atrophic scarring involving scalp and exposed skin), mucosal ulcers (oral, vaginal, nasal septal), alopecia, livedo reticularis, palpable purpura, Raynaud

SEROLOGIC—ANA (sens >99%), anti-dsDNA (very specific), anti-Smith (very specific), SSA/Ro, SSB/La, RNP, antiphospholipid antibody (sens 40%)

CONSTITUTIONAL SYMPTOMS—fatigue, fever (high grade), lymphadenopathy, weight loss, myalgia

LUPUS EXACERBATIONS—typically with fatigue, arthritis, mucocutaneous, renal, neurologic, and/or dermatologic involvement. Individual patients usually have a fixed pattern of presentation. Precipitants include UV exposure, medication non-adherence, infections, and pregnancy. Always consider other causes such as infections, medication side effects (steroids), and embolism

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 BLOOD TESTS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, ESR, CRP, ANA (sensitive), anti-dsDNA (specific for SLE), C3, C4

URINE TESTS—urinalysis, urine protein to Cr ratio

SPECIAL

- INFLAMMATORY WORKUP—ENA (anti-Smith), anti-SSA/SSB (especially in pregnancy, associated with neonatal lupus and congenital complete heart block), antiphospholipid antibodies (anticardiolipin, lupus anticoagulant, anti-ß2 glycoprotein 1), cryoglobulins
- INFECTIOUS WORKUP—serologies (parvovirus, HBV, HCV, EBV, CMV)
- ARTHROCENTESIS—★3C★ (Cell count with diff [>2000 WBC/mm³], Culture and Gram stain, Crystal. Cannot make definite diagnosis of SLE from arthrocentesis)

MANAGEMENT

HYDROXYCHLOROQUINE—consider for all patients with SLE (5mg/kg/day), unless there is a contraindication to treatment

SYMPTOM CONTROL—cutaneous lupus (photoprotection, topical agents [steroids, calcineurin inhibitors], prednisone). Arthritis (NSAIDs, steroids, methotrexate, belimumab). Nephritis (class III/IV induction with steroids plus cyclophosphamide [CYC] or mycophenolate mofetil [MMF]; alternative treatment with calcineurin inhibitor [CNI]; class V + nephrotic proteinuria MMF, alternative treatment with IV CYC or CNI (+/- MMF), Maintenance with MMF or azathioprine). Neuropsychiatric (steroids +/- CYC). Serositis (NSAIDs, steroids). Thrombocytopenia (steroids, IVIG, rituximab, splenectomy). Avoid exogenous estrogen

2019 EULAR/ACR Classification Criteria SLE

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

UNDIFFERENTIATED CONNECTIVE TISSUE DISEASE—syndrome in which patient has some clinical features of systemic autoimmune rheumatic disease (RA, SLE, Sjögren syndrome, scleroderma, inflammatory myopathies) and positive ANA but does not meet criteria for specific diagnosis

OVERLAP SYNDROME—meets diagnostic criteria for >1 systemic autoimmune disease (SLE, systemic sclerosis, inflammatory myopathy, RA, Sjögren syndrome)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

MIXED CONNECTIVE TISSUE DISEASE—a specific overlap syndrome with clinical features of SLE, scleroderma, inflammatory myopathy, and antibodies to RNP. Characteristically, Raynaud phenomenon, myositis, and synovitis are present

DRUG-INDUCED SYSTEMIC LUPUS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—some drugs may trigger production of autoantibodies (e.g. ANA), which may cause or precipitate drug-induced lupus in susceptible individuals
- cAUSES—procainamide, hydralazine, quinidine, D-penicillamine, diltiazem, atenolol, anti-TNF agents (infliximab, etanercept, adalimumab, golimumab), captopril, carbamazepine, chlorpromazine, enalapril, ethosuximide, hydrochlorothiazide, isoniazid, lithium, methyldopa, minocycline, minoxidil, phenytoin, primidone, statins, sulfasalazine, trimethadione
- CLINICAL FEATURES—compared to systemic lupus, drug-induced lupus has the following features: middle age presentation, no gender difference, affects Caucasians, acute onset, less cutaneous, renal, neurologic, and hematologic involvement, but equal joint, hepatic, and constitutional symptoms. Usually anti-histone antibody positive, anti-Smith negative, antidsDNA negative and normal complement levels
- TREATMENTS—discontinue offending drug if possible, NSAIDs, may require short course of corticosteroids, hydroxychloroquine for more prolonged symptoms

RAYNAUD PHENOMENON

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—exaggerated acral vasoconstriction to cold, emotional stress, or exercise. Triphasic changes from white to blue to red
- CAUSES—primary (isolated Raynaud), secondary (rheumatologic [SLE, scleroderma, dermatomyositis, polymyositis, RA, mixed connective tissue disease], traumatic [vibrational injury, frostbite, carpal tunne], drugs [ergots, cocaine, β-blockers, bleomycin, vinblastine, interferon], hyperviscosity [leukemia, thrombocytosis, polycythemia, cryoglobulinemia, cold agglutinins], occlusive arterial disease, hypothyroidism, infections [parvovirus B19, bacterial endocarditis], complex regional pain syndrome)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—usually symmetric episodes, sharply demarcated color changes of

skin and severe pain of the digits lasting 10–15 min. Secondary causes more likely if age >40, male, ulcerations, asymmetric, involvement proximal to digits and abnormal capillary nailfold

 TREATMENTS—trigger avoidance (cold, stress, smoking, sympathomimetic drugs). Terminate attacks early (place hands in warm water). Dihydropyridine calcium channel blockers (*nifedipine* 10–60 mg PO TID, *amlodipine* 5–20 mg PO daily), topical nitrates, ASA, phosphodiesterase inhibitors. Anticoagulation (if antiphospholipid antibodies or surgical interventions required)

SYSTEMIC SCLEROSIS (SCLERODERMA)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—extensive fibrosis of skin, blood vessels, and internal organs (GI, lungs, renal, cardiac). Four subtypes: diffuse systemic sclerosis (progressive systemic sclerosis), limited systemic sclerosis (formerly known as ★CREST★ syndrome—Calcinosis, Raynaud phenomenon, Esophageal dysmotility, Sclerodactyly, Telangiectasias), localized scleroderma (morphea, linear), and scleroderma sine scleroderma (without sclerodactyly)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—Raynaud phenomenon may precede skin changes for years. Usually involves skin (starts from extremities extending proximally, progressing from edematous to fibrotic to atrophic stage). Common signs: dilated capillary loops, sclerodactyly, flexion contractures, en coup de sabre deformity, purse lips, telangiectasia, Gl hypomotility (dry mouth, dysphagia, reflux, N&V, abdominal pain, constipation, overflow diarrhea, weight loss), lungs (pleural effusion, pulmonary fibrosis, pulmonary hypertension), kidneys (renal crisis), and heart (pericarditis)
- DIAGNOSIS—2013 ACR/EULAR Classification Criteria. A total score of ≥9 supports the diagnosis: skin thickening of fingers of both hands extending proximal to MCP joints (9) vs. skin thickening of fingers consisting of puffy fingers (2) or sclerodactyly distal to MCP joints but proximal to PIP (4) vs. fingertip lesions only with digital tip ulcers (2) or fingertip pitting scars (3), telangiectasia (2), abnormal nailfold capillaries (2), pulmonary arterial hypertension (2), interstitial lung disease (2), Raynaud (3),

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- SSc-related autoantibodies: anticentromere, anti-topoisomerase I (anti-ScI-70), or anti-RNA polymerase III (3)
- TREATMENTS—skin changes (methotrexate, MMF, cyclophosphamide). Raynaud (calcium channel blockers). GERD (PPI BID). Renal crisis (ACE inhibitors-captopril). Interstitial pneumonitis (steroids, azathioprine, mycophenolate, cyclophosphamide). Pulmonary hypertension (endothelin antagonists [bosentan], phosphodiesterase inhibitors [sildenafil, tadalafil]). Autologous stem cell transplant may be indicated if early, rapidly progressive and at risk of organ failure

Herrick et al. Ann Rheum Dis 2017;76(7) INFLAMMATORY MYOPATHIES

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—classified as polymyositis, dermatomyositis, inclusion body myositis (IBM), necrotizing autoimmune myopathy (NAM)
- Associations—dermatomyositis is associated with malignancy (GI, lung, ovarian, breast, lymphoma) in 6–45% of patients, NAM is associated with statin exposure
- clinical FEATURES-proximal, symmetric, progressive muscle weakness developing over weeks to months, +/- morning stiffness. Muscle pain uncommon. Extramuscular manifestations: arthralgias, cardiac (conduction abnormalities, cardiomyopathy), respiratory (muscle weakness, aspiration, interstitial lung disease), skin (Gottron papules [dorsal aspect of MCP and IP joints/elbows/knees], heliotrope rash (over upper evelids with periorbital edema), V rash/shawl sign [erythematous rash over upper chest/back/shoulders], periungual telangiectasia, "mechanic's hand" [with darkened horizontal lines across lateral and palmar aspects of fingers/hands]), and constitutional symptoms. Reflexes normal
- DIAGNOSIS—Symmetric proximal weakness, elevation of muscle enzymes (CK), EMG and muscle biopsy findings consistent with inflammatory myositis. Need all 4 criteria for definite polymyositis, and 3 criteria plus skin findings for definite dermatomyositis. Anti-Jo1, anti-Mi2, anti-SRP, anti-MDA5, TIF1, HMGCR. Important to exclude other causes of myopathies.
- TREATMENTS—prednisone, methotrexate, azathioprine, leflunomide, IVIG, rituximab

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN STEROID MYOPATHY AND INFLAMMATORY MYOPATHIES

| | Steroid myopathy | Inflammatory myopathies |
|-------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| History | Steroid use or other steroid-related | Other inflammatory myopathy |
| | symptoms | symptoms |
| Physical | Neck flexor normal | Neck flexor weaker |
| Tests | CK normal or mild ↑ | CK often ↑, anti-Jo1, anti-Mi2, HMGCI Ab |
| EMG | Normal | Abnormal activity |
| Stop statin | Improves | Worsens |
| | | |

Osteoarthritis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PRIMARY OSTEOARTHRITIS

- GENERALIZED
- LOCALIZED—hands (nodal, erosive, inflammatory), feet (first MTP), knee, hip, spine

SECONDARY OSTEOARTHRITIS

- MECHANICAL—post-traumatic, post-surgical
- NEUROPATHIC JOINTS—diabetes, syphilis, spinal cord injury
- INFLAMMATORY—RA, crystal arthropathies, infectious
- METABOLIC—hemochromatosis, Wilson disease, acromegaly, Paget disease, Cushing syndrome, ochronosis

 BLEEDING DYSCRASIAS—hemophilic, warfarin use OSTEOARTHRITIS MIMICS—inflammatory features and distribution should help to rule out inflammatory arthritis (seropositive, seronegative, crystal, infectious arthropathies). Diffuse idiopathic skeletal hyperostosis (DISH) is a bone forming condition characterized by ossification at skeletal sites of stress. Important to distinguish from periarticular structures (tendonitis, bursitis)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

ARTICULAR CARTILAGE—not just 'wear and tear' but involves increased activity of cartilage matrix formation and removal. As the repair effort becomes inadequate, metalloproteinases and collagenase cause degradation of cartilage

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

and subsequent degeneration of surrounding soft tissues

RISK FACTORS FOR PRIMARY OSTEOAR-THRITIS—age, female, obesity, mechanical factors (previous joint injury, excessive varus/valgus), smoking, genetics

CLINICAL FEATURES

SUBTYPES OF PRIMARY OSTEOARTHRITIS

- GENERALIZED—affects DIP (Heberden nodes), PIP (Bouchard nodes) and first CMC joints, hips, knees, and spine. More common in women
- ISOLATED NODAL—affects DIP joints only. More common in women
- EROSIVE—affects DIP and PIP joints, with episodes of local inflammation, mucous cyst formation, and bony erosion resulting in joint deformity. Genetic predisposition. May mimic rheumatoid arthritis
- DIFFUSE IDIOPATHIC SKELETAL HYPEROSTOSIS (DISH, Forestier disease)—affects spine mainly but peripheral joints may also be involved, with osteophytes connecting ≥4 vertebrae. X-rays are diagnostic. May mimic ankylosing spondylitis

INVESTIGATIONS

IMAGING—X-ray of affected joints (joint space narrowing, marginal osteophytes, subchondral sclerosis, and subchondral cysts)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN PRI-MARY AND SECONDARY OSTEOARTHRI-TIS—primary OA almost never involves the shoulders, elbows, ankles, MCP joints, or ulnar side of wrist. Consider secondary OA in young patients, unusual sites, widespread chondrocalcinosis, or constitutional symptoms

ACR CLASSIFICATION CRITERIA FOR HAND OSTEOARTHRITIS—hand pain, aching, or stiffness and three of the following: hard tissue enlargement > 2 selected joints (second and third DIP or PIP, first CMC), hard tissue enlargement of > 2 DIP joints, <3 swollen MCP joints, deformity of at least 1 selected joints. Sens 94%, spc 87%

ACR CLASSIFICATION CRITERIA FOR HIP OSTEOARTHRITIS—hip pain and at least two of the following: ESR <20 mm/h, radiographic femoral or acetabular osteophytes, radiographic joint space narrowing. Sens 89%, spc 91%

MANAGEMENT

CONSERVATIVE MEASURES—exercise, selfefficacy and self-management programs, weight loss, assistive devices (use cane to support unaffected side, 1st CMC orthotic, tibiofemoral bracing)

SYMPTOM CONTROL—NSAIDs (use lowest effective dose and add proton pump inhibitor for gastric protection if indicated. *Naproxen* 200–500 mg BID, *ibuprofen* 200–800 mg QID, *diclofenac gel* 5% apply to affected area QID), intra-articular glucocorticoids. Can consider *acetaminophen* 325–650 mg PO q4–6 h, tramadol, duloxetine. No medical treatment shown to slow progression

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

JOINT REPLACEMENT—indicated if uncontrollable pain, loss of function, failure of conservative therapies

2019 ACR/Arthritis Foundation Guideline OA Hand Hip Knee

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

POST-TRAUMATIC SECONDARY OA—usually isolated large joints. Knee OA may develop after meniscal tear, shoulder OA may develop with rotator cuff iniury

HEMOCHROMATOSIS—classically affects second and third MCP and shoulders (see p. 482 for more details)

AVASCULAR NECROSIS/ASEPTIC NECROSIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—damage to vasculature from mechanical interruption, thrombosis/ embolism, vessel wall injury, or venous occlusion, leading to medullary infarction. Affects the femoral head, tibial plateau, humeral head, scaphoid, and vertebrae more commonly
- ASSOCIATIONS—★ASEPTIC★ Alcohol, Steroids, Sepsis, Storage disease (Gaucher), Sickle cell disease, Emboli (fat, cholesterol), Postradiation, Trauma, Idiopathic, Connective tissue disease (SLE, rheumatoid arthritis, vasculitis), Cancer, hyperCoagulable states
- CLINICAL FEATURES—joint pain. High index of suspicion, especially if steroid use
- DIAGNOSIS—plain radiographs (initially can appear normal), CT, bone scan. MRI is the most sensitive test
- TREATMENTS—stop offending agents. Avoid weight bearing. Pain control. Orthopedic consult for possible debridement, decompression, or joint replacement

Fibromyalgia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF DIFFUSE BODY PAIN

FIBROMYALGIA

- муоратну—metabolic (hypothyroidism), drug induced, myofascial pain syndrome
- NEUROLOGIC—multiple sclerosis, neuropathic pain
- INFECTION—viral infections, spirochetal infection (Lyme)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF DIFFUSE BODY PAIN (CONT'D)

- RHEUMATOLOGIC—polymyalgia rheumatica, poly myositis/dermatomyositis, rheumatoid arthritis, SLE, spondyloarthropathy
- PSYCHIATRIC—depression
- отнея—medications, adrenal insufficiency, hypothyroidism

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

 INCREASED PAIN PERCEPTION ASSOCIATIONS—irritable bowel/bladder syndrome, chronic headaches, mood disorders (depression, anxiety), sleep disorders

CLINICAL FEATURES

ACR 2010 DIAGNOSTIC CRITERIA—the diagnosis of fibromyalgia requires fulfillment of the following 3 criteria:

- Widespread pain index (WPI) ≥7 and symptom severity scale score (SS) ≥5, or WPI 3–6 and SS ≥9;
- 2. Symptoms present at a similar level for at least 3 months;
- 3. No other explanation

Note: WPI is based on the number of areas in which the patient has pain over the past week (0-19): left or right shoulder girdle, left or right hy (buttock, trochanter), left or right jaw, upper or lower back, left or right upper arm, left or right lower arm, left or right upper leg, left or right lower leg, neck, chest, abdomen

Note: SS scale score is based on the sum of the severity of 3 symptoms plus the extent of somatic symptoms in general (total score 0–12)

Fatigue, waking unrefreshed, cognitive symptoms: for each of the 3 symptoms, indicate the level of severity over the past week using: no problem (0); slight or mild problems, generally mild or intermittent (1); moderate, considerable problems, often present or at a moderate level or both (2); severe, pervasive, continuous, life-disturbing problems (3)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

 Consider somatic symptoms in general, indicate whether the patient has no symptoms (0), few symptoms (1), a moderate number of symptoms (2), many symptoms (3)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS (usually normal)—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, Ca, Mg, PO₄, CRP, TSH, CK

MANAGEMENT

REASSURANCE AND PATIENT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

LIFESTYLE—physical therapy/activity, sleep hygiene

MEDICATIONS—amitriptyline, muscle relaxants (cyclobenzaprine), SSRI/SNRIs, pregabalin, gabapentin. Opioids are not effective and should be avoided

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

CHRONIC FATIGUE SYNDROME

- DIAGNOSTIC CRITERIA—new-onset unexplained persistent or relapsing fatigue, exclude ongoing exertion, not alleviated by rest, substantial reduction in previous activities, and at least 4 of the following: self-reported impairment in short term memory or concentration, sore throat, tender cervical or axillary nodes, muscle pain, multi-joint pain without redness or swelling, headaches of a new pattern or severity, unrefreshing sleep, post-exertional malaise lasting >24 h
- TREATMENTS—cognitive behavior therapy and graded exercise

Vasculitis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PRIMARY VASCULITIDES—Takayasu aortitis, giant cell/temporal arteritis, polyarteritis nodosa (PAN), microscopic polyangiitis (MPA), eosinophilic granulomatosis with polyangiitis (EGPA), granulomatosis with polyangiitis (GPA) SECONDARY VASCULITIDES Weyand et al. *NEJM* 2003;349(2) Walsh et al. *NEJM* 2020;382(7)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

★VASCULITIS★

- VARIOUS DRUGS
- аитоіммиме—SLE, rheumatoid arthritis, Behçet disease, relapsing polychondritis
- serum sickness—penicillin
- CRYOGLOBULINEMIA

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

- ULCERATIVE COLITIS
- LOW COMPLEMENT—hypocomplementemic urticarial vasculitis
- INFECTIONS—viral (HBV, HCV, HIV, CMV, EBV, parvovirus B19), rickettsial
- тимокs—lymphoma, multiple myeloma
- IGA NEPHROPATHY/HENOCH-SCHONLEIN PURPURA
- SMOKING-RELATED THROMBOANGIITIS OBLITERANS— Buerger disease

VASCULITIS MIMICS

- RHEUMATIC DISEASES—SLE
- INFECTIOUS—bacteremia, necrotic arachnidism
- INFILTRATIVE—amyloidosis
- CANCER—lymphoma
- CONGENITAL—coarctation of the aorta, neurofibromatosis
- емвоц—endocarditis, mycotic aneurysm, cholesterol, atrial myxoma
- ETC—fibromuscular dysplasia, granulomatosis/ polymorphic reticulosis, ergotism, radiation fibrosis, thrombocytopenia, malignant atrophic papulosis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

MECHANISM—inflammation of vessel wall → loss of vessel integrity results in bleeding, and compromise of the lumen leads to tissue ischemia and necrosis. The distribution of organ involvement depends on the distribution of antigen

CLASSIFICATION

- LARGE VESSEL VASCULITIS—Takayasu aortitis, giant cell/temporal arteritis
- MEDIUM VESSEL VASCULITIS—Kawasaki disease, polyarteritis nodosa
- SMALL VESSELS VASCULITIS—Immune complexmediated (Goodpasture, cryoglobulinemic, IgA, hypocomplementemic urticarial); ANCAassociated (GPA, EGPA, MPA)
- VARIABLE VESSEL VASCULITIS—Behçet disease, Cogan syndrome

CLINICAL FEATURES

SYMPTOMS

CONSTITUTIONAL—fever, arthralgias, fatigue, anorexia

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

- ORGAN ISCHEMIA—mesenteric ischemia, stroke, blindness, peripheral neuropathy
- **SKIN CHANGES**—palpable purpura (nonblanchable), livedo reticularis, necrotic lesions, infarcts of tips of digits

PALPABLE PURPURA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—pathognomonic of small vessel vasculitis. Inflammation of the vessel allows extravasation of blood and fluid into the extravascular space, resulting in palpable edema. Since the blood is no longer intravascular, the lesion is purpuric (non-blanchable) rather than erythematous
- causes—inflammatory (polyarteritis nodosa, GPA, Henoch-Schönlein purpura, SLE, cryoglobulinemia), infectious (sepsis, infective endocarditis, disseminated meningococcemia), iatrogenic (drugs)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—bright to dark red purpuric papules/plaques
- DIAGNOSIS—skin biopsy shows leukocytoclastic vasculitis

WHEN TO SUSPECT VASCULITIS—multisystem or ischemic vascular disease, palpable purpura, glomerulonephritis, mononeuritis multiplex, myalgia, arthralgia, arthritis, abdominal/testicular pain, unexplained constitutional symptoms

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- BLOOD TESTS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, albumin, ESR, CRP, ANA, urinalysis
- IMAGING—CXR

SPECIAL

- INFLAMMATORY WORKUP—RF, C3, C4, p-ANCA, c-ANCA, cryoglobulins, CK, serum protein electrophoresis
- INFECTIOUS WORKUP—serologies (HIV, HBV, HCV, EBV, CMV, Treponema pallidum, B. burgdorferi)
- FURTHER IMAGING GUIDED BY SYMPTOMS—MR head, CT chest/abd/pelvis, CT/MR/conventional angiogram
- BIOPSY OF AFFECTED ORGAN—most important. Guided by symptoms (e.g. temporal artery, skin, kidney, Gl mucosa)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

DIAGNOSIS BY ORGAN INVOLVEMENT

| | Head (stroke, visual ∆) | Peripheral neuropathy | Lung (dyspnea, hemoptysis) | Kidneys (GN) | Abdomen (pain) | Skin (palpable purpura) | Others |
|--|-------------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|-------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|
| Takayasu aortitis | + | | | | | | Cardiovascular |
| Giant cell arteritis | + | | | | | | ESR++, PMR |
| Polyarteritis nodosa | | + | | | + | + | GI++ |
| Microscopic polyangiitis | | | + | + | + | | p-ANCA |
| Granulomatosis with polyangiitis (GPA) | ± | + | + | + | | | Sinus, c-ANCA |
| Eosinophilic granulomatosis with polyangiitis (EGPA) | | | + | + | | + | Asthma, eosinophilia |
| Henoch-Schönlein purpura | | | | | + | + | IgA |
| Behçet disease | + | | | | | + | Oral/GU/GI ulcers |
| Cryoglobulinemia | | + | | + | | + | Cryoglobulin |

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

TAKAYASU AORTITIS (PULSELESS DISEASE)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—vasculitis of large arteries, typically aorta and its branches with vessel occlusion causing MI, TIA/stroke, visual disturbances, claudication
- Associations—young women of Asian or Mexican descent
- ACR CLASSIFICATION CRITERIA—age at disease onset 10 mmHg between arms, bruit over subclavian arteries or aorta, arteriogram abnormality (narrowing or occlusion of the entire aorta, its primary branches, or large arteries in the proximal upper or lower extremities, not due to arteriosclerosis, fibromuscular dysplasia, or similar causes; changes usually focal or segmental). Need 3 of 6 criteria (sens 91%, spc 98%)
- TREATMENTS—prednisone 1mg/kg/day with slow taper, vascular surgery, anti-platelet (ASA 81mg/day) if critical arterial stenosis. Frequent relapses. Methotrexate, tocilizumab (IL6R antagonist), infliximab (anti-TNF), azathioprine if refractory

POLYMYALGIA RHEUMATICA

Associations—temporal arteritis in 15%

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- CLINICAL FEATURES—age >50, morning stiffness>pain (in proximal musculature including hip and shoulder girdle), constitutional symptoms. May have oligoarticular joint swelling (knees, wrists, shoulders), ↑ ESR. Diagnosis of exclusion
- TREATMENTS—prednisone 15–20 mg PO daily at stable dose until myalgia and stiffness resolved for 2–4 weeks, then reduce by 10% (no more than 1 mg/month) every 4 weeks until tapered off. Rapid dramatic response to prednisone. Use of prednisone > 15 mg decreases the diagnostic specificity. Relapse is frequent. Given prolonged steroid use, ensure appropriate bone protection with calcium 1200 mg/day, vitamin D 800 IU/day, +/- bisphosphonate based on FRAX with glucocorticoid correction. Should get a BMD within first 6 months of starting prednisone

GIANT CELL ARTERITIS/TEMPORAL ARTERITIS

- Associations—older age, polymyalgia rheumatica in 30–50%
- CLINICAL FEATURES—vasculitis of the large and medium arteries. Temporal headache, amauro-

sis fugax, diplopia, jaw claudication, painful scalp nodules, tender or palpably abnormal temporal artery. Extracranial GCA involves aorta in 10–15%

- ACR CLASSIFICATION CRITERIA—age >50, newonset headache, temporal artery tenderness to palpation or decreased pulse, ESR >50 mm/h, abnormal temporal artery biopsy. Need 3 of 5 criteria (sens 94%, spc 91%)
- DIAGNOSIS—temporal artery biopsy is gold standard; consider contralateral biopsy if unilateral biopsy is negative and high suspicion. Color Doppler US, +/- CTA/MRA/PET imaging may be helpful. Biopsy should not delay initiation of treatment if high risk of GCA at risk of vision loss
- TREATMENTS—if no ocular symptoms, prednisone 40–60 mg PO daily \times 1 month, taper to 7.5-15 mg daily over 6-9 months, may continue for several years (monitor symptoms, signs, and CRP). If ocular symptoms present, methylprednisolone 1 g IV daily×3 days, then prednisone 80 mg PO daily and taper over time. Initiate therapy before biopsy if high index of suspicion. Consider tocilizumab or methotrexate if steroid-sparing therapy required. ASA 81 mg PO daily is recommended to reduce vascular complications. Given prolonged steroid use, ensure appropriate bone protection with calcium 1200 mg/day, vitamin D 800 IU/day, +/- bisphosphonate based on FRAX with glucocorticoid correction. BMD within first 6 months of starting prednisone

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE TEMPORAL ARTERITIS?

| | LR+ | LR- |
|------------------------|------|------|
| History | | |
| Jaw claudication | 4.3 | 0.72 |
| Diplopia | 3.5 | 0.96 |
| Any headache | 1.7 | 0.67 |
| Temporal headache | 1.5 | 0.82 |
| Unilateral visual loss | 0.85 | 1.2 |
| Fatigue | 1.2 | 0.94 |
| Fever | 1.2 | 0.92 |
| Physical | | |
| Beaded temporal artery | 4.6 | 0.93 |

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

| | LR+ | LR– | | | |
|---|------|------|--|--|--|
| Prominent temporal artery | 4.3 | 0.67 | | | |
| Tender temporal artery | 2.6 | 0.82 | | | |
| Absent temporal artery pulse | 2.7 | 0.71 | | | |
| Any temporal artery | 2 | 0.53 | | | |
| Scalp tenderness | 1.7 | 0.73 | | | |
| Optic atrophy or ischemic optic neuropathy | 1.6 | 0.8 | | | |
| Any fundoscopic abnormality | 1.1 | 1.0 | | | |
| Synovitis | 0.41 | 1.1 | | | |
| Male gender | 0.83 | - | | | |
| White race | 1.1 | - | | | |
| Laboratory investigations | | | | | |
| Anemia | 1.5 | 0.79 | | | |
| ESR abnormal | 1.1 | 0.2 | | | |
| ESR >50 mm/h | 1.1 | 0.35 | | | |
| ESR >100 mm/h | 1.9 | 0.8 | | | |

Smetana et al. JAMA 2002;287(1)

UPDATE—Temporal arteritis score >70 (for patients \geq 50 years; based on headache, jaw claudication, scalp tenderness, ESR, ischemic optic neuropathy, and age) predicts positive temporal artery biopsy

Simel et al. *The Rational Clinical Examination* McGraw-Hill; 2009

POLYARTERITIS NODOSA (PAN)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—necrotizing vasculitis of medium and small arteries with no glomerulonephritis. Associated with HIV, CMV, parvovirus B19, HBV, HCV
- CLINICAL FEATURES—mononeuritis multiplex (particularly the peroneal and tibial branches of sciatic nerve), orchitis, skin (palpable purpura, livedo reticularis, subcutaneous nodules, distal gangrene), GI (mesenteric vasculitis), renal (vasculitis but NO glomerulonephritis)
- ACR CLASSIFICATION CRITERIA—weight loss >4 kg since illness, livedo reticularis, testicular pain or tenderness, myalgias, weakness or leg tenderness, mononeuropathy or polyneuropathy, diastolic blood pressure >90 mmHg, elevated urea >14 mmol/L [>39 mg/dL] or Cr >132 µmol/L [>1.45 mg/dL], HBsAg or HBsAb positive, arteriographic abnormality (aneurysms or occlusions of the visceral arteries, not due to arteriosclerosis, fibromuscular dysplasia, or other noninflammatory causes), biopsy of small or

medium-sized artery containing PMN. Need 3 of 10 criteria (sens 82%, spc 87%)

 TREATMENTS—prednisone 1mg/kg for 4 weeks with taper over 6-12 months, methotrexate, azathioprine (mild), cyclophosphamide (severe)

MICROSCOPIC POLYANGIITIS (MPA)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—necrotizing vasculitis of the small vessels. Frequent glomerulonephritis and lung involvement
- CLINICAL FEATURES—renal (RPGN), pulmonary (hemoptysis, hemorrhage). GI, skin, and neurologic symptoms as in PAN. p-ANCA positive
- TREATMENTS—induction with IV corticosteroids PLUS cyclophosphamide or rituximab. Maintenance with methotrexate, azathioprine, rituximab

GRANULOMATOSIS WITH POLYANGIITIS (GPA)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—systemic vasculitis of the medium and small arteries, venules, and arterioles. Also necrotizing granulomas involving upper and lower respiratory tracts and kidneys. Associated with sinusitis and c-ANCA (autoantibodies against proteinase-3)
- CLINICAL FEATURES ★ELKS★—Ears and nose, Lungs, Kidneys, Skin involvement
- ACR CLASSIFICATION CRITERIA—nasal or oral inflammation/ulcers, abnormal CXR (nodules, fixed infiltrates, cavities), microhematuria (>5 RBC/HPF) or red cell casts in urine sediment, granulomatous inflammation on biopsy. Need 2/4 criteria (sens 88%, spc 92%)
- TREATMENTS—induction with IV corticosteroids PLUS cyclophosphamide or rituximab. Maintenance with methotrexate, azathioprine, rituximab. Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole for PJP prophylaxis and to prevent recurrent sinus infections.

EOSINOPHILIC GRANULOMATOSIS WITH POLYANGIITIS (EGPA)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—systemic vasculitis of the medium and small arteries, typically involving the lung and skin. Also vascular and extravascular granulomatosis with necrosis. Associated with asthma and p-ANCA (autoantibodies against myeloperoxidase), eosinophilia, and ↑ IgE and ESR
- Associations—leukotriene type l receptor antagonists

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- CLINICAL FEATURES—pneumonic infiltrate, skin rash, myocarditis, peripheral neuropathy, and nephropathy
- ACR CLASSIFICATION CRITERIA—asthma, eosinophilia >10%, mono- or polyneuropathy, pulmonary infiltrates (non-fixed), paranasal sinus abnormality, extravascular eosinophils. Need 4/6 criteria (sens 85%, spc 99.7%)
- TREATMENTS—steroids alone if mild, induction with IV corticosteroids PLUS cyclophosphamide if severe. Mepolizumab or rituximab in refractory cases

HENOCH-SCHÖNLEIN PURPURA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—systemic vasculitis of small vessels characterized by IgA-containing immune complex deposition in tissues
- ACR CLASSIFICATION CRITERIA—palpable purpura, age <20 at disease onset, intestinal angina, granulocytes in walls of arterioles or venules on biopsy. Need 2/4 criteria (sens 87%, spc 88%)
- TREATMENTS—usually resolves spontaneously. Consider steroids (prednisone 1 mg/kg PO daily, taper by 5–10 mg/week) for symptom control. Consider cyclophosphamide plus high-dose steroids if crescentic glomerulonephritis

BEHÇET DISEASE

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—systemic vasculitis of the large, medium, and small arteries, typically involving the oral mucosa, eyes, skin, and CNS
- CLINICAL FEATURES—OCCURS more commonly along the Silk Route of Asia and Europe. Typically involves painful aphthous ulcers (gingival, tongue, buccal), eyes (pan-uveitis, hypopyon), skin (erythema nodosum, pseudofolliculitis, acneiform nodules), painful genital ulcers, joints (non-deforming monoarthritis, sometimes oligo- or polyarthritis), venous thrombosis (vena cava, portal, hepatic veins, extremities), CNS (aseptic meningitis, meningoencephalitis, focal neurological deficits)
- DIAGNOSTIC CRITERIA—oral aphthous ulcers recurring ≥3× over 1 year, plus 2 of the following: recurrent genital aphthous ulcers, eyes features, skin features, and positive pathergy testing at 24–48 h
- TREATMENTS—prednisone 15 mg PO daily for 1 week (taper over 3 weeks), colchicine 0.6 mg PO BID, apremilast (phosphodiesterase 4 inhib-

itor), azathioprine and others (lesion dependent)

IgG4-RELATED DISEASE

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—immune-mediated multiorgan condition associated with fibroinflammatory lesions

Approach to Serologies

INFLAMMATORY MARKERS

ERYTHROCYTE SEDIMENTATION RATE (ESR) (non-specific)

- DISORDERS—elevated in vasculitis such as temporal arteritis, PMR and almost all inflammatory disorders (rheumatologic, infectious, malignancy), anemia, renal disease, female sex, obesity, and old age
- UTILITY—associated with disease activity in temporal arteritis and PMR. Normal value corrected for age and is usually less than [age in years + 10 (if female)]/2

C-REACTIVE PROTEIN (CRP) (non-specific)

- DISORDERS—elevated in vasculitis such as temporal arteritis and PMR and almost all inflammatory disorders (rheumatologic, infectious, malignancy), obesity, diabetes, CAD, and smoking
- UTILITY—associated with disease activity in temporal arteritis and PMR

RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS

RHEUMATOID FACTOR—polyclonal IgM against Fc portion of IgG (non-specific)

- DISORDERS—significantly elevated in RA (sens 80%), Sjögren syndrome, mixed cryoglobulinemia, subacute bacterial endocarditis. Mildly elevated in other rheumatologic diseases (SLE, MCTD, polymyositis, sarcoidosis), pulmonary and hepatic diseases, infections, and malignancy. May be positive in the normal elderly
- итпытту—seronegative RA does not have extraarticular findings. Does not correlate with disease activity

ANTICYCLIC CITRULLINATED PEPTIDES (anti-CCP) (very specific)

 UTILITY—very useful for diagnosis of RA (sens 70%, spc 95%)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- CLINICAL FEATURES—retroperitoneal fibrosis; autoimmune pancreatitis; sclerosing cholangitis; salivary or lacrimal gland enlargement; orbital pseudotumor or proptosis
- TREATMENTS—corticosteroids, rituximab if refractory

LUPUS

ANTINUCLEAR ANTIBODIES (ANA) (nonspecific but sensitive screening test for SLE and other autoimmune rheumatic diseases)

- DISORDERS—SLE (sens >99%), mixed connective tissue disease (sens >95%), Sjögren syndrome (sens 75%), inflammatory myopathies (sens >75%), scleroderma (sens >60–90%), rheumatoid arthritis (sens 15–35%), and normal elderly
- STAINING PATTERNS
- NUCLEAR
 - номоденоиs/DIFFUSe—SLE (e.g. associated with anti-dsDNA, histones)
 - SPECKLED—various autoimmune diseases including SLE, neonatal lupus, DM, scleroderma, Sjögren, overlap, and MCTD (e.g. anti-SS-A/Ro, SS-B, Mi-2, TIF1γ, Sm, RNP, RNA polymerase III)
 - CENTROMERE—limited cutaneous scleroderma (e.g. anti-centromere)
 - NUCLEOLAR—scleroderma and sclerodermaautoimmune inflammatory myositis overlap (e.g. anti-PM-Scl and other specific autoantibodies for SSc)
 - DNA TOPO I-LIKE—highly specific for scleroderma, in particular diffuse cutaneous scleroderma (e.g. anti-Scl-70)
- CYTOPLASMIC
 - номоденеоиз—anti-synthetase syndrome and SLE (e.g. anti-ribosomal P)
 - specкLed—anti-synthetase syndrome (e.g. anti-Jo-1)
- митотис—infrequent patterns with low predictive value for autoimmune disease
- υπιμτγ—negative ANA can help to exclude SLE, but ANA testing is not useful in known SLE patients

LUPUS (CONT'D)

ANTIBODIES TO EXTRACTABLE NUCLEAR ANTIGENS (ENA) (ENA panel tests for autoantibodies reacting to cell components, use after positive ANA)

ANTI-DOUBLE-STRANDED DNA (most specific test for SLE)

- DISORDERS—elevated in SLE (sens 20–30%, spc >95%) and chronic active hepatitis. Usually not elevated in drug-induced lupus
- υτιμτγ—associated with lupus nephritis and disease activity in SLE (most useful for following disease)

ANTI-SMITH (very specific)

- DISORDERS—SLE. Usually not elevated in drug induced lupus
- UTILITY—SLE (sens 30%, spc >95%). Associated with lupus nephritis

ANTI-U1 RNP

- DISORDERS—mixed connective tissue disease, SLE
- итіцту—associated with milder SLE

ANTI-HISTONE

 DISORDERS—drug-induced lupus (sens >90%, very spc), SLE (sens >50%)

C3, C4

- DISORDERS—decreased in SLE, cryoglobulinemic vasculitis, Henoch-Schönlein purpura
- υτιμτγ—associated with lupus nephritis and disease activity in SLE and cryoglobulinemic vasculitis

SCLERODERMA

ANTI-SCL-70 (TOPOISOMERASE I) (very specific)

- DISORDERS—scleroderma (sens 20–30%, very spc)
- UTILITY—associated with disease activity

ANTICENTROMERE

 DISORDERS—CREST (sens 90%), idiopathic Raynaud (sens 25%)

SJÖGREN SYNDROME

ANTI-RO (SS-A)

- DISORDERS—Sjögren syndrome (sens 75%), SLE (sens 25%)
- UTILITY—associated with sicca in other connective tissue disorders, extraglandular disease in Sjögren syndrome, heart block in neonates with anti-Ro positive mothers, cutaneous lupus rash, photosensitivity, and thrombocytopenia in SLE

SJÖGREN SYNDROME (CONT'D)

ANTI-LA (SS-B)

- DISORDERS—Sjögren syndrome (sens 40%), SLE (sens 10%)
- υτιLITY—associated with anti-Ro and benign course in SLE if no other autoantibody present except ANA

INFLAMMATORY MYOPATHIES

ANTI-JO-1—antibodies against t-RNA histidyl synthetase

- **DISORDERS**—polymyositis (sens 30%)
- UTILITY—associated with deforming arthritis, mechanic's hands, Raynaud phenomenon, and pulmonary fibrosis in dermatomyositis and polymyositis

ANTI-MI-2

- DISORDERS—dermatomyositis (sens 5%)
- UTILITY—associated with V-sign, shawl sign, cuticular overgrowth, good response to therapy, and good prognosis

ANTI-SRP—antibodies against anti-signal recognition protein

DISORDERS—necrotizing autoimmune myositis

ANTI-HMG-CoA REDUCTASE

- DISORDERS—necrotizing autoimmune myositis
- итіLіту—up to 80% have prior exposure to statin

ANTI-TIF1 GAMMA—p155/140

- DISORDERS—dermatomyositis
- UTILITY—strong association with cancer
- ANTI-MDA5—cytoplasmic RNA helicase
- DISORDERS—dermatomyositis and polymyositis, clinically amyopathic DM
- UTILITY—associated with rapidly progressive ILD

VASCULITIS

PR-3 ANCA—autoantibodies against proteinase-3. Associated with cANCA.

 DISORDERS—granulomatosis with polyangiitis, (spc 98% for generalized active GPA)

MPO ANCA—autoantibodies against myeloperoxidase (MPO) (non-specific)

 DISORDERS—eosinophilic granulomatosis with polyangiitis (sens 65%), idiopathic crescentic glomerulonephritis (sens 65%), microscopic polyangiitis (sens 45%), polyarteritis nodosa (sens 15%), granulomatosis with polyangiitis (sens 10%)

Joint Examination

| | | ROM (active | | |
|----------------------|--|---|--|--|
| | Inspection (SEADS ^a) | and passive) | Palpation (SWAT ^b) | Special tests |
| Shoulder | Winging of scapulae | Abduction (180°) | Clavicle, AC joint, coracoid process, acromion, spine of scapula, greater | Initial abduction against resistance (supraspinatus) |
| | | Adduction (50°) | and lesser tuberosity of humerus, biceps tendon | External rotation against resistance (infraspinatus and teres minor) |
| | | Flexion (180°) | | Internal rotation against resistance (subscapularis) |
| | | Extension (60°) | | Relocation and anterior release tests (shoulder instability) |
| | | Internal rotation (90°) | | Biceps load I and II (labrum tear) |
| | | External rotation (90°) | | Biceps tendonitis |
| Hand and wrist | Boutonnière, swan neck, subluxation @ MCP and wrist, ulnar deviation @ MCP, | Thumb flexion, extension, abduction, and | Wrist | Also examine C-spine and upper limb (neurological testing) |
| | radial deviation @ carpus, rheumatoid nodules, Heberden | adduction | Carpal joints | Tinel test, Phalen test (carpel tunne syndrome) |
| | and Bouchard nodes | | MCP joints | Finkelstein test (de Quervain tenosynovitis) |
| | | Finger flexion/ extension | PIP joints | Hand grip strength and function (write) |
| | | Opposition Wrists flexion/ extension | DIP joints | Neurological testing of hand |
| | | ROM (active | | |
|----------------------|----------------------------------|---|---|---|
| | Inspection (SEADS ^a) | and passive) | Palpation (SWAT ^b) | Special tests |
| Hip | Lumbar lordosis | Abduction (50°) | ASIS | FABER test (groin pain = hip joint, buttock pain = SI joint) |
| | Gait ^c | Adduction (20°) | lliac crest | Thomas test (hip flexion contracture) |
| | | Internal rotation (35°) | SI joint | Trendelenburg test (weakness of gluteus medius or standing side) |
| | | External rotation (45°) | Greater trochanter | Leg length discrepancy |
| Knee | Varus | Flexion (120°) Extension (20–30°) | lschial tuberosity Patella, tibial tuberosity | (true and false) Anterior drawer test, Lachman |
| | Valgus | Flexion (135°) | Head of tibia/fibula | test, pivot shift (anterior cruciate ligament) |
| | Genu recurvatum | Extension (10°) | Joint line tenderness | Posterior drawer test (posterior cruciate ligament) |
| | Baker cyst | Eversion (10°) | Femoral condyles | Collateral ligaments |
| | Gait ^c | Inversion (10°) | Bursas (suprapatellar, subpatellar, infrapatellar, anserine) | McMurray test, medial-lateral grind test (meniscal) |
| | | | Bulge test, balloon test, patella tap | |
| Ankle and | Varus | Dorsiflexion (20°) | Achilles tendon | Anterior drawer test |
| foot | Valgus | Plantarflexion (50°) | Malleolus | Lateral/medial stability |
| | Achilles tendon | Subtalar joint— | Anterior talofibular ligament | Subtalar complex stability |
| | Nails, bunion | inversion and | Deltoid ligament | Achilles tendon |
| | Hallux valgus | eversion (5°) | Calcaneus | rupture |
| | Metatarsus varus | Forefoot joints | Base of MTP | |
| | Pes planus | Joints of toes | Calcaneus | |
| | Shoes | | Navicular | |
| ^a SEADS—S | Symmetry/swelling, Erythe | ma, Atrophy, Defor | mity, and Surgeries/scars | |

^bSWAT—Swelling/synovitis, Warmth, Anatomic landmarks, Tenderness

Gait—heel strike, foot flat (mid-stance), heel off (lift off), toes off (swing)

10 NEUROLOGY Theodore Mobach



Brain Tumors

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION BY HISTOLOGY AND MOLECULAR FEATURES

NEUROEPITHELIAL

- GLIOMAS
 - OLIGODENDROGLIOMA (4%)—isocitrate dehydrogenase (IDH)-mutant, 1p19q codeletion; WHO Grade II or III (favorable prognosis)
 - ASTROCYTOMA (30%)—IDH-mutant, ATRX loss or TP53 mutation; WHO Grade II or III (intermediate prognosis)
 - GLIOBLASTOMA (20%)—IDH-wild type; WHO Grade IV (poor prognosis)
 - EPENDYMOMA (2%)—propensity for ventricles or spinal cord; WHO Grade II
- CHOROID PLEXUS TUMORS (WHO Grade II or III)
- NEURONAL AND MIXED NEURONAL-GLIAL TUMORS (WHO Grade I or II)
- PINEAL PARENCHYMAL TUMORS
- EMBRYONAL TUMORS (1.7%)—medulloblastoma (WHO Grade IV), pineoblastoma, neuroblastoma, ependymoblastoma
- CRANIAL/SPINAL NERVES—schwannoma, neurofibroma, malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumor (malignant schwannoma, 8%)
- MENINGES
 - BENIGN MENINGIOMA (30%)—WHO Grade I
 - ATYPICAL MENINGIOMA—WHO Grade II
 - ANAPLASTIC MENINGIOMA—WHO Grade III
 - MALIGNANT NEOPLASMS—hemangiopericytoma, chondrosarcoma, malignant fibrous histiocytoma, rhabdomyosarcoma, meningeal sarcomatosis
 - PRIMARY MELANOCYTIC LESIONS—diffuse melanosis, melanocytoma, malignant melanoma
- LYMPHOMA (3%)—malignant lymphomas, plasmacytoma, granulocytic sarcoma

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

- GERM CELL—germinoma, embryonal carcinoma, choriocarcinoma, teratoma
- CYSTS AND TUMOR LIKE—Rathke cleft cyst, epidermoid cyst, dermoid cyst, colloid cyst
- sellar region—pituitary adenoma (9–13%), pituitary carcinoma, craniopharyngioma (2–5%)
- LOCAL EXTENSION FROM REGIONAL TUMORS—paraganglioma, chordoma, chondrosarcoma
- METASTATIC TUMORS

RISK FACTORS

- FAMILY HISTORY
- ENVIRONMENTAL—radiation (meningioma, glioma), vinyl chloride (glioma)
- DISEASES—HIV (CNS lymphoma), familial adenomatous polyposis (medulloblastoma), Li– Fraumeni syndrome (astrocytomas), Turcot syndrome (medulloblastoma, glioblastoma), neurofibromatosis (astrocytomas, nerve sheath tumors)

GLIOBLASTOMA DEVELOPMENT—in elderly patients, more likely *de novo* (primary GBM). In younger patients, more likely evolved from low-grade glioma (secondary GBM) with stepwise mutation

MANAGEMENT IN GLIOBLASTOMA—epigenetic silencing with methylation of MGMT (*O6-methylguanine*—methyltransferase) DNArepair gene is both prognostic and predictive of better outcomes. Inactivation of MGMT prevents it from repairing the damage caused by alkylating agents, thus contributing to increased effectiveness of treatment

MASS EFFECT—tumors \rightarrow vasogenic edema \rightarrow direct compression of neurons causing demyelination and necrosis and specific neurological symptoms based on anatomical location. Also increases intracranial pressure causing headache, nausea and vomiting, papilledema, cranial nerve

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PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

palsy, and herniation syndromes. Hydrocephalus may also occur with obstruction of third or fourth ventricle due to posterior fossa tumors

Related Topics

CNS Lymphoma (p. 197) Seizures (p. 335) Headaches (p. 339)

CLINICAL FEATURES

SYMPTOMS—headache (70%), seizure (50%, more with low-grade tumors), focal neurological deficits (motor, sensory, more with high-grade tumors), cognitive dysfunction, visual spatial dysfunction, aphasia, N&V, altered level of consciousness

SIGNS—cranial nerve examination, with particular attention to fundoscopy and visual fields (driving), cognitive assessment with MMSE or Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA), speech, motor, sensory, gait, cerebellum, pronator drift, Romberg sign

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, albumin
- IMAGING—MRI head with gadolinium, CT head with contrast enhancement
- вюрусторен biopsy, stereotactic biopsy SPECIAL
- MR spectroscopy—N-acetylaspartate, choline, lactate
- FUNCTIONAL MR—blood flow

PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

PROGNOSIS FOR LOW-GRADE GLIOMAS-

median survival 7–8 years, 5-year survival 50–94%; median time to recurrence 4.5 years, median survival from recurrence 12 months

PROGNOSIS FOR GLIOBLASTOMA—median survival 14 weeks with observation only, 20 weeks with resection, 36 weeks with radiation added, and 40–60 weeks with chemotherapy added

PROGNOSTIC FACTORS FOR ANAPLASTIC ASTROCYTOMA AND GLIOBLASTOMA older age, poor Karnofsky performance status, degree of excision, neurologic deficits

PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

MEDIAN SURVIVALS FOR OLIGODEND-ROGLIOMA

| Oligodendroglioma | 1p19q deletion | No 1p19q deletion |
|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------|
| Low grade | 15 years | 5 years |
| High grade | 5–10 years | 2 years |

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL—seizure control (preferred options include levetiracetam or lamotrigine with other options including topiramate, lacosamide, clobazam, valproic acid, perampanel), steroids may be used short term for cerebral edema with symptoms such as headaches, neurological deficits. Palliative care referral

TUMOR CONTROL

- GLIOMAS
 - GLIOBLASTOMA (GRADE IV)—maximal surgical debulking, concurrent chemoradiation with temozolomide × 6 weeks, followed by 4-week break and then adjuvant temozolomide d1–5 q28d × 6
 - ASTROCYTOMA AND OLIGODENDROGLIOMA
 - GRADE II—maximal surgical resection. Radiation and chemotherapy may be delayed until progression or symptoms
 - GRADE III—maximal surgical resection plus chemotherapy (PCV or temozolomide) and radiation
 - SALVAGE CHEMOTHERAPY FOR GLIOMAS—nitrosoureas, bevacizumab, etoposide, carboplatin, procarbazine
 - INVESTIGATIONAL THERAPIES FOR GLIOMAS— IDH-targeted therapies, other molecular targeted agents, biologic therapies, immunotherapy, vaccine based or local gene therapies
- EPENDYMOMA—resection ± radiation. Palliative chemotherapy may be provided with recurrence
- PRIMARY NEUROECTODERMAL TUMORS (medulloblastoma, supratentorial, pineoblastoma) resection plus craniospinal radiation for low risk tumors may be curative. Add adjuvant chemotherapy (cisplatin, etoposide, cyclophosphamide or lomustine and vincristine) for high-risk tumors
- MENINGIOMA—observation if asymptomatic and no mass effect. Otherwise, resection or radiation if surgery not possible

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

DRIVING—the key factors that affect driving include seizures, visual fields, motor deficits, and cognition

TREATMENT ISSUES

SIDE EFFECTS OF BRAIN IRRADIATION

- RADIONECROSIS—contrast-enhancing focal lesion may be difficult to differentiate from recurrent brain tumor. Supportive measures
- RADIATION-INDUCED LEUKOENCEPHALOPATHY occurs months to years later. Symptoms may include gait ataxia, urinary incontinence, and dementia
- RADIATION MYELOPATHY—associated with accumulative radiation dose to the spinal cord, peaking at 1 and 2 years. Symptoms may include Lhermitte sign, paresthesia (pain and temperature) with progressive loss of cord function over 6 months. Supportive measures only

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

HERNIATION SYNDROMES

- TRANSTENTORIAL—symmetric downward displacement of the hemispheres, causing impaction of the diencephalon and midbrain into the tentorial notch → rostrocaudal deterioration with decorticate evolving to decerebrate posturing
- UNCAL—temporal lobe and uncus shift medially into the tentorial notch, causing compression of third nerve (pupillary dilation, eye deviation 'down and out') and contralateral cerebral peduncle (ipsilateral hemiparesis, false localizing sign)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

 TONSILLAR—cerebellar tonsils downward into the foramen magnum compresses the medulla and upper spinal cord, resulting in rapid failure of vital functions

BRAIN METASTASES

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—occurs in 20–40% of patients, most commonly from lung, breast, melanoma, renal cell, and gastrointestinal cancers. About 10
 x more frequent than primary brain tumors. Found in cerebral hemispheres, cerebellum, and brainstem 80%, 15% and 5% of the time
- TREATMENT—surgery plus radiation offers survival advantage over radiation alone, although <50% of brain metastases can be resected. Radiation reduces recurrence but does not improve survival. Novel systemic therapies emerging. Individualized treatment with multidisciplinary team recommended. Palliative care referral should be considered

LEPTOMENINGEAL CARCINOMATOSIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—occurs in 5% of patients, most commonly from leukemias, non-Hodgkin lymphoma, and solid tumors (lung, breast, and melanoma)
- DIAGNOSIS—CSF analysis for cytologic confirmation (multiple taps often necessary). MRI spine may also be helpful
- TREATMENT—median survival 4–6 weeks without treatment and may improve to 3–6 months with intrathecal therapy (methotrexate, cytarabine, thiotepa). Necrotizing leukoencephalopathy may develop months after in those who survive, particularly after combined methotrexate and radiation administration. Palliative care referral should be considered

Acute Stroke Syndromes

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

ISCHEMIC STROKE

- THROMBOTIC/INTRINSIC VESSEL DISEASE—atherosclerosis, vasculitis, vasospasm, dissection, compression, fibromuscular, hypercoagulable state
- EMBOLIC/REMOTE ORIGIN—cardiogenic, artery, septic, air, fat, paradoxical (from VTE)
- global ischemia—MI, VT

2018 Canadian Stroke Best Practices Guidelines

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

HEMORRHAGIC STROKE

- INTRACEREBRAL VESSEL RUPTURE—hypertension, cerebral amyloid angiopathy, vascular malformation, neoplasm, trauma, bleeding diatheses, venous sinus thrombosis, vasculitis, illicit drug use
- SUBARACHNOID VESSEL RUPTURE—aneurysm rupture, vascular malformation, bleeding

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

diatheses, trauma, amyloid angiopathy, illicit drug use (cocaine)

STROKE MIMICS (usually global rather than focal neurological symptoms) ★**DIMS**★

- DRUG INTOXICATION/WITHDRAWAL
- INFECTIONS—herpes simplex encephalitis
- INSANITY—conversion disorder or functional neurologic disorder
- METABOLIC—hypoglycemia, renal failure, hepatic failure, hypoxia/hypercarbia, endocrine disorders (thyrotoxicosis, myxedema, adrenal insufficiency)
- MIGRAINES
- SYNCOPE
- seizures—Todd paralysis
- **STRUCTURAL**—trauma, tumors, subdural hemorrhage

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

FIVE QUESTIONS

- 1. Is the patient stable? Circulation, airway, breathing
- 2. Is this a stroke vs. a stroke mimic?
- 3. Where is the stroke? Symptoms/signs, CT head
- 4. What kind of stroke? Ischemic, hemorrhagic
- 5. Is acute stroke treatment indicated? Thrombolytics, endovascular

PATHOPHYSIOLOGIC STROKE CLASSIFICATION

THROMBOTIC STROKE

- LARGE VESSEL STROKE—most commonly due to atherothrombosis. Found at bifurcation of common carotid artery, siphon portion of common carotid artery, middle cerebral artery stem, intracranial vertebral arteries proximal to middle basilar artery, origin of vertebral arteries
- SMALL VESSEL STROKE (lacunar/penetrating vessels)—most commonly due to lipohyalinotic occlusion related to hypertension and occasionally atheroma at the origin of

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

vessels. Found at penetrating branches of the anterior, middle, and posterior cerebral and basilar arteries

CARDIOAORTIC EMBOLIC STROKE

- CARDIAC SOURCES DEFINITE (anticoagulant or antithrombotic therapy generally used)— LV thrombus, LA thrombus, rheumatic valve disease, artificial valve (mechanical, bioprosthetic), AF
- 2. CARDIAC SOURCES DEFINITE (anticoagulation hazardous)—bacterial endocarditis, atrial myxoma
- CARDIAC SOURCES POSSIBLE—mitral annular calcification, left ventricular dysfunction, status post-MI, LA spontaneous echo contrast, PFO, ASD, mitral valve strands
- 4. UNKNOWN SOURCE EMBOLIC STROKE
- 5. **OTHERS**—dissection, moyamoya, primary thrombosis, cerebral mass

RISK FACTORS FOR STROKE

- MAJOR MODIFIABLE—hypertension, diabetes, atrial fibrillation, dyslipidemia, smoking, physical inactivity
- NON-MODIFIABLE—age, race, ethnicity, male sex, family history, genetic predisposition
- OTHERS—obstructive sleep apnea, kidney disease, heavy alcohol intake, diet, cardiac disease, hypercoagulable state, radiotherapy

COMPLICATIONS OF STROKE—about 25% of patients can worsen during the first 24–48 h after stroke

- NEUROLOGIC—cerebral edema, seizures, hemorrhagic transformation of infarction with or without hematoma, neurological deficits (dysphagia, falls, compressive neuropathies)
- NON-NEUROLOGIC—myocardial infarction, arrhythmia, aspiration, pneumonia, UTI, DVT, pulmonary embolism, malnutrition, pressure sores, orthopedic complications, contractures, sleep disordered breathing, depression

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

MAP OF MOTOR/SENSORY CORTEX



From Khurana R, Teal P. (2009) Carotid Artery Stenosis Prevalence and Medical Therapy. In: Saw J. (eds) *Carotid Artery Stenting: The Basics*. Contemporary Cardiology. Humana Press, Totowa, NJ. https://doi. org/10.1007/978-1-60327-314-5_1, with permission Springer Nature

CLINICAL FEATURES

TRANSIENT ISCHEMIC ATTACK—defined as an ischemic episode causing transient focal neurologic symptoms without evidence of infarct (on MRI) nor persistent symptoms following event. Risk of stroke in patients with TIA is 5% within 2 days and 10% within 90 days

RISK STRATIFICATION AFTER TIA OR MINOR NONDISABLING STROKE

- VERY HIGH RISK
 - TIMELINE—symptom onset within 48 hours
 - syмртомs—unilateral weakness or sensory symptoms, speech disturbance, vision, ataxia, dysphagia, dysarthria, binocular diplopia
 - MANAGEMENT—immediate assessment by healthcare professional with stroke expertise and urgent CT/CTA or MRI/MRA, ECG, and laboratory investigations
- HIGH RISK
 - TIMELINE—symptom onset between 48 hours and 2 weeks
 - symptoms—unilateral weakness or speech disturbance
 - MANAGEMENT—assessment by healthcare professional with stroke expertise as soon as possible, ideally within 24 hours

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

- MODERATE RISK
 - TIMELINE—symptom onset between 48 hours and 2 weeks
 - symptoms—unilateral sensory symptoms, vision disturbance, or ataxia
 - MANAGEMENT—assessment by healthcare professional with stroke expertise as soon as possible, ideally within 2 weeks
- LOWER RISK
 - TIMELINE—symptom onset of more than 2 weeks
 - MANAGEMENT—assessment by healthcare professional with stroke expertise within 1 month

CLINICAL STROKE CLASSIFICATION

- ANTERIOR CEREBRAL ARTERY (embolic > thrombotic)—motor and sensory deficit (leg > arm, face), frontal release signs (grasp, snout, root, and suckling reflexes), abulia, paratonic rigidity, gait apraxia, personality Δ
- MIDDLE CEREBRAL ARTERY (left dominant hemispheric, embolic > thrombotic)—aphasia, right hemiparesis, and sensory deficit (face, arm > leg), may be complete hemiplegia if internal capsule involved, right spatial neglect, right homonymous hemianopia, impaired right conjugate gaze

- MIDDLE CEREBRAL ARTERY (right non-dominant hemispheric, embolic > thrombotic)—anosognosia, left motor and sensory deficit (face, arm > leg), left spatial neglect, left homonymous hemianopia, impaired left conjugate gaze
- DEEP (SUBCORTICAL/LACUNAR) HEMISPHERE OR BRAINSTEM (small artery infarct)—hemiparesis (pure motor stroke); sensory loss (pure sensory stroke); hemisensory and hemiparesis (sensorimotor syndrome); dysarthria and clumsy hand syndrome; ataxic hemiparesis. No abnormalities of cognition, language, or vision
- POSTERIOR CEREBRAL ARTERY (embolic > thrombotic)—homonymous hemianopia with macular sparing, alexia without agraphia (dominant hemisphere), visual hallucinations, visual perseverations (calcarine cortex), choreoathetosis, spontaneous pain (thalamus), third nerve palsy, paresis of vertical eye movement, sensory loss, motor deficit (cerebral peduncle, midbrain)
- VERTEBROBASILAR ARTERY (brainstem, embolic = thrombotic)—motor or sensory loss in ALL 4 limbs; crossed signs (ipsilateral cranial nerve palsy with contralateral motor/sensory deficit), dysconjugate gaze, nystagmus, ataxia, dysarthria, dysphagia
- CEREBELLUM—ipsilateral limb ataxia, gait ataxia
- INTERNAL CAROTID ARTERY (thrombotic > embolic)—progressive or stuttering onset of MCA syndrome, occasionally ACA syndrome as well

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: IS THIS PATIENT HAVING A STROKE? PRE-TEST LIKELIHOOD—probability of a stroke among patients with neurologically relevant symptoms is 10%

| | LNT | LN- |
|---|------|--------|
| PRE-HOSPITAL ASSESSMENT Presence of any one of acute facial paresis, arm drift, | 5.5 | 0.39 |
| or abnormal speech | | _ |
| | LR+ | PROB. |
| | | STROKE |
| IN-HOSPITAL CLINICAL | | |
| ASSESSMENT | | |
| Focal neurological deficit, persistent neurological deficit, acute onset during prior week, no history of head trauma | | |
| 0 factor | 0.14 | 1.5% |
| 1–3 factors | - | ≥10% |
| 4 factors | 40 | 80% |
| | | |

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

NIH STROKE SCALE (NIHSS)—universally used in the evaluation of acute stroke

- 1. Level of consciousness (0 = alert, 1 = not alert, 2 = obtunded, 3 = unresponsive)
- Level of consciousness questions (0 = answers both correctly, 1 = answers one correctly, 2 = answers neither correctly)
- Level of consciousness commands (0=performs both tasks correctly, 1=performs one task correctly, 2=performs neither task)
- Gaze (0=normal, 1=partial gaze palsy, 2=total gaze palsy)
- Visual fields (0 = no visual loss, 1 = partial hemianopsia, 2 = complete hemianopsia, 3 = bilateral hemianopsia)
- Facial palsy (0 = normal, 1 = minor paralysis, 2 = partial paralysis, 3 = complete paralysis)
- Motor arms (right/left) (0=no drift, 1=drift before 5 s, 2=falls before 10 s, 3=no effort against gravity, 4=no movement)
- Motor legs (right/left) (0=no drift, 1=drift before 5 s, 2=falls before 5 s, 3=no effort against gravity, 4=no movement)
- 9. Ataxia (0=absent, 1=one limb, 2=two limbs)
- Sensory (0 = normal, 1 = mild loss, 2 = severe loss)
- Language (0=normal, 1=mild aphasia, 2=severe aphasia, 3=mute or global aphasia)
- 12. **Dysarthria** (0 = normal, 1 = mild, 2 = severe)
- Extinction/inattention (0 = normal, 1 = mild, 2 = severe)

INTERPRETATION—minor stroke (0–4 points), moderate stroke (5–15 points), moderate-severe stroke (15–20 points), severe stroke (21–42 points) Refer to https://www.stroke.nih.gov/documents/ NIH_Stroke_Scale_508C.pdf for online version of NIH Stroke Scale

APPROACH—onset of symptoms \rightarrow prehospital assessment \rightarrow in-hospital assessment \rightarrow if likely stroke, assess with NIH stroke score, perform neuroimaging and laboratory tests to exclude stroke mimics \rightarrow begin stroke treatment. "The accurate determination of stroke subtype requires neuroimaging to distinguish ischemic from hemorrhagic stroke. Early mortality increases among those with any one of impaired consciousness, hemiplegia, and conjugate gaze palsy (LR+ 1.8, LR 0.36)."

Goldstein et al. JAMA 2005;293(19)

Related Topics

CT Head (p. 362) Dysphagia (p. 128)

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE A CLINICALLY IMPORTANT CAROTID BRUIT?

| | Sens | Spc | LR+ | | |
|---|---|---------------|-----|--|--|
| Ability of carotid bruits carotid stenosis in sy patients | to indi ymptor | cate natic | | | |
| TIA patients with >50% stenosis | 29% | 88% | 2.4 | | |
| Anterior circulation TIA patients with 75–99% stenosis | 76% | 76% | 3.2 | | |
| Anterior circulation TIA patients with 70–99% stenosis | 62% | 61% | 1.6 | | |
| Ability of carotid bruit | Ability of carotid bruit to predict carotid | | | | |

Ability of carotid bruit to predict carotid stenosis in asymptomatic patients

| Bruit predicting carotid | - | - | 6.0 |
|--------------------------|---|---|-----|
| stenosis (70–99%) | | | |

APPROACH—"Although the presence of a carotid bruit in a patient with carotid-territory [TIA/stroke] increases the probability that the underlying stenosis is high grade (and therefore amenable to endarterectomy), the accuracy of this physical finding is low. Accordingly, carotid bruit cannot be used to rule in or rule out surgically amenable carotid artery stenosis in symptomatic patients."

"Asymptomatic preoperative bruits are not predictive of increased risk of perioperative stroke. However, they may be harbingers of transient postoperative cognitive and behavioral abnormalities."

> Sauvé et al. JAMA 1993;270(23) Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination. McGraw-Hill; 2009

CLINICAL CLUES TO DIAGNOSIS

 THROMBOTIC—stuttering progression with periods of improvement. Lacunes develop over hours or at most a few days; large artery isch-

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

emia may evolve over longer periods. May have neck bruit or prior TIAs

- EMBOLIC—sudden onset with deficit maximal at onset. Clinical findings may improve quickly. Can be precipitated by getting up at night to urinate, or sudden coughing or sneezing
- ICH—gradual progression over minutes to hours. May be precipitated by sex or physical activities
- SAH—abrupt onset, thunderclap, severe headache, loss of consciousness, neck stiffness, vomiting, focal brain dysfunction less common. May be precipitated by sex or other physical activity

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE A HEMORRHAGIC STROKE?

In patients for whom clinical diagnosis of stroke has *already* been made (see Goldstein et al. *JAMA* 2005;293[19]) differentiation of ischemic vs. hemorrhagic subtypes guides treatment

| | LR+ | LR– |
|--|------|------|
| RISK FACTORS | | |
| Coronary artery disease | 0.44 | 1.1 |
| Atrial fibrillation | 0.44 | 1.1 |
| Peripheral arterial disease | 0.41 | 1.1 |
| Prior TIA | 0.34 | 1.2 |
| SYMPTOMS | | |
| Seizures with neuro deficit | 4.7 | 0.93 |
| Vomiting | 3.0 | 0.73 |
| Headache | 2.9 | 0.66 |
| Loss of consciousness | 2.6 | 0.65 |
| PHYSICAL SIGNS | | |
| Coma | 6.2 | - |
| Neck stiffness | 5.0 | 0.83 |
| DBP >110 mmHg | 4.3 | 0.59 |
| Cervical bruit | 0.12 | 1.1 |
| LABORATORY FINDINGS | | |
| Xanthochromia in CSF | 15 | 0.31 |
| Atrial fibrillation on EKG | 0.19 | 1.2 |
| CLINICAL IMPRESSION AND STROKE SCORES | | |
| Clinician's impression hemorrhage is | 6.2 | 0.28 |
| most likely Dx | | |
| Siriraj Stroke Score >1 (hemorrhage) | 5.7 | - |
| Siriraj Stroke Score < -1 (infarction) | 0.3 | - |
| Besson score \geq 1 (hemorrhage) | 1.4 | - |
| Besson score <1 (infarction) | 0.2 | - |

APPROACH—among stroke patients, the presence of several clinical findings such as headaches, vomiting, severe hypertension, neck stiffness, and coma increase the probability of hemorrhagic stroke. However, because these findings only have low to moderate diagnostic accuracy, neuroimaging is recommended for definitive diagnosis. Xanthochromia has high diagnostic performance but requires an invasive procedure

Runchey et al. JAMA 2010;303(22)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, troponin, CK, PTT, INR, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, total cholesterol, TGL, LDL, HDL, homocysteine, ESR
- IMAGING—CT head without contrast, MRI head (more sensitive than CT head in detecting acute ischemic stroke), angiogram (CT, MR, contrast), carotid Dopplers, echocardiogram (TEE > TTE)

SPECIAL

- ECG—ST depression, QT prolongation, inverted T, prominent U waves
- HOLTER MONITOR—evaluation for occult atrial fibrillation
- EEG—if seizures
- TOXICOLOGY SCREEN

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

DOMINANT HEMISPHERE—the left hemisphere is dominant (language functions) in 95% of right-handed and 70% of left-handed individuals

CT HEAD—gold standard, but relatively insensitive in detecting acute and small cortical or subcortical infarctions, especially in the posterior fossa. Critical for excluding hemorrhagic disease. Early signs (within 6 h) of MCA infarction include **hyperdense middle cerebral artery sign** (thrombus or embolus in first portion of MCA), **loss of gray-white differentiation in the cortical ribbon** (especially at the lateral margins of the insula), or lentiform nucleus and **sulcal effacement**. Hypodense lesions may not appear until after 24 h. They become more hypodense over time

MORTALITY RATE—30-day mortality post-ischemic stroke is 10–17%

PROGNOSTIC MARKERS—age, degree of neurological deficit (NIH stroke scale), extent of stroke on CT, fever

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE THROMBOTIC STROKE—ABC. O. IV. Avoid rapid or excessive BP lowering because of risk of ischemia in acute setting (if receiving thrombolytic therapy, BP should be kept <185/110 mmHg before alteplase and <180/105 mmHg afterwards \times 24 h to reduce risk of hemorrhagic transformation; if not receiving thrombolytic therapy, BP should not be routinely treated unless SBP >220 mmHg or DBP >120 mmHg, where BP should be reduced by 15% [and not more than 25%] over 24 h). Thrombolvtics (if within 4.5 h of onset of ischemic stroke, see below: alteplase 0.9 mg/kg IV, maximum 90 mg). Endovascular thrombectomy (large artery occlusion within 6 h of onset or selected cases up to 24 h). Anticoagulation is not indicated unless embolic stroke with obvious cardiac source (e.g. atrial fibrillation). ASA 81-325 mg PO daily (if thrombolytics given, may start ASA after first 24 h. For long-term secondary prophylaxis, consider clopidogrel or dipyridamole if cannot tolerate ASA). Hemicraniectomy or posterior fossa decompression may be considered in large MCA or cerebellar strokes with evidence of edema and mass effect

ACUTE HEMORRHAGIC STROKE—ABC, O₂, IV, blood pressure reduction (target SBP 140 [possibly ranging from 140–180 mmHg]), reverse anticoagulation, consider neurosurgical consultation for evacuation

ACUTE SUBARACHNOID HEMORRHAGE— ABC, O₂, IV, blood pressure reduction (possible target SBP <160 mmHg), reverse anticoagulation, consider nimodipine. **Neurology or neurosur**gery consult

GENERAL STROKE CARE—early mobilization/ rehabilitation with multi-disciplinary team management (e.g. swallowing assessment prior to initiating diet, physiotherapy, occupational therapy). Monitor complications and treat modifiable risk factors

TREATMENT ISSUES

THROMBOLYSIS

- INCLUSION—clinical diagnosis of ischemic stroke, age 18 years or older, onset of symptoms within 4.5 h, measurable neurological deficit
- EXCLUSION
 - ABSOLUTE—any source of active hemorrhage or any condition that could increase the risk of major hemorrhage after alteplase or any hemorrhage on brain imaging

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- RELATIVE-historical (prior history of ICH, stroke/head trauma <3 months, major surgery/trauma <14 days, GI/GU bleed <21 days, arterial puncture in non-compressible site <7 days), clinical (rapidly improving stroke symptoms, minor/isolated symptoms, seizure at onset of stroke with residual impairment secondary to postictal phenomenon, suspicion of SAH, persistent hypertension \geq 185/110, taking a direct non-vitamin K oral anticoagulant), labs (platelet <100×10⁹/L, glucose <2.7 mM [50 mg/dL], ↑ PTT, INR >1.7), **CT head** (hemorrhage, major early infarct signs), radiographically (stroke involving >1/3 of cerebral hemisphere)

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

 ourcome—among patients receiving thrombolysis within 3 h of onset, favorable outcomes in 31–50% of treated patients compared to 20–38% of nontreated patients at 3 months and 1 year. Patients benefit more if treated early (<90 min) but benefit extends out to 6 h. Major risk is symptomatic brain hemorrhage (3–5%). However, mortality rate is similar between the two groups at 3 months and 1 year. Thrombolysis administered between 3 and 4.5 h after symptom onset associated with favorable outcome in 52.4% compared to 45.2% in non-treated patients, with an increased risk of intracranial hemorrhage, but no effect on mortality

RELATIVE RISK REDUCTION FOR ISCHEMIC STROKE/TIA

Condition Hypertension Hyperlipidemia Atrial fibrillation

Post-MI Post-stroke Primary prophylaxis Anti-HTN 20% Statins ASA 20–30% Coumadin 60% ASA 31% Not needed if no previous stroke

Secondary prophylaxis

Anti-HTN 28% Statins ASA 20–30% Coumadin 60% ASA ASA 30% Clopidogrel 43% ASA/dipyridamole 43%

The percentages in this table represent relative risk reduction

CRITERIA FOR CAROTID ENDARTERECTOMY

| Carotid stenosis | Symptomatic | Asymptomatic |
|------------------|--|--|
| ≥70% | Yes (NNT 6.3) | Yes if stenosis ≥60% and life expectancy over 5 years (NNT 33) |
| 50–69% | Yes (NNT 22) Patient factors such as age, sex, and comorbidities should be taken into account | |
| <50% | No | No |

Medical management (ASA) for those not eligible for carotid endarterectomy *NNT* number needed to treat

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN UPPER MOTOR NEURON AND LOWER MOTOR NEURON LESIONS

| | Upper motor neuron |
|----------------|----------------------------------|
| Inspect | Atrophy after long term |
| Tone | Spasticity (velocity dependent) |
| Strength | Upper limbs flexors > extensors, |
| | pronation > supination |
| | Lower limbs extensors > flexors |
| Reflex | Increased with clonus |
| | Babinski present (upgoing toe) |
| Pronator drift | Present |
| | |

Lower motor neuron

Atrophy and fasciculations Flaccidity Nerve root/peripheral nerve distribution

Decreased Babinski absent Absent

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

APHASIA (LANGUAGE IMPAIRMENT)

- TESTING PHRASES
 - COMPREHENSION WITHOUT REPLY—"Touch your chin, then your nose, then your ear"
 - comprehension with answers—"Do you put your shoes on before your socks?"
 - FLUENCY—"Describe your daily activities"
 - маміма—"Name this object" (e.g. pen)
 - REPETITION—"No ifs, ands, or buts"

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

DYSARTHRIA (SPEECH IMPAIRMENT)

- DYSARTHRIA—speech disorder resulting from disturbances in muscular control that affects respiration, articulation, phonation, resonance, or prosody
- DYSPHONIA—voice disturbance in parameters of vocal quality, pitch, or intensity

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN DIFFERENT TYPES OF APHASIA

| | Wernicke | Broca | Global | Anomic | Conduction | Transcortical motor | Transcortical sensory |
|------------------------------|----------|--|---|--------|------------|------------------------|--------------------------|
| Fluency | Normal | - | - | Normal | Normal | - | Normal |
| Comprehension | - | Normal | - | Normal | Normal | Normal | - |
| Naming | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Repetition | - | - | - | Normal | - | Normal | Normal |
| Reading | - | - | - | Normal | - | +/- | - |
| Writing | Normal | - | - | Normal | - | +/- | - |
| Other associated signs | | Right hemiparesis / hemisensory loss | Right hemiparesis /hemisensory loss | | | | |

Types of dysarthria

Spastic (bilateral upper motor neuron)

Hyperkinetic (extrapyramidal [Huntington])

Hypokinetic (extrapyramidal [Parkinson]) Ataxic (cerebellar lesion) Flaccid (LMN [myasthenia gravis])

Quality

Harsh, strained voice, reduced dexterity Low pitch voice Harsh, strained voice Low pitch voice Voice stoppages Rapid rate, monopitch, low volume Explosive, scanning speech Breathy, nasal, low volume Wheezing

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

PRIMITIVE REFLEXES

- GRASP REFLEX—deep pressure over palmar surface results in grasp response
- SUCK REFLEX—insertion of an object into mouth results in sucking motion

Cranial Nerve Examination

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- ROOT REFLEX—gentle stroking of cheek results in mouth turning toward that side
- SNOUT REFLEX—gentle pressure over the nasal philtrum results in puckering of lips
- GLABELLAR TAP REFLEX—repeated tapping forehead produces persistent blinking

| CN | Nucleus location | Skull exit | Abnormalities |
|------------------|--|---|--|
| | Olfactory tract Thalamus | Cribriform plate Optic canal | Sensory—smell (coffee, vanilla, peppermint) Sensory—visual acuity and color, visual fields, blind spot, fundoscopy |
| ш | Midbrain | Superior orbital fissure ^b | Reflex—pupillary reflex (afferent) Motor—ptosis and eye deviated downward and outward. Poor medial elevation and accommodation ^d |
| IV | Midbrain | Superior orbital fissure ^b | Reflex—pupillary reflex (efferent) Parasympathetic—pupillary dilation ^d Motor—patient tilts head to contralateral side, vertical diplopia worst looking to one side |
| ۷ | Principal—Pons | V1—superior orbital | Sensory—light touch, pain and temperature |
| | cord Mesencephalic— | V2—foramen rotundum | Reflex—corneal reflex (afferent) and jaw jerk (afferent and efferent) |
| | midbrain Motor—Pons | V3—foramen ovale | Motor—wasting of temporal and masseter muscles, weakness of jaw movement |
| VI | Pons | Superior orbital fissure ^b | Motor—crossed eyes, impaired lateral gaze |
| VII ^a | Motor, solitary, superior salivatory—Pons to midbrain | Motor—internal acoustic meatus ^c and stylomastoid foramen Taste—stylomastoid | Sensory—numbness around the ear canal and altered taste (anterior 2/3 of tongue) Motor—difficulty raising eye brows, closing eyes, frowning, blowing out cheeks and showing teeth. Altered speech ("Pa Pa Pa") |
| | | foramen | and hyperacusis Reflex—corneal reflex (efferent) Parasympathetic – lacrimation and saliva production |
| VIII | Vestibular, cochlear— medulla | Internal acoustic meatus ^c | Sensory—whispering, Rinne test, Weber test. Dix-Hallpike maneuver (if vertigo). Check for nystagmus |
| IX | Nucleus ambiguus, inferior salivatory, | Jugular foramen | Sensory—sensation of palate, taste (posterior 1/3 of tongue) |
| | solitarius—medulla | | Motor—uvula and palate movement. Speech ("Ka Ka Ka"), coughing, swallowing Reflex—and reflex |
| Х | Nucleus ambiguus, dorsal motor vagal, solitary—medulla | Jugular foramen | Sensory—sensation of palate Motor—uvula and palate movement. Speech ("Ka Ka Ka," hoarseness), coughing, swallowing Reflex—gag reflex |

Cranial Nerve Examination (Cont'd)

| CN | Nucleus location | Skull exit | Abnormalities |
|------------------|-------------------|---------------------|--|
| XI | Spinal accessory— | Jugular foramen | Motor—weakness with shrugging shoulders |
| | cervical cord | | and rotating head against resistance |
| XII ^a | Medulla | Hypoglossal foramen | Motor—tongue wasting and fasciculations, |
| | | | tongue deviation (toward affected side). |
| | | | Altered speech ("La La La") |

^a**UPPER MOTOR NEURON INNERVATION**—all cranial nerves receive bilateral innervation from the cortex, except for VII (lower facial muscles) and XII (tongue), which receive innervation from the contralateral pyramidal tract only. Therefore, a left MCA stroke can cause right lower facial droop and tongue deviation to the right. See Bell palsy (p. 334) for differentiating UMN vs. LMN VII palsy

^b**CAVERNOUS SINUS LESIONS** (tumor, aneurysm, and thrombosis)—may lead to III, IV, V1 and VI palsies

 $^{c}\textbf{CEREBELLOPONTINE}$ ANGLE LESIONS (acoustic neuroma, glomus tumor)—may lead to V1–3, VII, and VIII palsies

^d**OCULOMOTOR (III) NERVE LESIONS**—central lesions include vascular lesions and tumor of brainstem. Peripheral lesions include aneurysm, tumor, meningitis, nasopharyngeal carcinoma, orbital lesions, and ischemic lesions (diabetes, hypertension). "Pupil-sparing" suggests ischemic lesions (as opposed to compressive aneurismal lesions) as they tend to involve the central portion of the nerve, sparing the parasympathetic fibers. Spontaneous resolution of symptoms typically occurs over 3–6 months. Intact accommodation reflex but absent light reflex suggests midbrain tectal lesion (Argyll Robertson pupil in neurosyphilis)

TRIGEMINAL (V) NERVE LESIONS—sensory function can be helpful in localization. If all three divisions (V1–V3) get affected, the lesion is likely at the ganglion or sensory root level (trigeminal neuroma, meningioma). If only a single division is affected, the lesion is likely at the post-ganglion level (e.g. V1 abnormality alone suggests cavernous sinus lesion). Loss of pain/ temperature sensation but not light touch suggests brainstem or upper cord lesion (syringo-bulbia, PICA infarction). Loss of light touch but not pain/temperature suggests pathology of pontine nuclei (tumor, vascular lesion)

FACIAL (VII) NERVE LESIONS—for details on localization, please refer to p.365

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

VISUAL FIELD DEFECTS

- MONOCULAR VISUAL LOSS—lesion is located before optic chiasm (optic nerve, eye pathology)
- BITEMPORAL HEMIANOPIA—lesion is at the optic chiasm. The pituitary gland lies below the optic chiasm. A pituitary adenoma may compress the optic chiasm inferiorly, causing superior bitemporal quadranopsia and eventually complete bitemporal hemianopia
- номонумоиз неміаноріа—lesion is located post optic chiasm, contralateral
- FORMAL VISUAL FIELD TESTING—Goldman perimeter, Humphrey

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

OCULAR FINDINGS IN HYPERTENSION AND DIABETES

- HYPERTENSION—see p. 70
- DIABETES—see p. 365

Related Topics

Diplopia (p. 331) Dysarthria (p. 328) Facial Droop (p. 332) Ptosis (p. 353)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN PAPILLEDEMA, OPTIC ATROPHY, AND OPTIC NEURITIS

| | Papilledema | Optic atrophy | Optic neuritis |
|-------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| Etiology | ↑ ICP | Neuritis | Multiple sclerosis |
| | Tumors | Glaucoma | Inflammatory |
| | Malignant hypertension | Congenital | Infectious |
| Symptoms | Headaches | ↓ vision | ↓ vision |
| | N&V, ↓ level of consciousness | ↓ color | ↓ color |
| | Focal deficits | | Eye pain |
| Optic disc | Swollen optic disc | Gray–white optic disc | Swollen optic disc |
| | Disc margins obscured | | |
| Other signs | Flame hemorrhages | ↓ acuity | ↓ acuity |
| | Cotton wool spots | ↓ color vision | ↓ color vision |
| | ↑ blind spot | ↓ pupil reflex | ↓ pupil reflex |
| | | | ↑ blind spot |

MEDULLARY SYNDROMES

| | Medial (Dejerine syndrome) | Lateral (Wallenberg syndrome) |
|--------------------------|--|--|
| Artery supply | Vertebral and anterior spinal arteries | Vertebral artery or posterior inferior cerebellar artery |
| Structures (ipsilateral) | Hypoglossal nucleus & CN XII— tongue weakness | Trigeminal nucleus & tract—↓ facial sens |
| | | Vestibular nuclei—nystagmus, vertigo, nausea, ataxia |
| | | Nucleus ambiguus—dysphagia, hoarseness |
| | | Nucleus solitaries—altered taste |
| | | Sympathetic—Horner |
| Motor (contralateral) | Pyramidal tract—UMN weakness | None |
| Sensory (contralateral) | Medial lemniscus—vibration, proprioception | Spinothalamic tract—↓ pain and temperature |
| Cerebellum (ipsilateral) | Normal | Inferior cerebellar peduncle—ataxia |

Diplopia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

BINOCULAR DIPLOPIA (resolves with one eye closed, suggestive of ocular misalignment)

 CRANIAL NERVES—III, IV, VI palsy, internuclear ophthalmoplegia

RECTUS MUSCLES—myasthenia gravis, trauma
MONOCULAR DIPLOPIA (persists with one
eye closed, suggestive of intrinsic eye disease)

- CORNEA—deformity, keratoconus
- LENS—cataract, displaced lens
- RETINA—macular scarring

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

| EXTRAOCULAR EYE MOVEMENTS | | | | |
|---------------------------|-------|-------------------------|--|--|
| Muscle | Nerve | Movement | | |
| Superior rectus | III | Elevation and intorsion | | |
| Inferior rectus | III | Depression and | | |
| | | extorsion | | |
| Lateral rectus | VI | Abduction | | |
| Medial rectus | III | Adduction | | |
| Superior | IV | Depression and | | |
| oblique | | intorsion | | |
| Inferior oblique | III | Elevation and extorsion | | |

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—determine whether diplopia resolves with one eye closed, which direction diplopia is worse, whether separation of images occurs vertically, horizontally, or obliquely, whether any head position makes diplopia better, and whether diplopia is worse at distance (typically lateral rectus palsy) or near (typically medial rectus palsy). Characterize duration, progression, limitation of function and any pain. Past medical history (head injury, stroke, infections, aneurysm, myasthenia gravis) and medications

PHYSICAL—inspect for eye position, corneal abrasion, cataract, ptosis (CN III palsy, myasthenia gravis), eyelid retraction (thyroid ophthalmopathy), and extraocular eye movements (each eye individually, then both eyes together). Palpate for bony tenderness. Auscultate over eye for bruit of carotid cavernous fistula. Also check visual acuity, visual fields, pupil size, pupillary reflex, exophthalmos, and examine the other cranial nerves (particularly II, V, VII)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

• IMAGING—CT head, MR skull/orbit

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

SPECIAL

 ICE PACK TEST—place ice pack on ptotic eyelid for 1–2 minutes to improve neuromuscular transmission and assess for improvement if myasthenia gravis

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—extraocular muscle surgery, prisms

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

INTERNUCLEAR OPHTHALMOPLEGIA (INO)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—lesion in the medial longitudinal fasciculus (MLF), which connects the ipsilateral VI nucleus with the contralateral III nucleus
- causes—multiple sclerosis (bilateral), brainstem infarction (unilateral), infections, malignancy, metabolic
- CLINICAL FEATURES—horizontal eye movement with weak adduction of the ipsilateral eye and abduction nystagmus of the contralateral eye

Bell Palsy

CAUSES OF FACIAL DROOP

CENTRAL (upper motor neuron)—stroke **PERIPHERAL** (lower motor neuron)

- ромя—infarction, glioma, multiple sclerosis
- CEREBELLOPONTINE ANGLE—acoustic or facial neuroma, meningioma, cholesteatoma, lymphoma, aneurysm, sarcoidosis
- INTERNAL AUDITORY CANAL PROXIMAL TO OR INVOLVING GENICULATE GANGLION—Bell palsy, Ramsay Hunt syndrome (VZV), acoustic or facial neuroma
- DISTAL TO INTERNAL AUDITORY CANAL AND GENIC-ULATE GANGLION—Bell palsy, temporal bone fracture, cholesteatoma, glomus tumor, middle-ear infection
- STYLOMASTOID FORAMEN—head injury, parotid tumor

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

INNERVATION—the upper facial muscles are innervated by both cerebral hemispheres, while the lower facial muscles are only innervated by the contralateral cerebral hemisphere. Thus, an upper motor neuron lesion would spare the

Gilden *NEJM* 2004;351(13)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

upper face, while a lower motor neuron lesion would lead to ipsilateral upper and lower facial weakness

CLINICAL FEATURES

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN UPPER AND LOWER MOTOR NEURON FACIAL NERVE LESIONS

| | | Peripherai |
|--|---|---|
| | Central (stroke) | (Bell palsy) |
| Lesion | Contralateral cortex or corticobulbar fibers | Ipsilateral facial nerve nucleus or facial nerve |
| Upper facial muscles | Furrows present | No furrows |
| | Can close eyes | Cannot close eyes |
| Lower facial muscles | Unable to show teeth | Unable to show teeth |
| Salivation, taste, and lacrimation | Normal | Varies depending on lesion location ^a |
| | | |

Other

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

| | | Peripheral |
|----------|------------------|-------------|
| | Central (stroke) | (Bell palsy |
| findings | Hemiplegia | Hyperacusis |
| | (same side as | |
| | nalcy) | |

^aLacrimation, salivation, and taste all affected if lesion in internal auditory canal proximal to or involving geniculate ganglion. Lacrimation intact but salivation and taste both affected if lesion distal to geniculate ganglion. Lacrimation, salivation, and taste all intact if lesion in cortex, pons, cerebellopontine angle, or at stylomastoid foreman

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, fasting glucose SPECIAL
- IMAGING—MRI head (in atypical cases)
- **CENTRAL CAUSES WORKUP**—Lyme serology, VDRL, HIV serology, lumbar puncture
- ELECTRONEUROGRAPHY—if persistent facial paralysis after 1 week of treatment

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES FOR BELL PALSY

INVESTIGATIONS—consider if other cranial nerve deficits develop, no recovery in 3–6 weeks, facial twitch or spasm precedes Bell palsy (suggestive of tumor)

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES FOR BELL PALSY (CONT'D)

PROGNOSIS—71% of untreated patients recover spontaneously

MANAGEMENT OF BELL PALSY

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—prednisone 1 mg/kg PO \times 7 days (given within 3 days of onset). For severe facial weakness, consider valacyclovir 1 g PO TID \times 7 days. Surgical decompression (only if documented 90% nerve degeneration by electroneurography)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

RECURRENT OR BILATERAL FACIAL PALSY—Guillain-Barré syndrome, myasthenia gravis, lesions at skull base (lymphoma, sarcoidosis, Lyme disease)

RAMSAY HUNT SYNDROME—reactivation of herpes zoster virus in geniculate ganglion. Polycranial neuropathy affecting CN V, IX, X. Facial palsy, ear pain, and vesicles in external auditory meatus may be present. Taste often affected, ± vertigo. Consider antiviral therapy

Multiple Sclerosis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

INFLAMMATORY DISEASES—neuromyelitis optica spectrum disorders (Devic disease), acute disseminated encephalomyelitis, SLE, PAN, Sjögren, Behçet disease, granulomatous angiitis, paraneoplastic encephalomyelopathies

INFECTIONS—Lyme neuroborreliosis, neurosyphilis, HIV, HTLV-1, PML (JC virus)

GRANULOMATOUS DISEASES—sarcoidosis, granulomatosis with polyangiitis, lymphomatoid granulomatosis

DISEASES OF MYELIN—adult metachromatic leukodystrophy, adrenomyeloleukodystrophy

OTHERS—vitamin B12 deficiency, Arnold-Chiari malformation, spinocerebellar disorders

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

MULTIPLE SCLEROSIS—autoimmune demyelination of the central nervous system CLINICAL COURSE

- RELAPSING-REMITTING—85% at presentation, half will have more progressive disease over time. Average about 1 attack every 2 years
- **PRIMARY PROGRESSIVE**—15% at presentation
- secondary-progressive—occurring after a relapsing-remitting period
- PROGRESSIVE—RELAPSING—relapsing course, but with overall progression following each relapse

EXACERBATIONS—new neurological deficit or reappearance/worsening of old deficit that lasts

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

longer than 24 h and is not due to fever or other systemic process

PSEUDO-EXACERBATIONS—transient fluctuations in neurological function due to concomitant illness (e.g. UTI), heat, or exertion that typically resolve with removal of precipitant

CLINICAL FEATURES

CRANIAL NERVES—optic neuritis (afferent pupillary defect), diplopia (internuclear ophthalmoplegia, especially if bilateral), trigeminal neuralgia, other cranial nerves

SENSORY (most common)—paresthesia, dysesthesia, hyperesthesia. Pain syndromes include trigeminal neuralgia, Lhermitte sign (lightning bolt radiating down neck with flexion), dysesthetic pain, back pain, visceral pain, and painful tonic spasms. May be migratory (contralateral, ascending). Other sensory changes include useless hand syndrome (loss of discriminatory function and proprioception), "cold water trickling" feeling along limb, and pseudoathetosis (loss of sensory feedback from arm causing involuntary writhing movements of fingers and wrist when eyes closed) **TONE**—spasms spells (maybe painful), spontaneous clonus

MOTOR—weakness, spasticity, and hyperreflexia. Upper motor neuron weakness in lower extremities characteristic of multiple sclerosis

AUTONOMIC—bladder, bowel, and erectile dysfunction

CEREBELLAR—loss of balance, action tremor, slurred speech, and incoordination

COGNITIVE—inattention, slowed information processing, memory loss, and difficulties with abstract concepts and complex reasoning **FATIGUE**, **DEPRESSION**

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, Ca, Mg, PO₄, CK, quantitative lg, ANA, ENA
- IMAGING—MRI head/spine (sens 90%)
- LUMBAR PUNCTURE—with CSF IgG index and oligoclonal bands (mild lymphocytosis <50/ mm³, mild ↑ protein with ≥2 oligoclonal bands)
- SPECIAL
- EVOKED POTENTIAL STUDIES

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

DIAGNOSTIC CRITERIA—typical MS-related demyelinating syndrome with objective evidence of CNS involvement and fulfilling dissemination in space criteria (clinical attacks localizing to 2 different CNS locations or symptomatic/asymptomatic T2 MRI lesions in at least 2 of the 4 regions [periventricular, cortical/juxtacortical, infratentorial, spinal cord]) and dissemination in time criteria (CSF oligoclonal bands, or second clinical attack, or simultaneous gadolinium enhancing and non-enhancing lesions on MRI, or interval development of new T2 lesion on MRI) with no better explanation other than MS

2017 Position Paper Revisions McDonald Criteria Diagnosis MS

PROGNOSIS—most patients initially in relapsing-remitting course experience relapses with complete or partial recovery once to twice a year. At 10 years, 50% enter secondary progressive phase and 90% by 25 years. Primary progressive disease affects 15% of patients, more commonly men. Eventually, 1/3 of patients would develop disabling paraparesis, 1/4 incontinent or catheterized, and 15% confined to wheelchair; 50% of patients unable to work at 5 years; 10% may remain minimally disabled at 10 years

POOR PROGNOSTIC FACTORS IN RELAPS-ING-REMITTING MULTIPLE SCLEROSIS—> 2 exacerbations/year, motor/cerebellar exacerbations, older age at onset (greater than 40 years), residual motor/cerebellar deficits 6 months following attack, moderate disability within 5 years, number of lesions on MRI

GOOD PROGNOSTIC FACTORS IN RELAPS-ING-REMITTING MULTIPLE SCLEROSIS—initial presentation optic neuritis, purely sensory disorder, lower number of lesions on MRI

MANAGEMENT

EXACERBATIONS — methylprednisolone 500–1000 mg IV daily×3–7 days or prednisone 1250 mg PO daily×3–7 days ± short taper. Plasma exchange

IMMUNOTHERAPY—no consensus guidelines. Treatment choice based on relative risks/benefits as well as patient/clinician preference. For newlydiagnosed disease, consider Avonex[®] (interferon β -1a), Betaseron[®] (interferon β -1b), Copaxone[®] (glatiramer acetate), Rebif[®] (interferon β -1a),

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

Tecfidera[®] (dimethyl fumarate), or Aubagio[®] (teriflunomide). For highly active relapsing-remitting MS with inadequate response to interferon β or glatiramer acetate, consider Gilenya[®] (fingolimod), Mayzent[®] (siponimod), Tysabri[®] (natalizumab), Lemtrada[®] (alemtuzumab), Ocrevus[®] (ocrelizumab)

- **RELAPSING**—**REMITTING**—early treatment shown to have favorable outcomes
- PRIMARY AND SECONDARY PROGRESSIVE—evidence does not support benefit from interferon β in primary progressive disease, and limited in secondary progressive disease

Reich et al. NEJM 2018;378(2)

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

SYMPTOM CONTROL—fatigue (amantadine 100 mg PO BID; modafinil 100 mg PO TID), spasticity (physiotherapy, baclofen, tizanidine, benzodiazepines), hyperreflexic bladder (fluid restriction, timed voiding, oxybutynin, propantheline, imipramine, intermittent catheterization)

Related Topics

Cranial Nerve Lesions (p. 329) Orthostatic Hypotension (p. 53)

Dementia

Delirium

See DEMENTIA (p. 419)

See DELIRIUM (p. 422)

Seizures

French et al. *NEJM* 2008;359:(2) 2017 ILAE Position Paper Classification Seizure Types

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PROVOKED SEIZURES—due to a temporary lowered seizure threshold; recurrence risk generally small and anti-seizure medication usually not required long-term; focus on correcting provoking etiology

- DRUGS—sedative withdrawal (ETOH, benzodiazepine), sympathomemetics (cocaine, amphetamine), others (clozapine, cephalosporins, fluroquinolones, bupropion, tramadol, meperidine, theophylline, isoniazid, high-dose penicillin, imipenem)
- INFECTIONS—fever, abscess, meningitis, encephalitis
- METABOLIC—hypoglycemia, hyperglycemia, hyponatremia, hypocalcemia, hypomagnesemia, uremia, hyperthyroidism, acute intermittent porphyria
- STRUCTURAL—concussion/traumatic brain injury, subdural hematoma, acute stroke, subarachnoid hemorrhage, central venous thrombosis, hypoxic ischemic injury
- отнея—eclampsia, posterior reversible encephalopathy syndrome,

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

UNPROVOKED SEIZURES AND EPILEPSY anti-seizure medication treatment usually required inflammatory and structural atiologies

required. Inflammatory and structural etiologies are considered unprovoked when seizures occur outside the initial acute phase of injury, usually 1 week

- STRUCTURAL—stroke, trauma, infection, hypoxic ischemic encephalopathy, malformations of cortical development, mesial temporal lobe sclerosis, hypothalamic hamartoma, Rasmussen syndrome
- GENETIC—monogenic (e.g., Dravet), polygenetic/multifactorial (e.g., juvenile myoclonic epilepsy)
- INFECTIOUS—meningitis, encephalitis, neurocysticercosis, tuberculosis, HIV, cerebral malaria, subacute sclerosing pancephalitis, cerebral toxoplasmosis, congenital infections (e.g., CMV)
- METABOLIC—porphyria, uremia, aminoacidopathies, or pyridoxine-dependent seizures

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

- IMMUNE—NMDA, LGI1, AMPA, GABA, GAD, Hu, Ma2
- IDIOPATHIC (UNKNOWN)
- SEIZURE MIMICS
- SYNCOPE—vasovagal, cardiogenic, neurogenic
- PSYCHOGENIC NON-EPILEPTIC SEIZURES (PSEUDO-SEIZURES)—stressful psychological conflicts, major emotional trauma
- OTHER—TIA, migraine, benign positional vertigo, hypoglycemia, sleep disorders (sleep apnea, narcolepsy/cataplexy, night terrors, nightmares, nocturnal myoclonus), periodic paralysis, breath-holding spells

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITIONS

- SEIZURE—"a transient occurrence of signs and/or symptoms due to abnormal excessive or synchronous neuronal activity in the brain" (ILAE 2005)
- EPILEPSY—enduring predisposition to seizures defined by (1) two or more unprovoked seizures separated by 24 h; (2) one unprovoked seizure and probability of second seizure of at least 60% over the next 10 years (i.e., often in context of prior brain insult, abnormal brain imaging, epileptiform discharges on EEG, nocturnal event, or abnormal neurologic exam); or (3) diagnosis of an epilepsy syndrome

CLASSIFICATION

 FOCAL ONSET SEIZURE—originating in one cortical hemisphere and further subclassified by awareness. Further optional subclassification can be made based on the first prominent symptom; motor (automatisms, atonic, clonic, tonic, hyperkinetic, epileptic spasms) or non-

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

motor (autonomic, behavioral arrest, cognitive, emotional, sensory)

- FOCAL AWARE SEIZURE—indicates retained sense of self and the environment during the seizure. Correlates with old terminology of "simple partial seizure"
- FOCAL IMPAIRED AWARENESS SEIZURE—impairment in awareness at some point during the seizure. Correlates with old terminology of "complex partial seizure"
- GENERALIZED ONSET SEIZURE—engaging cortex bilaterally. Loss of consciousness
- инкноwн onset seizure—obscured or missed seizure onset
- STATUS EPILEPTICUS—5 min of continuous seizure activity, or ≥2 discrete seizures without complete recovery of consciousness in between events

COMPLICATIONS OF SEIZURES—seizure related injuries (see Medical Fitness to Drive, p. 492), aspiration pneumonia, neurogenic pulmonary edema, hypoxic brain injury, cardiac injury, rhabdomyolysis (acute renal failure, hyperkalemia), lactic acidosis, sudden unexpected death in epilepsy (SUDEP), lifestyle (driving, work safety), psychosocial (stigma)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—when was first seizure, prodrome, aura, ictal symptoms, postictal period, diurnal variation, history suggestive of missed seizure (e.g. waking up with sore muscles, blood in the mouth, or urinary incontinence), precipitants (e.g. sleep deprivation, skipped meals, stress, menses, alcohol, missed medications, medication withdrawal), maximum seizure-free period, seizure types, related injuries, driving and employment

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN SEIZURES AND SYNCOPE

| | Generalized seizures | Vasovagal syncope |
|--------------|--------------------------------------|--|
| Past history | Seizures, head injury, stroke, tumor | No strong history |
| Pre-event | Awake or sleep | Usually upright |
| | No warning | Usually warning |
| | Aura | Lightheaded |
| Event | Vocalization at onset | No vocalization |
| | Tonic-clonic convulsions | Occasional myoclonic movements, hypotonia |
| | Cyanotic/gray | Pale |
| | Incontinence frequent | Incontinence occasionally |
| | Tongue biting (side) | Tongue biting rare (tip) |

P

| | Generalized seizures | Vasovagal syncope |
|-----------|---|--------------------------------|
| | Frequent injuries (fall on face, #, dislocations) | Less commonly injured |
| | Longer ↓ level of consciousness | Short ↓ level of consciousness |
| ost-event | Confused, tired, sleepy, post-ictal Todd paralysis | Alert |
| | Muscle ache | Diaphoretic |

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, Ca, Mg, PO₄, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, albumin, CK, troponin, TSH, INR, PTT, prolactin (acute increase 10–20 min after generalized tonic clonic seizures, low sens)
- IMAGING—CT head, MRI head
- EEG ± SLEEP DEPREIVATION—for unprovoked or recurrent seizures (best done within 24 h of seizure onset). Consider also sleep deprived EEG to increase the yield of detecting epileptiform activity/focal abnormality

SPECIAL

- CXR—if suspect aspiration
- LUMBAR PUNCTURE—if suspect meningitis/ encephalitis

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

AURA—focal seizure with subjective sensory or psychic phenomenon

JACKSONIAN MARCH—focal motor seizure of primary motor cortex will produce clonic activity in contralateral side of the body. Rhythmic activity spreads to adjacent areas (e.g. fingers to wrists to arms)

TODD PARALYSIS—hemiparesis or hemiplegia following a seizure, suggests focal onset

ELECTROENCEPHALOGRAM (EEG)

- DIAGNOSTIC—useful for epilepsy (sens 40–50%, high spc), metabolic and toxic encephalopathies, herpes encephalitis, subacute sclerosing panencephalitis, and prion diseases such as Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease
- PROGNOSTIC—useful for anoxic brain injury (burst suppression, alpha coma, and electrocerebral silence suggests very poor prognosis)

MANAGEMENT

STATUS EPILEPTICUS—**ABC**, O_2 , IV, **stat investigations** (ABG, CBC, lytes, Cr, glucose, Mg, Ca, PO₄, toxic screen, antiepileptic drug level), glucose if hypoglycemia (*thiamine* 100 mg IV, 50% *dextrose* 50 mL IV), **first line** (*lorazepam* 2 mg q1–3 min IV push, consider rectal diazepam if no

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

IV access), **second line** (*phenytoin* 20 mg/kg IV [no faster than 50 mg/min, start continuous monitor], or *valproic acid* 20–40 mg/kg IV [max dose 3000 mg], or *levetiracetam* 60 mg/kg IV [max dose 4500 mg]), **third line** (*midazolam* 0.05–0.3 mg/kg over 20–30 s, repeat PRN), **fourth line** (anesthetic doses of *propofol* 50–100 mg IV bolus, need to intubate). Note: phenytoin and benzodiazepines are incompatible in IV tubing and will precipitate if infused in same line. Use separate IV sites. See p. 481 for treatment of rhabdomyolysis

ACUTE SEIZURE CONTROL—benzodiazepines (lorazepam 1 mg IV/SL PRN, up to a total dose of 0.1 mg/kg, midazolam 5–10 mg [or 0.2 mg/kg; max 10 mg] IM or intranasal once, diazepam 10–20 mg [or 0.2 mg/kg; max 20 mg] PR once). Antiepileptic (fosphenytoin 20 mg/kg IV, phenytoin 300 mg IV over 10 min, levetiracetam, carbamazepine, valproate). If alcohol withdrawal (add thiamine 100 mg IV/PO daily, multivitamin 1 tab IV/PO daily)

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT—valproic acid 200-500 mg or 10-15 mg/kg PO daily, increase dose by 250-500 mg/week, typical daily dose is 750-2000 mg; lamotrigine 25 mg PO daily, increase dose by 25 mg/week, typical daily dose is 100-400 mg; topiramate 25-50 mg PO daily, increase by 25-50 mg/week, typical daily dose is 200-400 mg; levetiracetam 250-500 mg PO BID, increase dose by 250-500 mg/week, typical daily dose is 1000-3000 mg; carbamazepine 200 mg PO daily, increase by 200 mg every 3 days, typical daily dose is 400-800 mg divided BID; phenytoin 3-5 mg/kg PO daily (loading dose may be given for quicker effect), typical daily dose is 200-400 mg; gabapentin 300 mg daily-BID, increase dose by 300-600 mg/week, typical daily dose is 1800-3600 mg; pregabalin 75-150 mg PO daily, increase dose by 75–150 mg/week, typical daily dose is 150-300 mg

PSYCHOSOCIAL ASPECTS—loss of independence, employment, insurance, self-esteem, and ability to drive

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

DRIVING ISSUES—recommendations vary from region to region. Canadian Medical Association publishes the *CMA's Driver's Guide* to help evaluate medical fitness to drive. Check with driving authority for specific restrictions and legal requirements. A single unprovoked seizure often has shorter driving restriction of 3 months or no driving restriction. If >1 unprovoked seizure, consider 6–12 months of seizure-free interval before reinstating driver's license (varies with jurisdiction). Some places may also restrict driving for 6 months after antiepileptic dose adjustments. More stringent rules may exist for commercial drivers

TREATMENT ISSUES

FIRST TIME SEIZURE—if no structural lesion, no physical findings, and normal EEG, usually do not need to start antiseizure medications. Risk of recurrence after first seizure is 30–60%. Risk after second seizure is 80–90%

ANTIEPILEPTIC CHOICES

- BROAD-SPECTRUM ANTIEPILEPTIC DRUGS—include valproic acid, lamotrigine, topiramate, levetiracetam, brivaracetam, felbamate, perampanel, rufinamide and zonisamide
- NARROW-SPECTRUM ANTIEPILEPTIC DRUGS—include carbamazepine, lacosamide, phenytoin, gabapentin, pregabalin, oxcarbazepine, eslicarbazepine, cenobamate, phenobarbital, stiripentol, vigabatrin and tiagabine. These medications are effective against focal seizures with or without secondarily generalized features, but have limited activity against primary generalized seizure disorders (e.g. carbamazpeine may even worsen juvenile myoclonic epilepsy)

| | Ρ | С | V | В | L | G | Т | Ε |
|--------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tonic-clonic | + | + | 1 | + | + | ± | | |
| Absence | | | + | | | | | 1 |
| Status | + | | | + | | | | |
| Partial | + | 1 | + | + | | ± | + | |
| Myoclonic | | | + | + | | | | |

Key: *P* phenytoin, *C* carbamazepine, *V* valproate, *B* phenobarbital, *L* lamotrigine, *G* gabapentin, *T* levetiracetam or topiramate, *E* ethosuximide, 1 drug of choice, + possible use, \pm adjunct use

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

ADDITIONAL CONSIDERATIONS

- GENERALLY WELL-TOLERATED IN ELDERLY PATIENTS levetiracetam, lamotrigine, gabapentin
- ASSOCIATED WITH HIGH RISK OF RASH—phenytoin, carbamazepine, lamotrigine
- ASSOCIATED WITH WEIGHT GAIN—valproate, gabapentin, carbamazepine
- ASSOCIATED WITH OSTEOPOROSIS—phenytoin, carbamazepine, phenobarbital, valproate
- ASSOCIATED WITH HYPONATREMIA—carbamazepine, oxcarbazepine
- MOOD-STABILIZING PROPERTIES—valproate, lamotrigine, carbamazepine
- worsens psychiatric symptoms—levetiracetam, perampanel, topiramate
- caution with cardiac disease—lacosamide
- GENERALLY SAFER WITH RENAL IMPAIRMENT levetiracetam, lacosamide (needs dose-adjustment)
- GENERALLY SAFER WITH LIVER IMPAIRMENT—levetiracetam, lamotrigine
- GENERALLY SAFER WITH PREGNANCY—levetiracetam, lamotrigine, carbamazepine
- INTERACTION WITH HORMONAL CONTRACEPTION lamotrigine, topiramate, carbamazepine, phenytoin, phenobarbitol

EPILEPSY SURGERY—consider in focal epilepsy patients who are medically refractory (ongoing seizures despite 2 appropriately chosen and dosed anti-seizure medications). Rates of seizure-freedom after surgery depend on etiology; 65–75% with mesial temporal sclerosis, 60–100% brain tumors, 65–85% cavernous malformations, 60% malformations of cortical development

STOPPING ANTIEPILEPTICS—consider stopping anticonvulsants after a seizure-free period of 2–5 years. Relapse is 26–63% within 1–2 years after withdrawal. Risk factors for recurrence include abnormal EEG before or during withdrawal, abnormal neurologic findings, frequent seizures before remission, and developmental delay. Be sure to consult local driving regulations with regards to restrictions while undertaking an antiepileptic drug taper

DRUG- OR TOXIN-INDUCED SEIZURES—top five drug-induced etiologies include isoniazid, theophylline, oral hypoglycemic agents, carbon monoxide, and bupropion. Supportive management for theophylline-induced, carbon

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

monoxide-induced, and bupropion-induced seizures. Treat isoniazide-induced seizures with pyridoxine; hypoglycemic seizures with glucose±octreotide and glucagon; and carbon monoxide-associated seizures with oxygen (hyperbaric oxygen controversial)

Syncope

Migraine Headaches

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

Related Topics Brain Tumors (p. 319) Seizures in Pregnancy (p. 463) Toxicology (p. 120)

See SYNCOPE (p. 52)

Charles *NEJM* 2017:377(6)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF HEADACHES

PRIMARY—migraine, tension, trigeminal autonomic cephalalgias (cluster), others (primary cough headache, hypnic headache)

INFECTIONS—meningitis, encephalitis, CNS abscess, systemic infection

STRUCTURAL—hemorrhage (subarachnoid, epidural, subdural, intracerebral), thrombosis (ischemic stroke, cerebral vein), tumor, trauma OTHERS—sinusitis, temporal arteritis, cervicogenic headache, acute angle closure glaucoma, idiopathic intracranial hypertension, low CSF pressure headache, trigeminal neuralgia, pituitary apoplexy, medication overuse headache, substance use, substance withdrawal

CLINICAL FEATURES

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT WITH HEADACHE HAVE A MIGRAINE OR NEED NEUROIMAGING?

★**POUND★ CRITERIA**—**P**ulsating, duration of 4–72 h**O**urs, **U**nilateral, **N**ausea, **D**isabling (LR+ 24 if 4 criteria, LR+ 3.5 if 3 criteria, LR+ 0.41 if ≤2 criteria)

LR+ LR– Chronic headache features suggestive of serious intracranial abnormality requiring neuroimaging

| Cluster-type headache | 11 | 0.95 |
|---------------------------------|-----|------|
| Abnormal findings on neurologic | 5.3 | 0.71 |
| examination | | |
| Undefined headache | 3.8 | 0.66 |
| Headache with aura | 3.2 | 0.51 |
| Headache aggravated by exertion | 2.3 | 0.7 |
| or a Valsalva-like maneuver | | |
| Headache with vomiting | 1.8 | 0.47 |

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

APPROACH—"The presence of 4 simple historical features can accurately diagnose migraine." Headaches may be classified as new headache, acute thunderclap headache, or chronic headache. Neuroimaging may be done for new headaches at the discretion of physician. All acute thunderclap headaches should be investigated with neuroimaging and lumbar puncture. Chronic headaches with high risk features above should be investigated with neuroimaging. "No clinical features were useful in ruling out significant pathologic conditions."

Detsky et al. JAMA 2006;296(10)

ALARM SYMPTOMS (suggesting secondary causes)—★SNOOP2★

- SYSTEMIC SYMPTOMS OR ILLNESS—constitutional symptoms (fever, weight loss, malaise, myalgias, scalp tenderness, jaw claudication), malignancy, HIV, pregnancy
- NEUROLOGICAL SYMPTOMS OR SIGNS—confusion, decreased level of alertness, meningismus, papilledema, seizures, focal neurologic deficits
- ONSET OF "THUNDERCLAP HEADACHE"—maximal intensity within first 60 s
- **OLDER AGE**—new onset after age 50
- POSTURAL CHANGE—increased head pain supine (suggesting high ICP), increased head pain standing (suggesting low ICP), precipitated by Valsalva maneuver or exertion
- PROGRESSIVE WORSENING—rapidly over days to months, or worsening of a previously stable/ typical headache

HISTORY—temporal factors such as onset and duration of each episode as well as frequency are particularly important in making the diagnosis.

Characterize headaches (location, nature, intensity, radiation, alleviation, and aggravation), precipitants (stress, food, physical activity), and any associated neurological symptoms. Consider past medical history, current medications (especially headache medications). Consider temporal arteritis (jaw claudication, visual changes, scalp tenderness) in the elderly, history of PMR

PHYSICAL—vitals. Neurological examination including visual fields and fundoscopy. Remember to check temporal arteries in the elderly

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, ESR (temporal arteritis), INR, PTT
- IMAGING—CT head, MRI head

SPECIAL

LUMBAR PUNCTURE

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

INTERNATIONAL HEADACHE SOCIETY MIGRAINE CRITERIA (ICHD-III)

- 1. At least 5 attacks
- Episodic attacks lasting 4–72 h (untreated or unsuccessfully treated)
- Any 2 of unilateral pain, pulsating, moderate or severe intensity, pain aggravated by or causing avoidance of routine physical activity
- 4. Any 1 of nausea, vomiting, photophobia, phonophobia
- 5. Exclude secondary causes

MANAGEMENT OF MIGRAINE HEADACHES

SYMPTOM CONTROL—regularity in life activities (sleep, eat, exercise), first-line agents (acetaminophen 650 mg PO q4h, ibuprofen 400–800 mg PO q6h), second-line agents (dihydroergotamine 0.5–1 mg IV, ketorolac 30 mg IV, sumatriptan 50 mg PO or 6 mg SC, naratriptan, rizatriptan, eletriptan, zolmitriptan), antiemetics/dopamine antagonists (metoclopramide 10 mg IV, prochlorperazine 10 mg IV+500 mL NS). Consider adding dexamethasone 10–25 mg IV or IM×1 with standard acute migraine therapy for patients in ER or clinic to reduce rate of early headache recurrence

PROPHYLAXIS—indicated if patient has \geq 3 attacks per month, severe prolonged attacks, or when poor response to abortive medications. Choices include **tricyclic antidepressants**

MANAGEMENT OF MIGRAINE HEADACHES (CONT'D)

(amitriptyline 25–150 mg PO nightly nortriptyline), β -blockers (atenolol, propranolol, metoprolol, and nadolol), **anticonvulsants** (valproic acid, topiramate, gabapentin), **calcium channel blockers** (verapamil, flunarizine), **botulinum toxin**, **calcitonin** gene-related peptide (CGRP) receptor antagonists

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

CHRONIC DAILY HEADACHES—any headaches >15 days per month for >3 months. Risk factors include obesity, history of frequent headache (>1 per week), caffeine consumption, and overuse of acute headache medications (analgesics, ergots, triptans). Common forms of chronic daily headaches include transformed migraine (migraine symptoms with chronic daily features), medication overuse headache (use of headache medications >15 days per month), and chronic tension-type headache. Less common forms include hemicrania continua, chronic cluster headache, idiopathic intracranial hypertension, spontaneous intracranial hypotension

TENSION HEADACHES—chronic daily, mildto-moderately severe, bilateral (band like), usually stress related. Treatments include stress reduction, tricyclic antidepressants for prophylaxis, and pain control PRN

CLUSTER HEADACHES—chronic daily headaches with up to 8 × 1-h attacks each day lasting 4-8 weeks per episode, with 1-3 episodes per year. Extremely severe, mostly periorbital or temporal. Associated with autonomic symptoms (tearing, rhinorrhea), Horner syndrome (Horton headache), and motor restlessness

HYPNIC HEADACHES—chronic daily (only happens during sleep), moderately severe, bilateral. Treatment includes caffeine or indomethacin

HEMICRANIA CONTINUA—constant exacerbations of severe headaches ("ice-pick" pain), unilateral, cranial autonomic symptoms. By definition, responsive to indomethacin

PAROXYSMAL HEMICRANIA—similar to cluster headaches except that attacks are more frequent (>5x and up to $24 \times \text{per day}$) and are shorter (8–25 min). By definition, responsive to indomethacin

IDIOPATHIC INTRACRANIAL HYPERTEN-SION (PSEUDOTUMOR CEREBRI)

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—idiopathic ↑ in intracranial pressure predominantly in obese women of

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

child-bearing $age \rightarrow headache$ worse upon awakening and with change of position, associated with transient visual changes, papilledema and sometimes sixth nerve palsy

DIAGNOSIS—MRI/MRV (to exclude other causes such as cerebral vein thrombosis), lumbar puncture with ↑ opening pressure (>200 mmH₂O in non-obese, >250 mmH₂O in obese patients, otherwise normal CSF chemistry)

Meningitis

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

 TREATMENTS—weight loss, NSAIDs for pain, furosemide, acetazolamide 500 mg PO BID initially (max 4000 mg total daily dose). Medical management should be combined with surgical management if visual loss; lumboperitoneal shunting, optic nerve sheath fenestration, serial neuro-ophthalmologist follow-up

See MENINGITIS (p. 257)

Dizziness and Vertigo

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

VERTIGO

- CENTRAL—vertebrobasilar insufficiency, vertiginous migraine (9%), multiple sclerosis, cerebellopontine angle tumor, cerebellar hemorrhage, subclavian steal
- PERIPHERAL—benign positional vertigo (30%), acute labyrinthitis/vestibular neuronitis (3%), acute recurrent peripheral vestibulopathy, Ménière disease (6%), cholesteatoma, drugs (aminoglycoside, phenytoin), acoustic neuroma, herpes zoster oticus, deep sea diving

SYNCOPE/PRE-SYNCOPE/ORTHOSTATIC HYPOTENSION—see SYNCOPE (p. 52)

IMBALANCE—spastic gait (infarction), apraxic gait (normal pressure hydrocephalus, frontal lobe dementia, Alzheimer), ataxia gait (cerebellar disorder), shuffling gait (Parkinson disease), sensory ataxia gait (decreased proprioception), Trendelenburg gait (proximal muscle weakness), steppage gait (impaired dorsiflexion)

VAGUE DIZZINESS/LIGHT-HEADEDNESS panic attacks, hyperventilation, multisensory dizziness

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—distinguish between vertigo (illusion of movement), light-headedness, pre-syncope, and imbalance. Characterize duration of each episode and frequency (most important), direction of spin, precipitants, aggravations (standing or other positions), alleviations, any associated neurologic symptoms (particularly hearing changes, visual Kattah et al. *Stroke* 2009;40(11)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

changes, facial sensory change, bulbar symptoms, headache), N&V, falls, past medical history (stroke, malignancy), medications (aminoglycosides)

PHYSICAL—postural vitals. Complete neurological examination, particularly focusing on nystagmus, hearing, dysmetria, and gait. Examine for BPPV with Dix-Hallpike maneuver (predicts responsiveness to canalith repositioning). HINTS (Head Impulse, Nystagmus, Test of Skew) exam where any one of the 3 (normal horizontal head impulse test, direction-changing nystagmus, or skew deviation) suggests a central rather than peripheral etiology (100% sens, 96% spec)

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE A SERIOUS FORM OF VERTIGO?

| | PPV | NPV | LR+ | LR- |
|---|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| History | | | | |
| Positive head- hanging maneuver plus either vertigo or vomiting predict peripheral vertigo | 85% | 68% | 7.6 | 0.6 |
| Absence of vertigo or age >69 or presence of neurological deficit predict serious causes of dizziness | 40% | 88% | 1.5 | 0.3 |

APPROACH—"In patients with suspected vertigo, ask whether they have dizziness when changing body position (rolling over in bed, looking up at the ceiling, or bending over to tie shoelaces) and perform a headhanging maneuver to check for positional nystagmus. In combination with other data (including a brief neurological examination) in an emergency department setting, the presence of positional nystagmus can be useful in identifying serious causes of dizziness."

Froehling et al. JAMA 1994;271(5)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, Cr, glucose, TSH
- IMAGING—CT head, MRI head

SPECIAL

- ELECTRONYSTAGMOGRAPHY WITH CALORIC TESTING
- syncope workup—ECG, 24 h Holter
- AUDIOMETRY

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

DISTINGUISHING BETWEEN CENTRAL AND PERIPHERAL VERTIGO

| | Central | Peripheral |
|-----------|--|---|
| Onset | More gradual | More sudden |
| Nystagmus | Purely horizontal, vertical, rotational | Usually horizontal and rotational |
| | Not inhibited by fixation onto object | Inhibited by fixation of eyes onto object |
| | Persists for a longer period | Shorter duration |
| N&V | Varies | More severe |
| Others | Severe imbalance | Tullio phenomenon (nystagmus and vertigo caused by loud noises at a particular frequency) |
| | Other non-auditory cranial nerve symptoms usually present | Tinnitus, hearing loss |

MRI HEAD—used to rule out acoustic neuroma, posterior fossa tumors, stroke, or demyelinating disease. Indications include unexplained asymmetric sensorineural hearing loss with retrocochlear features, sudden and unexplained

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

complete unilateral vestibular loss, or other brainstem signs or symptoms

Related Topic

Syncope (p. 52)

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL—benzodiazepines (diazepam 2–10 mg IV), antihistamines (meclizine 25 mg PO q8–12 h, dimenhydrinate 25–50 mg PO q4h, diphenhydramine 25–50 mg PO q4h), antiemetics (ondansetron 4–8mg PO/ IV q8h, prochlorperazine 5–10mg PO/IV q8h, promethazine 25 mg PO q4–6 h), histamine analogue (betahistine 8–16 mg PO TID for Ménière disease)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

BENIGN PAROXYSMAL POSITIONAL VERTIGO

- **PATHOPHYSIOLOGY**—calcium debris in semicircular canals (canalithiasis)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—vertigo (typically <1 min/ episode, multiple episodes per day) usually precipitated by change in position, nystagmus, and sometimes N&V. No hearing loss or focal deficits
- DIAGNOSIS—Dix-Hallpike maneuver (examiner stands at head of bed; patient is supported and quickly lowered into supine position with head ~30° below level of examining table and rotated ~30° to side; examiner observes for induced nystagmus, reproduced symptoms; repeat with rotation in opposite direction)

 TREATMENTS—may improve with canalith repositioning maneuvers (e.g. Epley maneuver). Usually self-limited and resolves over months

MIGRAINOUS VERTIGO

 CLINICAL FEATURES—vertigo (typically minutes to hours, sporadically), photophobia, sonophobia, headache

BRAIN-STEM/LABYRINTH TIA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—embolic/thrombotic phenomenon
- CLINICAL FEATURES—vertigo (minutes to hours, sporadically), usually other neurological deficits such as facial sensory loss, diplopia, dysarthria, dysphagia, weakness, or numbness
- DIAGNOSIS—CT head, MRI head

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

MÉNIÈRE'S DISEASE

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—endolymphatic hydrops → distension of the labyrinthine system, compressing the perilymphatic spaces
- CLINICAL FEATURES—vertigo (typically hours, sporadically), N&V, sensorineural hearing loss, tinnitus and aural fullness
- DIAGNOSIS—2 spontaneous episodes of vertigo (>20 min each), audiometric confirmation of sensorineural hearing loss, tinnitus/aural fullness

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

 TREATMENTS—diet and lifestyle (low salt, limit alcohol and caffeine), betahistine, diuretics, steroids, hearing aid use, intracochlear gentamicin injection, labyrinthectomy

ACUTE LABYRINTHITIS/VESTIBULAR NEURONITIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—labyrinthitis/vestibular neuronitis secondary to viral infection
- CLINICAL FEATURES—vertigo (typically days, sporadically) that may be precipitated by change in position (labyrinthitis) or spontaneous (vestibular neuronitis), severe N&V

Hearing Impairment

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

SENSORINEURAL (inner ear to cortex)—CVA, presbycusis, multiple sclerosis, Ménière disease, trauma (noise exposure, barotrauma, penetrating trauma), tumor (acoustic neuroma, meningioma), infectious (viral cochleitis, meningitis, syphilis), congenital (viral infections, malformations, hereditary hearing loss), iatrogenic (5-FU, bleomycin, nitrogen mustard, erythromycin, vancomycin, tetracycline, aminoglycoside, ASA, otologic surgery), autoimmune, thyrotoxicosis

CONDUCTIVE

- MIDDLE EAR—trauma (tympanic membrane perforation, temporal bone trauma), tumor (cholesteatoma, otosclerosis, glomus tumors), infectious (otitis media), congenital (congenital atresia, ossicular chain malformation)
- OUTER EAR—trauma (canal), tumor (squamous cell cancer, exostosis, osteoma), infectious (external otitis), congenital (congenital microtia, atresia), others (cerumen, psoriasis)

MIXED—conductive and sensorineural hearing loss

CLINICAL FEATURES

RINNE TEST—256 Hz tuning fork on mastoid process, when vibration no longer heard, placed in line with external meatus. If can still hear (air conduction > bone conduction), either normal or sensorineural loss on that side (equally affected bone and air conduction). If cannot hear any more (bone conduction > air conduction), conductive hearing loss on that side. Note: positive Rinne test refers to *normal* air conduction > bone conduction (paradoxical terminology)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

WEBER TEST—256 Hz tuning fork on bridge of forehead. Normal = equal on both sides. If hear louder on one side, either that side has conductive loss or opposite side has sensorineural loss

| | Weber | Rinne |
|-------------------|---------|---------|
| Conductive | oss | |
| Good ear | Quieter | AC > BC |
| Bad ear | Louder | BC > AC |
| Sensorineur | al loss | |
| Good ear | Louder | AC > BC |
| Bad ear | Quieter | AC > BC |
| | | |

AC air conduction, BC bone conduction

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 FORMAL AUDIOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT—formal audiogram, tympanogram, site of lesion testing

SPECIAL

- IMAGING—MRI/CT of posterior fossa/internal auditory canal
- REVERSIBLE CAUSES WORKUP—TSH, VDRL

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL—speak in front of patient so they can read lips (do not speak too loudly as this changes lip movement). If they do not understand, restructure sentence. Do not just repeat. Write. Hearing amplifier (stethoscope, electronic)

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—audiology and/or ENT consult

Ataxia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

CEREBELLAR ATAXIA

- HEMISPHERES/POSTERIOR LOBE SYNDROME (intention tremor, dysmetria, dysdiadochokinesia, slurred speech)
- SUPERIOR VERMIS/ANTERIOR LOBE SYNDROME (truncal and gait ataxia)—alcoholism and thiamine deficiency

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

 FLOCCULONODULAR LOBE SYNDROME (dysequilibrium, vertigo, and nystagmus)—brain tumors (medulloblastoma)

SENSORY ATAXIA (proprioceptive changes) tabes dorsalis, peripheral neuropathy VESTIBULAR ATAXIA (may be associated with

vertigo)

THALAMIC ATAXIA (pyramidal tract signs)

CLINICAL FEATURES

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN CEREBELLAR DISORDER AND TABES DORSALIS (see p. 262)

| | Cerebellar ataxia | Tabes dorsalis |
|------------|---|---|
| History | Speech Δ | Sensory Δ |
| | Incoordination | Bowel/bladder Δ |
| | Gait difficulties | Impotence, pain |
| Inspection | Normal cognition | Dementia if neurosyphilis |
| | Ataxic speech | |
| H&N | Nystagmus | Argyll Robertson pupils |
| | Scanning speech | Optic atrophy |
| | Explosive speech | |
| Motor | Hypotonia | Normal tone |
| | Dysmetria, dysdiadochokinesia, heel-shin test | Heel-shin test |
| | Pendular reflexes | Absent reflexes (Westphal sign) |
| | | Extensor plantar |
| Sensory | Normal | \downarrow vibration and proprioception |
| Gait | Truncal ataxia | Slap foot gait |
| | Wide-based gait | Wide-based gait |
| Romberg | Positive with eyes closed and open | Positive with eyes closed only |

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

HISTORY—characterize ataxia (truncal or limb, timing, progressive), speech changes, vision changes, incoordination, falls, headaches, nausea and vomiting, weight loss, past medical history (alcohol use, stroke, multiple sclerosis, malignancy, Wilson disease), medications, family history

PHYSICAL—nystagmus, ataxic speech ("British constitution," explosive in volume, scanning), hypotonia, dysdiadochokinesia, finger-to-nose test (dysmetria), heel-shin test, pendular reflex,

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

wide based stance, ataxic gait (wide based and staggering), rebound (outstretched arms swing easily when pushed), pronator drift (upward), truncal ataxia (Romberg test shows unsteadiness with eyes both open and closed)

INVESTIGATIONS

IMAGING—CT/MR head

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

Subacute Combined Degeneration

See VITAMIN B12 DEFICIENCY (p. 453)

Parkinson Disease

CLASSIFICATION OF MOVEMENT DISORDERS

HYPOKINETIC

- BRADYKINESIA
- RIGIDITY
- POSTURAL INSTABILITY
- PARKINSONIAN SYNDROMES—constellation of rest tremor, rigidity, bradykinesia, and loss of postural reflexes

HYPERKINETIC

- ATAXIA—incoordination of voluntary movements
- DYSTONIA/ATHETOSIS—sustained muscle contraction, causing twisting and repetitive movements/posture
- TREMOR—oscillations produced by alternating contractions of reciprocally innervated muscles, e.g. physiological, essential, intention, rest
- MYOCLONUS—sudden shock-like muscle contractions, e.g. focal, multifocal, generalized
- CHOREA/BALLISM—arrhythmic, rapid, jerky, purposeless movements. Ballismus is large amplitude, proximal chorea, e.g. Huntington chorea
- PSEUDOATHETOSIS—chorea-type movements secondary to sensory loss
- PAINFUL LEGS AND MOVING TOES—continuous, stereotyped, flexion–extension, or adduction– abduction movements of toe
- PERIODIC LEG MOVEMENT OF SLEEP—nocturnal myoclonus, with repetitive stereotyped extension of big toe
- RESTLESS LEG SYNDROME—abnormal sensation in legs, especially at night
- ALIEN LIMB—complex non-volitional movements (reaching, grasping)
- τιcs—rapid, non-rhythmic movement or sound on background of normal activity
- stereotypy—tardive dyskinesia
- AKATHISIA—motor activity from voluntary effort to relieve uncomfortable sensation, mainly in daytime
- PHANTOM DYSKINESIA—amputees
- HEMIFACIAL SPASM—unilateral contraction of facial muscles involving eyelids, cheek, and corner of mouth
- STARTLE DISEASE OR HYPEREKPLEXIA, STIFF-PERSON SYNDROME—continuous isometric contractions of somatic muscles

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

PARKINSONISM ★TRAP★—Tremor, Rigidity, Akinesia/bradykinesia, and Postural instability. Parkinsonism defined as bradykinesia plus either tremor or rigidity

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

Parkinson disease is primary or idiopathic parkinsonism. Secondary or acquired parkinsonism may be due to head trauma, cerebrovascular disease, drugs (neuroleptics, dopamine receptor antagonists), or hydrocephalus

PARKINSONISM PLUS SYNDROMES—progressive supranuclear palsy, multiple system atrophy, Lewy body dementia, cortico-basal ganglionic degeneration

CLINICAL FEATURES

PHYSICAL EXAMINATION FOR PARKINSON DISEASE—resting tremor (4–6 Hz), rigidity, bradykinesia, micrographia, dementia, stare (reduced blink rate), mask face (hypomimia), glabellar tap, sialorrhea, dysarthria, difficulty getting up from chair, postural instability, difficult with heel-to-toe walking, festination, freezing gait, shuffling gait, and *en bloc* turn. Associated with disordered sleep (difficulty turning in bed), constipation, pain, and depression

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE PARKINSON DISEASE?

| | LR+ | LR– |
|------------------------------|---------|-----------|
| History | | |
| Tremor | 1.4–11 | 0.24-0.60 |
| Rigidity | 1.3–4.5 | 0.12-0.93 |
| Difficulty rising from chair | 1.9–5.2 | 0.39–0.58 |
| Loss of balance | 1.6–6.6 | 0.29-0.35 |
| Shuffling gait | 3.3–15 | 0.32-0.50 |
| Difficulty opening jars | 6.1 | 0.26 |
| Difficulty turning in bed | 13 | 0.56 |
| Micrographia | 2.8–5.9 | 0.30-0.44 |
| Physical | | |
| Tremor | 1.5 | 0.47 |
| Rigidity and bradykinesia | 4.5 | 0.12 |
| Rigidity | 2.8 | 0.38 |
| Asymmetry | 1.8 | 0.61 |
| Bradykinesia | 0.4–0.9 | 1.67–3.7 |
| Heel-to-toe difficulties | 2.9 | 0.32 |
| Glabellar tap | 4.5 | 0.13 |

TESTING—glabellar tap (percussion of forehead for ~20 times. Normally blinking stops after 5–10 times. Persistent blinking suggests positive Myerson sign), **bradykinesia maneuvers** (tapping finger, twiddling-like motor, pinching and circling, tapping with heel)

APPROACH—a combination of tremor, rigidity, bradykinesia, loss of balance, shuffling gait, micrographia, difficulty with turning in bed, opening jars, and rising from a chair should raise suspicion of Parkinson disease. On examination, the diagnostic value of the classic combination of tremor, rigidity, bradykinesia is limited. Useful signs include the glabellar tap, difficulty walking heel-to-toe and rigidity

> Rao et al. JAMA 2003;289(3) Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination. McGraw-Hill; 2009

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN VARIOUS TREMORS

| | Parkinson | Essential | Cerebellar |
|----------------------|--------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|
| Tremor | Resting | Postural (action) | Intention (action) |
| Frequency (Hz) | 4–6 | 8–12 | 3–5 |
| Head direction | Up-down ("yes") | Side-to-side ("no") | None |
| Legs involved | Yes | Rare | Yes |
| Effect of alcohol | No change | Improved | No change |

CHARACTERIZING MOVEMENT DISORDERS

- speed—slow (dystonia, athetosis, dystonic tics), moderate (chorea, tremor, asterixis), quick (myoclonus, myoclonic tics)
- SUPPRESSIBILITY—volitional in tics, sensory tricks in dystonia, activity in rest tremor
- AGGRAVATING FACTORS—stress, anxiety. Improves with rest and sleep
- PRECIPITATING FACTORS—alcohol, caffeine, stress, fatigue, cold, quick movements, prolonged exercises

INVESTIGATIONS

SPECIAL

 IMAGING—CT/MR head, particularly if atypical features. Diagnosis of Parkinson disease remains clinical

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

 DECARBOXYLASE INHIBITOR/DOPAMINE PRECURSOR carbidopa/levodopa (Sinemet[®]) 25/100– 25/250 mg PO TID. Risk of dyskinesia. Combined use with entacapone can lead to more sustained levodopa levels. See Lewitt NEJM 2008;359:23 for details

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

- DOPAMINE AGONISTS—bromocriptine 5–10 mg PO BID, pramipexole, ropinirole, pergolide. Can delay need to initiate levodopa but ineffective in patients unresponsive to levodopa. Risk of impulse control disorders
- COMT AND MAO-B INHIBITORS—entacapone 200 mg with each dose of levodopa, rasagiline 0.5–1 mg PO daily
- ANTICHOLINERGICS—benztropine 0.5–2 mg PO BID
- AMANTADINE—amantadine 200–300 mg PO daily
- APPROACH—Carbidopa/levodopa should be first-line therapy for most patients because of its effectiveness. COMTI/MAO-B inhibitors or dopamine agonists may be used in combination with Sinemet[®] or as first-line agent alone for young patients. Anticholinergics have limited activity but can help with tremor and dyskinesia. Amantadine may be useful for mild disease and dyskinesia
- DYSKINESIA—a classic complication of Carbidopa/levodopa. Consider lowering dose of levodopa, changing its timing/frequency, and replacing part of the levodopa dose with a dopamine agonist. Amantadine may be added to counteract dyskinesia

SYMPTOM MANAGEMENT

- GENERAL—education, support, exercise, speech therapy
- NAUSEA—domperidone is safe as it does not cross the blood–brain barrier. Avoid antidopaminergic medications such as metoclopramide and phenothiazines (prochlorperazine, chlorpromazine)
- PSYCHOSIS AND HALLUCINATIONS—consider stopping anti-Parkinsonian drugs in sequence. May need to start atypical neuroleptic antipsychotics such as quetiapine or clozapine. Avoid older neuroleptic antipsychotics such as haloperidol
- DEPRESSION—antidepressants such as TCAs and SSRIs may be used with caution

INVESTIGATIONS FOR HYPERKINETIC MOVEMENT DISORDERS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, Cr, glucose, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, LDH, CK, INR, PTT, urinalysis
- IMAGING—CT head, MRI head

INVESTIGATIONS FOR HYPERKINETIC MOVEMENT DISORDERS (CONT'D)

SPECIAL

- FURTHER NEUROLOGIC WORKUP—genetic testing (Huntington, spinocerebellar ataxia, Friedreich) EMG/NCS, muscle/nerve biopsy, lumbar puncture, acanthocytes
- INFLAMMATORY WORKUP—ESR, CRP, ANA, ENA, RF, ANCA, C3, C4, lupus anticoagulant, antiphospholipid antibody, antistreptolysin O
- MALIGNANCY WORKUP—quantitative immunoglobulin, serum protein electrophoresis
- ENDOCRINE WORKUP—TSH, calcium, pregnancy test
- метавоцс workup—vitamin B12, copper, 24 h urinary copper, ceruloplasmin, RBC folate, lactate pyruvate

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

GAIT ASSESSMENT

- GENERAL INSPECTION—inspect pelvis, knees, ankles, and feet for asymmetry, deformity. Ask the patient to walk normally, then heel-to-toe, walk on heels, walk on toes, and squat (testing strength, coordination)
- FOOT MOVEMENTS—heel strike, foot flat (midstance), heel off (lift off), toes off (swing)
- GAIT MOVEMENTS—comment on pace length, width, coordination, and stability (see table below for specific pathologies)
- NEUROLOGICAL EXAMINATION—lower limb motor and sensory examination. Also include Romberg test

| Туре | Pathology |
|--------------------------|---|
| Spastic gait | Upper motor neuron lesion (stroke) |
| Scissor gait | Bilateral upper motor neuron disease |
| Apraxic/magnetic gait | Frontal lobe (NPH, stroke) |
| | |

Radiculopathy

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

FORAMINAL ENCROACHMENT OF THE SPINAL NERVE—usually due to a combination of decreased disc height and degenerative changes of the uncovertebral joints anteriorly and zygapophyseal joints posteriorly

COMMONLY AFFECTED NERVE ROOTS

 CERVICAL REGION—C7 (70%) and C6 (20%) are the most commonly affected nerve roots

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

| Type Shuffling gait | Pathology Extrapyramidal lesion (Parkinson) |
|----------------------------------|--|
| Broad based gait | Cerebellar—vermis |
| Ataxic gait | Cerebellar—anterior (alcohol) |
| Unsteady, sensory ataxia gait | Posterior column (tabes dorsalis, B12 deficiency, Friedreich ataxia) |
| Trendelenburg gait (waddling) | Hip adductor muscle weakness (gluteus medius) |
| Steppage gait | Foot drop (peroneal nerve palsy) |

PSYCHOGENIC (FUNCTIONAL) MOVEMENT DISORDER

- HISTORY—abrupt onset, static course, spontaneous remissions (inconsistency over time), obvious psychiatric disturbance, multiple somatizations, healthcare worker, pending litigation or compensation, secondary gain
- PHYSICAL—inconsistent character of movement (amplitude, frequency, distribution, selective disability), paroxysmal, movements increase with attention or decrease with distraction, ability to trigger or relieve the abnormal movements with unusual or non-physiological interventions, false weakness, false sensory complaints, self-inflicted injuries, deliberate slowness of movements, functional disability out of proportion to exam findings
- **THERAPEUTICS**—unresponsiveness, response to placebo, remission with psychotherapy

Related Topics

Dementia (p. 419) Orthostatic Hypotension (p. 53)

Carette et al. NEJM 2005;353(4)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

 LUMBOSACRAL REGION—L5 and S1 (>90% combined) are the most commonly affected nerve roots

Related Topics

Back Pain (p. 302) Peripheral Neuropathy (p. 355) Spinal Cord Compression (p. 243)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—characterize neck or back pain. Paresthesia, radiation of pain, and weakness over specific nerve root distribution, any associated neurological symptoms. Ask about risk factors for radiculopathy (e.g. spinal injury or trauma) as well as peripheral neuropathy (e.g. diabetes mellitus, nerve entrapment, repetitive strain, prolonged kneeling, or recent musculoskeletal trauma). Ask about reproduction of symptoms with axial compression, Valsalva maneuver, or positional change. Ask about red flags (fever, chills, unexplained weight loss, unremitting night pain, previous cancer, immunosuppression, and IDU) that may suggest tumor or infections

SPURLING SIGN—reproduction of symptoms with extension and lateral rotation of neck toward affected side followed by compressive force to the top of the head suggests cervical radiculopathy (LR+ 3.6). Caution, as there is risk of spinal injury in patients with rheumatoid arthritis, cervical malformations, or metastatic disease

INVESTIGATIONS

IMAGING—spine X-ray (low sens), CT spine, MR spine (especially if suspect radiculopathy/

Radiculopathy

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

myelopathy, red flags, progressive neurologic deficits, no improvement for 4–6 weeks), myelography (rarely used now)

EMG AND NERVE CONDUCTION STUDY

TREATMENT OF CERVICAL RADICULOPATHY

NON-SURGICAL—acetaminophen, NSAIDs, opioids, corticosteroid injections, cervical traction, exercise

SURGICAL—indicated if myelopathy or a combination of definite cervical root compression by CT/ MRI, radiculopathy symptoms/signs, and persistent pain despite non-surgical treatment of 6–12 weeks or progressive motor weakness

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

CERVICAL MYELOPATHY—diffuse hand numbness and clumsiness (often attributed to peripheral neuropathy), imbalance, sphincter disturbances (late finding, urinary urgency/frequency initially, then retention or incontinence). Physical findings include hypertonia, hyperreflexia/clonus, positive Babinski, Hoffmann (flexion and adduction of the thumb when the examiner flexes the terminal phalanx of the long finger), and Lhermitte sign

DERMATOMES



From Mendoza J.E. (2011) Dermatome. In: Kreutzer JS, DeLuca J, Caplan B. (eds) *Encyclopedia of Clinical Neuropsychology*. Springer, New York, NY. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-79948-3_725, with permission Springer Nature

| MYOTOMES | | |
|----------|---|--|
| Root | Muscles | |
| C3,4,5 | Diaphragm | |
| C5 | Deltoid (shoulder abduction) | |
| C6 | Biceps and brachioradialis (elbow flexion), radial wrist extensors (wrist extension) | |
| C7 | Triceps (elbow extension), ulnar wrist extensors (wrist extension), wrist flexors, finger extensors | |
| C8 | Intrinsic muscles of hand (finger flexion/extension) | |
| T1 | Intrinsic muscles of hand (finger abduction/adduction) | |
| T2-12 | Chest wall and abdominal muscles | |
| L2 | lliopsoas (hip flexion) | |
| L3 | Quadriceps (knee extension), adductor longus (hip adduction) | |
| L4 | Quadriceps (knee extension), tibialis anterior (dorsiflexion and inversion) | |
| L5 | Extensor hallucis longus (big toe extension), tibialis posterior (planterflexion and eversion), gluteus medius (hip abduction) | |
| S1 | Gluteus maximus (hip extension), gastrocnemius, soleus, peroneus longus (plantar flexors, eversion) | |
| C | | |

S2,3,4 Bowel, bladder, sexual organs, anal other pelvic muscles

Note: may have some overlap between myotomes and peripheral nerve roots

BRACHIAL PLEXUS

| Nerve | Root/origin | Muscle function |
|---------------------------|---------------------|---|
| Dorsal scapular | C4 5 | Rhomboids (retracts scapula) |
| | Root level | |
| Long thoracic | C5 6 7 | Serratus anterior (scapula abduction) |
| | Root level | |
| Suprascapular | C 5 6 | Supraspinatus (arm abduction) |
| | Upper trunk | Infraspinatus (arm external rotation) |
| Lateral anterior thoracic | C6 7 | Pectoralis major (arm adduction, internal rotation) |
| | Upper, middle trunk | |
| Medial anterior thoracic | C 8 | Pectoralis major (arm adduction, int. rotation) |
| | Lower trunk | Pectoralis minor (protracts scapula) |
| Subscapular | C 5 6 | Subscapularis (arm adduction) |
| | Posterior cord | Teres major (arm extension, ext. rotation) |
| Thoracodorsal | C 7 8 | Latissimus dorsi (arm extension, adduction, |
| | Posterior cord | internal rotation) |
| Axillary | C 5 | Deltoid (arm abduction) |
| | Posterior cord | Teres minor (arm external rotation) |
| Musculo-cutaneous | C 5 6 | Biceps (forearm flexion) |
| | Lateral cord | Brachioradialis (supination) |
| Median | C 567 ⊺1 | See tables below |
| | Anterior cord | |
| Radial | C 678 | See tables below |
| | Posterior cord | |
| Ulnar | C8T1 | See tables below |
| | Lateral cord | |

MUSCLE-NERVE FUNCTION CORRELATION

| Muscle |
|--------------------|
| Tibialis anterior |
| Tibialis posterior |
| Peroneus longus |
| Peroneus brevis |

Innervation

Deep peroneal n. (L4**5**S1) Tibial n. (L45) Superficial peroneal n.(L5S**1**) Superficial peroneal n.(L5S**1**)

Function

Inversion, **dorsiflexion Inversion**, planter flexion **Eversion**, planter flexion **Eversion**, planter flexion

DIFFERENTIATING BETWEEN NERVE ROOT AND PERIPHERAL NERVE LESIONS

C6 VS. MEDIAN NERVE LESION

| Sensory | C6 Palmar and dorsal surfaces of 1st-2nd fingers (including anatomical snuff box), lateral surface of arm/ forearm | Median nerve (C6-T1) Palmar surface of 1st, 2nd, and 3rd fingers and lateral portion of 4th finger |
|-----------------|---|--|
| Motor | Biceps (musculocutaneous nerve), brachioradialis (musculocutaneous nerve), supinatator (radial nerve) | ★LOAF★ Lateral lumbricals (1st and 2nd), Opponens pollicis (opposition), Abductor pollicis brevis (abduction of thumb), Flexor pollicis brevis (flexion of thumb/fingers) |
| Reflex Other | Biceps, brachioradialis Reproduction of symptoms with axial compression or positional change | None Inspect for Benediction sign (index ± middle finger held in extension; associated with median nerve injury at or above the elbow), percuss for Tinel sign (over carpal tunnel), palpate for Durkan test (direct compression over carpal tunnel tunnel), flex at wrist for Phalen sign, and perform Ochsner clasping test (index finger fails to flex) |

C7 VS. RADIAL NERVE LESION

| Sensory | C7 Palmar surface of 3 rd finger | Radial nerve (C5–T1) Dorsal surface of 1st, 2nd, and 3rd fingers |
|---------|--|---|
| | | and lateral portion of 4th finger (including anatomical snuff box) |
| Motor | Pronator teres (median nerve), | ★BEST★ Brachioradialis (radial nerve), |
| | adduction of shoulder by | Extensor pollicis longus (posterior |
| | latissimus dorsi (thoracodosal | interosseous nerve), E xtensor indicis |
| | nerve) and pectoralis major | (posterior interosseous nerve), |
| | (lateral and medial pectoral | Supinator (posterior interosseous |
| | nerves) | nerve), T riceps (radial nerve) |

| DIFFERENTIATING BETWEEN NERVE ROOT AND PERIPHERAL NERVE LESIONS (CONT'D) | | | |
|--|---|--|--|
| | C7 | Radial nerve (C5–T1) | |
| Reflex | Note: triceps reflex does not reliably differentiate between C7 vs. radial nerve lesion | Brachioradialis | |
| Other | Reproduction of symptoms with axial compression or positional change | Inspect for wrist drop and examine mid-humerus for trauma or injury | |
| | | | |

| C8 VS. ULNAR NERVE LESION | | | |
|---------------------------|---|---|--|
| | C8 | Ulnar nerve (C8T1) | |
| Sensory | Medial aspect of forearm, palmar and dorsal surface of 4th and 5th fingers | Note: sensation to palmar and dorsal surfaces of 4th and 5th fingers does not reliably differentiate between C8 vs. ulnar nerve lesion (affected in both) | |
| Motor | Extensor indicis (posterior interosseous nerve), extensor pollicis longus (posterior interosseous nerve), flexor pollicis longus (anterior interosseous nerve), LOAF muscles (median nerve) | Adductor pollicis, first dorsal interosseous muscle | |
| | | Note: motor activity of lumbricals (3rd, 4th), interossei 5th finger opposition, abduction and flexion, as well as thumb adduction do not reliably differentiate between C8 vs. ulnar nerve lesion (affected in both) | |
| Reflex | Flexion of fingers of lateral two lumbricals | None | |
| Other | Reproduction of symptoms with axial compression or positional change | Inspect for claw hand, percuss for Tinel sign (in groove between medial epicondyle and the olecranon), and perform Froment test (patient pinches sheet of paper between thumb and index finger; pulling paper away reveals weakness of adductor pollicis and compensatory flexion of IP joint of the thumb) | |

DIFFERENTIATING BETWEEN NERVE ROOT AND PERIPHERAL NERVE LESIONS (CONT'D)

| Sensory Note: sensation from lateral leg to medial malleolus does not reliably differentiate between L4 vs. femoral nerve lesion (affected in both) Anterior thigh and medial lower leg Motor Hip adductors (obturator nerve), ankle dorsiflexion with tibialis anterior (deep peroneal nerve) Note: hip flexion and knee extens does not reliably differentiate between L4 vs. femoral nerve lesion (affected in both) Reflex Hip adductor jerk Note: knee jerk reflex does not reliably differentiate between vs. femoral nerve lesion (affect in both) Other Straight leg raise and femoral nerve stretch test (for nerve root Inspect for hematoma (for nerve entrapment) | <i>c</i> | L4 | Femoral nerve (L234) |
|---|----------|--|--|
| Motor Hip adductors (obturator nerve), ankle dorsiflexion with tibialis anterior (deep peroneal nerve) Note: hip flexion and knee extension does not reliably differentiate between L4 vs. femoral nerve lesion (affected in both) Reflex Hip adductor jerk Note: knee jerk reflex does not reliably differentiate between vs. femoral nerve lesion (affected in both) Other Straight leg raise and femoral nerve stretch test (for nerve root Inspect for hematoma (for nerve entrapment) | Sensory | Note: sensation from lateral leg to medial malleolus does not reliably differentiate between L4 vs. femoral nerve lesion (affected in both) | Anterior thigh and medial lower leg |
| Reflex Hip adductor jerk Note: knee jerk reflex does not reliably differentiate between vs. femoral nerve lesion (affec in both) Other Straight leg raise and femoral nerve stretch test (for nerve root Inspect for hematoma (for nerve entrapment) | Motor | Hip adductors (obturator nerve), ankle dorsiflexion with tibialis anterior (deep peroneal nerve) | Note: hip flexion and knee extension does not reliably differentiate between L4 vs. femoral nerve lesion (affected in both) |
| Other Straight leg raise and femoral nerve Inspect for hematoma (for nerve stretch test (for nerve root entrapment) | Reflex | Hip adductor jerk | Note: knee jerk reflex does not reliably differentiate between L4 vs. femoral nerve lesion (affected in both) |
| impingement) | Other | Straight leg raise and femoral nerve stretch test (for nerve root impingement) | Inspect for hematoma (for nerve entrapment) |

| L5 VS. PERONEAL NERVE LESION | | | | | | |
|------------------------------|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| | L5 | Common peroneal nerve (L45S1) | | | | |
| Sensory | Note: some sources claim that L5 uniquely provides sensation to lateral aspect of foot and little toe, but this is probably supplied by the sural nerve/lateral dorsal cutaneous nerve (S1). Does not reliably differentiate between L5 vs. common peroneal nerve lesion | Note: sensation to lateral leg and dorsal foot (including web space between big toe and 2nd toe) does not reliably differentiate between L5 vs. common peroneal nerve lesion (affected in both) | | | | |
| Motor | Ankle inversion with posterior tibialis (tibial nerve), hip abduction from gluteus medius and minimus (superior gluteal nerve), hip extension with gluteus maximus (inferior gluteal nerve), and knee flexion with hamstrings (sciatic nerve) | Note: dorsiflexion (deep peroneal nerve), eversion (superficial peroneal nerve), and great toe dorsiflexion (deep peroneal nerve) do not reliably differentiate between L5 vs. common peroneal nerve lesion (affected in both) | | | | |
| Other | Straight leg raise | Tinnel sign (percussion over fibular head) | | | | |

DIFFERENTIATING BETWEEN NERVE ROOT AND PERIPHERAL NERVE LESIONS (CONT'D)

| L5 VS. SCIATIC NERVE LESION | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| | L5 | Sciatic nerve (L4–S3) | | | | |
| Sensory | Note: sensation to lateral leg and dorsal foot does not reliably differentiate between L5 vs. sciatic nerve lesion | Lateral aspect of foot (little toe) | | | | |
| Motor | Hip abduction from gluteus medius and minimus (superior gluteal nerve), hip extension with gluteus maximus (inferior gluteal nerve) | Ankle plantar flexion with gastrocnemius and soleus (tibial nerve) Note: ankle eversion and knee flexion do not reliably differentiate between L5 vs. sciatic nerve lesion (affected in both) | | | | |
| Reflex | None | Ankle jerk | | | | |
| Other | Straight leg raise | Palpation of sciatic nerve | | | | |

For the nerve root/peripheral nerve lesions tables above,

BOLD = highlights important differences between nerve root and peripheral nerve lesions **REFLEXES**—complete peripheral nerve lesions will lead to complete areflexia, while complete nerve root lesions will only lead to partial reduction of reflexes

SPECIFIC CONSIDERATIONS

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN MEDIAN NERVE LESION, ULNAR NERVE LESION, AND T1 RADICULOPATHY—these lesions can be differentiated by testing two muscles: abductor pollicis brevis is supplied by the median nerve (i.e. supinate hand, point thumb toward ceiling, test power by pushing thumb down), while first dorsal interosseous is supplied by the ulnar nerve (i.e. test power of index finger abduction)

SPECIFIC CONSIDERATIONS (CONT'D)

| | Abductor pollicis | 1st dorsal |
|------------------|----------------------|--------------|
| Lesion | brevis | interosseous |
| T1 radiculopathy | Weak | Weak |
| Median nerve | Weak | Spared |
| Ulnar nerve | Spared | Weak |

NOTE: may also test little finger abduction (abductor minimi digiti) to assess ulnar nerve integrity

Myasthenia Gravis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF PTOSIS

MECHANICAL—aponeurotic ptosis (spontaneous dehiscence of the levator aponeurosis), eyelid infections, eyelid tumors

NEUROMUSCULAR—third nerve palsy (usually unilateral), Horner syndrome (usually unilateral), myasthenia gravis (bilateral or unilateral), botulism (usually bilateral), Lambert-Eaton syndrome, myotonic dystrophy (usually bilateral), oculopharyngeal muscular dystrophy, chronic progressive external ophthalmoplegia

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

ANTIBODY AGAINST POST-SYNAPTIC ACETYLCHOLINE RECEPTOR—leads to decreased neurotransmission and muscle weakness (ocular, bulbar, and skeletal)

ASSOCIATIONS—thymic diseases (hyperplasia, thymoma, carcinoma) can be found in 75% of patients with myasthenia gravis. Other associations include hyperthyroidism, small cell lung cancer, Hodgkin lymphoma, SLE, and rheumatoid arthritis. Key differential diagnoses include depression, ALS, and Lambert–Eaton syndrome
CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—ptosis (classically fluctuating and asymmetric in myasthenia gravis), diplopia, bulbar weakness (slurred speech, hoarseness, difficulty chewing and swallowing), limb weakness, shortness of breath, symptoms better with rest and worse with prolonged use, past medical history (malignancy, trauma), medications

PHYSICAL—vitals, pulmonary examination, measure palpebral fissure at rest and after sustained upward gaze for 30 s, extraocular eye movements, orbicularis oculi weakness (cannot bury eye lashes). Peek sign is positive when palpebral fissure can be seen after patient tries to gently close the eye lids), voice changes, assess for weakness of neck flexor, deltoids, hip flexors, finger/ wrist extensors, and foot dorsiflexors with repeated challenges. Sensory examination should be normal and reflexes should demonstrate fatigability

SPECIAL TESTS FOR MYASTHENIA GRAVIS—ice test (improvement of ptosis with palpebral fissure increase of 2 mm after applying ice over eyelid for 2 min), **sleep test** (improvement of ptosis with palpebral fissure increase of 2 mm after resting in dark room for 30 min), **curtain sign, lid twitch sign, cover-uncover test** (examiner covers one eye as patient fixates on a distant object. Observe for deviation of the uncovered eye during lateral and then upward gazing. With extraocular weakness, the uncovered eye will drift)

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE MYASTHENIA GRAVIS?

| | LK+ | LK- |
|--------------------------------|-----|------|
| History | | |
| Food in mouth after swallowing | 13 | 0.70 |
| Speech becoming unintelligible | 4.5 | 0.61 |
| during prolonged speaking | | |
| Physical | | |
| Peek sign | 30 | 0.88 |
| lce test | 24 | 0.16 |
| Sleep test | 53 | 0.01 |
| Special tests | | |
| Edrophonium test | 15 | 0.11 |
| | | |

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

APPROACH—"The presence of speech becoming unintelligible during prolonged periods and peek sign may be useful in confirming the diagnosis of myasthenia gravis, though their absence does not rule it out. The ice test, sleep test, and response to anticholinesterase agents (especially the edrophonium test) are useful in confirming the diagnosis and reduce the likelihood when results are negative. A positive test result should prompt acetylcholine receptor antibody testing and specialist referral for electrophysiologic tests and should help confirm the diagnosis in patients who have negative results for the acetylcholine receptor antibody panel."

Scherer et al. JAMA 2005;293(15)

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN HORNER SYNDROME AND THIRD NERVE PALSY

| | Horner syndrome | Third nerve palsy |
|--------------------|---------------------------------|--|
| Ptosis | Partial. Never complete | Partial or complete |
| Pupil size | Constricted | Dilated |
| Pupil asymmetry | Worse in darkness | Worse in light |
| Pupil reflex | Normal | Sluggish or absent |
| Others | Anhydrosis | Affected eye downward and outward |
| | Enophthalmos | |
| | Absent ciliospinal reflex | |
| | Heterochromia (congenital) | |

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—TSH, ANA, RF
- IMAGING—CT chest (thymoma, malignancy), CT/MR head (if third nerve palsy)

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

SPECIAL

- EDROPHONIUM (TENSILON) TEST—injection of acetylcholinesterase inhibitor, improvement may be detected in 30 s and lasts <5 min
- ANTIBODIES—anti-acetylcholine receptor antibody (sens 80–90%, very high spc), muscle-specific receptor tyrosine kinase antibody
- SINGLE FIBER EMG WITH/WITHOUT REPETITIVE STIMULATION

MANAGEMENT OF MYASTHENIA GRAVIS

MYASTHENIA GRAVIS—pyridostigmine 30 mg PO q3–6 h. Thymectomy (if thymoma, or when all the following are present: AChR positive, under age 60, generalized myasthenia, disease onset less than 5 years). Other treatments include corticosteroids, azathioprine, cyclosporine, mycophenolate, plasmapheresis, IVIG

MYASTHENIA CRISIS—ICU admission, treat any precipitating infection, discontinue any anticholinesterase agents, correct electrolyte abnormality (careful with magnesium replacement as can precipitate crisis), monitor respiratory status, and intubate if FVC <15 to 20 mL/kg or MIP < -25 to -30 cmH₂O, plasmapheresis

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

LAMBERT-EATON SYNDROME (LES)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—antibody against pre-synaptic voltage-gated calcium channels. Small cell lung cancer is found in 50–70% of patients with Lambert–Eaton syndrome
- CLINICAL FEATURES—proximal muscle weakness (hip girdle and shoulder. Less likely bulbar, but ptosis still possible. Hyporeflexia that improves with repeated effort (facilitation), autonomic symptoms (dry mouth, impotence). Symptoms worse in morning and improve during day/ exercise
- DIAGNOSIS—nerve conduction studies with repetitive nerve stimulation. CXR to look for malignancy
- TREATMENTS—treat underlying malignancy, plasma exchange, IVIG

Related Topics Horner Syndrome (p. 354) Thymoma (p. 210)

Peripheral Neuropathy

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

MONONEUROPATHY—compression, infiltration, mononeuritis

MONONEURITIS MULTIPLEX—vasculitis, diabetes

POLYNEUROPATHY

- AXONAL INJURY
 - NEOPLASTIC—carcinoma, lymphoma, MGUS-IgA, IgG, IgM
 - INFECTIOUS—sepsis, HIV, Lyme
 - INFLAMMATORY—Sjögren, sarcoidosis, SLE, paraneoplastic
 - метавошс—diabetes, uremia, thyroid
 - vitamin deficiency—malabsorption, B12,
 - DRUGS—cisplatin, taxanes, vincristine, isoniazid, nucleoside analogue
- DEMYELINATING—Guillain-Barré, neoplastic (carcinoma, lymphoma, MGUS-IgM), drugs (taxanes), chronic inflammatory demyelinating polyradiculoneuropathy

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—sensory loss, pain, dysesthesias, burning, gait abnormalities, weakness, past medical history (diabetes, medications, malignancy, infections), family history. Assess time course, distribution (length-dependent, "stocking and glove", migration and progression)

PHYSICAL—muscle wasting, muscle strength, sensation to pin prick, light touch, vibration, temperature, proprioception, reflexes

DIFFERENTIATING SITE OF MEDIAN NERVE INJURY—if lesion at carpal tunnel, LOAF muscles affected. If lesion at or above the elbow, there may be lateral forearm wasting and the index finger held in extension (Benediction sign)

DIFFERENTIATING SITE OF ULNAR NERVE INJURY—low lesion (below the wrist) characterized by marked hand clawing (because of unopposed flexor digitorum profundus flexion of DIPs). High lesions have subtle clawing, termed ulnar paradox

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, lytes, Cr, glucose, ESR, serum protein electrophoresis, vitamin B12, ANA, TSH, urinalysis

SPECIAL

- EMG AND NERVE CONDUCTION STUDY
- NERVE/MUSCLE BIOPSY
- LUMBAR PUNCTURE
- INFECTIOUS WORKUP—Lyme serology, HIV, RPR, HBV/HCV serology

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—diabetic (glucose control), lymphoma/myeloma (chemotherapy)

SYMPTOM MANAGEMENT—tricyclic antidepressants (desipramine 10–50 mg nightly), gabapentin (300 mg PO daily×1 day, then 300 mg PO BID×1 day, then 300 mg PO TID, max 1800 mg/day), pregabalin, anticonvulsants (topiramate, carbamazepine), duloxetine 60 mg PO daily

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

CARPAL TUNNEL SYNDROME

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—median nerve entrapment syndrome
- Associations—repetitive use, acromegaly, amyloidosis, hypothyroidism, rheumatoid arthritis, diabetes mellitus, pregnancy, and mucopolysaccharidosis. Bilateral disease or early involvement of non-dominant hand suggests a systemic condition
- DIAGNOSIS—nerve conduction studies (sens 49–84%, spc 95–99%) should be done if inadequate response to conservative therapy (changes in the workplace, night-time neutral splints), thenar atrophy, or if the diagnosis is unclear
- TREATMENTS—activity modifications, wrist splinting, NSAIDs, corticosteroid injections (success 49–81%, recurrence 50–86%), carpal tunnel release (success 75–99%)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE CARPAL TUNNEL SYNDROME?

KATZ HAND DIAGRAM—classic (tingling of at least two of digits 1–3. The classic pattern permits symptoms in the 4th and 5th digits, wrist pain, and radiation of pain to wrist, but not symptoms on the palm/dorsum of the hand), **probable** (same symptom pattern as classic, except palmar symptoms are allowed unless confined solely to the ulnar aspect), **possible**, **unlikely**

| | LR+ | LR- |
|---|-----|-----|
| History | | |
| Classic/probable Katz diagram | 2.4 | 0.5 |
| Age >40 | 1.3 | 0.5 |
| Nocturnal paresthesia | 1.2 | 0.7 |
| Bilateral symptoms | 1.4 | 0.7 |
| Physical | | |
| Hypalgesia (↓ pain sensation) in the median nerve territory | 3.1 | 0.7 |
| Abnormal vibration | 1.6 | 0.8 |
| Weak thumb abduction strength | 1.8 | 0.5 |
| Thenar atrophy | 1.6 | 1.0 |
| Square wrist sign | 2.7 | 0.5 |
| Closed fist sign | 7.3 | 0.4 |
| Flick sign | 1.4 | 0.1 |
| Tinel sign | 1.5 | 0.8 |
| Phalen sign | 1.3 | 0.7 |
| | | |

APPROACH—Katz hand symptom diagrams, hypalgesia, and thumb abduction strength testing are helpful in establishing diagnosis of carpal tunnel syndrome

D'Arcy et al. JAMA 2000;283(23) UPDATE—Flick sign, Tinel sign, and Phalen sign are not helpful in making the diagnosis of CTS. In addition, clinical provocation maneuvers do not significantly alter the likelihood of CTS

Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination. McGraw-Hill; 2009

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

AUTONOMIC NEUROPATHY

 CAUSES—autonomic failure may be secondary to peripheral neuropathy associated with diabetes, cancer (paraneoplastic), amyloidosis, cachexia, HIV, Guillain-Barré syndrome, Lambert–Eaton syndrome, other inflammatory/infectious conditions, or due to primary disorders such as Parkinson disease, Shy– Drager syndrome (multiple system atrophy with autonomic failure), Lewy body dementia, and multiple sclerosis

| | Sympathetic dysfunction | Parasympathetic dysfunction |
|--------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Vitals | Orthostatic hypotension | Tachycardia |
| Skin | Warm and moist | Cool and dry |
| H&N | Horner | Dry eyes + mouth Dilated pupil |
| Heart | No respiratory variation | |
| GI/GU | | Constipation |
| | | Distended bladder Impotence |
| MSK, gait | Postural instability | |

Related Topics

Diabetic Neuropathy (p. 365) Radiculopathy (p. 347)

GUILLAIN-BARRÉ SYNDROME (GBS)

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—precipitants (Campylobacter jejuni [ask about bloody diarrhea], CMV infection, upper respiratory tract infections,

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- possibly flu shots) \rightarrow acute inflammatory demyelinating polyradiculoneuropathy 2–4 weeks later \rightarrow reach nadir of symptoms 2–4 weeks (25% require mechanical ventilation) \rightarrow recovery weeks to months
- CLINICAL FEATURES—fine paresthesias in toes and fingertips → weakness in lower/upper extremities (often ascending) → potential autonomic dysfunction (50%), cranial nerves, respiratory muscle involvement.
 Areflexia is a key feature (but may be preserved early on), but presence of hyperreflexia strongly suggests alternative diagnosis (e.g. transverse myelitis). Low/ mid-back pain common
- SUBTYPES—four subtypes include demyelinating (acute inflammatory demyelinating polyradiculoneuropathy), axonal motor (acute motor axonal neuropathy), axonal motor and sensory (acute motor and sensory axonal neuropathy), and Miller–Fischer syndrome (ophthalmoplegia, ataxia, areflexia)
- DIAGNOSIS—EMG (demyelinating neuropathy), lumbar puncture (albuminocytologic dissociation = normal CSF WBC but ↑ CSF protein), PFT (↓ FVC, MIP, MEP)
- TREATMENTS—I/VIG 2 g/kg IV divided over 5 days, plasma exchange. ICU admission with respiratory support if FVC <20 mL/kg, maximum inspiratory pressure <30 cmH₂O, maximum expiratory pressure <40 cmH₂O, rapid progression <7 days, cranial or autonomic involvement

MONONEURITIS MULTIPLEX—simultaneous/sequential involvement of multiple named nerves (e.g. median, ulnar, radial, peroneal nerves). Multiple nerve infarcts due to a systemic vasculitis



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Courtesy of Wikipedia CC BY-SA 4.0 
https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Nervous_system_diagram-en.svg
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PERIPHERAL NERVES (CONT'D)

| MONONEUROPATHIES | 5 | | |
|--|---|--|--|
| Nerve (origin) | Pathophysiology | Signs and symptoms | Comments |
| Axillary nerve (C5–6) | Lesion usually near shoulder joint | Motor: weakness of shoulder abduction, shoulder atrophy | |
| | Affects deltoid and teres minor | Sensory: deficit similar to C5 lesion | |
| Subscapular nerve (C5–6) | Lesion usually at suprascapular notch of scapula | Motor: weakness of external rotation of arm | |
| | Affects supraspinatus and infraspinatus | Sensory: intact | |
| Long thoracic nerve (C5–7) | Affects serratus anterior | Motor: winging of the scapula | |
| D (CE TA) | | Sensory: intact | . |
| Radial nerve (C5–11) | groove of humerus | Motor: wrist drop, weakness of finger and thumb extensors | Saturday night palsy (acute compression) is frequent cause |
| | Affects brachioradialis, triceps, wrist, finger and thumb extensors | Sensory: changes in dorsal surface of 1st-lateral 4th fingers, dorsal surface of arm/ forearm | Cheiralgia paresthetica (entrapment of superficial branch of radial nerve to dorsum of hand) |
| Posterior interosseous branch of radial nerve (C7–8) | Lesion usually at the Arcade of Frohse | Motor: finger drop, wrist relatively spared | |
| | Affects finger and thumb extensors | Sensory: intact | |
| Ulnar nerve (C8–T1) | Lesion usually at cubital tunnel or ulnar groove at the elbow | Motor: weakness of finger adduction, abduction and thumb adduction (Froment sign), claw-hand and interosseous atrophy | |
| | Affects ulnar flexor of the wrist, long flexors of 4th-5th digits and intrinsic hand muscles | Sensory: changes in both dorsal and palmar surfaces of 4th and 5th fingers. May have pain over median proximal forearm (cubital tunnel). | |
| | | Tests: Tinel sign positive | |
| Ulnar nerve (C8–T1) | More distal lesion usually at medial base of palm | Motor: weakness of finger adduction and abduction. Interosseous atrophy | Cyclist's palsy |
| | Affects intrinsic hand muscles only | Sensory: changes in palmar surface of 4th and 5th fingers only | |
| | | Tests: Tinel sign negative | |
| Median nerve (C6–T1) | Lesion at carpal tunnel | Motor: weakness, pain, numbness and tingling over thumb, 2nd and 3rd fingers | Carpal tunnel syndrome |
| | Affects abductor pollicis brevis, proximal muscles include forearm pronator, long finger, and thumb flexors | Sensory: changes in palmar surface of 1st-lateral 4th fingers | |
| | | Tests: square wrist sign, closed fist sign, Flick sign, Tinel sign and Phalen sign | |
| Anterior interosseous branch of median nerve (C7–T1) | Lesion usually just below the elbow | Motor: weakness of pinch, pain in volar forearm | |

| Nerve (origin) | Pathophysiology | Signs and symptoms | Comments |
|--|--|--|---|
| | Affects long flexors of thumb and index and middle fingers | Sensory: intact | |
| Femoral nerve (L2–4) | Lesion usually proximal to inguinal ligament | Motor: buckling of knee, absent knee jerk, weak anterior thigh muscles with atrophy. | Post-femoral catheterization or pelvic surgery with retroperitoneal hematoma, diabetes mellitus |
| | Affects iliopsoas (hip flexor) and quadriceps femoris (knee extensor) | Sensory: changes in lateral leg to medial malleolus | |
| Lateral femoral cutaneous branch of femoral nerve (L2–3) | Lesion usually at inguinal ligament | Motor: intact | Meralgia paresthetica (entrapment o lateral cutaneous femoral nerve to anterolateral aspect of thigh) |
| | | Sensory: dysesthetic hyperpathia of lateral thigh (burning) | |
| Obturator nerve (L3–4) | Lesion usually at pubis or intrapelvic | Motor: weakness of hip adduction | |
| | Affects thigh adductors | Sensory: deficit of medial thigh | |
| Sciatic nerve (L4–S3) | Lesion usually near sciatic notch | Motor: severe lower leg and hamstring weakness, flail foot, difficulty walking | Overdose victims |
| | Affects hamstring muscles, hip abductor and all muscles below the knee | Sensory: changes in lower leg and foot | |
| Tibial nerve (L5–S2) | Lesion usually at tarsal tunnel or near medial malleolus | Motor: weak toe flexors | Tarsal tunnel syndrome |
| | Affects calf muscles (proximally), toe flexor, and other intrinsic foot muscles | Sensory: pain and numbness of sole | |
| Peroneal nerve (L4–S1) | Lesion usually at neck of fibula | Motor: weakness of foot eversion and foot drop | Cross-leg palsy |
| | Affects dorsiflexors of toes and foot and evertors of | Sensory: deficit similar to L5 lesion | |

Muscle Weakness

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

INFLAMMATORY MYOPATHY—polymyositis, dermatomyositis, inclusion body myositis, juvenile dermatomyositis, vasculitis, overlap syndromes (SLE, scleroderma, rheumatoid arthritis, Sjögren), immune-mediated necrotizing myositis, antisynthetase syndrome

INFECTIOUS MYOPATHY

- BACTERIAL—pyomyositis, Lyme myositis
- VIRAL—influenza, parainfluenza, Coxsackie, HIV, CMV, echovirus, adenovirus, EBV
- FUNGAL
- **PARASITIC**—trichinosis, toxoplasmosis

DRUG/TOXIC MYOPATHY—steroid, alcohol, cocaine, heroin, colchicine, antimalarial, statins, fibrates, penicillamine, zidovudine, gemcitabine, immune check point inhibitors

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

ENDOCRINE MYOPATHY—hypothyroidism, hyperthyroidism, Cushing, diabetes, acromegaly METABOLIC MYOPATHY—hypokalemia, hypocalcemia, hypophosphatemia, hyponatremia, hypernatremia, disorders of carbohydrate/ lipid/purine metabolism

NEOPLASTIC MYOPATHY—paraneoplastic RHABDOMYOLYSIS

- DRUGS—alcohol, cocaine, statins, neuroleptic malignant syndrome, malignant hyperthermia
- HYPERACTIVITY—seizures, exertion
- TRAUMA/OPERATION
- IMMOBILITY

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

NEUROLOGIC

- MOTOR CORTEX—stroke, multiple sclerosis, brain tumor, abscess
- CORTICOSPINAL TRACT/ANTERIOR HORN CELLS spinal cord injury, vitamin B12 deficiency, ALS, polio, lead
- SPINAL NERVE ROOTS/PERIPHERAL NERVES— Guillain-Barré, myeloma, amyloidosis, diabetes
- NEUROMUSCULAR JUNCTION—myasthenia gravis, botulism, Lambert-Eaton organophosphate poisoning
- **MUSCLES**—myopathies (see above)

Related Topics

Critical Illness Weakness (p. 108) Dermatomyositis (p. 307) Lambert-Eaton Syndrome (p. 355) Myasthenia Gravis (p. 353)

CLINICAL FEATURES

APPROACH TO CLINICAL DIAGNOSIS

- 1. FUNCTIONAL VS. TRUE MUSCLE WEAKNESS?
 - If functional, consider cardiopulmonary disease, arthritis, anemia, cachexia from malignancy or chronic disease, depression, deconditioning, fibromyalgia
 - If true muscle weakness, proceed to 2
- 2. GENERALIZED VS. LOCALIZED MUSCLE WEAKNESS?
 - If generalized, consider myasthenia gravis, long-standing periodic paralysis, advanced disuse atrophy from prolonged bed rest, or advanced muscle wasting from malignancy
 - If localized, proceed to 3
- 3. ASYMMETRIC VS. SYMMETRIC MUSCLE WEAKNESS?
 - If asymmetric, consider disease of central or peripheral nervous system (stroke, spinal cord injury, demyelinating disorders, compression neuropathy, mononeuropathy/neuritis), disuse atrophy, myasthenia gravis
 - · If symmetric, proceed to 4
- 4. DISTAL VS. PROXIMAL MUSCLE WEAKNESS?
 - If distal, consider peripheral neuropathy, myasthenia gravis, motor neuron disease, myotonic dystrophy
 - If proximal, consider myopathies (see differential diagnosis), myasthenia gravis, muscular dystrophy

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

MRC MUSCLE STRENGTH GRADING

0 = no contraction

- 1 = flicker
- 2 = possible only with gravity eliminated
- 3 = against gravity only
- **4** = power decreased but muscle contraction possible against resistance
- **5** = normal power resistance

MUSCLE STRENGTH—preserved in patients with cachexia despite advanced generalized muscle atrophy. In contrast, patients with true muscle weakness due to myopathy generally have normal muscle bulk at time of presentation

MUSCLE TENDERNESS—usually not associated with one of the causes of true muscle weakness, except for infectious myopathies, certain drug-induced myopathies, rhabdomyolysis, thyroid myopathy, and inherited metabolic myopathies

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, lytes, Cr, Ca, Mg, PO₄, CK, TSH, LDH, AST, ALT, ANA, ANCA, HBV/HBC serology, cryoglobulin, RF

SPECIAL

- EMG AND NERVE CONDUCTION STUDY
- MUSCLE BIOPSY —select mildly-affected muscle, not previously studied with EMG
- INFLAMMATORY MYOSITIS ANTIBODIES—polymyositis and antisynthetase (anti-Jo 1 and 2), necrotizing myositis (anti-SRP, anti-HMG-CoA), dermatomyositis (anti-Mi2, anti-SAE, anti-MDA5, anti-p155, anti-NXP2), inclusion body myositis (anti-NT5c1A)
- MRI—can be used to identify muscle for biopsy

MANAGEMENT

REHABILITATION TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

INFLAMMATORY MYOSITIS—steroids, IVIG CRITICAL ILLNESS NEUROMUSCULAR DISORDERS

 CRITICAL ILLNESS POLYNEUROPATHY—muscle weakness and atrophy, ↓ deep tendon reflexes, ↓ peripheral sensation to light touch and pin prick. Associated with sepsis, systemic inflammation

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- DELAYED REVERSAL OF NEUROMUSCULAR BLOCKADE non-depolarizing neuromuscular blocking agents (pancuronium, vecuronium) in susceptible patients
- CRITICAL MYOPATHY—muscle weakness and atrophy. Muscle damage second degree to sepsis and multi-system organ failure. Sensation invariably spared. EMG and muscle biopsy can be diagnostic

AMYOTROPHIC LATERAL SCLEROSIS (ALS)

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—combined upper and lower motor neuronal degeneration → spread to involve multiple myotomes in multiple regions

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

(bulbar, cervical, and lumbosacral). No sensory deficit. Preserved cognition

- CLINICAL FEATURES—mixed upper motor neuron signs (hyperactive reflexes, extensor plantar responses, spasticity, pseudobulbar affect) and lower motor neuron signs (muscle weakness, atrophy, and fasciculations) in multiple regions
- diagnosis—EMG/NCS
- TREATMENTS—antiglutamate agent (riluzole), free radical scavenger (edaravone), emerging antisense oligonucleotides medications for familial ALS (SOD1 and C9ORF72)

DROP HEAD SYNDROME—persistent head flexion. May be due to myasthenia gravis, inflammatory myositis, ALS, Parkinson disease, isolated neck extensory myopathy, muscular dystrophy, myotonic dystrophy

Approach to Neuroimaging

MODALITIES

CT HEAD (unenhanced)—particularly useful for acute hemorrhage (subarachnoid, subdural, intracerebral), skull fractures/trauma, meningiomas, and subacute and chronic strokes. Also used as initial workup of acute TIA or stroke and other brain tumors although not as sensitive as MRI. Advantages include easy accessibility. Disadvantages include insensitivity in detecting subtle structural pathology and changes in the posterior fossa

MRI HEAD—particularly useful for evaluation of stroke (acute, subacute, chronic), hemorrhage (subacute and chronic), white matter lesions (multiple sclerosis), and lesions of the posterior fossa, brainstem, and spinal cord. Also useful for most tumors, epilepsy, demyelinating diseases, inflammatory and infectious conditions (e.g. HSV encephalitis), degenerative diseases, and congenital abnormalities. Main disadvantage is difficulty scanning patients with claustrophia

MRI WITH GADOLINIUM—certain lesions and pathological findings have characteristic enhancement patterns. Gadolinium enhancement may be seen in some infectious, inflammatory, and neoplastic conditions (from breakdown of blood-brain barrier)

CT/MR ANGIOGRAPHY—used for evaluation of occlusive cerebrovascular disease, dissection, and in the detection of intracerebral aneurysms as

MODALITIES (CONT'D)

small as 5 mm in diameter. However, conventional cerebral angiogram remains the gold standard

CT/MR VENOGRAPHY—extremely sensitive and specific in the diagnosis of venous sinus thrombosis

APPROACH TO CT HEAD

BRAIN PARENCHYMA

- ANY SUSPICIOUS, ASYMMETRIC LESIONS—hypodensity within the parenchyma suggests infarction or fluid. Hyperdensity represents either hematoma (hemorrhage) or calcification. A hematoma will produce mass effect upon adjacent structures. Calcification will usually be punctate and have no mass effect
- GRAY-WHITE DIFFERENTIATION—the junction of gray matter and white matter adjacent to the cortex and the basal ganglia should be well defined. Poor delineation should raise suspicion of cerebral edema if the finding is global or acute infarction if the finding is localized
- MIDLINE SHIFT—measured by drawing a line from the anterior falx to the posterior falx, then comparing this line with the septum pellucidum

VENTRICLES AND SUBARACHNOID SPACES (sulci and cisterns)—difficulty with visualization of the basal cisterns may indicate increased intracranial pressure and possibly brain herniation. Hyperdensity (white) within the subarachnoid

APPROACH TO CT HEAD (CONT'D)

spaces and the dependent portions of the ventricles suggests subarachnoid hemorrhage

DURA AND SUBDURAL SPACE—check for subdural hemorrhage in subdural window (crescent like), especially along the edges of the intracranial cavity

BONE AND AIR SPACES—check for fractures in bone window and fluid in sinuses

SKIN AND SUBCUTANEOUS TISSUES—check for swelling of extracranial soft tissues in subdural window

HEAD CT FINDINGS IN THE ELDERLY

SMALL VESSEL DISEASE—diffuse brain atrophy, hypodense periventricular white matter due to gliosis, and lacunar infarcts within the basal ganglia

LARGER VENTRICLES AND SUBARACHNOID SPACES—due to brain atrophy

FOCAL CALCIFICATION—common within the basal ganglia in the elderly and should not be confused with hemorrhage

HEAD CT FINDINGS IN STROKE

LOCALIZATION—the presenting symptoms can help focus evaluation. The majority of infarcts involve the MCA territory or subcortical region. Early signs of infarction include the following:

- HYPERDENSE MCA—the suspected MCA must be significantly denser than the contralateral MCA or basilar artery
- EDEMA OF THE BASAL GANGLIA AND/OR INSULAR COR-TEX—involved lentiform nucleus will appear hypodense with indistinct lateral border. The insular cortex will appear swollen compared to the contralateral side
- SULCAL EFFACEMENT—the sulci along the cerebral convexity on the involved side will appear smaller than the other side

EVOLUTION—hypodense lesions may not appear until after 24 h. MRI is superior to CT for identifying acute stroke. Lesions may become more hypodense over time. Old infarcts are very black



Diabetes Mellitus

2018 Diabetes Canada Guidelines

CLASSIFICATION

TYPE 1 DIABETES—autoimmune destruction of β cells, prone to DKA

TYPE 2 DIABETES—insulin resistance and a relative or absolute insulin deficiency

GESTATIONAL DIABETES—glucose intolerance diagnosed during pregnancy

OTHER SPECIFIC TYPES

- GENETIC DEFECTS OF β CELL FUNCTION—maturity onset diabetes of the young (MODY)
- GENETIC DEFECTS IN INSULIN ACTION
- OTHER GENETIC SYNDROMES ASSOCIATED WITH DIABE-TES—Down, Klinefelter, Turner, Wolfram, and Prader-Willi syndromes
- DESTRUCTIVE PANCREATOGENIC—cystic fibrosis, hemochromatosis, neoplasia, pancreatitis, pancreatectomy
- ENDOCRINOPATHIES—acromegaly, Cushing syndrome, glucagonoma, hyperthyroidism, pheochromocytoma
- INFECTIONS—congenital rubella, CMV
- OTHER FORMS OF IMMUNE-MEDIATED DIABETES autoimmune polyglandular syndrome type 2, anti-insulin receptor antibodies, immune checkpoint inhibitors
- DRUG OR CHEMICAL INDUCED—atypical antipsychotics, corticosteroids, nicotinic acid, phenytoin, protease inhibitors, thiazides

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CHRONIC COMPLICATIONS OF DIABETES

- MACROVASCULAR DISEASE—patients with diabetes have a 2–4 × ↑ in cardiovascular complications (coronary artery disease, stroke/TIA, peripheral vascular disease)
- RETINOPATHY
 - васково microaneurysms, dot and blot hemorrhages, hard exudates

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

- PRE-PROLIFERATIVE—soft exudates, macular edema, intra-retinal microvascular abnormality
- PROLIFERATIVE—increased new vessels around the optic disc, vitreous hemorrhage, detached retina, neovascular glaucoma
- NEPHROPATHY—glomerular basement membrane thickening, ↑ glomerular pressure, microalbuminuria, overt proteinuria, nephrotic range proteinuria, end-stage renal disease
- NEUROPATHY (50% of all patients)
 - MONONEUROPATHY—cranial (III [commonly sparing pupil], IV, VI, VII), peripheral (median, ulnar, peroneal)
 - MONONEURITIS MULTIPLEX—combination of multiple mononeuropathies
 - DISTAL SYMMETRIC POLYNEUROPATHY—most common with classic stocking-glove distribution. Progressive loss of distal sensation due to axonal loss, followed by motor weakness and motor axonal loss. May be associated with Charcot foot
 - PROXIMAL POLYNEUROPATHY—also known as diabetic amyotrophy, diabetic polyradiculopathy, diabetic radiculoplexopathy, or Bruns-Garland syndrome. Usually involving L2–4 roots causing painful, asymmetric, proximal weakness in knee extension, hip flexion, and, importantly, hip adduction (obturator nerve involvement, distinguishing feature from femoral neuropathy)
 - AUTONOMIC NEUROPATHY—postural hypotension, gastroparesis, constipation, diarrhea, erectile dysfunction, atonic bladder, hypoglycemia unawareness, hyperhidrosis of upper extremities, anhidrosis of lower extremities, dry skin

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PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

REASONS WHY BLOOD GLUCOSE MAY FLUCTUATE

- LIFESTYLE—diet (quantity/quality, timing), exercise
- INSULIN—injection site, technique, dose
- ILLNESS—infections, stress
- NEUROPATHY—hypoglycemic awareness, gastroparesis
- DECREASED INSULIN REQUIREMENT—renal failure, Addison disease
- MEDICATIONS—interactions
- BLOOD GLUCOSE TESTING—accuracy, timing
- OTHER ENDOCRINE CAUSES OF HYPERGLYCEMIA— Cushing syndrome, pheochromocytoma, hyperthyroidism

DKA vs. HYPEROSMOLAR HYPERGLYCEMIC STATE (HHS)—both have many overlapping features. DKA is characterized by anion gap metabolic acidosis (from ketones), volume contraction (mild to severe), elevated blood glucose (usually ≥14 mM [250 mg/dL] but can be lower, particularly if taking SGLT2 inhibitors), and plasma osmolarity ≤320 mOsm/kg. In contrast, HHS is characterized by a greater elevation in blood glucose (typically ≥34 mM [>600 mg/dL]), severe volume contraction, and plasma osmolality >320 mOsm/kg, but minimal/no acidosis. Altered mentation may occur with HHS and severe DKA

PRECIPITATING FACTORS FOR DKA—infection, insulin omission, myocardial infarction, newonset of type 1 diabetes, acute abdomen, drugs (e.g. SGLT2 inhibitors, corticosteroids)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—duration and type of diabetes, diabetic control (frequency of monitoring, hypoglycemia [± awareness of adrenergic symptoms], hyperglycemia, previous HbA1C, previous DKA/hyperosmolar hyperglycemic state, prior hospitalization), treatment (insulin, oral hypoglycemic agents, healthy eating guidelines, exercise, education), acute complications (polyuria, polydipsia, blurred vision, numbness, weight loss, fatigue), chronic complications (see previous section). Risk factors for heart disease (hyperlipidemia, hypertension, smoking, family history of early cardiac events, obesity)

PHYSICAL—weight, BMI, vitals, fundi (diabetic or hypertensive retinopathy, cataracts), thyroid,

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

chest, cardiac, abdominal examination, insulin injection sites (lipoatrophy or lipohypertrophy), peripheral pulses, check for carotid and femoral bruits, diabetic foot examination including neurological examination

EXAMINATION OF LOWER EXTREMITIES

- INSPECTION—shoes, diabetic dermopathy, dry atrophic skin, fissures, callus, necrobiosis lipoidica diabeticorum, muscle atrophy, hair loss, pallor, ulcers (arterial, neuropathic, venous stasis), gangrene (look between toes), dystrophic nails, ingrown nails, fungal nail infections, Charcot foot (neuropathic arthropathy, characterized by collapse of the arch of the midfoot and bony prominences in distinctive places, acute painless episodes of swelling and erythema over ankle or foot)
- PALPATION/CIRCULATION—peripheral pulses, temperature, capillary refill, Buerger test, ankle/brachial index
- NEUROLOGICAL—10 g sensory monofilament, vibration, glove and stalking sensory loss (light touch, pain, temperature), power (dorsiflexion, plantar flexion), ankle reflex

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—fasting glucose, lytes, osmolality, ketones, creatinine, HbA1C, fasting lipids, urinalysis, urine albumin to creatinine ratio
- SPECIAL • ABG—if DKA
- ADG—II DKA
- OTHER AUTOIMMUNE DISEASE WORK-UP—TSH, celiac screen
- ANTIBODIES—insulin antibody, GAD65 antibody, islet cell antibody

Related Topics

Autonomic Neuropathy (p. 357) Coronary Artery Disease (p. 30) Gastroparesis (p. 131) Gestational Diabetes (p. 470) Osteomyelitis (p. 264) Peripheral Neuropathy (p. 355) Peripheral Vascular Disease (p. 67)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

DIAGNOSTIC CRITERIA FOR DIABETES

| Normal | Fasting BG <5.6 mmol/L [<100 mg/dL] | OGTT (75 g, 2 h) <7.8 mmol/L [<140 mg/dL] | HbA1C <5.5% |
|--|---|--|-----------------------|
| Prediabetes ^a Impaired fasting glucose | 6.1–6.9 mmol/L [110–125 mg/dL] | | 6.0-6.4% |
| Impaired glucose tolerance | | 7.8–11.0 mmol/L [140–199 mg/dL] | |
| Diabetes ^b | \geq 7.0 mmol/L [\geq 126 mg/dL] | ≥11.1 mmol/L [≥200 mg/dL] | ≥6.5% |

BG blood glucose, OGTT oral glucose tolerance test

alf fasting BG 5.6–6.0 mmol/L [100–109 mg/dL] and/or HbA1C 5.5–5.9%, consider further testing with 75 g OGTT

^bRandom glucose \geq 11.1 mmol/L [\geq 200 mg/dL] accompanied by classical symptoms (polyuria, polydipsia, unexplained weight loss) also sufficient for diagnosis. In the absence of compatible symptoms, a single laboratory test in the diabetes range should be repeated with a confirmatory test on another day

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

FACTITIOUS LABORATORY ABNORMALI-TIES—DKA itself may cause ↑ WBC, ↓ Na, and ↑ amylase, which should correct with resolution of DKA

SELECTED FACTORS AFFECTING HEMOGLOBIN A1C

- INCREASE—iron deficiency, B12 deficiency, chronic renal failure (altered glycation)
- DECREASE—hemoglobinopathies, chronic renal failure (decreased erythrocyte span)

ACUTE MANAGEMENT OF DIABETIC KETOACIDOSIS

ACUTE—ABC, O₂, IV, may need intubation CORRECT ACID/BASE ELECTROLYTES ABNORMALITIES

- MONITOR—continuous cardiac monitor until patient is stable. Create flow sheet with time vs. lytes, anion gap, glucose, insulin, IV fluids, urine output. Careful monitoring and frequent reassessment required
- HYDRATION—NS 15–20 mL/kg IV bolus (~1 L) then 4–14 mL/kg/h (~250–500 mL/h) to fluid resuscitate then decrease IV accordingly
- Potassium—do not start insulin infusion unless K is ≥3.3 mEq/L. Once serum K is <5.0 mEq/L and patient is voiding, add supplemental potassium (see table on next page)

ACUTE MANAGEMENT OF DIABETIC KETOACIDOSIS (CONT'D)

- INSULIN—give 0.1 units/kg/h. Titrate insulin drip against anion gap. If anion gap still ↑, increase the rate (see table on next page). Try to keep glucose between 10 and 15 mM in first day. As anion gap falls, decrease insulin drip. Switch to SC insulin when (1) anion gap normalized, (2) insulin requirements reasonable, (3) patient able to eat, and (4) only in AM (to facilitate monitoring over the course of the day). Ensure overlap of SC insulin with insulin infusion by at least 1–2 h
- GLUCOSE—once serum glucose is less than 15 mM, add glucose to IV fluids (e.g. D5NS, D5½NS)
- BICARB—if pH <7, may be beneficial to give 1–2 amps of HCO₃ over 1–2 h. If pH. If pH ≥7.0, giving HCO₃ not necessary
- PHOSPHATE—no indication for replacement in the acute setting unless there is severe cardiac/ respiratory depression; may consider when serum phosphate <0.32 mmol/L [1.0 mg/dL]
- LABS—obtain hourly lytes, bicarb, anion gap (calculated using measured Na+), glucose. Cerebral edema is a concern (particularly in children) if osmolality/sodium parameters are corrected too quickly. Avoid correcting blood glucose by >5 mmol/L/h [>90 mg/dL/h] or Na⁺ by >0.3–0.5 mmol/L/h

| | | Hour 8–24 | 125 – 250 mL/h D5½ NS | | | | | | After ketoacidosis has cleared, switch to SC | insulin and then stop IV insulin | Usually keep IV insulin for | first day; do not stop overnight | 5 | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|---|-----------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|--|----------------------------------|---|---|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------|--|-------------------------|-----------------------|---------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|---|--|
| | | Hour 4–8 | 250 mL/h NS | When glucose <15 mmol/L [<270 | mg/dL], change IV to D5½ NS @ | 250 mL/h (if corrected sodium is | mM [<270 mg/dL], but AG still ↑, | run D10W at 30–80 mL/h so that IV insulin can be ↑ | 270 mg/day], decrease IV to 2—4 / until ketosis cleared: use following | | | Insulin drip | Stop and recheck in 1 h | Decrease by 1 units/h | No change | Increase by 1 units/h | Increase by 2 units/h | Increase by 3 units/h and call MD | han 5 mM [90 mg/dL] in 2 h, decrease id call MD | |
| | | our 3–4 | 0 mL/h NS | | | | | | nen glucose <15 mM [<; units/h, but continue lV | scale: | ucose | mol/L mg/dL | <00> | 1-10 91-180 | .1–15 181–270 | .1–20 271–360 | .1–24 361–437 | 24 >438 | glucose drops by more th insulin to 0.5 units/h an | |
| (CONT'D) | GEMENT OF DKA | Hour 2 Ho | 500 mL/h NS 50 | | | | | | Continue IV insulin. W Expect a glucose fall of 5 | mmol/h [90 mg/dL/h]. | Titrate insulin against AG. GI | Double dose if poor m response | ~ | 5. | 10 | 15 | 20 | ~ | LL C | |
| OF DIABETIC KETOACIDOSIS | i FACTOR(S) PPROACH TO THE MANA | Hour 1 | 1 L NS | Use 1/2NS if corrected Na | >145 mmol/L (for | every 10 mmol/L [182 ma/di 1 ↑ in blood | glucose, correct Na by | ↑ 3 mmol/L) | Start insulin infusion at 0.1 U/kg/h. Do not | start until K ≥3.3 mmol/L | Target glucose | 10–15 mmol/L | | | | | | | | |
| ACUTE MANAGEMENT | TREAT PRECIPITATING AN EXAMPLE OF AN A | | Hydration | IV #1 NS or ½ NS | ± potassium | replacement | | | Insulin | | IV #2 Mix 25 units reg | insulin in 250 ml D5W (1 unit =10 | mL) | | | | | | | |

| ACUTE MANAGEMENT | OF DIABETIC KETOACIDOSI | S (CONT'D) | | | |
|--|--|--|--|--|--------------------------------------|
| | Hour 1 | Hour 2 | Hour 3–4 | Hour 4–8 | Hour 8–24 |
| Potassium replacement (when voiding) | Serum potassium, potassium replacement | <3.3 mmol/L, give 40 mmol/h | 3.3–4 mmol/L, give 30 mmol/h | 4—5 mmol/L, give 20 mmol/h | 5–5.5 mmol/L, give 10 mmol/h |
| Laboratory | Baseline: glucose, ketones, ABG, urinalysis, CBC, electrolytes, Cr, PO4, Mg, ± lipase, CXR, cultures, troponin, ECG | Glucose (C/5), lytes (VBG) ABGs if pH <7.0 | Glucose (C/S), lytes (VBG) ABGs if pH <7.0 | Glucose (C/S) hourly, lytes (VBG), PO4 | Glucose (C/5) q1–2 h Lytes q4–8 h |
| Alkaline replacement | Rarely indicated unless sev Dose 50–100 mEq, NaHCO Extra potassium may be ne | ere acidosis (pH <7) with in ³ in ½NS over 30–60 min eded with bicarbonate ther | cipient circulator apy | y collapse | |
| Phosphate replacement | Consider if serum phospho 2.5–8 mmol/1/h [8–25 mg (e.g. 10 mL of KPO ₄ in 1 LN | rrus <0.65 mmol/L [<2.0 mg /dL] (1 mmoL of phosphate aCl over 6 h (30 mM PO_4 , 44 | //dL] and give if s = 31 mg of elem · mEq K) | erum phosphorus <0.35 mmol/L [<1.1 mg/dL] ental phosphorus) | |
| General measures | Make flow sheet (ABGs, glu NG tube if unconscious, an Foley to urometer if no urir | icose, lytes, bicarb, AG, $\pm O_2$, tibiotics if infection, cardiac ne for 4 h | urine output), q monitor when a | th vitals cidotic, give fluid (6—8 L deficit) | |
| NOTE: this table should r Abbreviations: ABG arte | not replace individualized car erial blood gas, AG anion gap, | e and sound clinical judgme <i>C/</i> S chemstrips, <i>N</i> S normal | ent saline, <i>VBG</i> venc | seg blood gas | |
| | | | | | |

Diabetes Mellitus

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

HYPEROSMOLAR HYPERGLYCEMIC STATE

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—may occur with severe uncontrolled hyperglycemia in type 2 diabetes
- CLINICAL FEATURES—characterized by profound dehydration, hyperosmolar state, severe elevation in blood glucose along with hypernatremia. Ketones may be absent (or mildly elevated). Patients often present with neurological deficit (decreased level of consciousness, coma)
- TREATMENTS—fluid resuscitation along with an insulin IV drip. To minimize risk of cerebral edema, serum Na should ideally drop by no more than 8–10 mmol/L/day, serum osmolality should drop by no more than 3 mmol/kg/h, and glucose should drop by no more than 3 mmol/L/h. Lower insulin requirement compared to DKA. Mortality 10–20%

EUGLYGEMIC DKA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—SGLT2 inhibitors may lower threshold for developing DKA because of fall in insulin:glucagon ratio with increased fatty acid oxidation
- CLINICAL FEATURES—similar to hyperglycemic DKA but presenting with glucose <14 mmol/L [252 mg/dL]
- TREATMENTS—stop SGLT2 inhibitor and treat per DKA protocol

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT

RISK REDUCTION ★ABCDEFG★

- ASA/ACE INHIBITOR/ARB—ASA 81 mg PO daily for secondary prevention, controversial for primary prevention. ACE inhibitor or ARB should be started if albuminuria or clinical cardiovascular disease
- BLOOD PRESSURE CONTROL—aim for <130/80 mmHg
- CHOLESTEROL CONTROL—start statin if diabetes >15 years and >30-years old, or in those with established microvascular/macrovascular disease. May consider ezetimibe (↓ LDL), fibrates (↓ triglycerides, ↑ HDL), and/or PCSK9 inhibitor (↓ LDL) as add-on therapy
- CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE SCREENING—consider the following tests for selected patients:
 - ECG—if age >40, have had diabetes for >15 years and >30-years old, presence of end organ damage, or multiple cardiovascular risk factors
 - EXERCISE ECG STRESS TEST—angina, atypical chest pain, dyspnea, abnormal ECG, peripheral artery disease, carotid bruits,

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

transient ischemic attack, stroke, absolute coronary artery calcium score >400

- stress міві—individuals with an abnormal ECG (LBBB or ST-T wave changes) or who cannot exercise
- DIABETIC CONTROL—individualize treatment targets. Aim for HbA1C ≤7.0% in most **patients**. A target HbA1C of \leq 6.5% may be considered in selected patients with type 2 diabetes to reduce risk of microvascular complications. Consider HbA1C of 7.1–8.5% in patients with limited life expectancy, high-level of functional dependency, extensive coronary artery disease, multiple comorbidities, or history of severe hypoglycemia. Target fasting/preprandial blood glucose 4.0–7.0 mmol/L [73-126 mg/dL], and 2 h postprandial blood alucose 5.0-10.0 mmol/L [91-182 ma/dL] (or 5.0-8.0 mmol/L [91-145 mg/dL] if HbA1C targets are not met). Diabetes Control and Complications Trial showed that intensive glvcemic control of patients with type 1 diabetes reduces retinopathy, nephropathy, and neuropathy. HbA1C correlates with complications. Major side effects include $3 \times \uparrow$ in hypoglycemia (especially previous episodes, hypoglycemia unawareness) and increased weight gain
- EDUCATION—all patients should attend diabetes classes
- EXERCISE—150 min per week of moderate to vigorous aerobic physical activity and resistance exercise 3 times per week
- EYE/NEUROLOGIC—all patients with type 2 diabetes should be referred to an ophthalmologist/optometrist at the time of diagnosis and then annually. Patients with type 1 diabetes may have a baseline eye assessment 5 years after the diagnosis as long as they are aged 15 or greater. Eye exams may be done annually after that. All patients should have an annual assessment of neuropathy including the diabetic foot exam. Duloxetine, gabapentin, or pregabalin may be used for painful neuropathy. Domperidone, metoclopramide, erythromycin, or prucalopride may be used for gastroparesis
- FAT REDUCTION—all patients should follow healthy eating guidelines and try to attain an ideal body weight. Sustained weight loss of ≥5% of initial body weight for overweight or obese individuals may improve glycemic control and reduce CV risk. Remission of diabetes is possible with bariatric surgery for patients

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

with morbid obesity. See OBESITY ISSUES (p. 449)

 GET GOING TO QUIT SMOKING!—there are many different options for patients, including nicotine gum, nicotine inhaler, nicotine patch, bupropion SR, and varenicline

NON-INSULIN ANTIHYPERGLYCEMIC AGENTS

BIGUANIDES (↓ hepatic glucose production, ↑ tissue insulin sensitivity)—*metformin* 500–1,000 mg PO BID; adverse effects include GI upset and possible lactic acidosis; contraindications include hypoxia, hepatic failure, severe renal failure, HF, poor LV function; hold before giving IV contrast and 48 h post-contrast

SULFONYLUREA († insulin release)—gliclazide [Diamicron®] 80 mg PO daily to 160 mg BID; gliclazide [Diamicron® MR] 30–120 mg PO daily; glimepiride 1–8 mg PO daily, glyburide 2.5–10 mg PO BID; adverse effects include hypoglycemia. Caution in elderly

MEGLITINIDE (↑ pancreatic insulin release) repaglinide 0.5–4 mg PO TID ac meals; adverse effects include hypoglycemia. May be used in CKD DIPEPTIDYL PEPTIDASE-4 (DPP-4) INHIBI-

TORS—sitagliptin 25–100 mg PO daily; saxagliptin 2.5–5 mg PO daily; linagliptin 5 mg PO daily; alogliptin 6.25–25 mg PO daily. Usually add-on therapy to metformin. Increases incretin levels, increases insulin release in response to glucose, and decreases glucagon resulting in improved postprandial control; weight neutral

GLUCAGON-LIKE PEPTIDE-1 (GLP-1) ANA-LOGUES—liraglutide 0.6–1.8 mg SC daily; exenatide 5–10 µg SC BID; exenatide ER 2 mg SC weekly; dulaglutide 0.75–1.5 mg SC weekly; lixisenatide 10-20 mcg SC daily; semaglutide 0.25– 1 mg SC weekly; also available as semaglutide 3–14mg PO daily to be taken with up to 120 mL of water at least 30 minutes before eating or other

NON-INSULIN ANTIHYPERGLYCEMIC AGENTS (CONT'D)

oral medications. Usually add-on therapy. Causes dose-dependent and glucose-dependent insulin secretion, delays gastric emptying, promotes weight loss, and suppresses glucagon. Long-term adverse effects are unknown. Nausea is a common adverse effect and pancreatitis has been reported

SODIUM-GLUCOSE COTRANSPORTER 2 (SGLT2) INHIBITORS—canagliflozin 100–300 mg PO daily; dapagliflozin 5–10 mg PO daily; empagliflozin 10–25mg PO daily; ertugliflozin 5–15 mg PO daily. Promotes renal excretion of glucose. Increased risk of urinary tract infections, vulvovaginal candidal infections, rarely euglycemic DKA

THIAZOLIDINEDIONES (↑ tissue insulin sensitivity, ↓ hepatic glucose production)—*pioglitazone* 15–45 mg PO daily. Adverse effect of fluid retention; contraindications include liver failure, fluid overload, HF, and CAD

 α -GLUCOSIDASE INHIBITOR (\downarrow glucose absorption)—*acarbose* 25–100 mg TID ac meals; adverse effects include bloating and diarrhea

SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS

- RENAL FAILURE—many antihyperglycemic medications need to be dose-adjusted (e.g. insulin, GLP-1 agonists, DPP-4 inhibitors, sulfonylureas, meglitinides); some may lack therapeutic efficacy with advanced renal failure (e.g. SGLT2 inhibitors); and others are contraindicated when GFR <30 mL/min/1.72 m² (e.g. metformin)
- SICK DAY MANAGEMENT—during periods of intercurrent illness when unable to maintain adequate fluid intake (e.g. presence of vomiting or diarrhea), patients should be instructed to hold medications that may increase risk of renal failure (e.g. ACE inhibitors, ARBs, diuretics, SGLT2 inhibitors, NSAIDs) and those that are primarily renally-cleared (e.g. metformin, sulfonylureas)

Principles of Insulin Use

STARTING INSULIN FOR NEW PATIENTS

EDUCATION

- INSULIN STORAGE—refrigerate until opened, then keep at room temperature for up to 28 days
- ADMINISTRATION TECHNIQUE—priming pen and site rotation

STARTING INSULIN FOR NEW PATIENTS (CONT'D)

- HYPOGLYCEMIA MANAGEMENT—monitoring for symptoms and treatment
- DRIVING PRECAUTIONS

STARTING INSULIN FOR NEW PATIENTS (CONT'D)

CALCULATE TOTAL DAILY DOSE

- STABLE PATIENTS—in type 1 diabetes, total daily dose of insulin is approximately 0.5 units/kg/d (but may be ↑ with insulin resistance [puberty, obesity, pregnancy], or ↓ with residual β-islet cell function or illness [renal failure, adrenal insufficiency]). In type 2 diabetes, insulin dosages vary greatly; common starting dose is bedtime insulin (intermediate- or long-acting) at 0.1–0.2 units/kg/day (minimum 10 units) to improve control
- BASAL-BOLUS REGIMENS—multiple daily injections or continuous subcutaneous insulin infusion (insulin pump) is ideal for patients with type 1 diabetes. Treatment must be individualized. With multiple daily injections, approximately 50% of total insulin is given as basal (intermediate- or long-acting) either once daily (e.g. at bedtime) or BID (e.g. morning and bedtime). Remaining 50% is given as bolus (rapid- or short-acting) split between meals (breakfast, lunch, supper). With continuous subcutaneous insulin infusion (insulin pump) therapy, rapid-acting insulin is used for both basal and bolus components
- TWO-THIRDS, ONE-THIRD RULE—if a patient is unable to comply with multiple daily injections (e.g. children or those with difficulty selfadministering), consider simplified "two-thirds, one-third rule." Provides a rough estimate of the amount of insulin required. Morning dose (given before breakfast)=2/3 of total daily insulin (2/3=intermediate acting, 1/3=short acting), supper dose=1/3 of total daily insulin (2/3=intermediate acting, 1/3=short acting)

SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS

- PERI-PROCEDURAL—insulin dosing strategies vary widely. Commonly, mealtime (rapid- or shortacting) insulin held when NPO; basal insulin (intermediate- or long-acting) reduced by 20–50% the evening before and on the morning of the test/procedure/surgery when NPO
- RENAL FAILURE—insulin is renally metabolized, thus its dose must be reduced in patients with advanced renal failure
- METFORMIN AND INSULIN—consider the use of metformin in conjunction with insulin in type 2 diabetics to increase insulin sensitivity and decrease insulin requirements

STARTING INSULIN FOR NEW PATIENTS (CONT'D)

- THIAZOLIDINEDIONES AND INSULIN—avoid using thiazolidinediones (e.g. rosiglitazone) in combination with insulin as these promote fluid retention
- β-BLOCKERS—non-selective β-blockers may mask signs and symptoms of hypoglycemia. Consider use of cardioselective β-blocker agents instead

REGULAR INSULIN DOSE ADJUSTMENT PRINCIPLES

INSULIN ADJUSTMENTS—understanding the pharmacokinetics of different insulin types is essential. Blood glucose is usually checked at least 4 times/day, before meals and at bedtime

- HIGH AM BLOOD GLUCOSE—check 3 AM glucose. If there is nocturnal hypoglycemia, bedtime basal insulin should be decreased. If the 3 AM glucose is elevated, bedtime basal insulin should be increased
- HIGH LUNCH TIME BLOOD GLUCOSE—should increase breakfast mealtime insulin dose
- HIGH SUPPER TIME BLOOD GLUCOSE—should increase noon mealtime insulin dose or morning basal dose
- HIGH BEDTIME BLOOD GLUCOSE—should increase supper insulin mealtime dose

INSULIN-CARBOHYDRATE RATIO—in type 1 diabetes, meal-time insulin can be dosed according to the content of the meal. Insulin-carbohydrate ratio is the number of grams of carbohydrate that 1 unit of rapid-acting insulin will cover. Commonly 1:10–1:15, but must be individualized for each patient, and may vary with each meal. Insulin-carbohyrate ratio is usually empirically derived, but can be roughly estimated as 500 divided by total daily dose of insulin. Matching insulin dosage with the amount of carbohydrate consumed allows for flexibility around meals (e.g. if insulin-carbohydrate, then 9 units of rapid-acting insulin should be taken)

INSULIN-SENSITIVITY FACTOR (CORREC-TION FACTOR)—in type 1 diabetes, a correction factor can be used to estimate the amount the blood glucose expected to drop with 1 unit of rapid-acting insulin. Correction factor is calculated as 100 divided by total daily dose of insulin (e.g. if sum of basal and bolus insulin over 24 h is 50

REGULAR INSULIN DOSE ADJUSTMENT PRINCIPLES (CONT'D)

units, then the correction factor is $100 \div 50=2$; therefore, for every 1 unit of rapid-acting insulin, the blood glucose is expected to \downarrow by 2 mmol/L). Correction dose of insulin is calculated by "(measured blood glucose – target blood glucose) ÷ correction factor" (e.g. if pre-meal blood glucose is 10 mmol/L and the target blood glucose is 6 mmol/L, then $[10-6] \div 2=2$ units; therefore, 2 units of rapid-acting insulin is expected to \downarrow blood glucose from 10 to 6 mmol/L)

REGULAR INSULIN DOSE ADJUSTMENT PRINCIPLES (CONT'D)

COMBINING INSULIN-CARBOHYDRATE RATIOS WITH INSULIN-SENSITIVITY FAC-TOR—total amount of bolus (rapid-acting) insulin that should be administered at mealtime is the sum of the insulin required for the carbohydrate content of the meal (based on the insulincarbohydrate ratio) and the correction dose (based on the insulin-sensitivity factor)

| TYPES OF INSULIN | | | |
|---|-----------|----------------|------------|
| Insulin | Onset | Peak | Duration |
| Rapid-acting (clear) | | | |
| NovoRapid (insulin aspart) | 9–20 min | 1–1.5 h | 3–5 h |
| Apidra (insulin glulisine) | 10–15 min | 1–1.5 h | 3.5–5 h |
| Humalog (insulin lispro) U-100, U-200 | 10–15 min | 1–2 h | 3–4.75 h |
| Fiasp (faster insulin aspart) | 4 min | 0.5–1.5 h | 3–5 h |
| Short-acting (clear) | | | |
| Humulin-R (insulin regular) | 30 min | 2–3 h | 6.5 h |
| Novolin ge Toronto (insulin regular) | 30 min | 2–3h | 6.5 h |
| Entuzity (insulin regular) | 15 min | 4–8 h | 17–24 h |
| Intermediate-acting (cloudy) | | | |
| Humulin-N (insulin neutral protamine | 1–3 h | 5–8 h | Up to 18 h |
| Hagedorn) | | | |
| Novolin ge NPH (insulin neutral protamine | | | |
| Hagedorn) | | | |
| Long-acting (clear) | | | |
| Insulin detemir (Levemir) | 90 min | Not applicable | 16–24 h |
| Insulin glargine biosimilar (Basaglar) | | | 24 h |
| Insulin glargine (Lantus) U-100 | | | 24 h |
| Insulin glargine (Toujeo) U-300 | | | >30 h |
| Degludec (Tresiba) U-100, U-200 | | | 42 h |
| Premixed regular insulin-NPH (cloudy) | | | |
| Humulin 30/70 | | | |
| Novolin ge 30/70 | | | |
| Novolin ge 40/60 | | | |
| Novolin ge 50/50 | | | |
| Premixed insulin analogues (cloudy) | | | |
| Novo Mix 30 | | | |
| Humalog Mix 25 | | | |
| Humalog Mix 50 | | | |

2018 Diabetes Canada Guidelines. NOTE: most insulin is U-100 (100 units/mL), but more concentrated formulations exist such as U-200 (200 units/mL), U-300 (300 units/mL), and U-500 (500 units/mL). Be careful with dosing of concentrated formulations because volumes do not correspond with U-100 and pharmacokinetic profile may also differ (e.g. regular insulin U-500 resembles intermediate-acting insulin)

MANAGEMENT ISSUES

LOCAL COMPLICATIONS OF INSULIN INJECTION—lipoatrophy (human insulin), lipohypertrophy (animal insulin), edema, itching, pain or warmth at injection site, scar tissue

LONG-TERM COMPLICATIONS OF INSULIN USE—weight gain and risk of hypoglycemia GLUCOSE MONITORING TECHNOLOGIES continuous glucose monitoring and flash glucose monitoring provide real-time data that may help improve glycemic control and quality of life

CONTINUOUS SUBCUTANEOUS INSULIN THERAPY—portable pumps that deliver rapidacting insulin continuously

- ADVANTAGES—flexible and customizabile for basal/bolus patterns, decreased risk of hypoglycemia, and ability to deliver very small amounts of insulin
- DISADVANTAGES—risk of ketoacidosis quickly if insulin delivery interrupted, need accurate carbohydrate counting, need frequent blood glucose monitoring at least 4–6 times/day, costly, and resource-intensive
- BEFORE STARTING PUMP—give 50% (minimum 10 units) of usual basal dose of insulin the night before pump start. If basal insulin typically given in the morning, can start pump at the time when SC dose was meant to be given

MANAGEMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- PUMP INITIATION—calculate 75% of the typical total daily dose of insulin and divide this into a 50/50 ratio where half will be the starting basal dose over 24 hours. Assess glycemic control every few days and adjust settings (basal rate, insulin-carbohydrate ratio, and sensitivity factor) as needed. Remind patient that changes in basal rate will be apparent after 2 hours, whereas boluses will take effect within 10–15 minutes. Even with a pump, patient still needs pen (or syringes) with insulin on hand at all times in case of an emergency or pump failure
- KETONE TESTING—check for ketones if blood glucose >15 mmol/L on several occasions spaced 1–2 hours apart despite usual correction dose, or if symptoms of ketosis (e.g. nausea, vomiting, lethargic). If ketones detected, use a pen (or syringe) and give 50% more than usual correction and recheck blood glucose. Change infusion site
- TRANSITIONING BETWEEN IV INSULIN AND PUMP—if pump has been suspended for IV insulin (e.g. surgery), consider restarting insulin pump when the patient is alert and well while overlapping with insulin infusion for at least 1–2 h

Hypoglycemia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

↑ **INSULIN AND** ↓ **C-PEPTIDE**—exogenous insulin, insulin autoantibodies

 \uparrow **INSULIN AND** \uparrow **C-PEPTIDE**—drugs (sulfonylurea, meglitinide, pentamidine, quinine), β-cell tumor (insulinoma), non-insulinoma pancreatogenous hypoglycemia syndrome (nesidioblastosis, dumping syndrome postbariatric surgery)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF HYPOGLYCEMIA—plasma glucose <4.0 mmol/L [<72 mg/dL]

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

REACTIVE HYPOGLYCEMIA—hypersecretion of insulin postprandially (hypoglycemia occurring within 4 h after meals)

CLINICAL PEARL—the most common reason for a patient to have a low glucose is too much insulin or exposure to oral hypoglycemic agents. However, in patients without diabetes who are presenting with hypoglycemia, it is important to rule out alcoholism, severe sepsis, adrenal insufficiency, and panhypopituitarism. Insulinoma is rare and should be a diagnosis of exclusion. Always consider surreptitious use if no obvious cause found, especially if there is possibility of access to diabetic drugs. Plasma glucose less than 4.0 mmol/L [72 mg/dL] can occasionally be present in normal healthy individuals after prolonged fasting, strenuous exercise, or with pregnancy, but uncommonly goes lower than 2.8 mmol/L [50 mg/dL]

CLINICAL FEATURES

ADRENERGIC (AUTONOMIC) SYMPTOMS trembling, sweating, palpitations, anxiety

NEUROGLYCOPENIC SYMPTOMS—dizziness, blurred vision, headaches, mental deficits, drowsiness, altered level of consciousness

WHIPPLE TRIAD—measured hypoglycemia (<2.8 mmol/L [50 mg/dL]), corresponding symptoms of hypoglycemia, reversal of symptoms with glucose. Further investigations usually only recommended for individuals with Whipple triad with unexplained hypoglycemia

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—collected when glucose is low: plasma glucose, insulin, and C-peptide. Consider cortisol, ketones, liver function studies, and renal function. If sepsis is suspected, order CBC, blood cultures, and urine cultures

SPECIAL

- serum sulfonylurea screen—at the time of hypoglycemia
- INSULIN ANTIBODIES
- PROLONGED FASTING STUDY—may help in the diagnosis of insulinoma if spontaneous hypoglycemic episodes are infrequent. Consult endocrinology

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

- MIXED MEAL CHALLENGE TEST—may help in the diagnosis of non-insulinoma pancreatogenous hypoglycemia syndrome for post-prandial hypoglycemic episodes. Consult endocrinology
- IMAGING—CT or MRI abd, endoscopic US if pancreatic tumor suspected

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—glucose tablets 15 g PO, ensure snack or meal afterward. If hypoglycemia is severe and/ or patient is unresponsive, give D50W 25–50 mL IV push. If unavailable, give glucagon 1 mg SC/ IM ×1 dose, but may be ineffective for patients with heavy alcohol use, advanced liver disease, or sulfonylurea overdose. Monitor chemstrips q1h to ensure glucose normalizes

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

- UNINTENTIONAL INSULIN OVERDOSE—education; reduction of insulin dose; advise having snacks available (e.g. juice); consider *glucagon* 1 mg IM kit as a precaution for treatment of severe hypoglycemia
- FACTITIOUS—consult psychiatry
- DUMPING SYNDROME—advise small frequent meals; avoidance of simple sugars, increasing fiber and complex carbohydrates; consider acarbose 25–100 mg PO tid with meals
- INSULINOMA—consult surgery

Hypothyroidism

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PRIMARY HYPOTHYROIDISM

- тнукоюлтиз—Hashimoto, subacute, lymphocytic (silent, postpartum), irradiation
- IATROGENIC—radioactive I¹³¹, thyroidectomy
- DRUGS—methimazole, propylthiouracil, lithium, amiodarone
- CONGENITAL—thyroid agenesis, thyroid dysgenesis, Pendred syndrome
- отнеяз—iodine deficiency (endemic goiter), infiltration (amyloidosis, hemochromatosis, sarcoidosis, Riedel thyroiditis/lgG4-related disease)

CENTRAL HYPOTHYROIDISM—diseases of the pituitary or hypothalamus (tumor, surgery, infarction, infection, infiltration, irradiation)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—fatigue, dry skin, cold intolerance, depression, confusion, memory loss, goiter, constipation, weakness, carpel tunnel syndrome, menorrhagia, amenorrhea, weight gain, medications, family history of thyroid disease

PHYSICAL—bradycardia, bradypnea, diastolic hypertension, hypothermia, cool and dry skin, orange skin (from carotenemia), carpel tunnel syndrome, thinning hair, periorbital edema, anemia, goiter, pleural effusion, pericardial effusion, proximal myopathy, pseudomyotonia, delayed relaxation phase of the reflexes, edema (non-pitting)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—TSH (see note below regarding free T4 and free T3)

SPECIAL

ANTI-TPO ANTIBODY—non-specific

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

TSH—usually all that is required to make a diagnosis. Free T4 and free T3 not routinely measured. If central hypothyroidism suspected, check TSH with free T4. In sick euthyroid, biochemical lab abnormalities may occur even though patient is clinically euthyroid

ANTI-TPO ANTIBODY—may be associated with Hashimoto thyroiditis, but non-specific and elevated in up to 20% of general population. Not useful for monitoring disease activity

THYROGLOBULIN ANTIBODY—unhelpful for diagnosing hypothyroidism or hyperthyroidism. Generally only ordered for follow-up of differentiated thyroid cancer post-total thyroidectomy

INTERPRETATION

| | TSH | fT4 | fT3 |
|----------------------------|-------|--------------|--------------|
| Subclinical hypothyroidism | 1 | Ν | Ν |
| Primary hypothyroidism | 1 | \downarrow | \downarrow |
| Central hypothyroidism | N/↓ | \downarrow | \downarrow |
| Sick euthyroid syndrome | N/↑/↓ | N/↓ | ↓ |

MANAGEMENT

MYXEDEMA COMA—ABC, O₂, IV. Hydrocortisone 100 mg IV q6h (give hydrocortisone first in case of concurrent adrenal insufficiency). Levothyroxine 200-500 μ g IV, then 100 μ g IV daily initially (and if IV continued, give 80% of appropriate PO dose, but not more than 1.4 μ g/kg of ideal body weight). Warming blankets. Important to rule out adrenal insufficiency as levothyroxine can cause severe decompensation in patients with untreated hypocortisolism. Rule out infection

Hyperthyroidism

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF THYROTOXICOSIS

GRAVES DISEASE (diffuse toxic goiter)—most common cause of hyperthyroidism

TOXIC ADENOMA/TOXIC MULTINODULAR GOITER—more common in elderly

THYROIDITIS—subacute thyroiditis, lymphocytic thyroiditis (silent, postpartum), Hashimoto thyroiditis ("Hashitoxicosis"), radiation-induced

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—levothyroxine dosage highly variable, but commonly 75–112 μg PO daily for women and 125–200 μg PO daily for men (1.6 μg/kg/day). But in elderly or those with heart disease, initiate treatment at a dose of 25–50 μg PO daily and titrate up by 12.5–25 μg increments every 4–6 weeks as needed

TREATMENT ISSUES

SUBCLINICAL HYPOTHYROIDISM—treatment controversial but should be considered if at high risk of progressing to overt hypothyroidism (e.g. significantly ↑ TSH and ↑ TPO-Ab). Treatment associated with iatrogenic thyrotoxicosis, especially in the elderly, with no apparent benefit for most individuals

PRIMARY HYPOTHYROIDISM—aim to normalize TSH with dosage adjustments no sooner than every 4–6 weeks; levothyroxine has half-life of 7 days, and it takes 4–6 weeks for serum TSH to equilibrate after each dose adjustment. When stable dose achieved, check TSH yearly

CENTRAL HYPOTHYROIDISM—free T4 should be used to follow treatment progress in patients with central hypothyroidism, targeting upper half of normal range. No dose adjustments should be made on basis of TSH

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

SICK EUTHYROID SYNDROME—in medically sick but clinically euthyroid patients! Secondary to hypothalamic–pituitary axis disruption, with \downarrow T4 \rightarrow T3 conversion. Mildly altered N/ \downarrow free T4, \downarrow free T3, and N/ \downarrow TSH (but may \uparrow during recovery phase). Thyroid replacement is not needed. Repeat TSH 1–2 months after acute illness resolved

Related Topic

Hypothyroidism in Pregnancy (p. 472)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF THYROTOXICOSIS (CONT'D)

thyroiditis, drug-induced thyroiditis (lithium, amiodarone, interferon)

IODINE EXPOSURE—kelp, seaweed, radiocontrast dye

EXOGENOUS—levothyroxine or liothyronine ingestion, hamburger thyrotoxicosis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF THYROTOXICOSIS (CONT'D)

ECTOPIC—struma ovarii (thyroid tissue present in an ovarian tumor), hydatidiform mole CENTRAL—pituitary TSHoma (rare)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

GRAVES DISEASE—circulating IgG that binds to and activates the TSH receptor, resulting in follicular hyperplasia (diffuse thyroid enlargement) and overproduction of thyroid hormones. Graves disease occurs more frequently in women (10:1) and may be precipitated by stress, infections, and recent labor/delivery

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—fatigue, sweating, heat intolerance, psychosis, agitation, confusion, anxiety, goiter, dyspnea, palpitations, diarrhea, amenorrhea, weight loss, medications, family history. Subacute thyroiditis associated with painful goiter

PHYSICAL—vitals (tachycardia, atrial fibrillation, tachypnea, systolic hypertension, fever), systolic flow murmur, thyroid acropachy (clubbing, Graves only), onycholysis (Plummer nails), palmar erythema, tremor, warm and moist skin ("velvet skin"), proptosis, proximal myopathy, hyperreflexia, pretibial myxedema (Graves only), splenomegaly

- GOITER—present along with thyroid bruits in Graves. Thyroid enlargement may be found in other types of hyperthyroidism or hypothyroidism as well
- GRAVES OPHTHALMOPATHY—protrusion of eyes from the orbits. Features include upper and lower lid retraction, lid lag and stare, ophthalmoplegia, diplopia, conjunctivitis, chemosis, corneal ulceration, optic atrophy, loss of vision. Check visual acuity and visual fields, measure exophthalmos with exophthalmometer

THYROID STORM—may be precipitated by anesthetics, surgery, trauma, systemic illness (especially sepsis), iodine load, and parturition. Clinical manifestations include fever, CNS (delirium), CVS (tachycardia, hypotension), and/or GI (vomiting, jaundice, diarrhea, \uparrow LFT) symptoms. The presence of thyrotoxicosis along with dysfunction in 2 of 4 systems would be highly suggestive of a thyroid storm

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE A GOITER?

NORMAL—15–20 g. Abnormal if each lateral thyroid lobe has volume greater than the individual's terminal phalanx of thumb

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

INSPECTION—slightly extend the neck, observe from front and side, observe the patient swallow, measure amount of prominence with a ruler (>2 mm AP diameter on lateral exam below cricothyroid membrane has very high LR+ for goiter; non-visible gland suggests absence of goiter)

PALPATION—locate thyroid isthmus by palpating between cricoid cartilage and suprasternal notch. Feel the left lobe with neck slightly flexed and rotated to left, and then right lobe. Ask patient to swallow sips of water and repeat palpation. Describe the size of the thyroid, its texture, and consistency; comment on the presence or absence of nodules or tenderness

AUSCULTATION—listen for bruits over each lobe and the isthmus

APPROACH—perform both inspection and palpation (LR+ 0.15 if normal exam, LR+ 1.9 if $1-2 \times \text{size}$, LR+ 25 if $>2 \times \text{size}$)

Siminoski JAMA 1995;273(10) Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination McGraw-Hill; 2009

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—TSH, free T4, free T3, TSH receptor antibody (Graves), CRP († if thyroiditis), CBC, ALT, AST, ALP, ECG

SPECIAL

- ТНУROID US—to assess for vascular flow (↑ with hyperthyroidism vs. ↓ with thyroiditis) and nodularity; useful when nuclear studies are contraindicated (e.g. pregnancy)
- RADIOACTIVE IODINE UPTAKE—to differentiate between hyperthyroidism from increase hormone synthesis (↑ uptake with Graves and functioning nodules) vs. destructive thyroiditis (↓ uptake). Must be thyrotoxic at time of testing; contraindicated if pregnant or breastfeeding
- THYROID SCAN (SCINTIGRAPHY)—to determine functional status of nodule(s). Diffuse homogeneous increased iodine uptake suggests Graves disease. Multifocal uptake suggests toxic multinodular goiter. Increased single focus suggests toxic adenoma. Decreased global uptake suggests thyroidis or factitious hyperthyroidism. Decreased localized uptake may suggest cold nodule. Must be thyrotoxic at time of testing; contraindicated if pregnant or breastfeeding
- THYROID STIMULATING IMMUNOGLOBULIN—for Graves disease

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

| THYROID HORMONE INTERPRETATION | LEVE | LS | AND |
|-----------------------------------|--------------|-----|-----|
| | TSH | fT4 | fT3 |
| Subclinical hyperthyroidism | \downarrow | Ν | Ν |
| Primary hyperthyroidism | \downarrow | 1 | 1 |
| T3 thyrotoxicosis | \downarrow | Ν | 1 |
| Central hyperthyroidism | ↑/N | 1 | 1 |

MANAGEMENT

THYROID STORM—ABC, O_2 , IV. Propylthiouracil 1,000 mg PO/NG/PR STAT, then 200 mg PO/NG/PR q4h×1 week then 200 mg PO BID. Inorganic iodide with Lugol solution 5-7 drops PO q8h or saturated potassium iodide (SSKI) 1-2 drops PO q8h, to be given 1 h after each dose of propylthiouracil. Glucocorticoids with hydrocortisone 100 mg IV q8h. Propranolol 20-80 mg PO q6-8h. Supportive care with IV saline, cooling blankets, and acetaminophen

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

 ANTITHYROID DRUGS—inhibit thyroid hormone synthesis; for Graves, toxic adenoma, and multinodular goiter. Methimazole 10–30 mg PO daily for most cases of hyperthyroidism, or propylthiouracii 50–300 mg PO BID–TID. Initial treatment course commonly 12–18 months (to be stopped if TSH normal). Methimazole associated with better safety profile, more convenient dosing, and less 1¹³¹ failure rates than propylthiouracil. However propylthiouracil preferred in first trimester of pregnancy. Sideeffects include rash, hepatotoxicity, and agranulocytosis

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

- RADIOIODINE 1¹³¹ABLATION—for Graves, toxic adenoma, and multinodular goiter. Give once thyroid levels have been stabilized. Must discontinue antithyroid drugs 3–7 days in advance. Avoid 1¹³¹ if severe ophthalmopathy, smoking, severe thyrotoxicosis, pregnant, or breastfeeding as may make eye disease worse or lead to thyroid storm. Euthyroidism or hypothyroidism within 2–4 months is expected. Many develop permanent hypothyroidism and require thyroid hormone replacement
- THYROIDECTOMY—usually for patients with a toxic adenoma or multinodular goiter, or patients with Graves who fail medical therapy, are unable to receive radioactive ablation (e.g. severe ophthalmopathy), have compressive goiter, or have another indication for surgery (e.g. nodule suspicious for malignancy)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

APATHETIC (MASKED) THYROTOXICOSIS in the elderly, thyrotoxicosis may manifest as isolated congestive HF, unexplained weight loss, or atrial fibrillation without other classical symptoms and signs

THYROIDITIS—supportive care for the majority. Initial thyrotoxicosis from release of pre-formed hormone, then a period of hypothyroidism, followed by recovery to euthyroid state for most patients

Related Topics

Hyperthyroidism in Pregnancy (p. 473) Amiodarone-associated Thyrotoxicosis (see Important Toxicities of Amiodarone (p. 51))

Thyroid Nodules

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

BENIGN (95%)—colloid nodule, benign follicular neoplasm (adenoma), cyst, thyroiditis MALIGNANT (5%)—thyroid carcinoma (papillary, follicular, medullary, anaplastic), lymphoma 2015 ATA Thyroid Nodule and Differentiated Thyroid Cancer Guidelines 2009 ATA Medullary Thyroid Cancer Guidelines

CLINICAL FEATURES

RISK FACTORS FOR THYROID CANCER

 CLINICAL RISK FACTORS—family history of medullar thyroid carcinoma or MEN2, rapid growth, fixated/firm/hard nodule, extremes of age 60,

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

male sex, prior head and neck irradiation, nodule >4 cm [>1.6 in.] in diameter, symptoms of compression (dysphagia, dysphonia, hoarseness, dyspnea, cough), regional lymphadenopathy, distant metastases

 SUSPICIOUS (HIGH-RISK) ULTRASOUND FINDINGS hypoechoic lesion, absence of cystic elements, irregular/infiltrative margins, microcalcifications, absence of halo, increased central vascularity, appearance taller than wide on transverse view, pathologic lymph nodes

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LAB TESTS—TSH
- IMAGING—thyroid US
- FNA—with US-guidance

SPECIAL

- THYROID SCAN—if thyrotoxic to determine hot vs. cold nodule
- THYROGLOBULIN LEVEL—for follow-up of follicular-cell derived thyroid cancer
- CALCITONIN LEVEL—for follow-up of medullary thyroid cancer

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

OVERALL APPROACH—main goals are to determine whether nodule is functioning vs. non-functioning, benign vs. malignant, obstructive vs. non-obstructive

- FUNCTIONAL EVALUATION—if ↓ TSH → obtain thyroid scan. If hot nodule(s) with radiotracer trapping → toxic adenoma(s). If N/↑ TSH → no functional testing needed
- EVALUATION FOR MALIGNANCY—select patients for FNA based on combination of clinical risk factors, presence of suspicious US findings, size of nodule, and results of functional evaluation (i.e., hot nodules very rarely malignant)

THYROID FUNCTION AND CANCER RISK thyroid nodules have a 5–15% risk of being malignant; 1/3 of all nodules are cold and less than 1/3 of cold nodules are malignant. Cold nodules in the setting of autoimmune thyroid disease have a higher risk of malignancy. Functioning nodules are almost always benign and usually require no evaluation for malignacy

SIZE CUTOFF FOR MALIGNANCY EVALUA-TION—most lesions <1 cm [<0.4 in.] require no further testing. Recommend FNA for most nodules \geq 1.5 cm [\geq 0.6 in.], or \geq 1 cm [\geq 0.4 in.] for nodules with suspicious (i.e., high-risk) US features

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

BETHESDA CLASSIFICATION OF FNA BIOP-SIES—standardized classification system with six categories: (I) non-diagnostic or unsatisfactory (e.g. cyst fluid only, acellular specimen) with 1-4% risk of malignancy; (II) benign (e.g. benign follicular nodule) with <3% risk of malignancy; (III) follicular lesion of undetermined significance (FLUS) or atypia of undetermined significance (AUS) with 5-15% risk of malignancy; (IV) follicular neoplasm or suspicious for follicular neoplasm (e.g. Hurthle cell neoplasm) with 15–30% risk of malignancy; (V) suspicious for malignancy with 60-75% risk of malignancy; and (VI) malignant (e.g. papillary, medullary, anaplastic thyroid cancer) with >95% risk of malignancy

MANAGEMENT

PURELY CYSTIC NODULE—drain if symptomatic, but recurrences common

NON-FUNCTIONING NODULE <1 cm—usually no further testing required if no suspicious features

NON-FUNCTIONING NODULE 1-4 cm—evaluate thyroid function then proceed to FNA if indicated

- NON-DIAGNOSTIC FNA—repeat FNA with US (after 3–6 mo interval)
- BENIGN NODULE—follow-up US 6–18 mo after initial FNA. If size stable, clinical follow-up. If size ↑ (≥20% with at least ≥2 mm in ≥2 dimensions in solid component), repeat FNA
- FOLLICULAR NEOPLASM/SUSPICIOUS FOR FOLLICULAR NEOPLASM—diagnostic lobectomy ± follow-up completion thyroidectomy if necessary
- SUSPICIOUS FOR MALIGNANCY/MALIGNANT—total thyroidectomy $\pm\,$ postoperative $\,|^{131}\,$ remnant ablation

NON-FUNCTIONING NODULE (>4 cm)—consider surgical removal, especially in younger patients, presence of compressive symptoms, or clinical concern

MULTINODULAR GOITERS (>2 CLINICALLY-RELEVANT NODULES)—similar algorithm as solitary nodules with selected FNA of suspicious or high risk nodules

OBSTRUCTIVE (OR SUBSTERNAL) GOITER surgical removal if symptomatic (e.g. positional dyspnea, dysphagia, dysphonia), suspected malignancy, or clinical concern. If surgery not possible, consider 1¹³¹ ablation but beware transient increase in size!

Pituitary Tumors

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF PITUITARY TUMORS

FUNCTIONAL ADENOMA—prolactinoma is most common, Cushing disease (pituitary ACTHsecreting tumor) and acromegaly are rare, functional TSH tumors are exceedingly rare

NON-FUNCTIONAL ADENOMA

OTHER TUMORS—meningioma, craniopharyngioma, dysgerminoma, optic glioma, lymphoma, metastases, infiltrative disorders (lymphocytic hypophysitis, sarcoidosis, hemochromatosis)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF PITUITARY HORMONE DEFICIENCY

IATROGENIC—neurosurgery, irradiation TRAUMATIC—traumatic brain injury INFILTRATIVE—lymphocytic hypophysitis, sarcoidosis, hemochromatosis, immune checkpoint inhibitor-related hypophysitis

INFECTION—TB, histoplasmosis

VASCULAR—apoplexy, Sheehan syndrome **NEOPLASTIC**—metastasis, lymphoma, craniopharyngioma

FUNCTIONAL—excessive exercise, anorexia, critical illness

CONGENITAL

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF HYPERPROLACTINEMIA

PHYSIOLOGIC—pregnancy, lactation, exercise, coitus, stress

TUMORS—pituitary (prolactinoma, other functional tumors [acromegaly], non-functional tumor with stalk compression [macroadenoma]), non-pituitary

DRUGS—metoclopramide, domperidone, phenothiazines, risperidone, TCA, SSRI, labetalol, verapamil, ranitidine, estrogen, opioids

OTHERS—hypothyroidism (↑ TRH), chronic kidney disease, chest wall irritation (trauma, surgery, zoster)

IMPORTANT—prolactin secretion is normally inhibited by dopamine. Therefore, anything that interferes with dopamine secretion/delivery (e.g. pituitary stalk compression) can lead to ↑ prolactin secretion

CLINICAL FEATURES

★GO LOOK FOR THE ADENOMA PLEASE★—A compressive pituitary adenoma usually affects hormone secretion in this order: \downarrow GH, \downarrow LH and FSH, \downarrow TSH, \downarrow ACTH, and \uparrow Prolactin

Schlechte NEJM 2003;349(21)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

MASS EFFECT—visual field abnormalities (bitemporal hemianopsia), blurred vision (\downarrow visual acuity), headaches, cranial nerve palsies, loss of color (red) discrimination

SYMPTOMS—inquire about hormonal excess, hormonal deficiencies, and mass effect (see below)

HYPERPROLACTINEMIA

Q—amenorrhea, oligomenorrhea, galactorrhea, infertility, sexual dysfunction, osteoporosis

♂—erectile dysfunction, infertility, osteoporosis GROWTH HORMONE DEFICIENCY—nonspecific symptoms (obesity, ↓ exercise capacity, weakness, low mood, fatigue)

GROWTH HORMONE EXCESS (ACROMEG-ALY)—mass effect (especially headaches), increased hand/foot/head size (↑ ring, glove, shoe, and hat size), increased sweating, painful osteoarthritis (DIP, PIP, CMC, wrists), nerve entrapment (carpal tunnel syndrome, foot drop), coarse facial features, frontal bossing, prognathism (prominent mandible), wide-spaced teeth, enlarged tongue, low-pitched voice, skin tags, acanthosis nigricans (insulin resistance), cardiomegaly with or without HF, sleep apnea, hypertension

CORTISOL DEFICIENCY (ADRENAL INSUFFI-CIENCY)—see section on Adrenal Insufficiency (p. 383) for details

CORTISOL EXCESS (CUSHING SYN-DROME)—see section on Adrenal Incidentaloma (p. 382) for details

THYROID HORMONE DEFICIENCY (HYPO-THYROIDISM)—see section on Hypothyroidism (p. 375) for details

THYROID HORMONE EXCESS (HYPERTHY-ROIDISM)—see section on Hyperthyroidism (p. 376) for details

LH/FSH DEFICIENCY—hypogonadism

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—prolactin, IGF-1 (simpler than GH to interpret), LH, FSH, TSH, ACTH, AM cortisol, free T4±AM testosterone, estrogen, progesterone
- імадімд—MRI sella

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

MICROADENOMA (<10 mm [<0.4 in.])—evaluate for hormonal hypersecretion (e.g. prolactin, IGF-1±free T4 if clinically hyperthyroid±1 mg

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

dexamethasone suppression test [or 24 h urinary free cortisol, or late night salivary cortisol]) if Cushing disease suspected

MACROADENOMA (\geq 10 mm [\geq 0.4 in])—evaluate for hormonal hypersecretion (see above) and hyposecretion (e.g. AM cortisol, free T4 ± AM testosterone [if \mathcal{J}] ±LH and FSH [if \mathcal{G} ; may omit if regular menses]±IGF-1 if GH deficiency suspected). Refer to ophthalmologist for formal visual field testing if optic chiasm compression

HYPERPROLACTINEMIA—if prolactin <2 × upper limit of normal, repeat at least two more times (fasting and at rest) as most cases will normalize spontaneously. If persistent \uparrow prolactin confirmed, look for potential offending medications, check pituitary function, renal function, liver function, β -hCG (in Q), TSH, IGF-1, MRI sella ± macroprolactin assay

MANAGEMENT

NON-FUNCTIONAL MICROADENOMA (<10 mm)—expectant observation (e.g. MRI q1y for 2-3 years to monitor; if size stable, ↓ frequency) NON-FUNCTIONAL MACROADENOMA (≥10 mm)—replace any hormone deficiencies. Expectant observation (e.g. MRI q1y for 5 years to monitor; if size stable, ↓ frequency) with monitoring of vision. If ≥20 mm and/or vision threatened, transsphenoidal surgery

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

PROLACTINOMA—dopamine agonists (cabergoline 0.25–1 mg PO 2 ×/week, bromocriptine 1.25–7.5 mg PO BID). Consider baseline echocardiogram for patients starting cabergoline and repeat echocardiogram at 5 years

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

for those taking $\leq 2mg/week$, or yearly for those taking >2mg/week. **Transsphenoidal surgery** (if resistant to medical therapy or visual field compromise)

GH DEFICIENCY

- DIAGNOSIS—serum IGF-1 (insensitive). Consider glucagon-stimulation test or insulin tolerance test to confirm (serum GH levels remain low after 3–4 h)
- TREATMENT—human growth hormone (may potentially improve quality of life, body composition, and exercise capacity)

ACROMEGALY

- DIAGNOSIS—Serum IGF-1. Also check prolactin. Consider 75 g oral glucose tolerance test to confirm (serum GH levels remain elevated after 2 h)
- TREATMENTS—transsphenoidal surgery (preferred, 5–20% recurrence). Octreotide (long-acting analogue of somatostatin).
 Cabergoline or bromocriptine may be combined with somatostatin analogue.
 Pegvisomant (growth hormone receptor antagonist) if somatostatin analogue ineffective. Irradiation of pituitary as adjuvant when surgery and/or medical management unsuccessful

CUSHING DISEASE—transsphenoidal surgery. See p. 384 for details

TSH-SECRETING ADENOMA (TSHoma) transsphenoidal surgery (first line but cure rates low). Consider octreotide and/or treatment with antithyroid medications. See section on Hyperthyroidism (p. 376) for details

Melmed NEJM 2006;355(24)

Diabetes Insipidus

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

OSMOTIC DIURESIS—glucose, mannitol WATER DIURESIS

- CENTRAL DIABETES INSIPIDUS—iatrogenic (neurosurgery), granulomatous infiltration (sarcoidosis, TB, histiocytosis X), trauma (closed head injury), tumor (craniopharyngioma, metastatic breast cancer, metastatic lung cancer), autoimmune (infundibuloneurohypophysitis), congenital
- NEPHROGENIC DIABETES INSIPIDUS—hypercalcemia, hypokalemia, lithium, demeclocycline, obstructive uropathy, congenital

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

- DIABETES INSIPIDUS OF PREGNANCY
- PRIMARY POLYDIPSIA

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF POLYURIA—urine >3 L/day

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—lytes, Cr, glucose, serum osmolality (if diabetes insipidus, >290 mOsm/kg), 24 h urine volume, urine osmolality (if diabetes insipidus, <275 mOsm/kg)

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

SPECIAL

- WATER DEPRIVATION TEST—consult endocrinology. In the dehydrated state, the body normally concentrates urine, but in diabetes insipidus, the urine remains dilute. Serial measurements of urine output, urine and serum lytes and osmolality, weight. Administration of 1 µg desmopressin/DDAVP IV/SC causes concentration of the urine in central DI but not nephrogenic DI (unreliable if medullary gradient has been washed-out)
- MRI PITUITARY—if central diabetes insipidus
- COPEPTIN—cosecreted with ADH with longer half-life (easier to interpret)

MANAGEMENT OF DIABETES INSIPIDUS

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

- CENTRAL DIABETES INSIPIDUS—(desmopressin/ DDAVP 10-20 μg intranasally daily-BID, or 0.5-2 μg SC/IV daily-BID, or 0.2 mg PO BID– TID, 60-120 μg SL daily-BID). Goal of treatment is to improve quality of life (↓ polydipsia, ↓ polyuria) while allowing occasional breakthrough. Note risk of hyponatremia
- NEPHROGENIC DIABETES INSIPIDUS—low solute diet. Thiazide or thiazide-like diuretic (hydrochlorothiazide 25 mg PO daily-BID or chlorthalidone 25 mg PO qd-BID)±NSAIDs (indomethacin 25–50 mg PO BID-TID) if needed

Adrenal Incidentaloma

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

BENIGN

- NON-FUNCTIONAL ADENOMA
- FUNCTIONAL ADENOMA—cortisol-secreting (Cushing syndrome), aldosterone-secreting (Conn syndrome), androgen-secreting (rare)
- PHEOCHROMOCYTOMA/PARAGANGLIOMA—may be benign or malignant
- отнея—myelolipomas, hamartomas, granulomas

MALIGNANT

- CARCINOMA—adrenocortical carcinoma
- METASTASES—lung, breast, Gl, renal, melanoma

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CATECHOLAMINES—tyrosine is precursor, forming dopamine, then norepinephrine, then epinephrine. Adrenal medulla produces 85% epinephrine and 15% norepinephrine. Epinephrine has equal effect on α and β receptors. Norepinephrine acts mainly on α receptors

- ACTIVATION OF α RECEPTORS—peripheral vasoconstriction, mydriasis, and sweating
- ACTIVATION OF β RECEPTORS—vasodilation, cardiac stimulation, bronchodilation, smooth muscle relaxation

RENIN-ANGIOTENSIN-ALDOSTERONE SYSTEM—renin release is stimulated by ↓ effective circulating volume, ↓ tubular [Na], and the sympathetic nervous system. It converts angiotensinogen to angiotensin I, which is then converted to angiotensin II by ACE. Aldosterone

Young Jr. *NEJM* 2007;356(6)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

release is then stimulated by angiotensin II, hyperkalemia, and ACTH. Aldosterone's effects include ↑ Na reabsorption and ↑ K secretion at the distal tubule

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY

- SYMPTOMS OF PHEOCHROMOCYTOMA—episodic spells of palpitations, pallor, tremor, headache, diaphoresis, hypertension (sustained or episodic)
- SYMPTOMS OF CORTISOL EXCESS—see section on Cushing syndrome (p. 384) for details
- symptoms of ALDOSTERONE EXCESS—hypokalemia, hypertension, nocturia
- SYMPTOMS OF ANDROGEN EXCESS (in Q)—hirsutism, virilization, acne, amenorrhea
- SYMPTOMS OF ADRENOCORTICAL CARCOINOMA—features of rapid hormone excess (cortisol, androgen, or both), abdominal pain, weight loss, anorexia, fever, palpable abdominal mass

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—1 mg dexamethasone suppression test preferred (or 24 h urine cortisol, late night salivary cortisol), lytes, plasma renin and aldosterone (if hypertensive), plasma or 24 h urine for metanephrines±ACTH, DHEAS, androstenedione, testosterone
- IMAGING—CT or MRI adrenals

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

SPECIAL

- ADRENAL VEIN SAMPLING—for primary hyperaldosteronism
- METAIODOBENZYLGUANIDINE (MIBG) scan—for pheochromocytoma

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

APPROACH TO DIAGNOSIS OF ADRENAL INCIDENTALOMA—start with history and physical, and baseline labs to determine if tumor is functioning, then proceed with imaging to look for suspicious features suggestive of malignancy. FNA unhelpful (cannot distinguish benign adenoma from adrenal carcinoma)

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES OF ADRENAL TUMORS ON CT SCAN

- BENIGN ADENOMA—smooth border, homogeneous density, absolute CT contrast washout usually >60% at 10–15 min
- ADRENOCORTICAL CARCINOMA—irregular, heterogeneous density, commonly >6 cm [>2.4 in.], very high unenhanced attenuation (>20 HU), absolute CT contrast washout <50% (especially <10%) at 10–15 min
- PHEOCHROMOCYTOMA—cystic, hemorrhagic, variable size, may be bilateral, high enhanced attenuation (>10 HU)
- METASTATIC DISEASE—irregular, heterogeneous density, bilateral, high unenhanced attenuation

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—determine functional vs. non-functional tumor and benign vs. malignant tumor. All functional tumors, tumors >4 cm [>1.6 in.], and lesions suspicious for malignancy should be resected

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

PRIMARY ALDOSTERONISM

 DIAGNOSIS—↑ aldosterone-to-renin ratio (↑ aldosterone, ↓ renin)±confirmatory test

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

with volume expansion (non-suppressibility of aldosterone) \pm subtype classification with CT and/or adrenal vein sampling. Beware of medications that alter lab test results (e.g. ACE inhibitor, ARB, diuretics)

 TREATMENTS—for unilateral disease amenable to surgery, consider adrenalectomy. Otherwise, consider medical therapy (*spironolactone* 12.5–100 mg PO daily or *eplerenone* 25–100 mg PO BID). See Hypertension section for more details (p. 70)

PHEOCHROMOCYTOMA AND PARAGANG-LIOMA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—commonly termed pheochromocytoma when arising from adrenal gland, and paraganglioma when elsewhere. May be sporadic or associated with genetic syndromes like MEN2A (medullary thyroid cancer, primary hyperparathyroidism), MEN2B (medullary thyroid cancer, muccutaneous neuromas, marfanoid), Von Hippel-Lindau (hemangioblastomas, renal cell carcinoma, pancreatic tumors), neurofibromatosis (neurofibromas, café-au-lait spots), and SDH mutations (renal cell carcinoma, gastrointestinal stromal tumors)
- DIAGNOSIS—plasma or 24-h urinary metanephrines. Beware of medications that predispose to false positive results (e.g. TCAs, venlafaxine, bupropion, buspirone, amphetamines)
- TREATMENTS—volume and salt repletion (reduce postural hypotension) with α-blockade (phenoxybenzamine 10 mg PO BID and ↑ dose as needed, or *doxazosin* 2 mg PO daily and ↑ dose as needed). Consider **β-blockade** only after well α -blocked (to control tachycardia). Avoid initial β-blockade to prevent unopposed α -constriction. Medical therapy precedes 1-2 weeks Refer for surgery by genetic testing

Adrenal Insufficiency

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PRIMARY

- AUTOIMMUNE—Addison disease
- INFECTION—TB, histoplasmosis, coccidioidomycosis, CMV, HIV
- HEMORRHAGE—anticoagulants, sepsis (Waterhouse–Friderichsen syndrome, associated with meningococcemia), trauma, anticardiolipin antibodies

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

- INFILTRATION—metastases, amyloidosis
- congenital adrenal hyperplasia, adrenoleukodystrophies

sarcoidosis,

SECONDARY/TERTIARY—exogenous glucocorticoid therapy, pituitary or hypothalamic tumor (panhypopituitarism), traumatic brain injury, infarction, infection, infiltration, irradia-

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

tion, drugs (high dose progestins, opiates), idiopathic

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—fatigue, weight loss, abdominal pain, N&V, postural lightheadedness (presyncope), muscle weakness, hypoglycemia, dehydration, salt cravings (Addison only), visual field changes (pituitary tumor), evidence of steroid use, medical history (TB, cancer, sarcoidosis), medications (anticoagulation)

PHYSICAL—orthostatic hypotension, hyperpigmentation (Addison only)

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY/TERTIARY ADRENAL INSUFFICIENCY

| | | Secondary/ |
|----------------------|---|--|
| | Primary | tertiary |
| Affected hormones | Cortisol, DHEAS, aldosterone | Cortisol, DHEAS |
| ACTH | 1 | Ļ |
| Electrolytes | ↓ Na, ↑ K | ↓ Na |
| Symptoms | Salt craving, hyper- pigmentation | Normal skin pigment. Gl symptoms and hypotension often less prominent |
| | | |

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, glucose, creatinine, AM cortisol, ACTH
- місковіоLogy—blood and urine cultures if suspect sepsis

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

ACTH STIMULATION TEST

 STANDARD DOSE—obtain cortisol and ACTH at baseline, give cosyntropin 250 μg IV push, measure cortisol at 30 and 60 min. Peak cortisol >300–550 nmol/L (cutoff variable depending on local lab assay) excludes most cases of adrenal insufficiency

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE ADRENAL CRISIS—ABC, IV fluids (NS or D5NS 1–2 L IV bolus, then 100–200 mL/h), and glucose as needed. Corticosteroid (hydrocortisone 100 mg IV g6–8 h) and treat precipitant

LONG-TERM TREATMENT—physiologic replacement (hydrocortisone 10–15 mg PO qAM and 5–10 PO qPM or prednisone 5 mg PO qAM and 2.5 mg PO qPM, plus fludrocortisone 0.1 mg PO daily [if primary adrenal insufficiency]). Advise medical alert bracelet and sick day management ± emergency prefiled hydrocortisone syringe

STRESS DOSING—if patients have been taking suppressive (supraphysiologic) doses of glucocorticoids for >3 weeks during the preceding year, consider stress dosing during illnesses or surgical procedures

- MINIMAL STRESS (e.g. routine dental work, skin biopsy)—usual dosage (no change)
- MINOR STRESS (e.g. flu, surgeries under local anesthetic)—double to triple the regular dose of glucocorticoids, then resume usual dosage when well
- MODERATE STRESS (e.g. orthopedic surgery, most abdominal surgeries)—*hydrocortisone* 25 mg IV q8h×3 doses with first dose on call to OR, then resume usual dosage when well
- HIGH STRESS (e.g. major trauma, septic shock, cardiac surgery)—*hydrocortisone* 50 mg IV q8h×3 doses with first dose on call to OR, then 25 mg IV q8h until recovered, then resume usual dosage when well

Cushing Syndrome

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

IATROGENIC (↓ ACTH)

PITUITARY (↑ ACTH)—Cushing disease ECTOPIC (↑ ACTH)—small cell lung cancer, bronchial carcinoids, neuroendocrine tumors ADRENAL (↓ ACTH)—adenoma, carcinoma

CLINICAL FEATURES

SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS OF CUSHING SYNDROME

- NEUROLOGICAL—euphoria, depression, psychosis, restlessness, irritability, insomnia
- орнтнасмис—glaucoma, cataracts

2008 Endocrine Society Cushing Syndrome Guideline

CARDIOVASCULAR—hypertension, fluid retention

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

- GASTROINTESTINAL—gastritis, ulcers, GI bleed
- HEMATOLOGICAL—leukocytosis, immunosuppression
- ENDOCRINE—hyperglycemia, insulin resistance, hypogonadism, menstrual irregularity, central obesity, hirsutism, weight gain
- MUSCULOSKELETAL—osteoporosis, avascular necrosis, proximal myopathy
- DERMATOLOGICAL—purple striae, round face, supraclavicular and/or dorsocervical fat pad, skin thinning, easy bruising, acne, poor wound healing

Note that typical symptoms and signs of Cushing may be absent or minimal with ectopic ACTH production. Hypokalemic alkalosis may be the only obvious initial finding

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

LABS—begin initial evaluation with 1 of 3 possible screening tests (24 h urine cortisol, 1 mg overnight dexamethasone suppression test, or late night salivary cortisol), ACTH, CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, HbA1C, fasting lipid profile

SPECIAL

- CT ADRENAL—unilateral mass suggests adrenal lesion. Bilateral adrenal hyperplasia suggests ACTH oversecretion (central or ectopic lesion)
- CT CHEST/ABDO/PELVIS—to look for ectopic ACTH producing tumors
- MRI SELLA—if suspect Cushing disease
- INFERIOR PETROSAL SINUS SAMPLING—to differentiate pituitary vs. ectopic tumor
- octreotide scan—to localize ectopic ACTH producing tumors

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

INITIAL SCREENING TESTS—begin initial evaluation with 1 of 3 sensitive screening tests (i.e., 1 mg overnight dexamethasone suppression test, 24 h urine cortisol, or late night salivary cortisol). Follow-up abnormal test result with second test. If multiple abnormal tests, consult Endocrinology

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

1 MG OVERNIGHT DEXAMETHASONE SUPPRESSION TEST

- PROTOCOL—give 1 mg dexamethasone between 11 PM and midnight, then measure 8-9 AM serum cortisol the next morning
- INTERPRETATION—8-9 AM serum cortisol <50 nmol/L following 1 mg of dexamethasone effectively rules out Cushing syndrome
- ADVANTAGES—convenient
- PROBLEMS—needs accurate timing; false positives with oral contraceptives, alcohol, rifampin, phenytoin, carbamazepine

24 H URINARY FREE CORTISOL

- ADVANTAGES—not affected by oral contraceptives or shift work
- PROBLEMS—inconvenient; false positives with proteinuria and polyuria; false negatives with moderate to severe renal impairment

LATE NIGHT SALIVARY CORTISOL

- ADVANTAGES—not affected by oral contraceptives
- PROBLEMS—collection technique difficult; false positives with cigarettes, chewing tobacco, licorice, and shift work

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

- IATROGENIC—discontinue or reduce the dose of steroids if possible
- PITUITARY—first-line transsphenoidal surgery (90% cure rate). For refractory or recurrent cases, consider repeat transsphenoidal surgery, pituitary irradiation. medical therapy, or bilateral adrenalectomies
- ADRENAL—unilateral adrenalectomy
- ECTOPIC—resection of ectopic source if appropriate; otherwise, bilateral adrenalectomies and medical therapy (ketoconazole, pasireotide, metyrapone) may be considered

TREATMENT ISSUES

GLUCOCORTICOID REPLACEMENT—required in the post operative period. May take months to years for HPA axis to recover after transsphenoidal surgery or unilateral adrenalectomy. If bilateral adrenalectomy, lifelong replacement is needed. Do not forget to stress dose!

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

EQUIVALENT DOSING TABLE

| | Half-life (h) | Equivalent anti- inflammatory potency ^a | Equivalent mineralocorticoid potency ^a |
|--|---------------|---|---|
| Glucocorticoids | | | |
| Short acting | | | |
| Hydrocortisone | 8–12 | 1 | 1 |
| Cortisone | 8–12 | 0.8 | 0.8 |
| Intermediate acting | | | |
| Methylprednisolone | 18–36 | 5 | 0.5 |
| Prednisolone | 18–36 | 4 | 0.8 |
| Prednisone | 18–36 | 4 | 0.8 |
| Long acting | | | |
| Dexamethasone | 36–54 | 30 | 0 |
| Mineralocorticoid | | | |
| Fludrocortisone | 12–24 | 12 | 125 |
| ^a Relative to cortisol; higher number indicates greater potency | | | |

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

PSEUDO-CUSHING SYNDROME—hypercortisolism associated with severe stress, depression, obesity, alcoholism, pregnancy, and poorlycontrolled diabetes. May mimic Cushing syndrome clinically, but rarely associated with dermatologic and muscular complications (e.g. bruising, thinning of skin, proximal muscle weakness)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

MILD AUTONOMOUS CORTISOL EXCESS (SUBCLINICAL CUSHING SYNDROME)—usually detected in work-up of adrenal incidentaloma. Associated with an increased rate of diabetes mellitus, hypertension, and vertebral compression fracture

Hypocalcemia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PTH-RELATED (↓ PTH, ↑ PO4)

- HYPOPARATHYROIDISM—surgery, irradiation, autoimmune, infiltrative, congenital (e.g. DiGeorge syndrome)
- FUNCTIONAL HYPOPARATHYROIDISM—hypomagnesemia

PTH RESISTANCE (↑ PTH)—pseudohypoparathyroidism

NON-PTH-RELATED

 VITAMIN D ABNORMALITIES (↑ PTH)—vitamin D deficiency (nutritional, malabsorption), altered vitamin D metabolism (cirrhosis, chronic renal failure, anticonvulsants), vitamin D resistance

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

- DRUGS—severe hyperphosphatemia, bisphosphonates, calcitonin, loop diuretics
- CALCIUM SEQUESTRATION—hungry bone syndrome, acute pancreatitis, rhabdomyolysis, large transfusions of citrate-containing blood products, oseteoblastic malignancies
- отнекs—renal calcium wasting (e.g. Bartter syndrome, Fanconi syndrome)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF HYPOCALCEMIA—corrected serum Ca <2.1 mM [<8.4 mg/dL]. For every 10 mg/L [1 g/dL] \downarrow in albumin, correct serum Ca by adding 0.2 mM [0.8 mg/dL]

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

PTH AND VITAMIN D

- VITAMIN D FORMATION—7-dehydrocholesterol \rightarrow skin with UV \rightarrow cholecalciferol (vitamin D₃ may be obtained via diet as well) \rightarrow liver \rightarrow 250H D (used to determine vitamin D status) \rightarrow kidney (stimulated by PTH or hypo-PO₄) \rightarrow 1,25(OH),D₃ (also known as calcitriol, the active form of vitamin D)
- 1,25(он)₂D₃—↑ Ca reabsorption at gut, kidney, and bone, ↑ PO₄ reabsorption at gut, ↓ PTH
- PTH ACTION—↑ Ca reabsorption at distal tubule and bone, ↓ PO₄ reabsorption at proximal tubule, ↑ 1,25(OH)₂D₃

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—perioral paresthesias, tingling of fingers and toes, tetany, stridor (laryngospasm), seizures, confusion, weakness, past medical history (neck surgery), medications (loop diuretics, bisphosphonates, calcitonin, anticonvulsants) PHYSICAL—hypotension, Trousseau sign, Chvostek sign, carpal/pedal spasm, weakness

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—Ca, albumin, ionized Ca, Mg, PO₄, PTH, 25(OH)D, creatinine

SPECIAL

 ECG—may show prolonged QT interval, ST changes

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE MANAGEMENT—if severe symptoms, Ca gluconate 1 amp slow IV push, then run a calcium drip 0.5–1.5 mg/kg/h, checking serum calcium q4-6h; if hypomagnesemia, $MgSO_4$ 5 g IV over 4 h. If mild symptoms, elemental calcium 1–2 g PO divided BID–TID apart from meals ± calcitriol 0.25–0.5 µg daily–BID

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

VITAMIN D DEFICIENCY

 CAUSES—vitamin D deficient diet and/or lack of exposure to sunlight, fat malabsorption syndromes, extensive burns (decreased skin conversion), nephrotic syndrome, medications (anticonvulsants, glucocorticoids,

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

immunosuppressants and antiretroviral therapy may lead to increased inactivation of $1,25(OH)_2D_3$), chronic kidney disease (decreased 1-OH activation), liver failure (decreased 25-OH activation)

- CLINICAL FEATURES—hypocalcemia, hypophosphatemia, osteomalacia with associated bone pain, osteoporosis with fractures
- DIAGNOSIS—25-hydroxyvitamin D is used to determine the level of vitamin D. A level <50–80 nmol/L is considered low
- TREATMENTS—treat underlying cause. For severe vitamin D deficiency (<25 nmol/L [<10 ng/mL]), vitamin D3 50,000 IU PO per week×6-8 weeks initially, then 50,000 IU PO q2-4 weeks×6-8 weeks, then reassess. For moderate deficiency (25-50 nmol/L [10-20 ng/mL]), vitamin D3 50,000 IU PO daily. For mild deficiency (50-75 nmol/L [20-30 ng/mL]), long-term use of vitamin D3 800-2,000 IU PO daily. For renal failure or hypoparathyroidism, calcitriol 0.25-1 µg PO BID should be given

HYPOPARATHYROIDISM

- causes—parathyroid gland injury or destruction (surgery, radiation, autoimmune, infiltration), abnormal parathyroid gland development (agenesis, dysgenesis), impaired PTH secretion (hypomagnesemia), defect in calcium sensing receptor (gain-of-function), or idiopathic
- CLINICAL FEATURES—hypocalcemia, hyperphosphatemia, extraskeletal calcifications (intracerebral, renal), above-average BMD
- DIAGNOSIS—hypocalcemia with \$\\$ PTH; chronic if sustained >6 months
- TREATMENTS—elemental calcium 1–2 g PO divided BID–TID, plus calcitriol 0.25–0.5 μg daily–BID ± vitamin D3 800–2,000 IU PO daily. Recombinant PTH may be considered in severe refractory cases
- GOALS—prevent symptomatic hypocalcemia; maintain serum calcium in slightly↓/↓-N range; avoid hypercalciuria; keep Ca × PO4 product <4.4 mmol²/L² (55 mg²/dL²); avoid extraskeletal calcifications

Holick NEJM 2007;357(3)

Hypercalcemia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PTH-MEDIATED (↑-N/↑ PTH)

- HYPERPARATHYROIDISM (MOST COMMON AMONG OUTPATIENTS)—parathyroid adenoma, parathyroid hyperplasia, parathyroid carcinoma (rare)
- FAMILIAL HYPOCALCIURIC HYPERCALCEMIA (FHH)
- DRUGS—lithium, thiazides (shifts PTH response curve)

NON-PTH-MEDIATED (\downarrow/\downarrow -N PTH)

- MALIGNANCY—lung, breast, prostate, renal, thyroid, GI, melanoma, sarcoma, multiple myeloma, lymphoma, leukemia
- VITAMIN D-MEDIATED—Vitamin D intoxication, granulomatous disease (TB, sarcoidosis, lymphoma)
- DRUGS— vitamin A intoxication, milk alkali syndrome, thiazides (↑ calcium reabsorption)
- отнея—adrenal insufficiency, hyperthyroidism, acute kidney injury, immobilization, hereditary hypophosphatemic rickets with hypercalciuria (HHRH)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF HYPERCALCEMIA—corrected serum Ca >2.6 mmol/L [10.4 mg/dL]. For every 10 g/L (1 g/dL) ↓ in albumin, correct serum Ca by adding 0.2 mmol/L [0.8 mg/dL]

PTH ACTION— \uparrow Ca reabsorption at distal tubule and bone, \downarrow PO₄ reabsorption at proximal tubule, \uparrow 1,25(OH)₂D₃

MALIGNANCY-RELATED MECHANISMS local osteolytic bone lesions, humoral hypercalcemia of malignancy (PTH-related peptide, PTHrP), 1,25(OH)₂D₃-secretion (lymphomas), ectopic hyperparathyroidism (very rare)

CLINICAL FEATURES

SYMPTOMS

- GI—N&V, abdominal pain from constipation, pancreatitis, or peptic ulcer disease (moans)
- MSK—bony pain (groans), osteoporotic fractures (bones)
- RENAL—polyuria, calculi (stones)
- CNS—fatigue, depression, apathy, delirium (psychiatric overtones)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

LABS—Ca, albumin, ionized Ca, PO₄, PTH, 25(OH)D, creatinine

SPECIAL

- HYPERPARATHYROIDISM WORKUP—US neck/thyroid, Tc-sestamibi parathyroid scan, DEXA (for osteoporosis), US renal (for renal calculi)
- FAMILIAL HYPOCALCIURIC HYPERCALCEMIA workup—24 h urine Ca and creatinine
- VITAMIN D-MEDIATED HYPERCALCEMIA WORKUP- $1,25(OH)_2D_3$
- MALIGNANCY WORKUP—serum protein electrophoresis ± urine protein electrophoresis, PSA, PTHrP, CXR, bone scan (if metastatic bone disease), skeletal survey (if multiple myeloma)
- мем 2а workup—plasma or 24 h urinary metanephrines
- отнея—TSH (if thyrotoxicosis), AM cortisol (if adrenal insufficiency), ECG (for bradycardia, heart block, ST changes, shortened QT interval)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

PTH LEVEL— \uparrow in hyperparathyroidism, \uparrow/N in familial hypocalciuric hypercalcemia, \downarrow in vitamin D excess or PTHrP

| DISTINGUISHING FEATORES BETWEEN IMPORTANT CROSES OF HTPERCALCEMIA | | | |
|---|---------------------------------|---|--|
| Primary PTH | Granulomatous disease | PTHrP | FHH |
| 1 | ↑ | $\uparrow\uparrow$ | 1 |
| \downarrow | 1 | ↓/N | \downarrow |
| ↑/N | \downarrow | \downarrow | ↑/N |
| - | - | ↑ | - |
| 1 | 1 | - | ↓/N |
| 1 | ↑/N | 1 | \downarrow |
| | Primary PTH ↑ ↓ ↑/N - ↑ ↑ | Primary PTH Granulomatous disease ↑ ↑ ↓ ↑ ↑/N ↓ − − ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ | Primary PTH Granulomatous disease PTHrP ↑ ↑ ↑↑ ↓ ↑ ↓/N ↑/N ↓ ↓ - - ↑ ↑ ↑ ↓ ↑ ↑ ↓ ↑ ↑ ↓ ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ ↑ |

DISTINCTUSHING FEATURES RETWEEN IMPORTANT CAUSES OF HYDERCALCEMIA

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE SEVERE HYPERCALCEMIA—early rehydration, NS 200-500 mL/h IV ± furosemide 20–40 mg IV g8h PRN (use with caution and only when fully hydrated; hypercalcemia exacerbated if dehydrated) ± calcitonin 4-8 IU/kg SC q12h. If malignancy-related hypercalcemia or prolonged immobilization, consider **bisphosphonates** (pamidronate 60-90 mg in 500 mL NS IV over 4 h or zoledronate 4 mg in 100 mL NS IV over 15 min), but ineffective for hyperparathyroidism. If vitamin D-mediated hypercalcemia (e.g. sarcoidosis, lymphoma), consider steroids (prednisone 20-30 mg PO daily×7-10 days). Consider dialysis in patients with advanced renal failure where bisphosphonates are contraindicated and fluid challenge is difficult. Monitor urine output and renal function

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

PRIMARY HYPERPARATHYROIDISM

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—autonomous production of PTH from one or more parathyroid glands. Mostly from solitary parathyroid adenoma, less commonly from gland hyperplasia or multiple adenomas, rarely parathyroid cancer

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- **DIAGNOSIS**—hypercalcemia with \uparrow -N/ \uparrow PTH, \downarrow PO₄, \uparrow urinary calcium
- INDICATIONS FOR PARATHYROIDECTOMY—age 0.25 mmol/L [>1 mg/dL] above upper limit of normal, GFR 10 mmol/d (400 mg/d)
- MEDICAL MANAGEMENT—for those not eligible for surgery, medical monitoring (e.g. annual calcium and creatinine±q2–3y DEXA). Avoid medications that worsen hypercalcemia (e.g. thiazides) and maintain hydration. If symptomatic or severe hypercalcemia, consider *cinacalcet* 30–60 mg PO daily–BID. Dietary calcium restriction *not* necessary; treat vitamin D deficiency if present

FAMILIAL HYPOCALCIURIC HYPERCALCE-MIA (FHH)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—autosomal dominant inactivating mutation of the calcium sensing receptor, leading to a higher calcium set point needed to suppress PTH release
- CLINICAL FEATURES—usually asymptomatic
- DIAGNOSIS—hypercalcemia with ↑-N/↑ PTH, ↓ PO₄, ↓ urinary calcium. Family history helpful. Important to differentiate from primary hyperparathyroidism as FHH does not respond to parathyroidectomy
- TREATMENTS—counseling and reassurance

Osteoporosis

2010 Osteoporosis Canada Guidelines 2019 Endocrine Society Osteoporosis Post-Menopausal Women Guideline Tatangelo et al. *J Bone Miner Res* 2019;34(4)

CAUSES

PRIMARY—hereditary

ENDOCRINE—hypogonadism (e.g. anorexia nervosa, athletic amenhorrea, testicular/ovarian failure), hyperthyroidism, hyperparathyroidism, Cushing syndrome, diabetes mellitus

HEMATOLOGICAL DISORDERS—multiple myeloma, leukemia, lymphoma, sickle cell disease

GASTROINTESTINAL DISORDERS—malabsorption syndromes (e.g. celiac disease), inflammatory bowel disease, liver disease (primary biliary cirrhosis)

DRUGS—glucocorticoids, heparin, cyclosporine, anticonvulsants (phenytoin, carbamazepine, barbiturates), LHRH agonists and antagonists, long-acting progestins, proton pump inhibitors, alcohol

CAUSES (CONT'D)

OTHERS—age >50, renal disease, immobilization, small frame, decreased BMI <21 kg/m², Caucasian, Asian, Indo-Asian, family history, smoking, caffeine

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION—a skeletal disorder characterized by compromised bone strength predisposing a person to an increased risk of fracture. Diagnosis based on reduced bone mineral density (BMD) measurements, relative to a normal young adult population of the same sex and ethnicity, and/or the presence of a fragility fracture. T-score is the number of standard deviations above/below the mean BMD compared to normal young adults, while Z-score compares with peers (of the same age, sex, and ethnicity)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

| Status | T-score |
|---------------|---------------------------|
| Normal | +2.5 to -1.0 (inclusive) |
| Low bone mass | Between -1.0 and -2.5 |
| Osteoporosis | ≤ -2.5 |
| Severe | \leq –2.5 and fragility |
| osteoporosis | fracture |

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—history of fragility fractures, height loss, thoracic kyphosis, milk/calcium consumption, sedentary lifestyle, past medical history, menstrual and reproductive history (for Q), estrogen exposure (for Q), medications (steroids, heparin, cyclosporine, anticonvulsants), family history of fragility fractures, smoking, alcohol, and caffeine intake

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS WOMAN HAVE OSTEOPOROSIS?

| | LR+ | LR– |
|----------------------------------|-----|------|
| History | | |
| Self-reported humped back | 3.0 | 0.85 |
| Physical | | |
| Weight <51 kg | 7.3 | 0.8 |
| BMI <25 | 4.5 | 0.5 |
| Wall-occiput distance >0 cm | 3.8 | 0.6 |
| (indicative of spinal fracture) | | |
| Rib−pelvis distance ≤2 finger | 3.8 | 0.6 |
| breadths (indicative of spinal | | |
| fracture) | | |
| Tooth count <20 | 3.4 | 0.8 |
| Kyphosis | 1.5 | 0.7 |
| Decision Rules | | |
| Simple calculated osteoporosis | 1.2 | 0.02 |
| risk estimation (score \geq 6) | | |
| Osteoporosis risk assessment | 1.4 | 0.1 |
| instrument (score \geq 9) | | |

| CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D) | | | |
|-----------------------------|-----|-----|--|
| | LR+ | LR— | |
| National Osteoporosis | 1.2 | 0.2 | |
| Foundation (score \geq 1) | | | |
| Age/body size/no estrogen | 1.6 | 0.3 | |
| $(\text{score} \ge 2)$ | | | |

APPROACH—"No single physical examination finding or combination of findings is sufficient to rule in osteoporosis or spinal fracture without further testing. ... Several convenient examination maneuvers including low body weight (<51 kg [<112 lb]), inability to place the back of the head against a wall when standing upright, low tooth count, self reported humped back, and rib-pelvis distance can significantly increase the likelihood of osteoporosis or spinal fracture and identify additional women who would benefit from earlier screening."

Green et al. JAMA 2004;292(23) UPDATE—"A BMI less than 25 in older women is the single best finding for detecting women with osteoporosis, performing better than decision rules. However, a BMI greater than 25 is not as informative as the decision rules for identifying women at the lowest risk of osteoporosis."

Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination McGraw-Hill; 2009

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—Ca, PO₄, albumin, 25(OH)D, PTH, ALP, CBC, creatinine, serum protein electrophoresis, TSH
- IMAGING—dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DEXA)

SPECIAL

- IMAGING—lateral thoracic and lumbar spine XR
- BONE TURNOVER—serum CTX or urine NTX
DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

WHO SHOULD BE SCREENED WITH DEXA?

Older adults (≥50 years)

Age ≥65 years irrespective of risk factors Risk factors for fracture *plus* age 50–64 years (♂) or post-menopausal (♀)

- Fragility fracture after age 40
- Prolonged glucocorticoid use (\geq 3 mo cumulative exposure at prednisone-equivalent dose of \geq 7.5 mg/day)
- Use of high-risk medication (e.g. androgen deprivation therapy, aromatase inhibitor)
- Parental hip fracture
- Current smoking
- High alcohol intake
- <60 kg body weight or major weight loss
- Height loss >10 cm
- Rheumatoid arthritis
- Presence of disorder strongly associated with osteoporosis (e.g. hypogonadism, malabsorption syndrome, primary hyperparathyroidism)

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

FRACTURE RISK ASSESSMENT—estimate 10-year risk of a major osteoporotic fracture using a validated risk calculator such as the online (country specific) Fracture Risk Assessment tool (FRAX®) developed by the University of Sheffield, UK

PROGNOSIS—an average 50-year-old Caucasian woman has a remaining lifetime risk of 40% of developing hip, vertebra, or wrist fracture

MANAGEMENT

LIFESTYLE CHANGES—calcium or vitamin D alone does not prevent hip fractures, but the combination of calcium and vitamin D appears beneficial Recommend calcium through diet±supplementation; advise elemental calcium 1000 mg/d if ♀ 19-50 years or ♂ 19-70 years; and elemental calcium 1200 mg/d if Q > 50years or ♂ >70 y. Vitamin D 800-2,000 IU PO daily. **Physical activity** >30 min $3 \times$ /week (weight bearing, core strengthening, and balance training). Consider hip protectors and fall prevention strategies. Avoid excess caffeine (>4 cups/day). Smoking cessation

MEDICATIONS—bisphosphonates (patients over the age of 50 should be stratified by their 10-year fracture risk. Patients who are at high risk

Younger adults (<50 years)

Fragility fracture (ever) Prolonged glucocorticoid use (≥3 m cumulative exposure at prednisoneequivalent dose of ≥7.5 mg/day) Use of high-risk medication (e.g. androgen deprivation therapy, aromatase inhibitor) Hypogonadism or premature menopause (<45 years) Malabsorption syndrome Primary hyperparathyroidism

Presence of disorder strongly associated with rapid bone loss and/or fracture

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

[i.e., >20% risk of major osteoporotic fracture in the next 10 years, or prior history of fragility fracture] should be started on bisphosphonates. May also consider treating patients at moderate risk. Bisphosphonates should be taken with water >60 min before first meal, and remain upright × 30 min. Alendronate 70 mg PO weekly, risedronate 35 mg PO weekly, zoledronic acid 5 mg IV yearly). RANKL antibody (denosumab, an anti-resorptive agent). Patients should be counselled on risks of atypical femoral fracture and osteonecrosis of the jaw particularly with prolonged use of antiresorptive medications Recombinant PTH (teriparatide, anabolic). PTHrP analogue (abaloparatide, anabolic). Sclerostin inhibitor (romosozumab, anabolic). Selective estrogen receptor modulators (raloxifene). Hormone replacement (not for treatment of osteoporosis as primary indication, but sometimes used for treatment of menopausal vasomotor symptoms)

DRUG HOLIDAY—duration of bisphosphonate therapy is controversial. Consider reassessment of fracture risk after 3–5 years of treatment, followed by possible "drug holiday" (i.e., temporary discontinuation of therapy for up to 5 years) in those at low-to-moderate risk vs. prolonged therapy in those at highest risk

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

PAGET DISEASE OF BONE

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—second most common metabolic bone disease (after osteoporosis). Focal, accelerated bone remodeling from highly active osteoclasts (skull, pelvis, vertebra, femur, tibia) followed by imperfect bone repair
- CLINICAL FEATURES—usually asymptomatic and incidental finding. Bone pain (achy, deep), bony deformity (femur, tibia), headaches and hearing loss (skull), and even neurological symptoms and paralysis (spine) possible. Usually presents around age 50–60

Hypertension

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- DIAGNOSIS—

 ALP is an excellent marker of disease extent and activity and can be used to follow treatment. X-rays ("disorganized matrix of woven bone") and bone scan to assess involved sites
- TREATMENTS—indicated for bone pain; benefits of treatment for other complications less clear. Supportive care (NSAIDs, acetaminophen, opioids for pain). *Zoledronic acid* 5 mg IV×1 dose±surgery (for long bone deformity, fracture fixation, joint arthroplasty, spinal decompression, and bone tumors)

Amarenco et al. *NEJM* 2006;355(6) See HYPERTENSION (p. 70)

See HYPERLIPIDEMIA (p. 75)

Hyperlipidemia

Amenorrhea

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PRIMARY AMENORRHEA

- HYPOTHALAMIC DYSFUNCTION—constitutional delay, stress (emotional, physical, nutritional), idiopathic hypogonadotropic hypogonadism (Kallman syndrome), septo-optic dysplasia
- PITUITARY DYSFUNCTION—tumor, iatrogenic (surgery, radiation), isolated gonadotropin deficiency
- OVARIAN FAILURE—Turner syndrome (XO), gonadal agenesis/dysgenesis
- ABSENT UTERUS—Mullerian agenesis, complete androgen insensitivity syndrome, disorders of sex development (DSD)
- OUTFLOW TRACT DISORDER—imperforated hymen, transverse vaginal septum, isolated absence of cervix or vagina
- отневз—Mullerian agenesis, complete androgen insensitivity syndrome (XY), constitutional delay, causes of secondary amenorrhea

SECONDARY AMENORRHEA

- PREGNANCY
- тнукою рузбилстиом—hyperthyroidism, hypothyroidism
- ESTROGEN DEFICIENCY—hypothalamic anovulation (physical/emotional stress, strenuous

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

exercise, weight loss, anorexia nervosa, chronic disease, CNS disease [infection, trauma, tumor]), hyperprolactinemia, primary ovarian insufficiency, menopause

- ANDROGEN EXCESS—PCOS, ovarian tumors, adrenal tumors, Cushing syndrome, nonclassic congenital adrenal hyperplasia, medications (testosterone, danazol)
- ANATOMICAL ENDOMETRIAL DISORDERS—adhesions (Asherman syndrome), endometrial cancer, endometrial polyps, adenomyosis, leiomyomas

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF AMENORRHEA

- PRIMARY AMENORRHEA—absence of menarche by age 15–16 years (in the presence of normal secondary sexual development), or absence of menarche by age 13–14 (without normal secondary sexual development). Note: absence of menarche within 4 years of breast development always warrants investigation
- SECONDARY AMENORRHEA—absence of menses for >3 cycles or 6 months in a woman who previously had menses

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—characterize amenorrhea (onset, duration, previous menstruation), pregnancy and related symptoms, puberty milestones, headaches, visual field defects, fatigue, polyuria, polydipsia, weight change, physiologic or emotional stressors, galactorrhea, hot flashes, vaginal dryness, poor sleep, decreased libido, hirsutism, acne, past medical history (PCOS, obesity, hyperthyroidism, hypothyroidism, D&C), medications (oral contraception)

PHYSICAL—height and weight, vitals, visual fields, galactorrhea, Tanner staging (breasts, genitalia, pubic hair). Also assess for hirsutism, acne, striae, acanthosis nigricans, vitiligo, and signs of hypothyroidism/hyperthyroidism. Perform pelvic examination

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—βhCG, prolactin, FSH, LH, TSH
- IMAGING—US pelvis (if suspect ovarian tumor or uterine disorder), CT abd (if suspect adrenal tumor)

SPECIAL

- какуотуре—Turner syndrome, androgen insensitivity, gonadal dysgenesis
- FMR1 (FRAGILE X) GENE TESTING—primary ovarian insufficiency
- HYSTEROSALPINGOGRAM—Asherman syndrome
- MRI sella—hypogonadotropic hypogonadism
- PROGESTIN CHALLENGE TEST—first rule-out pregnancy, then administer progesterone for 7–10 days. If sufficient estrogen present, withdrawal bleeding will occur within a

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

week, and suggests chronic anovulation (e.g. PCOS). Absence of withdrawal bleed suggests hypoestrogenism, endometrial disease, or outflow tract obstruction

 HYPERANDROGENISM WORKUP—17-hydroxyprogesterone (for non-classic congenital adrenal hyperplasia), total testosterone, DHEAS, androstenedione

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE POLYCYSTIC OVARIAN SYNDROME—see section on Hirsutism p. 393 for details

HYPOTHALAMIC ANOVULATION—if eating disorder, refer to psychiatry and consider hormone replacement therapy (transdermal estrogen with cyclic progesterone). If functional hypothalamic anovulation, reverse primary cause if possible (e.g. stress management, reduction of exercise, weight correction) and consider hormone replacement therapy (transdermal estrogen with cyclic progesterone) if amenorrhea persists. If hyperprolactinemia, give dopamine agonist (bormocriptine or cabergoline; see section on Pituitary Tumors p. 380 for details). Refer to Endocrinology if fertility desired

PRIMARY OVARIAN INSUFFICIENCY (PREMATURE OVARIAN FAILURE)—hormone replacement therapy (estrogen with progesterone) to improve symptoms (e.g. vasomotor instability, dyspareunia) and for bone protection. Consider treating until expected natural menopause (late 40s to early 50s). Counsel and monitor for associated conditions (e.g. hypothyroidism, adrenal insufficiency, type 1 diabetes)

Hirsutism

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

TESTOSTERONE EXCESS

- POLYCYSTIC OVARY SYNDROME—most common, insulin resistance with hyperinsulinemia
- IDIOPATHIC HIRSUTISM—common
- OVARIAN TUMORS—Sertoli–Leydig cell tumor, granulosa-theca cell tumor
- ADRENAL TUMORS—carcinoma, adenoma
- ANDROGEN THERAPY—testosterone

DHEAS EXCESS

- CONGENITAL ADRENAL HYPERPLASIA
- CUSHING DISEASE

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

- ADRENAL TUMORS—carcinoma, adenoma
- ANDROGEN THERAPY—DHEA, danazol

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

HIRSUTISM—androgen excess leading to excessive male pattern hair growth (terminal body hairs on face, chest, abdomen, and back). There may be associated acne and male-pattern balding

VIRILIZATION—significant androgen excess causing not only hirsutism but also deepening of

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

voice, breast atrophy, increased muscle bulk, clitoromegaly, and increased libido

HYPERTRICHOSIS—excessive hair growth (soft, non-sexual areas) that is androgen independent. Most commonly familial, but may also be caused by systemic disorders (hypothyroidism, anorexia nervosa, malnutrition, porphyria, and dermatomyositis) or medications (phenytoin, penicillamine, diazoxide, minoxidil, or cyclosporine)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—time course of symptoms, hirsutism and virilization symptoms, menstrual history, weight history, medications, family history

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES

PCOS CAH Idiopathic **Ovary tumor** Aae Pubertv Pubertv Pubertv Any age Menstruation Altered May be altered Normal Normal Hirsutism +++ virilization + + + Course Slow Slow Slow Acute Testosterone/DHEAS Normal + + ++17-OH progesterone +

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—to eliminate excessive androgen production. Suppression of androgen only prevents new hair growth. After hyperandrogenism resolved, consider terminal hair removal (e.g. electrolysis)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

POLYCYSTIC OVARIAN SYNDROME

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—androgen excess mostly from peripheral conversion of androstenedione (ovaries) to testosterone. Associated increased insulin resistance leads to maturation arrest of developing primary and secondary follicles. Cycles are anovulatory
- CLINICAL FEATURES—menstrual irregularity (since puberty), hyperandrogenism (hirsutism, acne, male pattern balding), infertility, metabolic syndrome (central obesity, insulin resistance), elevated testosterone levels
- DIAGNOSIS—2 out of 3 Rotterdam 2003 criteria: oligomenorrhea/anovulation, hyperandrogenism, and polycystic ovaries on US. Exclude other causes of menstrual irregularity/ hyperandrogenism

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

PHYSICAL—BMI, skin and hair growth pattern, signs of virilization, abdominal and pelvic examination

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—total testosterone, DHEAS, 17-OH progesterone, androstenedione

SPECIAL

- IMAGING—US pelvis (if suspect ovarian tumor), CT abd (if suspect adrenal tumor)
- сизніка workup—1 mg dexamethasone suppression test (or 24 h urinary free cortisol, or late night salivary cortisol)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

TREATMENTS—treat hirsutism (low-dose combination oral contraceptive pill, spironolactone, electrolysis, laser therapy), provide endometrial protection (low-dose combination oral contraceptive pill, progesterone), treat metabolic syndrome (diet, exercise, weight loss, metformin if prediabetes/diabetes), and advise regarding fertility (clomiphene, letrozole)

NON-CLASSIC CONGENITAL ADRENAL HYPERPLASIA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—21-hydroxylase deficiency, which leads to increased production of both 17-hydroxyprogesterone (the substrate for 21-hydroxylase and an androgen precursor) and androstenedione
- CLINICAL FEATURES—sometimes menstrual irregularity, hirsutism, no cortisol deficiency. May be indistinguishable from PCOS
- DIAGNOSIS—elevated 17-OH progesterone level
- TREATMENTS—highly individualized therapy. Treat hirsutism (low-dose oral contraceptive pill, spironolactone, electrolysis, laser therapy) and advise regarding fertility (low-dose glucocorticoid to turn off ACTH stimulation to

restore fertility). Refer to Endocrinology for prenatal counseling and therapy

IDIOPATHIC HIRSUTISM

 CLINICAL FEATURES—no menstrual irregularity, hirsutism

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

- DIAGNOSIS—normal androgen levels, diagnosis of exclusion
- TREATMENTS—hair removal (electrolysis, laser therapy) and antiandrogen therapy (low-dose oral contraceptive pill, spironolactone, cyproterone acetate)

Male Hypogonadism

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PRIMARY HYPOGONADISM

- CONGENITAL OR DEVELOPMENTAL DISORDERS— Klinefelter syndrome, Down syndrome, Prader-Willi syndrome, uncorrected cryptorchidism, testosterone biosynthetic defect
- ACQUIRED—testicular trauma, irradiation, surgery, drugs (spironolactone, ketoconazole, cyclophosphamide, alcohol), mumps orchitis, autoimmune polyglandular syndrome, myotonic dystrophy, cirrhosis, CKD, sickle cell disease, malignancy, spinal cord injury, vasculitis. infiltrative disease

SECONDARY HYPOGONADISM

- CONGENTIAL OR DEVELOPMENTAL DISORDERS constitutional delay, hypogonadotropic hypogonadism (Kallman syndrome, congenital adrenal hyperplasia)
- ACQUIRED—hyperprolactinemia, drugs (opioids, marijuana, alcohol, cocaine, anabolic steroids, progesterone, GnRH agonists/ antagonists), pituitary or suprasellar tumor, infiltrative disorders (hemochromatosis), excessive exercise, chronic systemic illness (e.g. cirrhosis, HF, CKD, Cushing syndrome), morbid obesity

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—drugs, delayed puberty (and family history of delayed puberty), loss of smell (Kallman syndrome), decreased erections, decreased libido, decreased volume of ejaculate, infertility, decreased energy and motivation, reduced frequency of shaving, loss of body hair, decreased muscle bulk and strength, hot flashes

PHYSICAL—height and weight, visual fields, galactorrhea, GU examination (hypospadias, microphallus, cryptorchidism, testicular size [normal adult volume 12–25 mL]). Also assess for facial hair, eunochoidal body proportions (arm span > height), and signs of systemic illness (e.g. Cushing syndrome)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

LABS—total testosterone

SPECIAL

- FREE TESTOSTERONE—if liver disease, obesity, or diabetes mellitus
- какуотуре—Klinefilter syndrome
- secondary hypogonadism workup—prolactin, ferritin, LH, FSH, MRI sella
- SEMEN ANALYSIS

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

INDICATIONS FOR TESTING—presence of symptoms/signs of hypogonadism or high index of suspicion (e.g. unexplained anemia, osteoporosis). Diagnosis of hypogonadism requires \downarrow testosterone and compatible history. Testosterone should never be used for asymptomatic screening, but only to supplement a clinical diagnosis

INITIAL TESTING—initial testing with testosterone between 8–10 AM, fasting, and not at time of intercurrent illness. Follow-up abnormal test result with second test, preferably 3–6 months apart. Diagnosis of hypogonadism cannot be made during acute/subacute illnees. If multiple abnormal tests, conduct further workup for underlying cause of hypogonadism prior to empiric treatment

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—exclude reversible illness, confounding drugs, nutritional deficiencies, and strenuous exercise

PRIMARY HYPOGONDADISM—mostly irreversible and treated with testosterone replacement for secondary sexual characteristics, bone protection, and performance

SECONDARY HYPOGONADISM—If constitutional delay, no treatment needed for most cases. If hypopituitarism, testosterone replacement±replacement of other deficienct pituitary hormones (see section on Pituitary Tumors p. 380

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

for details). If hyperprolactinemia, give dopamine agonist (bromocriptine or cabergoline; see section on Pituitary Tumors p. 380 for details). If exogenous anabolic steroids, discontinue offending medications. If obesity, recommend weight loss (but beware of using testosterone, which may induce or worsen OSA)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

GYNECOMASTIA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—palpable breast tissue in a male. Commonly occurs in neonatal and pubertal stages (transient, physiologic). May occur in adults because of testosterone deficiency and/or estrogen excess (pathologic).
 Often idiopathic, but may be due to drugs (e.g. testosterone [aromatized to estrogen], spironolactone), increased aromatase activity (e.g. hyperthyroidism, cirrhosis), and estrogen-/hCG-producing tumors
- **CLINICAL FEATURES**—may be unilateral or bilateral. Assess for duration of onset, symptoms (pain, tenderness, discharge), associated

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

lymphadenopathy, and presence of testicular tumor

- DIAGNOSIS—review medications carefully, check for systemic illness, and rule out pseudogynecomastia (adipose tissue). Mild, asymptomatic gynecomastia detected incidentally usually does not require further workup. Investigate if recent, rapid-onset, and/or large with testosterone, estradiol, LH, FSH, PRL, βhCG, TSH, creatinine, ALT, ALP± anabolic steroid screen. Suspect breast cancer if unilateral, firm, indurated, and fixed.
- TREATMENTS—treat underlying disorder (e.g. discontinue offending medication, treat hyperthyroidism, resect testicular tumor). If gynecomastia persists, consider testosterone replacement in the setting of androgen deficiency, or selective estrogen receptor modulars for estrogen excess ± surgery for long-standing symptomatic gynecomastia. If asymptomatic (with no identifiable underlying disorder), give reassurance as most do not require treatment



12 DERMATOLOGY Susan Y. Chon

Eczema

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF PRURITUS

INFLAMMATORY

- DERMATITIS—atopic dermatitis, asteatotic eczema, nummular eczema, dyshidrotic eczema, seborrheic dermatitis, stasis dermatitis, irritant contact dermatitis, allergic contact dermatitis, lichen simplex chronicus (neurodermatitis)
- PSORIASIS
- PITYRIASIS LICHENOIDES
- URTICARIA
- DERMATITIS HERPETIFORMIS
- BULLOUS PEMPHIGOID
- LINEAR IMMUNOGLOBIN A DISEASE
- GRAFT VS HOST DISEASE

INFECTIONS—tinea, scabies, pediculosis corporis and pubis, pityriasis rosea, varicella

NEOPLASTIC—lymphoma (mycosis fungoides, Hodgkin lymphoma), myeloma, solid tumors, polycythemia vera

IATROGENIC

- DRUG ERUPTION—antibiotics, anti-epileptics
- DRUG-INDUCED PRURITUS—opiates, steroids, aspirin, antimalarials

SYSTEMIC

- ENDOCRINE—diabetes, hypothyroidism, hyperthyroidism, carcinoid syndrome
- HEPATOBILIARY—PBC, cholestasis
- RENAL—uremia, hemodialysis
- NEUROLOGIC—brachioradial pruritus, notalgia paresthetica, postherpetic neuralgia, multiple sclerosis
- INFECTIONS—HCV, HIV
- AUTOIMMUNE—sarcoidosis, dermatomyositis, Sjögren syndrome
- **PSYCHOGENIC**—delusional infestation, psychogenic excoriation, anorexia nervosa
- отнекs—iron deficiency, idiopathic xerosis, burns and scars

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

PATHOGENESIS—chronic inflammatory skin disorder characterized by dry skin and pruritus. Rubbing and scratching the skin promotes inflammation and leads to an itch–scratch cycle. It follows a relapsing course characterized by alternating periods of flares and remissions. Mutations in flaggrin and deficiency in ceramides play a key role in pathogenesis. Patients often have a personal or family history of eczema, asthma, or allergic rhinitis. Exacerbating factors may include cold weather, dust mites, pollens, infection, wool, pet fur, emotional stress, chemical irritants, and other allergens

CLINICAL FEATURES

FINDINGS—ill-defined pruritic erythematous plaques with excoriations. Neck and flexural prominence in adults and children. Extensor prominence in infants. Pustules, honey-colored crusts, and weeping may be a sign of secondary infection

TYPES OF ECZEMA

- ASTEATOTIC ECZEMA—dry irritable skin in the elderly
- NUMMULAR ECZEMA—acral, coin-shaped patches of eczema usually on extremities
- DYSHIDROTIC ECZEMA—acute vesicular eczema of the palms and soles
- **XEROSIS/WINTER ITCH**—eczema secondary to dry conditions in winter

INVESTIGATIONS

SPECIAL (not typically performed)

- LABS—CBC (eosinophilia) and IgE level (elevated)
- BACTERIAL AND VIRAL CULTURES—if there is a suspicion of a secondary infection

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MANAGEMENT

TREATMENTS—drv skin care (unscented, hypoallergenic soaps, daily moisturizers). Topical corticosteroids BID×3 weeks, off 1 week, repeat PRN (typically hydrocortisone 1-2.5% or desonide 0.05% for the face, triamcinolone 0.1% for the body), and topical calcineurin inhibitors (tacrolimus 0.1%, pimecrolimus 1%). Antihistamines (diphenhydramine, loratadine, fexofenadine, hvdroxvzine, and doxepin). Oral antibiotics × 7 days for superimposed Staphylococcus aureus infections (typically flucloxacillin or other penicillinase-resistant penicillin for MSSA and clindamycin, doxycycline or trimethoprimsulfamethoxazole for MRSA)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

DERMATITIS HERPETIFORMIS

- Associations—celiac disease, IgA nephropathy, autoimmune thyroid disease, autoimmune hepatitis, type 1 diabetes, SLE, Sjögren syndrome, sarcoidosis, Addison disease, atrophic gastritis, vitiligo, and alopecia areata. Strong linkage to HLA-88, DR3, and DQw2. Increased risk of non-Hodgkin lymphoma
- CLINICAL FEATURES—pruritic erythematous papulovesicles on extensor surfaces and buttocks, rarely mucous membranes. Lesions tend to be symmetrically distributed
- TREATMENTS—dapsone and gluten-free diet. If dapsone cannot be tolerated, sulfonamides such as sulfasalazine can be used. See Celiac Disease (p. 142)

STASIS DERMATITIS

 CLINICAL FEATURES—erythematous pruritic and burning lesions found on lower limbs of older patients due to compromised venous or lymphatic return. With increased extravasation of

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

blood into the surrounding tissues, the lesions become darker, scalier, and may even form stasis ulcers and lipodermatosclerosis in late disease. Accompanying localized hair loss may be seen

TREATMENTS—treat underlying cause Encourage weight reduction, daily walking/ exercise, and leg elevation as tolerated. Graduated compression stockings (after ankle-brachial index [ABI] checked). Topical steroids for acute exacerbations. Pharmacologic systemic therapy, such as venoactive or phlebotonic drugs, pentoxifylline, and flavonoids have been used. Varicose veins may be treated with surgery, endovenous laser therapy or via sclerotherapy

SCABIES

- CLINICAL FEATURES—excoriations, eczematized and urticarial papules over trunk. Linear white burrows over finger webs, sides of hand, and flexural aspects of wrists. Confirmed by skin scrapings for ectoparasitic mites and eggs. Crusted scabies is a severe form seen in HIV and immunosuppressed patients
- TREATMENTS—first-line therapy with permethrin 5% cream × 1 dose, applied to the entire body from chin to soles, rinse off after 8–14 h. Second-line treatments include ivermectin 200 mcg/kg PO×1 dose and repeat PO×1 dose 1–2 weeks later, lindane 1% lotion or cream×1 dose, rinse off after 8 h, and benzy/ benzoate 10 or 25% lotions×1 dose, rinse off after 24 h. Simultaneous treatment of patient and close contacts is recommended

Chosidow NEJM 2006;354(16) Thomas et al. J Am Acad Dermatol 2020;82(3)

Psoriasis Vulgaris

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF PAPULOSQUAMOUS LESIONS

INFLAMMATORY—psoriasis vulgaris, lichen planus, nummular eczema, discoid lupus INFECTIONS—tinea, pityriasis rosea, secondary syphilis, seborrheic dermatitis

MALIGNANCY—mycosis fungoides, basal cell carcinoma (BCC), squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) IATROGENIC—drug eruption

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

INFLAMMATION—a chronic inflammatory skin disorder with a polygenic predisposition and sometimes an environmental triggering factor (trauma/Koebner phenomenon, infections, drugs, smoking, alcohol ingestion, emotional stress)

CLINICAL FEATURES

FINDINGS—well-circumscribed, bright salmon red color, silvery micaceous scaly plaques. Predilection for the scalp and extensor regions. Nails may show pitting changes, "oil spots", onycholysis, and subungual debris that may be helpful in making the diagnosis. All patients regardless of skin severity should be screened for inflammatory arthritis that is worse in the mornings, associated with joint stiffness and swelling ± dactylitis. Consider screening for hyperlipidemia, coronary artery disease, and diabetes in patients with risk factors as there is an increased predilection in patients with psoriasis

SUBTYPES

- CHRONIC PLAQUE PSORIASIS—predilection for scalp, elbows, and knees. Symmetric, sharply demarcated erythematous plaques with silvery scales that when scratched off reveal punctate blood droplets (Auspitz sign)
- GUTTATE PSORIASIS—predilection for trunk. May follow a streptococcal infection. Multiple discrete erythematous papules with silvery scales
- PALMOPLANTAR PSORIASIS—mild to severe forms. Well-demarcated erythematous plaque with silver scales. Cracking, fissures, or bleeding may be seen. Pustular variant also found
- INVERSE PSORIASIS—perianal, genital, and axillary well-demarcated erythematous plaques that are more likely to be macerated and fissured due to location in a moist and warm environment
- ERYTHRODERMIC PSORIASIS—generalized erythema±characteristic erythematous plaques with white-silver scale and nail changes. Often spares the face
- PUSTULAR PSORIASIS—initial stinging and burning in area may promote scratching, followed by eruption of sterile pustules. Hypocalcemia is a risk factor
- NAIL PSORIASIS—multiple small nail pits, leukonychia, red macules on nail lunula, and degradation of the nail plate. Associated with psoriatic arthritis

INVESTIGATIONS

SPECIAL (not typically performed)

- місковіоLogy—throat C&S (if guttate psoriasis)
- кон preparation—if suspect tinea
- SKIN BIOPSY

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—topical therapv with corticosteroids (triamcinolone/fluocinolone, fluocinonide, betamethasone dipropionate and clobetasol), emollients, and vitamin D analogs. Topical calcineurin inhibitors may be used on the face and intertriginous areas. If unable to control, light therapy with either UVB or PUVA may be considered but requires 2-3 visits/week for months. Traditional systemic thera**pies** including acitretin, cyclosporine, apremilast, and methotrexate should be considered in patients with moderate to severe psoriasis with >10% body surface involvement or severe functional impairment (hands, feet, arthritis, and genitals). If unresponsive or unable to tolerate these, **biologic therapy** such as the **TNF** *a* **inhibitors** (infliximab, adalimumab, golimumab, etanercept), IL-17 pathway inhibitors (secukinumab, ixekizumab, brodalumab), or IL-23 pathway inhibitors (ustekinumab, guselkumab, tildrakizumab) should be considered for psoriatic arthritis. Avoid systemic steroids as discontinuation may cause generalized pustular psoriasis

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

PITYRIASIS ROSEA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—human herpesvirus-6/7 may be the etiologic agent, although this disorder does not seem to be contagious
- CLINICAL FEATURES—herald plaque (2–5 cm, round, redder, scaly) followed by many smaller oval plaques in a "Christmas tree" configuration involving the trunk and extremities. Resolves spontaneously after 2–5 weeks
- TREATMENTS—no treatment needed usually. Topical steroid to relieve pruritus

LICHEN PLANUS

- ратнорнузюLogy—autoimmune disease with lymphocytic infiltration in epidermis
- Associations—drugs (β-blockers, methyldopa, penicillamine, NSAIDs, ACE inhibitors, carbamazepine, gold, lithium), HCV infection
- CLINICAL FEATURES ★5 P'S★—Purple, Pruritic, Polygonal, Planar (flat-topped) Papules. May also see fine white lines on the surface (Wickham striae). Commonly seen in flexor wrists, forearms, and buccal mucosal (lacy white reticular lesions). Lesions may last for a year

 TREATMENTS—no treatment needed usually. Topical or intralesional steroids, antihistamines, and anti-inflammatories to relieve pruritus. Investigate for associated causes

SEBORRHEIC DERMATITIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—a common skin disorder affecting areas rich in sebaceous glands such as the scalp, face, mid-chest, and intertriginous areas. It is caused by the yeast Malassezia furfur (formerly known as Pityrosporum ovale), M. restricta, and M. globosa, with increased host response leading to dermatitis. It is also known as "dandruff" in adults. Severe seborrheic dermatitis is associated with stress, neurologic disease (e.g. Parkinson disease), and immunosuppression (e.g. HIV/AIDS)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—pink to erythematous plaques with yellow scales or greasy crusts, which may occasionally be pruritic
- TREATMENTS—gentle emollients, ketoconazole shampoo or cream, 1–2.5% hydrocortisone cream, or topical calcineurin inhibitors. Severe scalp involvement in an adult may also be treated with shampoos containing selenium sulfide, zinc pyrithione, and stronger steroid liquids

Related Topic

Psoriatic Arthritis (p. 302)

URTICARIA (HIVES)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—an acute (<6 weeks) or chronic (>6 weeks) type I hypersensitivity reaction. Most cases are idiopathic but triggers may include infections, insect bites, certain foods, medications, and emotional stress
- CLINICAL FEATURES—characterized by superficial transient edema with pink highly pruritic papules or plaques (wheals) with individual lesions having rapid onset and resolution within 24 h. Dermatographism is common where wheals may be induced after stroking the skin
- **TREATMENTS**—identification and elimination of eliciting factors, non-sedating antihistamines

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

during the day and scheduled sedating antihistamines at night. Systemic glucocorticoids may be used when severe, but courses should be tapered over 5–7 days

DERMATOPHYTE (TINEA) INFECTIONS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—Trichophyton, Epidermophyton, Microsporum are fungi that can uniquely dissolve keratin
- CLINICAL FEATURES—asymptomatic, scaling erythematous patches/plaques that slowly enlarge over scalp (tinea capitis), feet (tinea pedis), hand (tinea manuum), groin (tinea cruris), body (tinea corporis), and nails (onychomycosis). May be associated with pruritus and vesicles
- DIAGNOSIS—skin and nail lesions may be difficult to distinguish from psoriasis, eczematous conditions, and lichen planus. KOH examination from skin scrapings shows segmented hyphae and spores
- TREATMENTS—tinea capitis (griseofulvin 20–25 mg/kg/day for 6–8 weeks, terbinafine, itraconazole), tinea pedis or cruris (terbinafine 1% cream daily-BID, clotrimazole/ Lotrimin* 1% cream BID), onychomycosis (terbinafine 250 mg PO daily×6–12 weeks, itraconazole 200 mg PO daily×8–12 weeks. Need to monitor liver enzymes)

TINEA VERSICOLOR

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—Malassezia furfur
- CLINICAL FEATURES—young adult with hypopigmented, light brown, or salmon-colored scaly macules coalescing into patches
- DIAGNOSIS—KOH examination from skin scrapings show classic "spaghetti and meatballs" pattern representing hyphae and spores
- TREATMENTS—topical (terbinafine 1% cream daily BID, clotrimazole 1% cream BID, selenium sulfide 2.5% shampoo or lotion), systemic (ketoconazole, fluconazole, itraconazole)

GROIN SKIN LESIONS—common causes include tinea cruris, candidiasis, erythrasma (*Corynebacterium minutissimum*), and inverse psoriasis

Acne Vulgaris

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF ACNEIFORM LESIONS

ACNE VULGARIS ROSACEA PERIORIFICIAL DERMATITIS

DRUGS—EGFR inhibitors (erlotinib, gefitinib, cetuximab, panitumumab) and oral corticosteroids (prednisone, dexamethasone) can cause pustular folliculitis

PSEUDOFOLLICULITIS BARBAE

FACIAL ANGIOFIBROMAS—tuberous sclerosis, multiple endocrine neoplasia type 1, Birt-Hogg-Dubé syndrome

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

PATHOGENESIS—condition affecting pilosebaceous units, commonly seen during puberty. Pathogenesis involves androgens, follicular keratinization, and the Gram-positive bacteria *Propionibacterium acnes*. Lesions may present as non-inflammatory comedones or inflammatory papules. Inflammatory cysts may leave behind hyperpigmentation and sometimes scarring

RISK FACTORS—**drugs** (steroids, phenytoin, lithium), **androgen excess** (PCOS, Cushing disease, congenital adrenal hyperplasia), skin trauma, family history. Diet, stress, insulin resistance, and body mass index may contribute to lesion development

CLINICAL FEATURES

SEVERITY OF ACNE VULGARIS

- MILD—mainly comedones with few papules/ pustules
- MODERATE—moderate papules and pustules (10–40) and comedones (10–40)
- MODERATELY SEVERE—numerous papules and pustules (40–100) and many comedones (40–100). May have nodular inflamed lesions (up to 5). Widespread involvement of face, chest and back
- severe—nodulocystic acne and acne conglobata with many nodular or pustular lesions

TYPICAL PRESENTATION—teenager with open comedones (blackheads), closed comedones (whiteheads), erythematous papules, pustules, cysts and scarring over face, shoulders, upper chest, and back

James NEJM 2005;352(14) Zaenglein NEJM 2018;379(14)

INVESTIGATIONS

SPECIAL (not typically performed)

 ENDOCRINE WORKUP—testosterone, 24-h urinary cortisol

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

- MILD CASES—topical agents include benzoyl peroxide 2.5–10% daily-BID, sulfur-based washes, topical retinoids (*tretinoin* 0.025–0.1% qhs, *tazarotene* qhs), and topical antibiotics (*clindamycin* daily-BID, *erythromycin* daily-BID)
- MODERATE CASES—in addition to above agents for mild cases, oral antibiotic (minocycline 50–100 mg daily-BID, doxycycline 50–100 mg daily-BID, trimethoprim–sulfamethoxazole 160/800 BID, tetracycline 250–500 mg daily-BID, erythromycin 250–500 mg BID–QID) or antiandrogen therapy such as birth control pills may be used in female patients
- SEVERE CASES—respond well to oral *isotretinoin* 0.5–1 mg/kg/day, with a cumulative dose of 120 mg/day. Close monitoring with laboratory and clinical follow-up. High risk for teratogenicity

TREATMENT ISSUES

RETINOIDS—inhibit sebum excretion and *P. acnes.* Reserved for severe nodulocystic acne. Topical retinoids may cause irritation and dryness of the skin. Retinoids should never be used in pregnant women as highly teratogenic. Fertile women should take oral contraceptive pills 2 months before treatment continuing until 1 month after discontinuing oral retinoids

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

ROSACEA

- CLINICAL FEATURES—middle age adults with central facial telangiectasias, flushing (especially after ingestion of hot liquids, alcohol, spicy foods, heat, and other triggers), and acneiform papulopustules on cheeks, nose, forehead, and chin. No comedones. May be associated with rhinophyma (more in men), conjunctivitis, iritis, and keratitis
- TREATMENTS—oral antibiotics (tetracycline, erythromycin), topical antibiotics (metronida-

zole 0.75%), sulfur-based products (sodium sulfacetamide lotion 10%), pulsed dye laser. Advanced phymatous skin changes can be treated with laser ablation. Avoidance of flushing triggers and daily sun protection are advised

PERIORAL (PERIORIFICIAL) DERMATITIS

 CLINICAL FEATURES—young woman with papules and pustules over chin, upper lip, and nasal labial folds

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

 TREATMENTS—topical therapeutic options include pimecrolimus 1% cream or erythromycin 2% gel applied twice daily. Metronidazole 1% lotion or gel can be applied once daily. Oral tetracyclines may be used for moderate to severe disease. Discontinuation of topical corticosteroids and other topical irritants if relevant

Exanthematous Lesions

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF EXANTHEMATOUS LESIONS

INFECTIONS

- VIRAL—HCV, HIV, EBV, parvovirus B19, measles, rubella, roseola
- BACTERIAL—toxic shock, staphylococcal scalded skin syndrome, streptococcal toxic shock syndrome, scarlet fever, meningococcus, Rocky Mountain spotted fever, typhus

IATROGENIC—medications (see DRUG ERUPTIONS p. 412)

CLINICAL FEATURES

TYPICAL PRESENTATION—widespread erythematous maculopapular lesions that may be accompanied by fever and malaise

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—discontinue any offending drugs. Usually resolve spontaneously

Related Topic

Fever and Rash (p. 248)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

PARVOVIRUS B19—slapped cheek rash on face and erythematous eruption on trunk, neck, and extremities, which is most common in children. Also called fifth disease or erythema infectiosum. Self-limiting. Fever may be present. Parvovirus B19 is also associated with aplastic anemia, polyarthritis, and fetal hydrops

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

STAPHYLOCOCCAL SCALDED SKIN SYN-DROME (SSSS)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—exfoliatins produced by specific strains of staphylococci leading to desquamative disorder with cleavage at the granular layer of the dermis and acute epidermolysis. Most common in infants
- CLINICAL FEATURES—fever, malaise, generalized macular erythematous rash that evolves rapidly into a scarlatiniform (sandpaper-like) rash, followed by an exfoliative phase with perioral exudation and crusting. Large radial fissures "sunburst" around the mouth and are one of the diagnostic features. Nikolsky sign positive. Increased risk in children/infants, renal failure, immunocompromised
- DIAGNOSIS—culture from a site other than the blisters (blood, conjunctivae, nasopharynx) demonstrating staphylococci
- TREATMENTS—hospitalization for supportive care, culture for antibiotic susceptibility, and IV antibiotics for treatment of staphylococci (nafcillin/oxacillin first line, vancomycin if failing therapy or high prevalence or risk of MRSA)

SCARLET FEVER

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—erythrogenic toxin by specific strains of group A Streptococcus leading to cleavage at the granular layer of the dermis
- CLINICAL FEATURES—children with fever, sore throat, petechiae, and punctate red macules on hard and soft palate and uvula (Forchheimer spots), circumoral pallor, strawberry tongue, erythematous patches involving ears and chest, extend to trunk and extremities and accentuate in skin folds (Pastia lines). Evolves

to sandpaper-like appearance. Desquamation occurs 7–10 days after resolution of rash

TREATMENTS—antibiotics to treat scarlet fever symptoms, prevent contagious spread of

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

group A *Streptococcus*, and to prevent acute rheumatic fever. Penicillin V is first-line. Fluid resuscitation as needed

Stevens–Johnson Syndrome/Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF VESICLES/BULLOUS LESIONS

INFLAMMATORY—bullous pemphigoid*, pemphigus vulgaris*, porphyria cutanea tarda*, lupus*, dermatitis herpetiformis, erythema multiforme, contact dermatitis, linear IgA bullous dermatosis, epidermolysis bullosa acquisita, pemphigoid gestationis

INFECTIONS

- BACTERIAL—bullous impetigo*, staphylococcal scalded skin syndrome, toxic shock syndrome
- VIRAL—HSV, VZV, molluscum contagiosum, Coxsackie virus

NEOPLASTIC—paraneoplastic pemphigus

IATROGENIC—Stevens–Johnson syndrome*, toxic epidermal necrolysis*

*bullous lesions may be seen with or without vesicles

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

HYPERSENSITIVITY REACTION—Stevens– Johnson syndrome (SJS) and toxic epidermal necrolysis (TEN) lie on a spectrum of serious, lifethreatening illness characterized by extensive epidermal necrosis. By definition, SJS involves less than 10% of the body surface area (BSA) and TEN involves greater than 30% of the BSA. Involvement of 10–30% BSA is an overlap between the two. Drugs are the most common offending agents, but *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*, viruses, various chemicals and immunizations have also been associated with SJS/TEN

COMMONLY ASSOCIATED DRUGS ★4A'S★

- ALLOPURINOL
- ANTIBIOTICS—sulfamethoxazole, cephalosporins, penicillins, quinolones, macrolides
- ANTI-INFLAMMATORY DRUGS—NSAIDs, salicylates
- ANTICONVULSANTS—carbamazepine, phenytoin, lamotrigine, phenobarbital

RISK FACTORS—HIV infection, malignancy (particularly hematologic cancers), certain HLA types, SLE, high doses of the drugs listed above

CLINICAL FEATURES

TYPICAL PRESENTATION—patients usually develop symptoms within 2-3 weeks after drug exposure, more rapidly in previously exposed patients. The prodrome involves a flu-like syndrome with fever, malaise, arthralgias, myalgias, and mucous membrane lesions. This is followed by the development of irregular target-like lesions often with necrotic centers that coalesce over time. Flaccid blisters form that spread with pressure (Nikolsky sign), resulting in sheet-like loss of epidermis and exposure of the underlying dermis. Ninety percent of patients have mucous membrane involvement, 60% have ocular involvement, and up to two-thirds of patients may develop urethritis or have other urogenital involvement

NIKOLSKY SIGN—pressing on the edges of an intact blister helps to discriminate between an intraepidermal blistering process (pemphigoid vulgaris, blister extends and breaks easily) and a subepidermal process (TEN, bullous pemphigoid, blister would not advance)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, Cr, urea
- MICROBIOLOGY—fluid C&S, HSV serology, VZV serology
- SKIN BIOPSY

PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

PROGNOSIS—mortality rates for SJS and TEN are approximately 5% and 30–50%, respectively, typically from sepsis and multi-organ failure. The risk of death can be predicted using the TEN specific severity-of-illness score (SCORTEN). Prognostic factors are each assigned a score of 1 and then added together to determine the predicted mortality

| PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D) | | | |
|--------------------------------------|------------|-------------------------------|----------------------|
| Prognostic factor | Weight | SCORTEN total | Predicted mortality |
| Age \geq 40 | 1 | 0-1 | 3.2% |
| Heart rate \geq 120/min | 1 | 2 | 12.1% |
| Associated malignancy | 1 | 3 | 35.8% |
| Initial BSA skin detachment >10% | 1 | 4 | 58.3% |
| Serum urea >10 mmol/L [27 mg/dL] | 1 | 5 or more | 90% |
| Serum glucose >14 mmol/L [252 mg/dL] | 1 | | |
| Bicarbonate >20 mmol/L [20 mEq/L] | 1 | | |
| | Bastuji-Ga | arin et al. <i>J Invest I</i> | Dermatol 2000;115(2) |

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—identifying and stopping the offending drug. Corticosteroids may be helpful but can be deleterious in severe forms of SJS/TEN. High-dose IVIG is controversial but may halt progression. Corticosteroids and IVIG in combination therapy may reduce mortality in TEN and SJS/TEN overlap. Systemic antibiotics may be necessary, but prophylactic systemic antibiotics are not empirically used. Infection control is employed with sterile handling, antiseptic solutions (although silver sulfadiazine should not be used if sulfonamides are thought to be the cause of SJS/TEN), and repeated skin, blood and catheter cultures every 48 hours. Promising newer treatments include cyclosporine and etanercept

SUPPORTIVE MEASURES—patients should be managed in a burn unit or ICU, as electrolyte abnormalities, renal failure, and pulmonary edema may occur. Pain control, wound and ocular care, adequate fluid replacement, prevention of infection and vulvovaginal complications, nasogastric tube feeding, heated room temperature to 30°C to 32°C

Seminario-Vidal et al. J Amer Acad Dermatol 2020;82(6)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

ERYTHEMA MULTIFORME

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—immune-mediated hypersensitivity reaction involving the skin and potentially mucous membranes (very limited)
- Associations—infections (HSV, HBV, HCV, Mycoplasma, bacterial, fungal), drugs, pregnancy, malignancy
- CLINICAL FEATURES—skin lesions usually preceded by a few weeks of viral prodrome. Macules or papules evolve to form targetoid

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

lesions. Palms, soles, forearms, legs most commonly affected

 TREATMENTS—discontinue offending drugs. Treat suspected HSV infection with appropriate antivirals. Topical corticosteroids or oral antihistamines are appropriate symptomatic therapies, and intra-oral lesions may be palliated with an anesthetic mouthwash. Patients with significant ocular involvement should be referred to an ophthalmologist. Patients who fail systemic antiviral therapy may be treated with mycophenolate, dapsone, mofetil, azathioprine, or cyclosporine. Tofacitinib and apremilast are newer treatment options for refractory cases

BULLOUS IMPETIGO

- **PATHOPHYSIOLOGY**—intra-epidermal infection by *S. aureus* or β-hemolytic streptococci
- CLINICAL FEATURES—in bullous form, flaccid, pus-filled lesions often found in intertriginous areas and on the trunk, which rupture to form a golden-brown crust. More commonly found in children. Management of bullous impetigo in an adult should include a work-up for HIV infection
- TREATMENTS—limited impetigo can be treated with topical therapy (mupirocin TID or retapamulin BID × 5 days); however extensive impetigo warrants systemic antibiotics (cephalexin, dicloxacillin, and clindamycin)

BULLOUS PEMPHIGOID

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—autoimmune blistering disease with IgG binding to subepidermal proteins (BP antigen 180 or 230), leading to separation of epidermis from dermis
- Associations—furosemide, captopril, thiazide, spironolactone, penicillamine, phenothiazines, tricyclic antidepressants, benzodiazepines

- CLINICAL FEATURES—multiple chronic, pruritic, tense blisters in the elderly. Commonly affecting flexural areas, axillae, and groin. Mucous membranes affected in <1/3 of cases, but rarely presenting feature. Nikolsky sign negative
- TREATMENTS—discontinue offending drugs. In mild or localized disease, treat with Class I topical steroids (clobetasol propionate 0.05% cream). Treat with anti-inflammatories and immunosuppressants, including tetracycline in conjunction with niacinamide. *Prednisone* 1–2 mg/kg PO daily. Methotrexate, azathioprine and mycophenolate mofetil are glucocorticoidsparing options

PEMPHIGUS VULGARIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—autoimmune blistering disease with IgG binding to intraepidermal proteins (desmoglein 1 and 3), leading to separation of keratinocytes in epidermis
- Associations—penicillamine, captopril, enalapril, penicillins, cephalosporins, malignancies (paraneoplastic)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—acute onset of multiple flaccid blisters. Mucous membranes usually affected first, with spread to scalp, face, chest, and groin. Nikolsky sign positive. Lesions prone to rupture and infections. May be lifethreatening. May be paraneoplastic
- TREATMENTS—discontinue offending drugs. Consider burn unit admission, supportive fluids. Prednisone 1–2 mg/kg PO daily.

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

Azathioprine, cyclosporine, mycophenolate mofetil, rituximab, plasmapheresis, IVIG

HERPES SIMPLEX VIRUS (HSV) 1 OR 2

- CLINICAL FEATURES—vesicles followed by ulcers in oral (gingivostomatitis) or genital areas
- DIAGNOSIS—scraping of vesicle stained with Wright–Giemsa stain shows acantholytic ballooned and multi-nucleated cells. Viral culture, PCR, direct fluorescent antibody, and serologic antibody testing are other diagnostic tools
 TREATMENTS—acyclovir, valacyclovir, famciclovir

VARICELLA ZOSTER VIRUS (VZV)

- CLINICAL FEATURES—crops of vesicles over entire body (varicella) or specific dermatome with reactivation (zoster, also known as shingles)
- TREATMENTS—acyclovir, valacyclovir, famciclovir. Amitriptyline, gabapentin, and opioids may be useful for post-herpetic neuralgia
- PREVENTION—vaccination in immunocompetent patients at least 50 years old is recommended, even in patients with prior herpes zoster infections (however, must delay vaccination for 1 year after infection). The two types of zoster vaccines are the recombinant zoster vaccine (RZV) (Shingrix") and the live attenuated vaccine (ZVL) (Zostavax"). RZV is the recommended choice for most patients because the evidence suggests it has greater efficacy over a longer period of time. However, ZVL requires one dose, while RZV is a two-part series, and ZVL has a lower incidence of systemic side effects than RZV

Ulcers

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF ULCERS

VENOUS HYPERTENSION

- stasis—immobility, CHF, incompetent valves, pregnancy
- DVT
- ATHEROSCLEROTIC—ischemic ulcers, hypertensive ulcers (Martorell hypertensive ulcer) NEUROPATHIC—diabetes, leprosy, syphilis,

syringomyelia, peripheral neuropathy

VASCULITIC—temporal arteritis, polyarteritis nodosa, systemic sclerosis

INFECTIONS

- BACTERIAL—gumma, mycobacteria
- viral—chronic ulcerative herpes simplex
- FUNGAL—deep fungal infections
- PARASITIC—cutaneous leishmaniasis, cutaneous amebiasis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF ULCERS (CONT'D)

TUMOR—squamous cell carcinoma, basal cell carcinoma, melanoma, Kaposi sarcoma TRAUMA—pressure-induced skin injury, burns

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, glucose, urea, Cr, HbA1C
- місковіоLоду—wound Gram stain, AFB, C&S, TB culture
- ANKLE BRACHIAL INDEX—<0.8 indicates arterial origin
- IMAGING—doppler US, venous plethysmography

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

SPECIAL (workup for pyoderma gangrenosum specifically)

- сосоновсору—if suspect IBD
- MALIGNANCY WORKUP—serum protein electrophoresis, CXR
- INFLAMMATORY WORKUP—ESR, antiphospholipid antibody, antineutrophil cytoplasmic antibodies, cryoglobulins
- SKIN BIOPSY—mainly to rule out possible skin malignancies in the ulcer and to exclude other diagnoses. Include inflamed border for histologic evaluation and ulcer edge for bacterial, fungal, and mycobacterial culture

MANAGEMENT

See SPECIFIC ENTITIES for details

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

VENOUS ULCERS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—result from chronic increases in venous pressure due to either incompetent valves, failure of pump activity from immobility or obesity, or venous outflow obstruction. Increased pressure in the venous system results in dilatation of the capillary beds and chronic inflammation that breaks down the extracellular matrix
- RISK FACTORS—obesity, HF, history of DVT and/ or thrombophlebitis, varicose veins, prolonged standing, and multiple pregnancies
- CLINICAL FEATURES—shallow, irregular borders, relatively painless, and typically located from the mid-calf to the ankle, classically on the medial malleolus. Other common lower extremity findings include edema, lipodermatosclerosis (firm and indurated skin), hyperpigmentation, and dermatitis
- TREATMENTS—compression stockings (need to rule out arterial insufficiency), leg elevation, walking/physiotherapy. Occlusive dressing (DuoDerm* weekly if not infected vs. twice daily if infected). Diuretics (decrease leg edema). Antibiotics if super-infected. Superficial vein surgery may prevent recurrence in some patients

ATHEROSCLEROTIC ULCERS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—result from peripheral artery disease or vasculitis that prevents adequate blood flow to the lower extremity. Inadequate oxygen and nutrient delivery results in tissue breakdown and arterial necrosis
- RISK FACTORS—atherosclerosis, peripheral artery disease, diabetes mellitus, obesity,

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

smoking, rheumatic disease, Buerger disease, hemoglobinopathies

- CLINICAL FEATURES—ulcers tend to be well defined and appear "punched out" with a gray or black necrotic base. Lesions occur over distal sites such as toes and bony prominences and are very painful. Associated features include intermittent claudication, diminished peripheral pulses, and prolonged capillary refill (greater than 3 to 4 seconds)
- TREATMENTS—treat underlying cause, such as surgical bypass for peripheral arterial disease. Avoidance of trauma. Apply moist occlusive dressings. Surgical debridement and systemic antibiotics may be necessary if infected. See PERIPHERAL VASCULAR DISEASE (p. 67)

NEUROPATHIC ULCERS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—most common in diabetic patients. A combination of sensory and motor neuropathy due to enzymatic glycosylation impairs protective sensation and alters the distribution of forces on the lower extremity during normal movement. Many diabetic patients have a combination of neuropathic and arterial ulcers
- RISK FACTORS—diabetes mellitus, syphilis, leprosy, and peripheral neuropathies
- CLINICAL FEATURES—a pure neuropathic ulcer is painless. There is diminished sensation in the lower extremity. Patients have warm extremities with palpable pulses, as opposed to arterial ulcers
- TREATMENTS—diabetic patients require tight glucose control. Treat infection with systemic antibiotics. Debridement of the ulcer, hyperbaric oxygen therapy, and occlusive dressings are applied to promote wound healing. Immobilization and orthotic devices are used to alleviate pressure on the wound. Amputation may be required in severe cases

PYODERMA GANGRENOSUM

- **PATHOPHYSIOLOGY**—chronic condition that involves neutrophilic destruction of tissue
- RISK FACTORS—approximately 50% of patients have an underlying systemic illness, including ulcerative colitis (most common), Crohn disease, rheumatoid arthritis, lymphoproliferative disorder (lymphoma, leukemia, MDS), Behçet disease, and active hepatitis
- CLINICAL FEATURES—initially lesions appear as small, painful, erythematous papules that spread concentrically, evolving into pustules. Tissue breakdown and ulceration occur rapidly. Ulcers classically have dusky-red, violaceous,

irregular borders with a purulent exudate and undermining. Lesions are typically solitary but may be multiple and coalesce into larger ulcers. It is typically found on the lower extremity, but other common sites include the buttocks, abdomen, and face. Exhibits pathergy, often arising in sites of injury (surgical incision, needle prick, insect bite). ESR may be elevated. Classically worsens with attempted biopsy or debridement

 TREATMENTS—treat underlying causes where possible and maintain a moist wound environment to facilitate healing. Immunosuppressive

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

and immunomodulator therapy with systemic corticosteroids (prednisone 60–80 mg PO daily, pulse methylprednisolone 1 g IV daily×3 days), cyclosporine, and biologics such as infliximab and canakinumab have the greatest evidence for treatment. Adjunct treatment with intralesional steroids injected at active border sites and topical calcineurin inhibitors (tacrolimus) may improve outcomes. Other options include IVIG, sulfasalazine, sulfones, minocycline and dapsone

Weenig et al. *NEJM* 2002;347(18) Partridge et al. *Br J Dermatol* 2018;179(2)

Melanoma and Skin Tumors

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF PIGMENTED LESIONS

BENIGN—**nevus** (congenital, acquired), freckle, seborrheic keratosis, *café-au-lait*

PRE-MALIGNANT—dysplastic nevi syndrome

MALIGNANT—melanoma (superficial spreading, nodular, lentigo maligna, acral lentiginous), pigmented basal cell carcinoma

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

RISK FACTORS OF MELANOMA

- GENETICS—fair skin/ethnicity, red/blonde hair, blue eyes, family history
- NEVI—number of common/atypical nevi (marker of sun exposure), familial dysplastic nevus syndrome, previous melanoma
- EXPOSURE—intermittent intense sun exposure, phototherapy, immunosuppression

HISTOLOGIC TYPE

- SUPERFICIAL SPREADING (70%)—fifth decade of life, both sexes, initial radial growth, common on back, posterior legs of women
- NODULAR (15%)—grows rapidly vertically. More common in men
- LENTIGO MALIGNA (10–15%)—sun-damaged skin, older patients, 5–20-year radial growth phase
- ACRAL LENTIGINOUS—most common melanoma in non-whites, who are at relatively lower risk for sun-exposure subtypes of melanoma. Affects palms, soles, and nails

CLINICAL FEATURES

DISTRIBUTION—more common on the trunk in men and extremities in women. Typically occur in relatively non-pigmented areas in non-whites. Unusual primary sites for melanoma include CNS, eyes, mucosa (respiratory, GI, GU), palate, gingival, vulva and anus

2019 AAD Guideline Primary Cutaneous Melanoma

SYMPTOMS

- LOCOREGIONAL—skin lesion (see JAMA series below)
- METASTATIC—depending on location (lung, Gl tract, liver, brain, subcutaneous, skin, bone, heart)
- PARANEOPLASTIC—vitiligo, melanosis syndrome (slate gray skin discoloration), dermatomyositis, gynecomastia, Cushing, hypercalcemia, neurological

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE A MOLE OR A MELANOMA?

CHECKLIST ★ ABCDE★—Asymmetry, Border irregularity, Color variegation, Diameter >6 mm, Evolution/Enlargement (change in lesion)

CHECKLIST FOR SUBUNGUAL MELANOMA *ABCDEF*—Age, Black patients, Asians, and Native Americans, Brown to black band, Change in the nail bed, Digit most commonly involved (great toe and thumb), Extension of the pigment onto the nailfold, Family or personal history of melanoma

REVISED 7-POINT CHECKLIST—major: change in size or new lesion, change in color/

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

irregular color, change in shape/irregular shape; minor: presence of inflammation, diameter ≥ 7 mm, crusting or bleeding, sensory change (sens 79–100%, spc 30–37%, depending on how many criteria used)

| | LR+ | LR– | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------|------|--|--|--|
| ABCDE Criteria for Melance | ABCDE Criteria for Melanoma | | | | |
| Asymmetry | 2.1 | 0.59 | | | |
| Border irregularity | 2.1 | 0.59 | | | |
| Color variegation | 1.6 | 0.59 | | | |
| Dimension >6 mm | 2.3 | 0.17 | | | |
| Enlargement | 11 | 0.18 | | | |
| Combination of ABCDE Cr | Combination of ABCDE Criteria | | | | |
| 5 positive findings | 98 | - | | | |
| ≥4 positive findings | 8.3 | - | | | |
| ≥3 positive findings | 3.3 | - | | | |
| ≥2 positive findings | 2.6 | - | | | |
| ≥1 positive finding | 1.5 | - | | | |
| 0 findings | 0.07 | - | | | |

APPROACH—using either checklist, misdiagnosing a melanoma as a benign lesion appears to be unlikely. The revised 7-point checklist has higher chance of classifying benign lesions as malignant. Non-dermatologists' examinations are less sensitive than those performed by dermatologists

UPDATE—combination of increasing ABCDE criteria increases the likelihood of melanoma; enlargement of a skin lesion is the single most powerful univariate predictor

Whited et al. JAMA 1998;279(9) Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination McGraw-Hill; 2009

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 EXCISIONAL BIOPSY—all lesions suspicious for melanoma should be biopsied with caution to obtain the total depth of the melanoma, with a 1–3mm margin of normal skin and some subcutaneous fat if possible. Breslow depth is the most important prognostic indicator

SPECIAL

 LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, LDH, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin as part of staging workup after pathology confirmation

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

• IMAGING—CXR as part of staging workup after pathology confirmation

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES CLARK LEVELS (LIMITED UTILITY FOR SMALL LESIONS)

| Level | TNM | 5-year survival (% |
|-------|---|-----------------------|
| 1 | Intraepidermal (in situ) | 100 |
| II | Invasion into papillary dermis | 95 |
| III | Extensive invasion of papillary dermis | 81 |
| IV | Invasion into reticular dermis | 68 |
| V | Invasion into subcutaneous tissue | 47 |
| | | |

TNM STAGING

- **T stage** (Breslow depth/thickness)
- **T1**—≤1 mm
 - T1A—<0.8 mm and without ulceration
 - T1B—<0.8 mm and with ulceration, or 0.8–1 mm with or without ulceration
 - **T2**—1.01–2 mm
 - T2A—without ulceration
 - T2B—with ulceration
- **T3**—2.01–4 mm
 - T3A—without ulceration
 - **T3**B—with ulceration
- **T4**—>4 mm
 - T4A—without ulceration
 - **T4**B—with ulceration

N stage

- N1
 - N1a—one clinically occult node (i.e. detected by sentinel lymph node biopsy)
 - N1в—one clinically detected lymph node
 - N1c—microsatellite metastases and no regional lymph node
- N2
 - N2a—2-3 clinically occult node (i.e. detected by sentinel lymph node biopsy)
 - N2B—2–3 lymph nodes, at least one was clinically detected
 - N2c—microsatellite metastases and 1 clinically occult or clinically detected lymph node

DIAGNOSTIC AND PROGNOSTIC ISSUES (CONT'D)

- N3
 - N3a—≥4 clinically occult node (i.e. detected by sentinel lymph node biopsy)
 - N3B→≥4 lymph nodes, at least one was clinically detected, or presence of matted nodes
 - N3c—microsatellite metastases and ≥2 clinically occult or clinically detected lymph node, or presence of matted nodes

M stage (lungs, bone, liver, skin, and essentially any organ. Biologically heterogeneous with variable course)

- M1a—distant metastasis to skin, soft tissue or non-regional nodes
- M1B—distant metastasis to lung
- M1c—distant metastasis to non-CNS visceral sites
- M1p—distant metastasis to CNS sites

SENTINEL LYMPH NODE BIOPSY—usually done if primary melanoma is 1–4 mm thick or ulcerated

MANAGEMENT

PREVENTION—sun avoidance (sun-protective clothing, wide-brimmed hat, sunscreens)

SURVEILLANCE—particularly for high-risk individuals

STAGE I-III—standard of care is wide local excision. Mohs micrographic surgery may be used. Excision margin 1 cm for lesions ≤ 1 mm thick, 1-2 cm for lesions 1.01-2 mm, and 2 cm for lesions >2 mm thick). Sentinel lymph node **biopsy** for lesions >1 mm thick. If palpable node or sentinel lymph node positive, consider lymph node dissection and adjuvant therapies. For desmoplastic melanoma with high risk features, consider **adjuvant radiation**. Adjuvant therapy with ipilimumab, nivolumab, pembrolizumab, or dabrafenib plus trametinib results in substantial improvement in recurrence-free survival rates in patients with advanced-stage melanoma (stage III and IV) and is the new standard of treatment replacing adjuvant high-dose interferon α 2b. For locoregional recurrence, consider re-excision

STAGE IV

- SURGERY—excision of solitary brain or lung metastasis is occasionally done, then treat as curable disease as above
- MUTATION TESTING—BRAF V600E/K. Mucosal and acral melanomas without a BRAF 600 mutation should be assessed for a KIT mutation

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

- PALLIATIVE SYSTEMIC THERAPY
 - FIRST LINE—consider nivolumab, pembrolizumab, or combined nivolumab and ipilimumab (preferred if BRAF mutant)
 - SUBSEQUENT LINES—BRAF and MEK inhibition (dabrafenib + trametinib, vemurafenib + cobimetinib) if BRAF mutant, imatinib if KIT mutant. Chemotherapeutic agents include dacarbazine, temozolomide, paclitaxel or carboplatin plus paclitaxel
- PALLIATIVE RADIATION—if localized pain
- PALLIATIVE CARE—referral for patients with supportive care needs

TREATMENT ISSUES

FOLLOW UP—should include a complete review of systems including headache, visual changes, cough, lymph node examination, and an LDH and imaging to rule out metastasis for patients with deep melanomas. Patients should continue skin examinations at least semi-annually for new lesions as patients have a 3–5% chance of developing another melanoma

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

DYSPLASTIC NEVI—acquired moles characterized by cytologic atypia and architectural disorder. They remain dynamic throughout life, constantly appearing, changing, or disappearing

DYSPLASTICNEVUSSYNDROME—melanoma in ≥ 2 blood relatives and dysplasticnevi in other family members

BASAL CELL CARCINOMA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—the most common form of skin cancer. Although they rarely metastasize, basal cell carcinomas are locally destructive and must be removed
- CLINICAL FEATURES
 - NODULAR SUBTYPE (50–80%)—pearly semitranslucent papules with telangiectasias and central depression; may ulcerate, crust, or bleed
 - SUPERFICIAL SUBTYPE (>15%)—psoriasiform scaly plaque; most common on trunk and extremities
 - PIGMENTED SUBTYPE (6%)—more common in Latin Americans and Asians
 - MORPHEAFORM SUBTYPE (2–6%)—white sclerotic plaque, can mimic a scar; predilection to recur
- RISK FACTORS—history of prior sunburns (especially in childhood), radiation therapy, family

history, immunosuppression, fair complexion, and red hair

 TREATMENTS—usually treated by either excision or electrodessication and curettage. However, if superficial they may be treated with topical imiquimod or photodynamic therapy

ACTINIC KERATOSIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—form after chronic sun exposure in susceptible individuals usually on the face, scalp, forearms, and dorsal hands. Actinic keratoses are foci of superficial keratinocyte dysplasia capable of evolving into squamous cell carcinoma
- CLINICAL FEATURES—thin pink to red papules and plaques with overlying scale, may sometimes contain focal pigment. They are most common on people with fair skin (type I or II) and occur with increased frequency in patients who are immunosuppressed or have received phototherapy
- TREATMENTS—cryotherapy for focal lesions. If diffuse damage is present, one may use topical imiquimod, 5-fluorouracil, diclofenac, trichloroacetic acid peels, and photodynamic therapy. If there is a thick component below the skin surface, one should consider a skin biopsy to rule out underlying squamous cell carcinoma

SQUAMOUS CELL CARCINOMA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—second most common form of skin cancer. On average 0.5–5.2% of squamous cell carcinomas metastasize, but they are much more aggressive on mucosal surfaces such as the lip and in areas of previous irradiation and scarring
- RISK FACTORS—same as risk factors for actinic keratoses, plus HPV infection for genital lesions
- CLINICAL FEATURES—typically firm red scaly plaques that frequently become ulcerated and occur in areas of heavy sun exposure in fairskinned individuals. Subtypes include:
 - BOWEN DISEASE—squamous cell carcinoma in situ
 - ERYTHROPLASIA OF QUEYRAT—squamous cell carcinoma in situ of the penis
 - кекатоасалтнома—rapidly developing volcano-like nodule that may spontaneously involute
 - verrucous carcinoma—clinically and histologically resembles a wart
- TREATMENTS—surgical excision is the treatment of choice

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

SEBORRHEIC KERATOSIS

- **PATHOPHYSIOLOGY**—benign tumor of keratinocytes. Generally familial in nature
- CLINICAL FEATURES—benign skin colored to black papules and plaques with well-defined borders. They often have a warty surface and a stuck-on appearance. Seborrheic keratoses are most commonly located on the back but can occur on the head, neck, and extremities. It is important to try to differentiate seborrheic keratoses clinically from melanoma. The Leser-Trelat sign denotes the sudden onset of numerous pruritic seborrheic keratosis along with skin tags and acanthosis nigricans and may indicate underlying malignancy (adenocarcinoma of the stomach and lung, leukemia, lymphoma, Sezary syndrome)
- **TREATMENTS**—liquid nitrogen cryotherapy, curettage, or shave removal

VERRUCA VULGARIS (COMMON WARTS)

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—a human papillomavirus (HPV) infection of keratinocytes. Lesions are benign but may cause cosmetic concern and are increased in immunocompromised individuals
- CLINICAL FEATURES—lesions are well-defined, firm papules or plaques with a hyperkeratotic cauliflower-like or flat surface. Lesions may have brown/black dots that represent thrombosed capillaries. Typically occur over extremities and genital area. Spontaneous resolution within 6 months for 30% of patients and 2 years for 65 % of patients
- TREATMENTS—manual paring of the lesions, cryotherapy, topical salicylic acid (e.g. salicylate cream 40% daily with glutaraldehyde 10–25% daily), imiquimod, 5-fluorouracil, cantharidin, podophylin, laser therapy, and intralesional bleomycin

VITILIGO

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—autoimmune process against melanocytes. Differential diagnoses include tinea, leprosy, morphea, lichen sclerosus, post-inflammatory hypopigmentation, and chemicals
- clinical FEATURES—hypopigmented patch(es)
- TREATMENTS—topical steroids, systemic corticosteroids, topical calcineurin inhibitors, phototherapy

Cutaneous Lupus Erythematosus

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF PHOTOSENSITIVITY

IATROGENIC (DRUGS)

- AMIODARONE
- DIURETICS—hydrochlorothiazide, loop diuretics
- ANTIBIOTICS—tetracycline
- NSAIDS
- ANTINEOPLASTIC—methotrexate, vincristine, 5-fluorouracil

INFLAMMATORY—SLE, dermatomyositis, rosacea

IDIOPATHIC—polymorphic light eruption, prurigo, actinic dermatitis, solar urticaria, chronic photosensitivity dermatitis

OTHERS—photocontact dermatitis, phytocontact dermatitis (celery, parsley, lime, lemon, yarrow), porphyria, xeroderma pigmentosum

CLINICAL FEATURES

CUTANEOUS MANIFESTATION OF SLE

- MALAR RASH—"butterfly rash" in up to 50% of lupus patients. Erythema in a malar distribution over the cheeks and bridge of the nose that spares nasolabial folds, especially after UV exposure
- DISCOID LUPUS—up to 50% of lupus patients. Discrete, erythematous, scaly plaques with follicular plugging over face, neck, and scalp, especially after UV exposure. May lead to central scars, atrophy, telangiectasias, and hyper-/ hypopigmentation
- SUBACUTE CUTANEOUS LUPUS—up to 10% of lupus patients. Erythematous, slightly scaly papules that evolve into a papulosquamous or annular lesion over shoulders, forearms, neck, and upper torso. Usually no follicular plugging, hyperkeratosis, atrophy, pigment changes, and scarring
- LUPUS PROFUNDUS—firm, painful nodules over scalp, face, arms, chest, back, thighs, and buttocks
- LUPUS TUMIDUS—chronic violaceous papules and plaques or nodule lesions over areas exposed to the sun
- BULLOUS LESIONS—photosensitivity
- LIVEDO RETICULARIS—SEE SPECIFIC ENTITIES
- NAIL LESIONS—up to 25% of lupus patients. Changes include pitting, ridging, onycholysis and lunula (redness of half-moon), periungual erythema
- MUCOUS MEMBRANE ULCERS

BASIC

- BLOOD TESTS—CBC, ANA, ENA, dsDNA
- SPECIAL

INVESTIGATIONS

- SKIN BIOPSY
- рокрнукіа workup—porphyrin, urine porphyrin

MANAGEMENT

TREATMENT UNDERLYING CAUSE—remove offending agent, sun protection. Topical steroid ointments and topical calcineurin inhibitors (tacrolimus) for localized cases. Antimalarials (hydroxychloroquine, chloroquine) for widespread cases. Systemic immunosuppressants or biologics for refractory cases

Borucki et al. Expert Rev Clin Pharmacol 2020;13(1)

Related Topics

Systemic Lupus Erythematosus (p. 304) Porphyria (p. 484)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

CENTRAL FACIAL TELANGIECTASIA OR ERYTHEMA—common causes include rosacea, dermatomyositis, SLE, dermatitis (seborrheic, atopic, contact), glucocorticoid-induced dermal atrophy, flushing

TELANGIECTASIA—common causes include sun damage, aging, hypertension, alcoholism, diabetes, rosacea, amyloidosis, lupus, other rheumatic diseases, and ataxia telangiectasia

LIVEDO RETICULARIS

- cAuses—vascular (polyarteritis, SLE, livedo vasculitis, cryoglobulinemia, antiphospholipid antibody syndrome, atherosclerosis, syphilis, TB), hyperviscosity (polycythemia, thrombocytosis, macroglobulinemia), congenital, cerebrovascular disease (Sneddon syndrome), idiopathic
- CLINICAL FEATURES—reddish-cyanotic, reticular patches over the arms, legs, and torso, particularly in cold environments. May progress to vascular occlusion with ischemia and tissue infarction (livedo vasculitis with triad of purpuric macules, cutaneous nodules, and painful ulcerations)

LUPUS ALOPECIA

PORPHYRIA CUTANEA TARDA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—heterozygous deficiency of uroporphyrinogen decarboxylase, important for heme synthesis
- Associations—hemochromatosis, alcohol, HCV, HIV, estrogens, smoking, hemodialysis
- CLINICAL FEATURES—photodistributed blistering or superficial skin erosion (commonly on back of hands)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

 TREATMENTS—avoid exacerbating factors (alcohol, smoking, estrogens, iron supplements, drugs). Phlebotomy to reduce ferritin <20 ng/ mL is first line. Chloroquine, hydroxychloroquine. Avoid sunlight exposure until porphyrin levels are normalized

Drug Eruptions

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

EXANTHEMS

- ANTIBIOTICS—penicillins, sulfonamides, erythromycin, gentamicin
- ANTICONVULSANTS
- ALLOPURINOL
- GOLD

URTICARIA, ANGIOEDEMA

- IMMUNE IGE-MEDIATED—penicillins, cephalosporins, sulfonamides, local anesthetic agents, radiocontrast, transfusion, latex
- NON-IMMUNE BRADYKININ-MEDIATED—radiocontrast, ACE inhibitors
- MAST CELL DEGRANULATION—narcotics, muscle relaxants (atracurium, vecuronium, succinylcholine, curare), vancomycin

FIXED DRUG ERUPTION

- LAXATIVES—phenolphthalein
- ANTIBIOTICS—tetracyclines, sulfonamides, quinolones, penicillins
- ANTI-INFLAMMATORIES—NSAIDs, ASA
- DIURETICS—hydrochlorothiazide, loop diuretics
- ANTI-NEOPLASTIC AGENTS—methotrexate, vincristine, 5-fluorouracil
- отнекя—barbiturates, antimalarials

ERYTHEMA MULTIFORME, STEVENS– JOHNSON SYNDROME ★4A'S★

- ALLOPURINOL
- ANTIBIOTICS—sulfonamides, penicillins, cephalosporins
- ANTICONVULSANTS—phenytoin, carbamazepine, phenobarbital
- ANTI-INFLAMMATORIES—NSAIDs

CONTACT DERMATITIS—neomycin, benzocaine, paraben, ethylenediamine, formaldehyde, para-aminobenzoic acid

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

HYPERSENSITIVITY VASCULITIS

- ALLOPURINOL
- DIURETICS—furosemide, thiazide
- ANTIBIOTICS—penicillins, sulfonamides
- отнекs—cimetidine, hydantoin

PIGMENTARY CHANGES

- AMIODARONE
- ANTIBIOTICS—tetracycline, minocycline, antimalarials
- метаls—silver, mercury, gold
- others—TCA, quinine, oral contraceptives

INVESTIGATIONS

SPECIAL

- BLOOD TESTS—CBC (eosinophils), quantitative Ig (IgE increased), tryptase (marker of mast cell degranulation)
- ALLERGY TESTING—radioallergosorbent test, patch testing
- SKIN BIOPSY

MANAGEMENT

DISCONTINUE OFFENDING DRUG—see SPECIFIC ENTITIES for further details

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

EXANTHEMATOUS DRUG REACTION

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—the most common type of cutaneous drug reaction. Common offenders include penicillins, sulfonamides, carbamazepine, allopurinol and gold
- CLINICAL FEATURES—exanthematous rash usually appears within 14 days of drug initiation or 3 days of re-offending drug. The reaction is characterized by the development of symmetric, red, morbilliform rash almost always found on the trunk and extremities, which may be very pruritic. Usually lasts 1–2 weeks

 TREATMENTS—identification and cessation of the offending drug. Oral antihistamines for relief of itching. Topical glucocorticoids may speed up recovery. Oral and IV steroids may be used for severe symptoms

URTICARIA AND ANGIOEDEMA

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—urticaria involves the development of highly pruritic pink wheals. Angioedema is subcutaneous tissue swelling, most prominent on the face (lips, eyelids) and tongue
- TYPES—IgE-mediated type I hypersensitivity reactions occur within minutes to hours in sensitized patients and are classically associated with penicillin as well as cephalosporins and sulfonamides. Hypotension, bronchospasm, and laryngeal edema may accompany the rash. Immune-complex mediated reactions usually occur within 12-36 h of drug exposure in a sensitized individual. Common offenders are penicillins and immunoalobulins. Non-alleraic forms of urticaria and angioedema occur from druginduced bradykinin release and/or mast cell degranulation. The reaction typically occurs within 20-30 min of drug administration. Common drugs include NSAIDs, opiates, ACE inhibitors, calcium channel blockers, and radiocontrast
- TREATMENTS—cessation of the offending drug. Antihistamines and oral steroids may be used. For acute, life-threatening reactions, ABCs, O₂, *epinephrine* 0.5 mL of 1:1,000 (1 mg/mL) IM, repeat q5min as needed (consider epinephrine 0.01–0.02 mg/h IV for severe/refractory anaphylaxis), NS 1–2 L IV bolus, *salbutamol* 2.5 mg NEB q5min PRN, *dimenhydrinate* 25–50 mg IV, steroids (*methylprednisolone* 125 mg IV or *dexamethasone* 20 mg IV). Consider vasopressors if severe shock. Consult anesthesia if anticipate difficult intubation or ENT if urgent tracheostomy required

ACUTE GENERALIZED EXANTHEMATOUS PUSTULOSIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—an acute, pustular eruption that typically begins in the body folds and/or face and spreads over the trunk and extremities
- CLINICAL FEATURES—diffuse, sterile pustules with an edematous, erythematous background. Patients may appear ill with fever and leukocytosis. Most cases begin within 2–3 days of drug administration

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

 TREATMENTS—typically resolves within 2 weeks after the drug is stopped

FIXED DRUG ERUPTION

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—the appearance of a solitary erythematous patch or plaque within 30 min to 8 h after ingestion of a drug. Offending agents include antibiotics (tetracyclines, sulfonamides), analgesics (NSAIDs, salicylates), and yellow dyes
- CLINICAL FEATURES—erythematous, edematous plaques with a grayish center or bullae over genitalia (most common), lips, tongue, face, and acral areas. Characterized by presence of post-inflammatory hyperpigmentation and the recurrence at exactly the same site with reexposure. Lesions may be accompanied by itching or burning
- **TREATMENTS**—cessation of the offending drug and application of topical steroid ointment

CONTACT DERMATITIS

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—due to topical agents or contact. Type IV delayed hypersensitivity reaction causes allergic contact dermatitis. Nonimmunological chemical or physical irritation causes irritant contact dermatitis
- CLINICAL FEATURES—erythematous, papular, urticarial, or vesicular pruritic plaques over area of exposure. Well-defined shape correlates with the offending contactant (e.g. nickel, tape, antibiotic ointment). Lichenification with chronic exposure
- TREATMENTS—identify and avoid causative agent(s). Emollients (irritant contact dermatitis) and topical steroids (allergic contact dermatitis) may alleviate symptoms

HYPERSENSITIVITY VASCULITIS

- CLINICAL FEATURES—macules/papules on lower extremities or back evolving into palpable purpura, bullae, and/or necrosis. May also have fever, myalgia, and arthralgia
- ACR CRITERIA—age at disease onset >16 years, medication at disease onset, palpable purpura, morbilliform rash, biopsy including arteriole and venule. Need 3 of 5 criteria (sens 71%, spc 84%)
- TREATMENTS—discontinue offending drug

Related Topics Antibiotics (p. 270)

Penicillin Allergy (p. 274)

Erythema Nodosum

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF PAINFUL NODULES

PANNICULITIS—erythema nodosum, erythema induratum, Weber–Christian disease (relapsing febrile nodular panniculitis) INFECTIONS—bacteria, fungi CUTANEOUS VASCULITIS SUPERFICIAL THROMBOPHLEBITIS

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CAUSES OF ERYTHEMA NODOSUM

- INFECTIOUS—bacterial (streptococcal, yersiniosis), atypical (*Chlamydia pneumoniae*), TB, fungal (coccidioidomycosis, histoplasmosis, blastomycosis), leprosy
- INFLAMMATORY—IBD, SLE, Behçet
- INFILTRATIVE—sarcoidosis, Hodgkin lymphoma
- IATROGENIC—oral contraceptive pills, omeprazole, montelukast
- IDIOPATHIC

CLINICAL FEATURES

TYPICAL PRESENTATION—painful, erythematous nodules on the anterior surfaces of bilateral shins and sometimes thighs, trunk, and upper extremities. May evolve into bruise-like lesions that resolve without scarring over a 2–8-week

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

period. Other symptoms include polyarthralgia, fever, and malaise. Presence of GI symptoms and/ or hilar adenopathy may help in narrowing differential

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, antistreptolysin-O titer, ANA
- MICROBIOLOGY—wound C&S, throat C&S (for Streptococcus), TB skin test

IMAGING—CXR

- SPECIAL
- DEEP INCISIONAL BIOPSY

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

SYMPTOM CONTROL—NSAIDs, potassium iodide, glucocorticoids (beware of TB)

Related Topics

Tuberculosis (p. 267) Fungal Infections (p. 286) Sarcoidosis (p. 483)

Clubbing

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

RESPIRATORY—lung cancer, lung abscess, bronchiectasis, cystic fibrosis, empyema, mesothelioma, idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis, asbestosis

CARDIAC—cyanotic heart disease, subacute endocarditis

GI—colon cancer, esophageal cancer, inflammatory bowel disease, celiac disease, cirrhosis

OTHERS—hyperthyroidism (thyroid acropachy), hemoglobinopathies, local vascular disease, familial

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

MECHANISM—proliferation of the connective tissue between the nail matrix and the distal phalanx

STAGES—periungual erythema \rightarrow spongy nail bed \rightarrow loss of Lovibond angle \rightarrow increased phalangeal depth ratio \rightarrow hypertrophic osteoarthropathy

CLINICAL FEATURES

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE CLUBBING? INSPECTION—nail fold profile angle (angle

that nail projects from nail fold profile angle (angle that nail projects from nail fold, normal $\leq 176^\circ$, simplified to straight line of $<180^\circ$ for clinical use), **hyponychial nail-fold angle** (angle that nail directs toward the nail tip, normal $\leq 192^\circ$, simplified to $<190^\circ$ for clinical use), **phalangeal depth ratio** (distal phalangeal finger depth/ interphalangeal finger depth ratio normal ≤ 1), **Schamroth sign** (normal=diamond)

PALPATION—floating nail bed elicited by rocking the distal and proximal nail back and forth

APPROACH—if profile angle $\leq 176^\circ$, hyponychial angle $\leq 192^\circ$ and phalangeal depth ratio ≤ 1 , clubbing is unlikely. Inter-observer agreement of clubbing is highly variable among clinicians (κ 0.39–0.90). "The accuracy of clubbing as a marker of specific underlying disease has been

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

determined for lung cancer (likelihood ratio, 3.9 with phalangeal depth ratio in excess of 1.0) and for inflammatory bowel disease (likelihood ratio, 2.8 and 3.7 for active Crohn disease and ulcerative colitis, respectively, if clubbing is present)." **UPDATE**—clubbing in cystic fibrosis predictive of hypoxemia (LR+ 3.2)

Myers et al. JAMA 2001;286(3) Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination McGraw-Hill, 2009

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

IMAGING—CXR

SPECIAL

- сакріас worкup—ECG, echocardiogram
- OTHER ETIOLOGY WORKUP—CBC, TSH, AST, ALT, ALP, bili

Dupuytren Contracture

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

DIABETIC CHEIROARTHROPATHY (usually all four fingers) INTRINSIC JOINT DISEASE

DUPUYTREN CONTRACTURE VOLKMANN ISCHEMIC CONTRACTURE TRAUMATIC SCARS

PALMAR FASCIITIS—malignancy (usually bilateral)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

RISK FACTORS—alcoholism, smoking, diabetes, repetitive hand motions/vibrations, reflex sympathetic dystrophy, positive family history, Scandinavian/Northern European descent. Most patients are over 50 years of age.

4 STAGES—progressive fibrosis of the palmar fascia \rightarrow nodules form on the palmar fascia \rightarrow flexion deformity \rightarrow fibrosis of dermis leads to skin thickening

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

HYPERTROPHIC OSTEOARTHROPATHY clubbing and periarticular pain and swelling, most often affecting the wrists, ankles, and knees. Associated with bronchogenic cancer, chronic pulmonary infections, cystic fibrosis, and cyanotic congenital heart disease

Related Topics

Celiac Disease (p. 142) Inflammatory Bowel Disease (p. 140) Lung Cancer (p. 205)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—finger stiffness (duration, pain, function), past medical history (alcohol, diabetes, smoking, HIV), occupational history

PHYSICAL—most commonly involves the fourth and fifth digits. Triangular puckering of the dermal tissue over the flexor tendon just proximal to the flexor crease of the finger (earliest sign), skin blanching on active finger extension, palpable and visible nodules along flexor tendons, mild tenderness over nodules, fixed flexion contractures, reduced range of motion, tender knuckle pads over the dorsal aspect of the PIP joints

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL—padded gloves, stretching exercises for mild disease. Triamcinolone or lidocaine injection for moderate disease. Radiation, needle aponeurotomy, collagenase injection or surgery (fasciotomy or fasciectomy) for severe disease

13 GERIATRICS Diana Rucker



Geriatric-Specific Issues

THE FRAIL ELDERLY

THE CONCEPT OF FRAILTY—no single definition; frailty refers to a state of functional decline in which loss of physiologic reserve makes an individual susceptible to disability from minor stresses. Patients with frailty are at higher risk of complications, such as increased mortality, morbidity, and rates of institutionalization

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—not well understood; but possibly related to dysregulated immune and endocrine systems, which negatively affect muscle, immune function, metabolism, clotting, and cognition

SCREENING—Fried Physical Frailty Phenotype is based on self-reported exhaustion, gait speed, weight loss (>10 lbs), grip strength, and activity level. This instrument requires additional measurement tools and does not take into account cognition. Edmonton Frail Scale is based on the comprehensive geriatric assessment, and assesses multiple domains, including cognition, function, social support, nutrition, and comorbitities. Clinical Frailty Scale is a graded scale, scored from very fit to severely frail, and based on comorbidities and the need for help with ADLs

TREATMENT—tailored for a patient's specific needs and goals, such as caregiver support, exercise/rehab intervention, medication adjustments, etc

Buta et al. *Ageing Res* 2016;26 Rolfson et al. *Age Ageing* 2006;35(5)

COMPREHENSIVE GERIATRICS ASSESSMENT

In addition to a focused history and physical, special attention should be paid to the following domains, which provide important information for the geriatric assessment:

COMPREHENSIVE GERIATRICS ASSESSMENT (CONT'D)

FUNCTIONAL HISTORY—ADLs (mobility, bathing, dressing, toileting, transferring, maintaining continence, and feeding) and IADLs (transportation, shopping, phoning, laundry, cooking, accounting, housekeeping, m edications)

GERIATRIC SYNDROMES/GIANTS—falls (number and mechanism in last year) and mobility, presence of osteoporosis and previous fractures, chronic pain, pressure sores, sleep patterns, mood and behavioral problems, continence (urinary and fecal), nutrition (appetite and weight loss), hearing and visual impairment

COGNITIVE HISTORY—memory, language, executive function, praxis and visuospatial domains. Inquire about behavioral problems (anger, withdrawn, hoarding sundowning) and safety concerns (driving, using appliances, potential of abuse)

COMORBID CONDITIONS—in addition to the geriatric syndromes, inquire about the number and severity of co-existing diseases that are either life threatening or function limiting

POLYPHARMACY—number of medications, potential medications that can cause delirium and other significant side effects, adherence, assistance with medications, drug interactions (p. 428) SOCIAL HISTORY—living situation, education, work, family, caregivers at home (ask directly about caregiver stress or burn out), financial stability, access to transportation, personal directives COGNITIVE EXAMINATION—screen for cognitive impairment with the Mini-Mental State (MMSE) exam or Montreal Cognitive Assessment (MoCA). MMSE is limited in assessing executive function, which can further be evaluated with clock drawing, Frontal Assessment Battery (FAB)

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COMPREHENSIVE GERIATRICS ASSESSMENT (CONT'D)

and/or the EXIT test. Delirium can be assessed with the CAM score (see DELIRIUM p. 422)

COMPREHENSIVE GERIATRIC MANAGE-MENT—systematic evaluation by a team of health professionals with the aim of identifying treatable health problems and developing a treatment plan that addresses physical health, functional status, psychological health, cognition, and socioenvironmental factors:

| Discipline | Task(s) |
|----------------------------------|--|
| Dieticians | Nutrition and diet |
| Nurses | Education and assistance with ADLs, IADLs |
| Occupational therapists | Cognitive and functional assessments, ADL training |
| Pharmacists | Medication use |
| Physicians | Disease management, symptom management, communication and decision making, care planning |
| Physiotherapists | Training to increase, strength, endurance, coordination, mobility, and balance |
| Recreational therapists | Maintenance of social roles |
| Social workers | Counseling, evaluation, and disposition |
| Speech language therapists | Training in communication and therapy for swallowing disorders |

HEALTH CARE AND FINANCIAL PROXY

ADVANCE DIRECTIVE (living will)—a document created when the patient is competent. Allows direction of their care in future (e.g. regarding tube feeding, resuscitation status) if and when they are no longer capable of expressing their own wishes

PERSONAL DIRECTIVE—agent assigned, when patient competent, who can act on patient's behalf regarding decisions for personal care and accommodation when patient lacks capacity

POWER OF ATTORNEY—agent assigned, when patient competent, that can act on patient's behalf regarding finances when patient lacks capacity

HEALTH CARE AND FINANCIAL PROXY (CONT'D)

GUARDIANSHIP—created when patient is incompetent and personal directive not available. Guardian assists with decisions regarding personal care and accommodation

TRUSTEESHIP—created when patient is incompetent and power of attorney not available. Trustee assists with finances

COMPETENCY ASSESSMENT

ENSURE IT IS NECESSARY—usually requires a trigger (e.g. patient is no longer managing money wisely, needs long term care placement but not willing to go)

DIAGNOSED PHYSICAL/MENTAL ILLNESS chronic vs. acute

OBTAIN RELEVANT COLLATERAL INFORMA-TION—reliable? Ask what concerns them (ADLs, financial)

PERFORM FORMAL TESTING—ask patient details about comorbidities, ADLs, finances, medical condition, living will. Are their details consistent with reality?

The four elements required for capacity are:

- Understanding: the ability to comprehend, retain and recall information regarding nature of involvement, risks, alternatives, and effect on outcomes
- Appreciation: the ability to relate the information above to the patient's own situation, including risks and benefits of proposed situation
- 3. Reasoning: the ability to weigh the risks and benefits, and to justify a treatment
- 4. Expression: the ability to articulate a choice with consistency

INFORM AND ACT

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE MEDI-CAL DECISION MAKING CAPACITY?

| | LR+ | LR- | |
|----------------------------------|------|------|--|
| Physician Clinical Judgment | 7.9 | 0.61 | |
| Measures of Cognitive Ability | | | |
| MMSE <16 | 12 | - | |
| MMSE <20 | 6.3 | - | |
| MMSE 20–24 | 0.87 | - | |
| MMSE >24 | 0.14 | - | |
| Capacity Assessment Instruments | | | |
| Aid to Capacity Evaluation (ACE) | 8.5 | 0.21 | |

COMPETENCY ASSESSMENT (CONT'D)

| | LR+ | LR- |
|-------------------------------|-----|------|
| Hopkins Competency Assessment | 54 | 0 |
| Test (HCAT) | | |
| Understanding Treatment | 6.0 | 0.16 |
| Disclosure (UTD) | | |

APPROACH—physicians frequently do not identify patients who lack capacity, although capacity is necessary for informed consent. Capacity can be optimized by treating

COMPETENCY ASSESSMENT (CONT'D)

reversible disorders. Measures of cognition (e.g. MMSE) correlate with capacity but are not the only criterion. Multiple instruments are available for capacity assessment; the ACE instrument (understanding the problem, treatment proposed and alternatives, option to refuse treatment, possible consequences of accepting and not accepting treatment, presence of depression and psychosis) has been validated Sessums et al. JAMA 2011:306(4)

Mild Cognitive Impairment and Dementia

ntia Livingston et al. Lancet 2020;396(10248) Ismail et al. Alzheimers Dement 2020;16(8)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

MILD COGNITIVE IMPAIRMENT AND DEMENTIA

- MILD COGNITIVE IMPAIRMENT (MCI)—defined as some loss of cognition (ability to think, understand, and reason), but not interfering with function (ADLs and IADLs)
- ALZHEIMER DEMENTIA—general sequence of changes include mood alterations and slow progressive cognitive decline; primarily affecting memory, language and visuospatial domains early on; early motor symptoms rare but may have apraxia later; loss of functional autonomy, neuropsychiatric manifestations, and parkinsonism may be seen in more advanced disease. CT may show white matter change, mostly a diagnosis of exclusion, but accounting for 60% of dementias
- VASCULAR DEMENTIA—acute stepwise or slow progressive decline; may have focal neurological deficits; MMSE patchy; CT may show white matter change; pure vascular dementia uncommon; more frequently occurs with Alzheimer-like dementia (mixed dementia)
- LEWY BODY DEMENTIA progressive memory decline, parkinsonism, visual hallucinations, fluctuating cognition (especially attention/alertness), visuospatial domain often markedly impaired, supportive features include adverse hypersensitivity to typical antipsychotic medications, syn-

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

cope, falls, delusions, and REM sleep disturbance

- FRONTO-TEMPORAL LOBE DEMENTIA—age USUally <60; behavioral symptoms noticeable before cognitive impairment disinhibited or passive presentation, impaired judgment, significant social indifference, declining hygiene, prominent language deficits but amnesia less noticeable early on; early primitive reflexes/incontinence, late akinesia/ rigidity/tremor, impaired executive function, MMSE may be normal; CT shows frontal temporal atrophy
- PARKINSON DISEASE DEMENTIA—Parkinson disease diagnosed for more than one year prior to cognitive onset; slow decline; Parkinson patients have 6 × increased risk for dementia

PRION DISEASE—Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease POTENTIALLY REVERSIBLE DEMENTIA (<1%)

- METABOLIC—alcoholism, vitamin B12, thiamine deficiency, hypothyroidism, heavy metal toxicity, hepatic encephalopathy, uremia, Wilson disease
- STRUCTURAL—normal pressure hydrocephalus (NPH), subdural hemorrhage, neoplastic, vascular, stroke
- INFECTIONS—chronic meningitis, HIV, neurosyphilis, Whipple, Lyme disease
- INFLAMMATORY—vasculitis, multiple sclerosis
 DEMENTIA MIMICS—depression, delirium,
 developmental disorder, Parkinson plus
 syndromes

CLINICAL FEATURES

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES OF COMMON DEMENTIAS

| | | | Frontal- | |
|----------------------------------|--|---|--|--|
| | Alzheimer | Vascular | temporal lobe | Lewy body |
| Affected Cognitive Domains | Memory affected early on; global cognitive impairment over time | Patchy changes; often impaired executive function | Executive function impaired early on; behavioral symptoms prominent; compulsive and bizarre behavior | Visuospatial domains may be affected early on |
| Signs and Symptoms | Physical function often normal early on; apraxia occurs later on | Focal neurological signs (e.g. upgoing Babinski) | Positive primitive reflexes; apathy | REM sleep disorders, visual hallucinations, parkinsonian motor features, frequent falls, neuroleptic sensitivity |
| Screening | Tests for poor recall memory very sensitive, especially MoCA | Patchy deficits; greater executive dysfunction and less prominent memory dysfunction | Cognitive screens often normal | Visuospatial / constructional impairment |
| Imaging Findings | Hippocampal and medial temporal lobe atrophy | Previous strokes or small vessel ischemic changes | Often normal early on; progresses to variable frontal temporal atrophy | Generalized nonspecific cortical atrophy, PET shows hypometabolism, especially in occipital regions |
| Course | Gradual cognitive decline | Sudden stepwise regression | Insidious, early onset | Fluctuating with progressive decline |

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, creatinine, HbA1c, Ca, TSH, vitamin B12
- IMAGING—CT head

SPECIAL

- LABS—ALT, ALP, bilirubin, RBC folate, VDRL, HIV serology, urine collection for heavy metals
- CEREBROSPINAL FLUID—not routinely recommended, but sometimes used if early onset (<65 years) dementia

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: DOES THIS PATIENT HAVE DEMENTIA?

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

 MINI-MENTAL
 STATE
 EXAMINATION

 (MMSE)
 —orientation to place (5), time (5), immediate and delayed recall (6), spell "WORLD" backward (5), 3 step command (3), name two objects (2), close your eyes (1), repeat sentence "No ifs, ands, or buts" (1), write a sentence (1), intersecting pentagons (1). Maximum score is 30, generally <24 is impaired but varies with education and age</td>

MEMORY IMPAIRMENT SCREEN—recall four objects (an animal, a city, a vegetable, and a musical instrument). Two points for free recall of each object and one point if prompting needed ("Tell me the name of the city."). Maximum score is 8. Takes 4 min

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

| SELECTED TOOLS | | |
|--------------------|---------|-----------|
| | LR+ | LR– |
| MMSE | 6.3 | 0.19 |
| Reports from an | 6.5 | |
| informant that the | | |
| patient has memory | | |
| loss | | |
| Memory impairment | 33 | 0.08 |
| screen | | |
| Clock drawings | 1.2-7.7 | 0.13-0.71 |

APPROACH—to detect cognitive impairment of at least moderate severity, consider the Mini-Mental State Examination. If very little time is available, consider the Memory Impairment Screen or the Clock Drawing Test. If plenty of time is available, consider the Cambridge Cognitive Examination, Modified Mini-Mental State Examination, Community Screening Interview for Dementia, or the Montreal Cognitive Assessment

Holsinger et al. JAMA 2007;297(21)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

DSM-5 CRITERIA FOR MAJOR NEUROCOG-NITIVE DISORDER—most commonly used criteria in clinical practice. The term "major neurocognitive disorder" is used interchangeably with dementia:

- A decline in one or more cognitive domains: learning and memory, language, executive function, complex attention, perceptualmotor or social cognition
- 2. Cognitive deficits must impair at least one IADL
- Cognitive deficits do not occur during delirium and are not better explained by another psychiatric disorder

While declining memory was historically a central component of dementia, the DSM-5 places equal weight on all six cognitive domains. Note: vascular dementia, fronto-temporal lobe dementia, and Lewy body dementia have their own distinct criteria

BRIEF COGNITIVE TESTING BATTERIES used to quantify the severity of disease and brief enough to be done in a clinical setting. Cognitive screens cannot replace history obtained from family, and cannot assess mood and thoughts

 MMSE—30 point screening test. Traditional threshold ≤23 suggests dementia (LR+ 6-8) in the absence of delirium. Newer thresholds: ≤20 rules in dementia (LR+ 14.5), ≥26 rules out dementia (LR+ 0.1), 21–25 inconclusive. The scale is most sensitive for patients with mild to moderate dementia. Drawbacks are that it is poor at detecting MCI as well as frontal and executive deficits. It is confounded by age, education, and ethnicity. Use is limited by copyright, but the "standardized" MMSE is still free

- MoCA—also a 30 point test, but more sensitive for detecting MCI compared to MMSE, as it assesses executive function. MoCA scores are consistently lower than the MMSE; <25 is considered abnormal in patents with less than 12 years of education. Use of MoCA requires training course
- CLOCK DRAWING—a test of constructional apraxia that covers several cognitive domains. Several scoring methods: the Wolf–Klein method provides patient with paper and preprinted circle (4 in. in diameter) and instructions to "draw a clock." The time must always be stated as "10 after 11." "Normal" clock has numbers clockwise in correct order and near the rim, even without hands on clock. Abnormal clock drawing argues for dementia (LR+ 5.3). Normal clock drawing not useful (as half of demented patients can produce normal clock)

CRITERIA FOR PERFORMING NEUROIMAG-ING—age <60, rapid (1–2 months) unexplained decline in cognition or function, dementia of short duration (<2 years), unexplained neurological symptoms (e.g. new onset headache or seizures), early incontinence/gait disorder (NPH), recent head trauma, history of cancer, use of anticoagulants or history of bleeding disorder, new localizing signs, unusual or atypical cognitive symptoms or presentation (e.g. progressive aphasia), significant vascular risk factors

- ANATOMICAL—MRI generally preferred over CT, due to higher sensitivity for vascular lesions. If CT performed, non-contrast study assessing hippocampal volume preferred
- FUNCTIONAL—PET amyloid imaging helpful for diagnosing Lewy body dementia, but limited by costs

MANAGEMENT

RISK REDUCTION—strongest evidence is for physical activity and treatment of hypertension (see HYPERTENSION p. 70). Also consider consuming Mediterranean diet, treating hearing impairment, avoiding sleep deprivation (<5 hrs), treating

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

obstructive sleep apnea, cognitive training, social engagement, and avoiding air pollutants, but no RCT evidence for these latter interventions

DISEASE MANAGEMENT—acetylcholinesterase inhibitors may be considered for Alzheimer and mixed dementias, including *donepezil* 5–10 mg PO nightly, *rivastigmine* 1.5–6 mg PO BID, and *galantamine ER* 8–24 mg daily. Avoid if seizures, cardiac conduction abnormalities, significant asthma, CHF, COPD, or recent GI bleed. **N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor antagonist**, *memantine* 5–10 mg PO BID, may be used for moderate-to-severe dementia as a single agent or as add-on therapy to an acetylcholinesterase inhibitor, and can be especially helpful for ameliorating behavioral symptoms

SYMPTOM MANAGEMENT—treat problem behaviors with non-pharmacological and pharmacological approaches (trazodone, atypical antipsychotics). Treat co-existing depression

TUBE FEEDING—generally not recommended for advanced dementia because of increased complications without evidence of clinical benefit (e.g. survival, quality of life, prevention of aspiration pneumonia, reduction of pressure sores or infections, functional improvement)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

LESS COMMON CAUSES OF DEMENTIA

- NORMAL PRESSURE HYDROCEPHALUS (NPH)
 - PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—inflammation and fibrosis of the arachnoid granulations → decreased absorption of CSF → hydrocephalus → nor-

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

mal opening pressure but elevated pressure over periventricular white matter tracts

- causes—idiopathic or secondary (e.g. subarachnoid hemorrhage, chronic meningitis)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—classic triad of gait apraxia (magnetic gait as feet are stuck to floor), urge incontinence, and cognitive decline. Also may have postural instability, lower extremity spasticity, hyperreflexia, and extensor plantar responses
- DIAGNOSIS—clinical diagnosis and MRI. Improvement of gait or cognition 1 h after removal of 30–50 mL of CSF can be helpful for diagnosis (Fisher test, PPV 90–100%, NPV 30–50%). An improvement also predicts responsiveness to shunting
- ткеатментя—lumbar puncture, shunts (ventriculoperitoneal, ventriculoatrial, lumboperitoneal)
- PARKINSON-PLUS SYNDROMES—include progressive supranuclear palsy, multiple system atrophy and corticobasal ganglionic degeneration
- CREUTZFELDT—JAKOB DISEASE—rapid progression, characteristic EEG, myoclonic jerks, and expected death in 6–12 months
- HUNTINGTON DEMENTIA—autosomal dominant with incomplete penetrance; premorbid DNA testing quantifies risk, severity, and age of onset

CORTICONUCLEAR DEGENERATION—marked visual–spatial impairment, substantial apraxia, but memory impairment less noticeable

Delirium

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

★DIMS★ DRUGS ★ABCD★

- ALCOHOL—intoxication, withdrawal, Wernicke–Korsakoff syndrome
- ANTICHOLINERGICS—atropine, benztropine, scopolamine
- ANTIDEPRESSANTS—SSRIs, TCAs
- ANTICONVULSANTS—carbamazepine, phenytoin, valproate, phenobarbital
- ANALGESICS—opioids, NSAIDs, steroids
- ANTIBIOTICS—penicillins, quinolones, sulfonamides, isoniazid, rifampin, streptomycin, chloroquine, acyclovir
- ANTI-HISTAMINES—cimetidine, famotidine, ranitidine

Inouye NEJM 2006;354(11)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

- BENZODIAZEPINES AND BARBITURATES—intoxication, withdrawal
- CARDIAC—amiodarone, β-blockers, digoxin, diuretics
- DOPAMINE AGENTS—amantadine, bromocriptine, levodopa

INFECTIOUS—pneumonia, UTI, meningitis, encephalitis, abscess, sepsis

METABOLIC

- ORGAN FAILURE—hepatic, azotemia, hypothyroidism or thyrotoxicosis, hypoxia, hypercapnia, hypothermia, hypertensive
- ELECTROLYTE IMBALANCE—ketoacidosis, glucose (hypo, hyper), hyponatremia, hypernatremia, hypomagnesemia, hyper-calcemia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

STRUCTURAL

- HEMORRHAGE—subarachnoid, epidural, subdural, intracerebral
- **stroke**—basilar
- TUMOR
- ABSCESS

SEIZURES—non-convulsive status epilepticus, post-ictal

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

HOSPITALIZATION—elderly hospitalized patients are at high risk of developing delirium: 15% of all medical and surgical inpatients become delirious (with up to 30% of those on geriatric wards and 50% of patients after hip fracture)

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES BETWEEN DELIRIUM AND DEMENTIA

Often affected

Usually affected

May be affected

| Onset Course |
|-------------------|
| Duration |
| Level of consciou |
| Attention span |
| Orientation |

Memory

CT head

Delirium Abrupt Fluctuating, usually reversible Davs to weeks

irreversible Vears Hyperactive or hypoactive Usually affected Usually affected May be normal; structural changes

Dementia Insidious Slowly progressive and usually Affected in late stages Affected in late stages White matter changes, atrophy

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

sness

DELIRIUM SUBTYPES

- HYPERACTIVE DELIRIUM—characterized by agitation and/or hallucinatory symptoms
- MIXED DELIRIUM—variable course with alternating hyperactive and hypoactive features. The majority of patients with delirium fall under this category
- HYPOACTIVE DELIRIUM—characterized by excessive drowsiness and decreased level of consciousness. May mimic depression

COMPLICATIONS—delirium can have a negative impact on patients' quality of life, symptom expression, emotions, and decision-making ability. Delirium is associated with a 25-30% mortality, increased morbidity, increased length of stay, and need for a higher level of care

CLINICAL FEATURES

CONFUSION ASSESSMENT METHOD (CAM)—positive test argues strongly for delirium

(LR+10.3) and negative test argues against delirium (LR-0.2). Positive test requires both major criteria 1+2 and either of the minor criteria 3 or 4 *AIDS*

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

- 1. ACUTE ONSET AND FLUCTUATING CONFUSION-abnormal behaviors come and go, \uparrow/\downarrow severity
- 2. INATTENTION-difficulty focusing/difficulty following conversation (serial subtraction with distraction)
- 3. DISORGANIZED THINKING—rambling, irrelevant, illogical conversation
- 4. SENSORIUM CHANGE (ALTERED LOC) agitated, hyperalert, lethargic, stuporous, or comatose

EXAMINATION OF THE DELIRIOUS PATIENT—in addition to general physical and neurological examinations, obtain a baseline MMSE (useful for monitoring)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, Cr, glucose, Ca, thiamine
- URINE—urinalysis •
- IMAGING—CXR, CT head
- MICROBIOLOGY—urine C&S, blood C&S (if any fever)

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

SPECIAL

- метавоцс workup—TSH if suspect thyroid disease, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, ammonia if suspect liver disease, Mg, PO₄
- саярлас worкup—ECG, CK, troponin if suspect ACS
- SEIZURES WORKUP—EEG
- DRUG OVERDOSE WORKUP—urine drug screen, medication serum levels (e.g. digoxin, phenytoin, salicylate, acetaminophen), alcohol level, serum osmolality (osmolar gap)
- мелілдітіs workup—lumbar puncture

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

PERSISTENT DELIRIUM—if delirium persists despite basic workup, think through differential diagnosis again (very carefully). A suddenonset of delirium after initial improvement is usually due to underlying infection. Severe hyperactive delirium is usually drug-related, or due to alcohol or benzodiazepine withdrawal. Ask caregivers/family about baseline coanitive changes or pre-existing sundowning. Also consider dehydration, depression, urinary/fecal retention, abscess, sleep deprivation, environmental factors (i.e. hospitalization) as potential contributors. Inadequate pain control has also been proposed as a precipitant of delirium

MANAGEMENT

PREVENTION—ensure adequate O₂, fluid and electrolyte balance, pain management, reduction in use of psychoactive drugs, bowel and bladder function, nutrition, early mobilization, prevention of postop complications, stable orientating environment, treatment of symptoms of delirium, and optimizing sleep

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—discontinue offending medications. Delirium may take days/ weeks to resolve even after the precipitating cause is removed and treated

NON-PHARMACOLOGICAL MEASURES reduce noise, orient patient frequently, early mobilization, provide proper hearing and visual

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

aids, provide clock/calendar and familiar objects (personal photos) and people (family), supervision for meals, restoration of day–night cycle (optimal lighting during day, promote sleep hygiene at night), avoidance of unnecessary interventions (physical or chemical restraints, urinary catheters, central lines)

PHARMACOLOGICAL MEASURES—neuroleptics are often used for restlessness/agitation, visual hallucinations or unsafe behavior. Indications for antipsychotics need to be reassessed on a daily basis. High potency antipsychotics are generally preferred because of their low anticholinergic activity and minimal effect on blood pressure. First generation antipsychotics (haloperidol 0.25-2 mg PO/IV/SC g4-6h, chlorpromazine 12.5–25 mg IV g4–6h) have been extensively studied but are associated with extra-pyramidal side effects. Second generation antipsychotics have been shown to be equivalent in efficacy (olanzapine 2.5–10 mg PO daily PRN, quetiapine 25 mg PO BID PRN). In patients with Parkinson or Lewy body dementia, quetiapine is preferred due to its lower risk of extrapyramidal symptoms. Benzodiazepines may precipitate or worsen delirium and should generally be avoided except for patients with terminal agitated delirium, alcohol or benzodiazepine withdrawal

TREATMENT ISSUES

CONSENT FOR TREATMENT—if patient delirious and need to clarify direction of care, try to find agent for personal directive and/or proxy. If not available, consider calling closest family to discuss treatment options

Related Topics

Alcohol Withdrawal (p. 478) Hypercalcemia (p. 388) Meningitis (p. 257) Metabolic Acidosis (p. 94) Overdose (p. 120)

Falls

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

SYNCOPE—neurogenic, cardiogenic, neurocardiogenic

DROP ATTACKS—transient vertebrobasilar insufficiency

POSTURAL HYPOTENSION CONFUSION—delirium DIZZINESS—vertigo, disequilibrium FALLS—accidental, imbalance

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

PREDISPOSITION TO FALLS IN ELDERLY-

multi-factorial in nature; 50% of patients who fall do so repeatedly. Multiple falls are a marker for other underlying factors, including chronic diseases and functional disability

- HIGHER CORTICAL/CNS—decreased reaction time
- **VESTIBULAR SYSTEM**—decreased balance
- VISUAL SYSTEM presbyopia, decreased peripheral vision, and accommodation
- AUTONOMIC SYSTEM postural hypotension
- somatosensory system—decreased sensation, proprioception, vibration perception
- MUSCULOSKELETAL SYSTEM weakness
- GAIT INCOORDINATION—Parkinson, cerebellar ataxia, stroke, NPH
- MEDICATIONS (strongest risk factor for falls)— SSRIs, TCAs, neuroleptics, anticonvulsants, benzodiazepines, class IA antiarrhythmics, narcotics
- ENVIRONMENT
- PRECIPITANTS—infection, infarction, medications, social stress

COMMUNITY DWELLING—41% of falls secondary to environment (trips, slips), 13% weakness or gait/balance disorder

NURSING HOME DWELLING—26% of falls secondary to weakness, gait/balance disorder, 16% environment related

COMPLICATIONS—institutionalization, fear of recurrent falls, prolonged immobility (risk for dehydration, pressure sores, pneumonia, rhabdo-myolysis), and death

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—★SPLAT★ Symptoms associated with fall (circumstances, onset, frequency), Previous falls, Past medical history, Location, Activity preceding fall, Toxins (meds), and Trauma PHYSICAL—vitals (postural HR and BP, temperature), cardiovascular (murmurs, rhythm, volume status), respiratory (adventitious sounds), Gregg et al. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 2000; 48(8) Tinetti *NEJM* 2003;348(1)

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

musculoskeletal (strength in knee/hip extensors, joint stability and range of motion, pain, feet, footwear, walking aids), neurologic (focal signs, vision/ hearing, cerebellar, sensory), cognitive exam (MMSE, CAM)

EVALUATION OF GAIT AND BALANCE

- TIMED UP AND GO TEST—rise from chair, walk 10 ft (3 m), turn, and return to chair. Should finish in less than 10 s. If takes >20 s, further evaluation required
- TINETTI PERFORMANCE-ORIENTED MOBILITY ASSESS-MENT (POMA)—easy to administer, incorporates gait and balance scales to identify high risk of falls, score ≤20/28 predictive of recurrent falls
- SELF-REPORTED HISTORY—(1) Have you fallen two or more times? (2) Have you presented to the emergency department with a fall? (3) Do you have problems with walking or balance? A positive answer to any of these questions indicates a high-risk for falls

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: WILL MY PATIENT FALL?

| Fallen in the past year | 2.3-2.8 |
|-----------------------------------|---------|
| Clinically detected abnormalities | 1.7–2.4 |
| of gait or balance | |

Age, visual impairment, medication variables, decreased activities of daily living, and impaired cognition did not consistently predict falls across studies. Orthostatic hypotension did not predict falls after controlling for other factors

APPROACH—"Screening for risk of falling during the clinical examination begins with determining if the patient has fallen in the past year. For patients who have not previously fallen, screening consists of an assessment of gait and balance. Patients who have fallen or who have a gait or balance problem are at higher risk of future falls."

Ganz et al. JAMA 2007;297(1)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, Cr, glucose, TSH, CK, urinalysis
- IMAGING—CT head

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

SPECIAL

- саярые worкup—orthostatic vitals, ECG, Holter monitor if suspect arrhythmia
- SEIZURES WORKUP—EEG
- NEUROLOGIC WORKUP—EMG/NCS if significant weakness thought to be related to peripheral lesion

MANAGEMENT

PREVENTION—education (shoes with thin soles, avoid hot tubs, drink 1.5–2 L/day, getting up slowly). **Exercise** (balance and gait training,

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

muscle strengthening, day programs). Environmental assessment (remove loose rugs, nonslip bath mats, lighting, stair rails). Tapering and discontinuation of medications, if appropriate. Referral (physiotherapy, occupational therapy, ophthalmology, geriatrics, cardiology if appropriate). Treatment and prevention of osteoporosis (see OSTEOPO-ROSIS p. 389)

Osteoporosis

Urinary Incontinence

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF CHRONIC URINARY INCONTINENCE

URGE (most common. Sudden, uncontrollable. Associated with urinary frequency and nocturia)

- IDIOPATHIC
- NEUROLOGIC/DETRUSOR HYPERREFLEXIA—normal pressure hydrocephalus, dementia, stroke
- GU BLADDER/DETRUSOR INSTABILITY—infection, stone, tumor, inflammation

STRESS (small volumes with \uparrow abdominal pressure, e.g. coughing, sneezing, laughing)

- URETHRAL HYPERMOBILITY—childbirth, menopausal
- SPHINCTER WEAKNESS—post-TURP

OVERFLOW (over-distended bladder, small volumes but continuous leakage, incomplete emptying)

- BLADDER OUTLET OBSTRUCTION—BPH, prostate cancer
- URETHRAL/BLADDER NECK STRICTURE
- DETRUSOR HYPOCONTRACTILITY—peripheral neuropathy, alcohol, herniated disc, spinal stenosis, fibrotic detrusor

MIXED/DETRUSOR HYPERACTIVITY WITH IMPAIRED CONTRACTILITY (DHIC)—combines symptoms of urge and overflow incontinence with frequency and large volume, usually late stages of above (e.g. BPH or diabetes mellitus) Hogan CMAJ 1997;157(8) Rogers NEJM 2008;358(10)

See OSTEOPOROSIS (p. 389)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF CHRONIC URINARY INCONTINENCE (CONT'D)

FUNCTIONAL (reduced mobility, inability to ambulate to toilet)

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF TRANSIENT URINARY INCONTINENCE

*DIAPERS * DELIRIUM INFECTION—symptomatic UTI ATROPHIC VAGINITIS/URETHRITIS PROSTATE PHARMACY—diuretics, benzodiazepines, alcohol PSYCHOLOGICAL ENDOCRINE—hypercalcemia, diabetes mellitus, diabetes insipidus RESTRICTED MOBILITY STOOL IMPACTION

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

PHYSIOLOGY OF URINATION

- DETRUSOR MUSCLES—parasympathetic S234 (contract), β2 sympathetic T10-L2 (relax)
- INTERNAL SPHINCTER—α1 sympathetic T10-L2 (contract)
- EXTERNAL SPHINCTER—somatic S234 (contract)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

| RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: WHAT TYPE OF URINARY INCON- TINENCE DOES THIS WOMAN HAVE? | | | |
|--|-------------------|------|--|
| | LR+ | LR- | |
| STRESS INCONTINENCE | | | |
| Simple question: "Do you lose urine during sudden physic exertion, lifting, coughing o sneezing?" | 2.2 al or | 0.39 | |
| Filled bladder stress test (fill bladder with 200 cc of salin supine, and observe while cough) | 9.4 e, | 0.07 | |
| Systematic assessment | 3.7 | 0.20 | |
| URGE INCONTINENCE | | | |
| "Do you experience such a stro and sudden urge to void th you leak before reaching th toilet?" | ng 4.2 at e | 0.48 | |

APPROACH—" ... a systematic approach that includes a history, physical examination, and stress test increases the likelihood of correctly classifying the type of incontinence... The most helpful component of the assessment for determining the presence of urge incontinence is a history of urine loss associated with urinary urgency...." A filled bladder stress test "may be helpful for diagnosing stress incontinence... For primary care physicians unable to perform stress tests in their office, it would be reasonable to refer patients for further evaluation when a diagnosis is needed with more certainty. Measurement of the post-void residual urine volume detects incomplete bladder emptying, but no data support using this in women for separating out incontinence type."

Holroyd-Leduc et al. JAMA 2008;299(12)

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- **VOIDING DIARY**—with frequency and volume
- LABS—lytes, Cr, glucose, Ca, urinalysis
- MICROBIOLOGY—urine C&S

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

 POST-VOID RESIDUAL VOLUME—to determine if bladder outlet obstruction or reduced detrusor contractility

SPECIAL

 URODYNAMIC STUDIES—cystometry, urinary flow measures, and urethral pressure profiles

MANAGEMENT OF CHRONIC URINARY INCONTINENCE

GENERAL MEASURES—avoid alcohol and caffeine, weight loss (if overweight/obese), minimize anticholinergics, sedatives, and diuretics (if possible), supervised pelvic floor physiotherapy several times a day (but not appropriate for cognitively impaired or those with significant frailty), prompted or scheduled voids (including double voiding), bedside urinal/commode (if restricted mobility)

- ABSORPTIVE PADS—incontinence pad or adult diapers
- CATHETERIZATION—indwelling catheter, condom catheter, timed collection, intermittent self-catheterization

MEDICATIONS

- URGE OR MIXED INCONTINENCE—antimuscarinics (tolterodine 1–2 mg PO BID, solifenacin 5–10 mg PO daily, or darifenacin 7.5–15 mg PO daily) are generally well-tolerated in older females and those with frailty. Should be reviewed after 8 weeks, and discontinued if no improvement. Common side effects include dry mouth, constipation and dizziness. Renal dosing advised. β3 adrenoreceptor agonist (mirabegron 25 mg PO daily, increased to 50 mg PO daily after 8 weeks if needed), as an alternative if antimuscarinincs not tolerated. Risk of urinary retention if combined with antimuscarinic. Renal dosing advised
- OVERFLOW INCONTINENCE—α1-adrenorecptor antagonists (tamsulosin 0.4–0.8 mg PO nightly, terazosin 1–5 mg PO nightly, or doxazosin 1–4 mg PO nightly) for symptomatic benign prostatic hypertrophy. 5-α reductase inhibitors (finasteride or dutasteride) if prostate volume >40 mL
Pharmacological Issues in the Elderly

PRINCIPLES OF DRUG USE IN THE ELDERLY

PRINCIPLES OF PHARMACOLOGY—elderly are at increased risk of adverse drug reactions because of altered physiology of aging, multiple co-existing illnesses, reduced homeostatic reserve, polypharmacy, and medical error. Of the 4 key components of pharmacokinetics (absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion), only the last 3 are meaningfully affected by age. Pharmacokinetic changes are related to decreased renal (most important) and hepatic function (phase I reactions ↓, phase II reactions unaffected), decreased lean body mass (↑ fat), decreased total body water, and increased total body fat

COMPLICATIONS—falls, delirium, incontinence, renal impairment, heart failure, gastrointestinal hemorrhage, hypoglycemia, drug–drug interactions

PRESCRIBING PRINCIPLES—initiate most medications at half usual starting dose, increase dose slowly. Carry out regular medication reviews and stop any unnecessary medications. Avoid medications with known significant side effects in the elderly. Avoid treating adverse drug reactions with further drugs

UNDER-PRESCRIBING IN THE ELDERLY

REASONS FOR UNDER-PRESCRIBING under-recognition of medication benefit in older patients, affordability, and dose availability (i.e. requiring a dose of medication that is smaller than supplied by the manufacturer, resulting in more complicated dosing strategies such as once every other day)

OVER-PRESCRIBING IN THE ELDERLY

POLYPHARMACY AND DRUG INTERAC-TIONS—57% of elderly use >5 drugs per week, 19% use >10 drugs per week; 1 in 25 are at risk for major drug-drug interaction, nearly half involve use of anticoagulants or antiplatelet agents

BEERS LIST 2019—list of designated drugs that fall in one of three categories: 1) should **always** be avoided (e.g. barbiturates); 2) drugs that are potentially inappropriate (e.g. glyburide), and 3) drugs

Beers Expert Panel. J Am Geriatr Soc 2019;67 Thevelin et al. Drugs Aging 2019;36(5)

OVER-PRESCRIBING IN THE ELDERLY (CONT'D)

that should be used with caution (e.g. SSRIs). Several deficiencies in the Beers criteria have been noted including potential drug-drug interactions and prescribing-omission errors. The STOPP (Screening Tool of Older Persons' Prescriptions) and START (Screening Tool to Alert to Right Treatment) were consequently developed. These criteria are organized by physiological systems

SUPPLEMENTS—49% of elderly use herbal or dietary supplements and are at increased risk of herb–drug interaction (e.g. ginkgo biloba and warfarin resulting in increased bleeding risk)

AVOID TREATING ADVERSE DRUG REAC-TIONS WITH FURTHER DRUGS — medications are often inappropriately prescribed to symptomatically treat side effect of another medication. For example, metoclopramide → extrapyramidal effects → levodopa. Metoclopramide users are >3 times more likely to be prescribed levodopa compared to non-users, a treatment generally reserved for management of idiopathic Parkinson disease

COMMON ADVERSE DRUG REACTIONS AND DRUG-DRUG INTERACTIONS

CHARACTERISTIC SIDE EFFECTS OF DRUGS FREQUENTLY USED IN THE ELDERLY Drugs Adverse effects

| α1 blockers (e.g. doxazosin) | Falls, orthostatic hypotension, dry mouth |
|--|---|
| Anticholinergics (e.g. diphenhydramine) | Delirium, urinary retention, constipation, dry mouth, blurred vision, postural hypotension |
| Benzodiazepines (e.g. lorazepam) | Falls, confusion |
| NSAIDs (e.g. indomethacin) | Gastrointestinal irritation and hemorrhage, renal impairment, hypertension, heart failure |

COMMON ADVERSE DRUG REACTIONS AND DRUG-DRUG INTERACTIONS (CONT'D)

| Drugs | Adverse effects |
|----------------------|---------------------|
| Sulfonylureas | Hypoglycemia |
| (chlorpropamide) | |
| Tricyclic | Falls, orthostatic |
| antidepressants | hypotension, |
| (e.g. amitriptyline) | sedation, delirium, |
| | arrhythmias |

WARFARIN INTERACTIONS—many medications implicated in increasing bleeding risk († INR) with warfarin. Most severe interactions described with trimethoprim–sulfamethoxazole, erythro-

COMMON ADVERSE DRUG REACTIONS AND DRUG-DRUG INTERACTIONS (CONT'D)

mycin, amiodarone, propafenone, ketoconazole, fluconazole, itraconazole, metronidazole. Antibiotics, acetaminophen, steroids, and ginkgo biloba may also increase bleeding risk

GRAPEFRUIT JUICE INTERACTIONS—grapefruit interferes with drugs that are metabolized by CYP3A4, including statins (simvastatin/lovastatin > atorvastatin), calcium channel blockers, and benzodiazepines

HEART FAILURE PRECIPITANTS AND EXACERBANTS—NSAIDs (>2 times risk for admission for HF, correlating with dose of drug), thiazolidinediones, sodium polystyrene sulfonate

14 PALLIATIVE CARE David Hui

Palliative Care-Specific Issues

Hui et al. CA Cancer J Clin 2018;68(5)

INTRODUCTION

DEFINITION OF PALLIATIVE CARE—according to the World Health Organization, palliative care is "an approach that improves the quality of life of patients and their families facing the problem associated with life-threatening illness, through the prevention and relief of suffering by means of early identification and impeccable assessment and treatment of pain and other problems, physical, psychosocial and spiritual... Palliative care is applicable *early* in the course of illness, in conjunction with other therapies that are intended to prolong life, such as chemotherapy or radiation therapy, and includes those investigations needed to better understand and manage distressing clinical complications"

DEFINITION OF END OF LIFE—6 months or less of life expectancy

DEFINITION OF TERMINALLY ILL—6 months or less of life expectancy

RELIEF OF SUFFERING—suffering is defined as "the state of severe distress associated with events that threaten the intactness of the person." Living with advanced disease inevitably involves variable degrees of physical, psychosocial, and existential suffering. Palliative care aims at alleviating this suffering through the provision of interdisciplinary comprehensive care from the time of diagnosis to death

INTRODUCTION (CONT'D)

TIMELY REFERRAL TO PALLIATIVE CAREpalliative care teams have significant expertise in managing symptoms, providing psychosocial and spiritual care, facilitating complex communication and decision making and supporting caregivers. Because patients with life-limiting diseases such as advanced stage cancer, COPD, heart failure, chronic kidney disease, and liver failure often have significant symptom burden and other supportive care needs throughout the disease trajectory, these patients should be referred to palliative care from the time of diagnosis rather than only in the last weeks or months of life. In randomized controlled trials, timely outpatient palliative care referral can significantly improve quality of life, increase patient and caregiver satisfaction, reduce psychological distress, facilitate care planning and enhance the overall guality of care

SYMPTOM COMPLEX AND ASSESSMENT

SYMPTOM COMPLEX—patients with advanced disease typically experience multiple symptoms at the same time. In addition to underlying disease and associated symptom burden, expression of symptoms is modulated by patients' psychosocial and existential distress, cultural background, personality, past experiences, and comorbidities

| SYMPTOM PREVAL | ENCE IN TERMIN | ALLY ILL PATIENTS |
|----------------|----------------|-------------------|
| | | |

| Symptom | Cancer (%) | AIDS (%) | Heart failure (%) | COPD (%) | CKD (%) |
|------------|------------|----------|--------------------|----------------|--------------|
| Pain | 35–96 | 63-80 | 41–77 | 34–77 | 47–50 |
| Depression | 3–77 | 10-82 | 9–36 | 37–71 | 5–61 |
| Delirium | 6–93 | 30–65 | 30–65 | 18–32 | 18–33 |
| Fatigue | 32–90 | 54-85 | 69–82 | 68–80 | 73–87 |
| Dyspnea | 10–70 | 11–62 | 60–88 | 90–95 | 11–62 |
| Anorexia | 30–92 | 57 | 21–41 | 35–67 | 25–64 |
| | | | Solano et al. J Pa | in Symp Manage | e 2006;31(1) |

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SYMPTOM COMPLEX AND ASSESSMENT (CONT'D)

COMPREHENSIVE PALLIATIVE CARE ASSESSMENT—given the intricate nature of interaction between the physical, psychosocial, and existential, it is important to perform regular screening to accurately assess and manage symptoms

- SYMPTOM BATTERY—Edmonton Symptom Assessment Scale (ESAS, numeric rating scale of 0–10 for 10 symptoms including pain, fatigue, nausea, depression, anxiety, drowsiness, appetite, well-being, shortness of breath, and sleep), Memorial Symptom Assessment Scale (MSAS), Palliative Care Outcome Scale (POS)
- DELIRIUM—Memorial Delirium Assessment Scale, Confusion Assessment Method
- CAGE—history of substance use (ever) may guide opioid therapy, potential marker of psychosocial distress
- FUNCTION—ECOG performance status, Karnofsky performance scale (KPS), and palliative performance scale (PPS). Performance status has prognostic utility and is one of the key factors in care planning (e.g. discharge location, initiation or termination of treatment, need for home care)
- отнекs—falls, suicidal ideation, spirituality, caregiver distress, illness understanding, prognostic awareness, care planning

DEPRESSION IN THE PALLIATIVE SETTING

DIAGNOSIS—**somatic symptoms** (anorexia, fatigue, insomnia, weight loss) are less useful for diagnosis of depression since they are common in patients with advanced cancer. The diagnosis of depression depends on **psychological symptoms** (worthlessness, guilt, anhedonia, hopelessness, decreased will to live and suicidal ideation) for at least 2 weeks. Rule out hypothyroidism, hypercalcemia, hypoactive delirium, and medication side effects

SCREENING—given the high prevalence of depression, it is important to conduct routine screening. The Patient Health Questionnaire-2 (PHQ-2) has two questions ("Over the last 2 weeks, how often have you been bothered by the following problems?" (1) Little interest or pleasure in doing things; (2) feeling down, depressed or hopeless? Answers include "not at all" [0 points], "several days" [1 point], "more than half the days" [2 points], and "nearly every day" [3 points]).

DEPRESSION IN THE PALLIATIVE SETTING (CONT'D)

Patients who score 3 or more points on PHQ-2 should be further evaluated by PHQ-9 or an indepth interview

TREATMENTS—expressive/supportive counseling, cognitive behavioral therapy, antidepressants (mirtazapine 15–45 mg PO nightly, paroxetine 10–20 mg PO daily, fluoxetine 10–20 mg PO daily, sertraline 25–100 mg PO daily, fluvoxamine 50–200 mg PO daily, escitalopram 10 mg PO daily), **psychostimulants** (methylphenidate 5–10 mg PO daily, dextroamphetamine, pemoline)

CARE FOR CAREGIVERS

EMPHASIS ON CAREGIVERS—palliative care is unique among medical disciplines in placing a particular emphasis on the well-being of family caregivers. This is because caregivers play a crucial role caring for their loved ones both physically and emotionally, and their well-being is often one of the key concerns for patients. Caregivers are at risk of developing psychosocial distress themselves, given the physical burden of providing care, the emotional burden of seeing their loved ones suffer, and the financial burden of costly treatments. Moreover, many patients develop delirium close to the end of life, necessitating substitute decision making

INTERVENTIONS FOR CAREGIVERS—specific interventions may include (1) information sharing to facilitate care planning, (2) psychological interventions and self-management strategies for family members, (3) family meetings to help update all parties involved and to define goals of care, and (4) support groups and bereavement counseling

COMMUNICATION IN THE PALLIATIVE SETTING

Patients and their families need to have a sound understanding of their disease, treatment options, and prognosis to make decisions. The section on "Communication Issues" (p. 443) covers a number of basic techniques in breaking bad news. For further information, readers are referred to a review that covers various communication topics related to the end of life, including discussion of diagnosis, prognosis, treatment decisions, advance care planning, transition of care, and preparing for death and dying

Back et al. Cancer 2008;113(7 Suppl)

DECISION MAKING IN THE PALLIATIVE SETTING

Patients with advanced disease have to face many difficult decisions that are not only highly complex but also emotionally charged. One of the key roles of palliative care is to guide patients through the maze of difficult choices by providing individualized recommendations, taking into account the patient's preferences, health state, treatment options, and resources

MEDICAL DECISIONS AT THE END OF LIFE initiation or discontinuation of treatments (e.g. chemotherapy, supplemental nutrition, life support), resuscitation orders (in-hospital, out-ofhospital), hospice referral (prognosis of 6 months or less and willingness to forgo life-sustaining treatments)

PERSONAL DECISIONS AT THE END-OF-LIFE—living arrangements as disease progresses (e.g. home, hospital, hospice; if home, may need to consider family support, hired help, and/or home care, to arrange hospital bed at home and to ensure bathroom safety), personal directive, power of attorney, saying "good bye" to loved ones, completing specific tasks, will, funeral arrangements, care of family after death (especially children)

SPIRITUALITY IN THE PALLIATIVE SETTING

DEFINITION—relationship with oneself, with others (family, friends), and with God (or other supreme being/deity)

SPIRITUAL NEEDS OF THE DYING

- SEARCH FOR MEANING OF LIFE AND HOPE—provide time for personal reflection, spending quality time with family, reminiscing, legacy projects (e.g. dignity therapy), and life review
- TO DIE APPROPRIATELY—minimize pain and suffering, not to prolong death, not to be a burden on family
- LEGACY AND IMMORTALITY—ensure family are cared for, explore religious or other belief systems in order to give the reassurance of immortality, religious rituals (i.e. chaplains)

FACILITATION—listen, acknowledge, explore, reflect, integrate

SPIRITUAL HISTORY ★ SPIRIT★

- SPIRITUAL BELIEF SYSTEM
- PERSONAL SPIRITUALITY
- INTEGRATION WITH A SPIRITUAL COMMUNITY
- RITUALIZED PRACTICES/RESTRICTIONS

SPIRITUALITY IN THE PALLIATIVE SETTING (CONT'D)

- IMPLICATIONS FOR MEDICAL CARE
- TERMINAL EVENTS PLANNING

PITFALLS—AVOID trying to solve patient's problems or resolving unanswerable questions, going beyond a physician's expertise and role, imposing own religious beliefs, or providing premature reassurance

RESOURCES—caregivers, spiritual counselors, chaplains, faith community

Sulmasy JAMA 2006;296(11)

DIAGNOSIS OF IMPENDING DEATH

DEFINITION OF IMPENDING DEATH—irreversible physiologic changes in a context of far advanced disease, suggesting the patient is in the last days of life (typically 3 days or less)

CHALLENGE—clinicians are usually reluctant to make the diagnosis if any hope of improvement exists, particularly if no definitive diagnosis has been established. When recovery is uncertain, it is better to discuss this with patient and family. It is important to understand that the diagnosis of impending death can be made, knowing that there may still be a small chance of prolonged survival in some patients

TELL-TALE SIGNS OF IMPENDING DEATH

- EARLY SIGNS—these signs are more commonly observed compared to late signs, typically start days to weeks before death, and have only have a moderate sensitivity/ specificity for impending death. They include poor performance status (being bed bound), decreased level of consciousness, delirium, and dysphagia/anorexia/cachexia
- LATE SIGNS—these signs are less common compared to early signs, mostly occur within the last 3 days of life, and have a very high specificity (>95%) and positive likelihood ratio (~10) for impending death within 3 days. They include the following:
 - NEUROMUSCULAR CHANGES—inability to close eyelids, non-reactive pupils, drooping of nasolabial fold, hyperextension of neck, death rattle, grunting of vocal cords
 - NEUROCOGNITIVE CHANGES—decreased response to verbal/visual stimuli, respiration with mandibular movement, Cheyne-Stokes breathing

DIAGNOSIS OF IMPENDING DEATH (CONT'D)

- CARDIOVASCULAR CHANGES—pulselessness of radial artery, peripheral cyanosis, and decreased urine output
- APPLICATION—absence of early signs is useful to rule out impending death, while presence of late signs is useful to rule in impending death

Hui et al. Oncologist 2014;19(6) Hui et al. Cancer 2015;121(6)

MEDICATION ADMINISTRATION IN THE PALLIATIVE SETTING

SUBCUTANEOUS ROUTE—preferred over intravenous route because it is associated with greater comfort, fewer complications, less

MEDICATION ADMINISTRATION IN THE PALLIATIVE SETTING (CONT'D)

maintenance, and medications can be given at home. Indwelling subcutaneous catheter may be used for convenience and patient comfort. Disadvantages include less rapid onset of medication effects. This route is only suitable for some medications (need to check before administration)

HYDRATION—hypodermoclysis rate is typically 1–2 mL/min per needle site. Contraindicated if severe edema, severe bleeding disorder, or severe thrombocytopenia

Principles of Pain Control

TYPES OF PAIN

NOCICEPTIVE PAIN—somatic (musculoskeletal pain, fractures, arthritis, bone metastases), visceral (obstruction, liver metastases)

NEUROPATHIC PAIN—dysesthetic (constant burning), neuralgic/lancinating (paroxysms of shooting pain) PSYCHOGENIC PAIN

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF PAIN—an unpleasant sensory and emotional experience associated with actual or potential tissue injury or described in terms of such damage. The concept of total pain is the sum of all physical, emotional, psychosocial, and spiritual pain

PREVALENCE OF CANCER PAIN—approximately 80% of cancer patients experience some form of pain during their course of illness; the causes of pain vary and may include cancer (~70%), cancer treatments (~25%) and chronic non-malignant pain (~35%). Many patients have more than one type of pain

TOLERANCE—normal pharmacophysiological effect in which increasing doses of opioids are required to provide the same analgesic effect over time

DEPENDENCE—normal pharmacophysiological effect with the development of withdrawal symptoms (e.g. agitation, pain, fever, sweats, tremor, tachycardia) if opioid is stopped abruptly after a prolonged period of use. In general, a minimum of one-third of total daily

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

opioid dose is required to prevent withdrawal symptoms

NON-MEDICAL OPIOID USE-use of opioid "without a prescription or in greater amounts, more often, or longer than prescribed, or for a reason other than (prescribed)." Behaviours that may indicate aberrant use include excessive self increase, inappropriate early opioid refills, illicit drug use, preference for specific opioids, obtaining opioids from unauthorized sources, opioid sharing, stolen opioids, doctor shopping, pharmacy shopping, and diversion. Although the majority of patients using analgesics as prescribed will not get addicted and should be reassured, approximately 10–20% of patients (with a history of substance use, CAGE positive) are at risk of developing non-medical opioid use. These individuals may be prescribed an ever escalating dose of opioid without adequate pain control

CHEMICAL COPING—the use of opioids or other psychotropic medications (e.g. benzodiazepines) to cope with emotional distress and is characterized by inappropriate and/or excessive use. Chemical coping is one form of non-medical opioid use

SUBSTANCE USE DISORDER—abnormal psychopathological compulsion to use a substance affecting daily function. In addition to education on safe opioid use, these patients need to be monitored frequently (e.g. weekly or every 2 weeks if necessary), have routine and/or random urine drug screening, and careful titration of analgesics to optimize their function

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

DISTINGUISHING FEATURES OF PAIN

| | Somatic | Visceral |
|------------|--------------------|-------------------------------|
| Location | Localized | Poorly localized, referred |
| Nature | Aches | Squeezing, cramping |
| Analgesics | Opioids, NSAIDs | Opioids |

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

CAUSES OF INTRACTABLE CANCER PAIN disease progression, neuropathic pain, bone pain, breakthrough pain, delirium, substance use, depression/anxiety, and somatization (i.e., psychosocial/existential distress)

MANAGEMENT

IMPORTANT NOTE—it is critical to make the proper diagnosis of pain based on presentation. The management of cancer-related pain is very different from non-malignant pain

NON-OPIOIDS (first line for non-malignant pain or mild cancer pain)—acetaminophen 650 mg PO q4h, NSAIDs (*ibuprofen* 300–800 mg PO TID-QID) may be particularly useful for bone metastases, hypertrophic pulmonary osteoarthropathy, soft tissue infiltration, arthritis, serositis, and postoperative pain. Consider ceiling dose effect. Common side effects include gastritis, peptic ulceration, hypertension, fluid retention, renal dysfunction (pre-renal, AIN), impaired platelet function. COX-2 inhibitors are associated with decreased risk of gastric ulceration and platelet dysfunction, but potentially higher risk of cardiovascular events

WEAK OPIOIDS (mild-moderate cancer pain) in opioid naïve patients, consider codeine 30–60 mg PO q4h, acetaminophen/codeine 325 mg/30 mg 1–2 tabs PO q4h, acetaminophen/ hydrocodone 325 mg/5–10 mg PO q4h, tramadol 50–100 mg PO q4–6h

STRONG OPIOIDS (moderate/severe cancer pain)—in opioid naïve patients, consider morphine sulfate contin 15 mg PO q12h and 7.5 mg PO q2–4h PRN (max 6 doses a day). Other options include oxycontin 10 mg PO q12h and 5 mg PO q2–4h PRN, hydromorphone extended release 8 mg PO daily and 2 mg PO q2–4h PRN (max 6 doses a day), oxymorphone, fentanyl, or methadone. Patients with severe cancer pain may be started with strong opioids up front instead of non-opioids or weak opioids

PROCEDURES—surgical interventions (celiac plexus/splanchnic block, subarachnoid block, cor-

Neuropathic

Radiation, dermatome

Shooting, burning Opioids, gabapentinoids, TCAs, antiepileptics, venlafaxine

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

dotomy, epidural/intrathecal infusion, vertebroplasty) may be added to any line as needed

ADJUVANT THERAPIES

- MEDICATIONS MITIGATING ADVERSE EFFECTS OF OPIOIDS—start bowel protocol (senna 1–4 tabs PO BID) and consider anti-nausea (metoclopramide 10 mg PO q4h) at the same time of opioids. Methylphenidate 5–10 mg PO qAM and 5–10 mg q noon may be used for opioid sedation
- TRICYCLIC ANTIDEPRESSANTS (neuropathic pain) nortriptyline 25 mg PO nightly initially, increase by 25 mg/day every week if tolerated, target 75 mg PO nightly-BID
- ANTICONVULSANTS (neuropathic pain, opioidinduced myoclonus)—gabapentin 100–300 mg PO TID, pregabalin 100 mg PO TID, carbamazepine 100 mg PO BID, phenytoin 100 mg PO TID
- ANTISPASMODICS—baclofen 10 mg PO TID for muscle spasms
- ANTINEOPLASTIC TREATMENTS (cancer pain) chemotherapy, radiation (external beam radiation for focal tumor infiltration, Strontium⁸⁹, or Samarium¹⁵³ for multifocal osteoblastic bone metastases), hormonal agents
- BISPHOSPHONATES (bone metastases, hypercalcemia)—pamidronate 60–90 mg in 500 mL NS IV over 4–6 h, zoledronate 4 mg IV
- CORTICOSTEROIDS (acute nerve/spinal cord compression, visceral distension, increased intracranial pressure, and soft tissue infiltration)—dexamethasone 8–10 mg PO BID

OTHERS—physical therapy (massage, acupuncture, trigger point injection), psychological therapy (relaxation, imagery, biofeedback)

TREATMENT ISSUES

OPIOID USE

 STARTING DOSE—start with short-acting opioids, which are usually given q4h around the clock, with breakthroughs (10–20% of total daily dose) given q1–2 h (see table below). May need to increase scheduled dose if ≥3 breakthroughs/day

- ROUTE—for regular opioids, PO is preferred over SC/IV. IV/SC dose=½ of PO dose for most opioids
- MAXIMUM DOSE—there is no absolute number for the ceiling dose of opioids that can be given. This is only limited by opioid toxicity. Any patient on morphine equivalent dose of 100 mg/day or more should be monitored closely and provided with naloxone prescription
- MAINTENANCE—if patient on stable dose of opioids, may consider switching to slow release (SR) formulations or fentanyl patch for convenience and improved compliance. Long-acting opioids provide similar pain control as shortacting opioids
- TITRATING DOWN—if patient did not require any rescue opioids and pain is well controlled, consider decreasing regular dose by 25–50% every 1–7 days to optimally control pain with minimum opioid dose
- cautions—avoid meperidine because of high toxicity from metabolites. Avoid fentanyl patch for unstable pain (although fentanyl infusion can be useful)

OPIOID TOXICITY

 ADVERSE EFFECTS—common side effects include constipation, nausea, fatigue and somnolence. While somnolence may resolve within a few days, patients do not develop tolerance to constipation and would require laxatives throughout opioid treatment. Patients receiving high doses of opioids may develop neurotoxicity, which include myoclonus, hyperalgesia, delirium, hallucinations, and cognitive impairment. Respiratory depression is **not** an expected side effect of opioids, except in cases of opioid overdose. Long-term side effects include secondary adrenal insufficiency, hypogonadism, sexual

EQUIANALGESIC TABLE

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

dysfunction, osteoporosis, immunosuppression and peripheral edema. Methadone may also cause QT prolongation and ECG monitoring is recommended

 TREATMENT OF OPIOID TOXICITIES—ensure adequate hydration, opioid rotation, exclude underlying aggravating metabolic factors (uremia, liver failure, hypercalcemia), and symptom management (e.g. prevent and treat nausea and constipation)

OPIOID ROTATION—common reasons for rotation include opioid-induced neurotoxicities (sedation, nightmares, hallucinations, myoclonus), poor analgesic response despite high opioid doses, and logistical factors (e.g. loss of oral route, cost considerations). Remember to dose reduce by 25–50% to account for cross-tolerance

MITIGATING NON-MEDICAL OPIOID USE (NMOU)—all patients on opioids should be educated on safe opioid use, storage and disposal. They should be monitored longitudinally (e.g. monthly visits) to titrate opioids based on symptom control, function and the overall risk: benefit ratio. Validated tools such as the Screener and Opioid Assessment for Patients with Pain (SOAPP) and Opioid Risk Tool (ORT) may be used at baseline for risk-stratification and to determine the intensity of monitoring. In addition to history and physical, random urine drug screens, pill counts, and prescription monitoring programs can provide objective information during monitoring visits. The decision to continue/discontinue opioids in patients with demonstrated NMOU needs to be personalized. If the decision is to continue opioids, more frequent visits (with smaller prescriptions) and referral to psychology, psychiatry, palliative care and/or addiction medicine is warranted

| | Ratio ^a | Starting | q1–2 h PRN | Route | |
|---|---|------------------|------------|-------------|--|
| Codeine ^b | 0.1 | 30–60 mg q4h PRN | - | PO/PR | |
| Hydrocodone ^c | 1 | 5–10 mg q4h PRN | - | PO | |
| Morphine | 1 | 5 mg q4h | 2.5–5 mg | PO/PR/SC/IV | |
| Hydromorphone | 5 | 1–2 mg q4h | 0.5–1 mg | PO/PR/SC/IV | |
| Oxymorphone | 3 | 5 mg q8h | 2.5 mg | PO | |
| Oxycodoned | 1.5 | 5 mg q4h | 2.5 mg | PO/PR/SC | |
| Fentanyl drip | 100 | 10–50 μg/h | 25 µg | IV | |
| Methadone | 2-20 ^e | 5 mg q8–12 h | - | PO/PR/IV | |
| Higher number indicates greater potency | | | | | |
| Tylenol #1_3 – acetar | Tylepol $\#1-3 = acetaminophen plus codeine with or without caffeine$ | | | | |

Vicodin, Lortab, Norco = acetaminophen plus hydrocodone

vicouni, contab, Norco – acetaniniophen pius nyurocouol

^dPercocet = acetaminophen plus oxycodone

See methadone conversion table below

FENTANYL DURAGESIC CONVERSION

| Fentanyl TD (µg/h) | Morphine PO (mg) |
|--------------------|------------------|
| 25 | 45–134 |
| 50 | 135–224 |
| 75 | 225-314 |
| 100 | 315-404 |
| 125 | 405–494 |
| 150 | 495–584 |

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- CONVERSION BETWEEN FENTANYL PATCH (IN μg/H) AND ORAL MORPHINE (IN mg/Day)—consider using a ratio of 3.6, e.g. fentanyl patch of 25 μg/h is equivalent to 25×3.6=90 mg of oral morphine/day
- CONVERSION BETWEEN INTRAVENOUS FENTANYL AND INTRAVENOUS MORPHINE—consider using a ratio of 10 μg: 1 mg
- BIOAVAILABILITY OF FENTANYL IS HIGHLY VARIABLE transdermal 90%, sublingual 65%, and transmucosal (lozenge) 50%

METHADONE CONVERSION

| 1. DETERMINE THE DOSE EQUIVALENT | |
|--|--|
| Oral morphine equivalent daily dose (mg/day) | Initial dose ratio (morphine: methadone) |
| <30 | 2:1 |
| 30–99 | 4:1 |
| 100–299 | 8:1 |
| 300–499 | 12:1 |
| 500–999 | 15:1 |
| >1000 | 20:1 or greater |
| | |

2. DETERMINE THE SCHEDULE

| | Day 1 | Day 2 | Day 3 | Day 4 |
|------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Morphine (MS) | 66% | 33% | 0% | 0% |
| or other opioids | TDD | TDD | TDD | TDD |
| Methadone (ME) | 33% | 66% | 100% | 100% |
| | TDD | TDD | TDD | TDD |
| Breakthrough | 10% | 10% | 10% | 10% |
| | w/ morphine | w/ morphine | w/ morphine | w/ morphine |

TDD total daily dose, breakthrough dose is 10% of TDD. Methadone is usually given q12h, sometimes q8h. Start low and go slow is the key for using methadone. Pay close attention to sedation during methadone conversion and be prepared to reduce dose if necessary. To improve tolerability with conversion, consider spreading out to a dose change every 3 days instead of every day. Due to its complex pharma-cology, methadone should only be prescribed by clinicians familiar with this drug

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

PROGNOSTIC FACTORS FOR POOR PAIN CONTROL—somatization, substance use, cognitive impairment, neuropathic pain

SPECIFIC SITUATIONS

RENAL FAILURE—methadone is hepatically
 excreted and not dialyzable. Thus, methadone is

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

the drug of choice for patients with renal failure and/or on dialysis. Other opioids for patients with renal failure include fentanyl (excreted unchanged by the kidneys with no intermediate metabolites) and hydromorphone (more potent and thus fewer toxic metabolites)

NEUROPATHIC PAIN—opioids are effective against neuropathic pain. Methadone is theoretically more useful because of its NMDA antagonist

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

activity. Also consider use of non-opioids such as gabapentin, pregabalin, carbamazepine, venlafaxine, and TCAs

Delirium

Cancer-Related Fatigue

CAUSES

ALTERED PHYSIOLOGY—cytokine dysregulation, serotonin neurotransmitter dysregulation, HPA axis dysfunction, circadian rhythm disruption, vagal afferent activation, alterations in muscle ATP metabolism

CONTRIBUTING FACTORS ★ASTHENIC★

- ANEMIA, ANOREXIA
- SLEEP DISTURBANCES, SHORTNESS OF BREATH
- THROBBING PAIN
- неад—depression, anxiety
- ELECTROLYTES—Na, K, Mg, Ca
- NUTRITIONAL FAILURE—anorexia—cachexia
- INACTIVITY
- COMORBIDITIES—cardiac/pulmonary failure, hepatic/renal failure, neurologic/endocrine failure (hypothyroidism, hypogonadism, adrenal insufficiency), infections

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION—a distressing, persistent, subjective sense of tiredness or exhaustion related to cancer or cancer treatment that interferes with usual functioning. Cancer-related fatigue is distinct from everyday tiredness as it does not correspond to the patient's level of exertion and is not typically relieved by rest or sleep. Although fatigue has not been as well studied in other palliative care settings, the underlying pathophysiology and treatments are believed to be similar to cancer-related fatigue

PREVALENCE—cancer-related fatigue is essentially present throughout the cancer journey, including 40% at diagnosis, 80–90% during cancer treatment, 30% 1-year post-treatment,

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

75% with metastatic disease, and >90% at the end of life. It is often under-diagnosed and under-treated

CLINICAL FEATURES

SCREENING—"How would you rate your fatigue on a scale of 0–10 over the past 7 days?"

| 0 | Absence of fatigue |
|------|--------------------|
| 1–3 | Mild fatigue |
| 4–6 | Moderate fatigue |
| 7–10 | Severe fatique |

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, TSH, Mg, Ca, albumin, 25-hydroxyvitamin D

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—provide proper management of pain, depression, sleep disturbance (sleep hygiene, cognitive behavioral therapy), anemia, electrolyte imbalance, nutritional concerns, vitamin deficiency, polypharmacy, organ dysfunction and other comorbidities, if applicable

NON-PHARMACOLOGIC—aerobic or resistive exercise for at least 30 min/day for 5 days a week (strongest evidence); yoga; psychosocial interventions (self-management, activity pacing)

PHARMACOLOGIC—*methylphenidate* 5–10 mg PO qAM and noon; corticosteroids (*dexamethasone* 4 mg PO BID for 2 weeks)

See DELIRIUM (p. 422)

Dyspnea in the Palliative Setting

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS OF ACUTE DYSPNEA

RESPIRATORY

- ракемснума—pneumonia, ARDS, lymphangitic carcinomatosis, lung cancer
- AIRWAY—COPD exacerbation, asthma exacerbation, acute bronchitis, bronchiectasis, obstruction (cancer)
- vascular—pulmonary embolism, pulmonary hypertension, SVC obstruction
- PLEURAL—pleural effusion, pneumothorax

CARDIAC

- MYOCARDIAL—HF exacerbation, myocardial infarction
- VALVULAR—aortic stenosis, acute aortic regurgitation, endocarditis
- PERICARDIAL—pericardial effusion, tamponade
 SYSTEMIC—sepsis, metabolic acidosis, anemia

OTHERS—neuromuscular (cachexia), anxiety, tense ascites

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION—a subjective experience of breathlessness related to patient's physical, mental, emotional, and social circumstances. Degree of dyspnea has only has low correlation with physical findings, such as tachypnea, wheezing, cyanosis, and O_2 saturation

HISTORY—remember to ask if dyspnea is episodic or continuous (at rest). If episodic, what are the triggers and how long do they last? Assess the level of distress and functional limitation associated with dyspnea

INVESTIGATIONS (IF APPROPRIATE)

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, D-dimer
- місковіоLоду—sputum Gram stain/AFB/C&S
- IMAGING—CXR, CT angiogram, V/Q scan

SPECIAL

- ECG—if suspect ACS
- ABG—judicious use in the palliative care setting

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—palliative radiation and/or chemotherapy may be used in specific cases

NON-PHARMACOLOGICAL—fan blowing in face (may add cool cloth to fan), self-management strategies, positions (e.g. leaning forward, standing against wall), breathing techniques (e.g. abdominal

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

breathing, purse-lip breathing), relaxation techniques, distraction therapy

PHARMACOLOGICAL—supplemental **O**₂ if hypoxemic, **opioids** (similar for pain control, although the starting doses may be lower. If already on opioids, may increase dose by 25%. No difference shown between q4h dose and infusion), **corticosteroids** (*dexamethasone* 4–8 mg PO BID if structural causes), **bronchodilators** (if bronchoconstriction), **non-invasive ventilation** may be beneficial for patients with hypercapnia and/or significant respiratory muscle weakness, **high flow oxygen** (up to 80 L/min of humidified oxygen via nasal prongs) for patients with severe hypoxemia. **Palliative sedation** as a last resort

PROCEDURES—if significant pleural effusion, consider thoracentesis, pleurodesis, or indwelling pleural catheters

TREATMENT ISSUES

PALLIATIVE SEDATION

- DEFINITION—the use of medications to relieve intolerable suffering from refractory symptoms through sedation. Refractory symptoms are defined as those for which all possible treatment has failed or it is estimated that no methods are available for palliation within the time frame and the risk-benefit ratio that the patient can tolerate
- INDICATIONS—when suffering (delirium/agitation, dyspnea, pain) persists despite all other means; not to be confused with euthanasia.
 Must ensure detailed discussion with patient (if possible), family, and the interprofessional palliative care team prior to initiation of treatment with clear documentation
- MEDICATIONS—benzodiazepines (midazolam start at 1 mg/h IV/SC, titrate to achieve sedation, lorazepam), neuroleptics (e.g. haloperidol, chlorpromazine, methotrimeprazine [good for delirium and may be combined with midazolam]), propofol (intravenous access required, may be used temporarily)
- ETHICS—palliative sedation is permissible when the primary intention is relief of suffering, even if survival may be shortened (i.e., the doctrine of double effect). However, systematic reviews showed that palliative sedation is not associated with shortened survival

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

DEATH RATTLE—due to patient's inability to clear upper respiratory secretions. Patient's family should be reassured that this does not indicate that the patient is dyspneic or in distress. Treatments to decrease respiratory secretions include re-positioning, Trendelenburg for a minute then general oropharyngeal suction, *glycopyrrolate* 0.2 mg SC q4–6 h or 0.4–1.2 mg/day SC/IV, *hyoscine hydrobromide/scopolamine* 0.8 mg SC initially, then 0.2–0.6 mg SC q1h PRN, total 0.8–2 mg/day, or *hyoscine butylbromide/buscopan* 10–20 mg SC/IV/IM q4h, max 100 mg/day

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

BREATHING PATTERN CHANGES IN DYING PATIENTS—reassurance should be provided to the patient's family that breathing pattern changes described below are not associated with dyspnea, as the patient is unconscious

- CHEYNE-STOKES BREATHING—cyclic variation in rate and depth of breathing with apneic spells. Causes include bilateral cerebral damage, HF, uremia, drug-induced respiratory depression
- KUSSMAUL BREATHING—rapid, deep, and regular breathing. Causes include mid-brain and pontine infarction/hypoxia, exercise, anxiety, metabolic acidosis
- ATAXIC BREATHING—irregular breaths with long apneic periods caused by medullary damage

Nausea and Vomiting in the Palliative Setting

INVESTIGATIONS (IF APPROPRIATE)

BLOOD TESTS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, Ca, Mg, PO₄, cortisol URINE TESTS—urinalysis MICROBIOLOGY—urine C&S IMAGING—CXR, AXR (rule out bowel obstruction and constipation)

Related Topic

Nausea and Vomiting (p. 127)

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—bowel obstruction (decompression, octreotide), constipation (bowel regimen), opioid use (opioid rotation), hypercalcemia (hydration, bisphosphonates)

NAUSEA CONTROL

- FIRST LINE (D2 blockade)—*metoclopramide* 10 mg PO/SC/IV q4h and q1h PRN or *prochlorperazine* 10 mg PO/IV q4h and q1h PRN. Avoid if complete bowel obstruction
- SECOND LINE
 - H1 вLOCKADE—dimenhydrinate 50 mg PO/ SC/IV q4h or diphenhydramine 50 mg PO/ SC/IV q4h
 - 5HT3 ANTAGONISTS—ondansetron 8 mg PO daily-TID for chemotherapy-induced nausea and vomiting

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

- NEUROLEPTICS—methotrimeprazine 5–25 mg PO TID, chlorpromazine 10–25 mg PO q4h
- steroids—dexamethasone 4–10 mg PO/ SC/IV BID
- CANNABINOID AGONISTS—nabilone 1 mg PO daily may also be considered
- **PROMOTILITY AGENTS**—*domperidone* 10 mg PO TID-QID
- THIRD LINE (more D2 blockade)—switch metoclopramide to IV/SC infusion 60–120 mg/day. Also consider adding haloperidol 1–2 mg IV/ SC q8–12 h and q1h PRN

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

BOWEL OBSTRUCTION IN THE PALLIA-TIVE SETTING

- PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF MALIGNANT BOWEL OBSTRUC-TION—3% of all advanced cancers, particularly ovarian (11–42%), colorectal (5–24%), gastric, endometrial, prostate, and bladder. If inoperable, survival is typically only a few months
- CAUSES—intraluminal (mass, constipation, intussusception), luminal (carcinomatosis causing dysmotility, bowel infarction), and extraluminal (compression, adhesions)
- CLINICAL FEATURES—nausea and vomiting, abdominal distension and pain, obstipation, absent bowel sounds
- DIAGNOSIS—AXR or CT abdomen

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

MANAGEMENT

 supportive measures—intravenous fluids, bowel rest, pain control (opioids), corticosteroids (dexamethasone 4-8 mg IV q12h), antiemetics (metoclopramide 10 mg IV q4h if no complete obstruction, haloperidol 1-2 mg IV g4h), antimuscarinic agents (hvoscine butylbromide/buscopan

- 10-20 mg PO/IV/IM TID, atropine), somatostatin analogues (octreotide 10 µg/h IV or 50 µg SC g8h), NG suction (clump when output <100 cc/day and ensure no further N&V before removal). Consider venting PEG tube insertion
- BYPASS OBSTRUCTION—surgery, colonic stent placement

Constipation in the Palliative Setting

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

DUODENUM

DIET—low fiber, dehydration

PSYCHIATRY—depression, somatization, obsessive compulsive disorder

OBSTRUCTION—cancer, strictures, adhesions DRUGS—opioids, TCAs, neuroleptics, antihistamines, calcium channel blockers, iron, antacids

ENDOCRINE—diabetes, hypothyroidism, hypercalcemia, hypokalemia, hypomagnesemia, uremia NEUROLOGIC—spinal cord compression/injury, Parkinson disease, multiple sclerosis, stroke, autonomic neuropathy (cachexia-anorexia syndrome) UNKNOWN/MISCELLANEOUS—immobility, irritable bowel syndrome (IBS), amyloidosis, scleroderma

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CONSTIPATION IN THE PALLIATIVE CARE SETTING—the most common causes are opioids, other medications, dehydration, and immobility. Even if there is no food intake, a small amount of stool is produced everyday due to shedding of intestinal epithelium. It is important to rule out bowel obstruction

RISK FACTORS FOR CONSTIPATION—old age, female sex, intraabdominal malignancies, opioids use

COMPLICATIONS OF CONSTIPATIONabdominal pain, distension, nausea and vomiting, overflow diarrhea, hemorrhoids, anal fissures, confusion/delirium, fear of opioid use

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

IMAGING-AXR SPECIAL

worкup—lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, Mg, Ca, albumin, TSH

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

CONSTIPATION SCORE—constipation remains a clinical diagnosis and the role of abdominal X-ray remains controversial because existing scoring methods have poor inter-rater reliability. If used, they should be augmenting clinical diagnosis. First, divide into 4 quadrants (ascending, transverse, descending, and rectosigmoid colon). Second, rate the amount of stool in each quadrant from 0 to 3. A total score >6/12 suggests constipation may be present

Related Topic Constipation (p. 143)

MANAGEMENT

PREVENTION IS KEY—a prescription for laxatives (e.g. senna 1-4 tabs PO g12h to start with) should **always** be given to the patient when starting an opioid

LIFESTYLE CHANGES—wheat bran, high-bran cereals, exercise, hydration (8-10 glasses/day) SYMPTOM CONTROL

LAXATIVES-senna 1-4 tabs daily-QID, milk of magnesia 15-30 mL BID, sorbitol 15-30 mL daily-BID, lactulose 15-60 mL daily, magnesium citrate 150-300 mL daily, bisacodyl/dulcolax suppositories 1 PR PRN, tap water enema 500 mL PRN, mineral oil enema 100-250 mL PRN, polyethylene glycol 17 g PO glycol solution BID or polyethylene (GoLytely®) 4 L PO/NG×1 for severe constipation. For patients with spinal cord compression, it is important to use rectal measures (enemas, suppositories), as significant diarrhea/leakage could occur with oral medications alone

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

µ-OPIOID RECEPTOR ANTAGONISTS—indicated for patients with opioid-induced constipation despite at least 3 days of laxatives. *Methylnaltrexone* 12 mg SC×1 day, repeat every other day as needed. These antagonists are peripheral acting, and thus do not affect pain control that happens centrally.

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

Risk of bowel perforation in patients with intra-abdominal pathologies

FECAL DISIMPACTION—as a last resort. May be manual (digital) or endoscopic

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—stop constipation-causing medications if possible

Anorexia–Cachexia

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

MALIGNANCY—solid tumors (primary, metastatic), hematologic

CHRONIC INFECTION—atypical (TB), viral (HIV, HCV), fungal, parasitic

CONNECTIVE TISSUE DISEASE—seropositive (RA, SLE, dermatomyositis, polymyositis), seronegative, vasculitis

OTHER CHRONIC DISEASES

- PULMONARY—COPD, bronchiectasis
- cardiac—HF
- ENDOCRINE—type 1 diabetes, Addison disease

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CACHEXIA VS. STARVATION—cachexia is defined as accelerated loss of skeletal muscle (and to a smaller extent, adipose tissue) in the context of a chronic inflammatory response and excessive catabolism. The resulting weight loss cannot be adequately treated with aggressive feeding. In contrast, simple starvation is characterized by a loss of mostly adipose tissue and a caloric deficiency that can be reversed with appropriate feeding.

CACHEXIA-ANOREXIA SYNDROME-due to a combination of pathophysiologic alterations including chronic inflammation from cytokine release (e.g. TNF, IL-1, IL-6), dysregulated ATPubiquitin-proteasome pathway, lipid mobilizing factor (cancer), neuro-hormonal dysregulation such as elevated cortisol levels, ghrelin and insulin resistance, low serum testosterone, and sympathetic activation. These changes result in a constellation of signs/symptoms such as increased basal energy expenditure, cachexia, disproportionate and excessive loss of lean body mass (muscle loss >fat loss), anorexia, xerostomia, dysphagia (oropharyngeal due to mechanical reasons), nausea, fatigue, autonomic dysfunction, and decreased performance status

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

NUTRITION IMPACT SYMPTOMS—in addition to an inflammatory catabolic process in primary cachexia, a number of associated symptoms may contribute to decreased appetite and weight loss (also known as secondary cachexia)

- NAUSEA—chemotherapy, bowel obstruction
- мисоsiтis—chemotherapy, radiation
- DENTAL ISSUES—dentures, abscess
- TASTE CHANGES—medications, xerostomia
- PAIN—abdominal, other body sites
- DYSPHAGIA—oropharyngeal, esophageal
- EARLY SATIETY—autonomic neuropathy, opioid induced gastroparesis, ascites, hepatosplenomegaly
- **CONSTIPATION**—opioids, dehydration
- DEPRESSION

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

★ANOREXIA★ ACHES AND PAIN NAUSEA AND VOMITING ORAL CANDIDIASIS REACTIVE DEPRESSION EVACUATION—constipation XEROSTOMIA—taste change IATROGENIC—chemotherapy, radiation to esophagus ILLNESS—underlying disease ACID RELATED—GERD

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, Ca, PO₄, Mg, ESR, CRP, fasting glucose, TSH, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, albumin, fasting lipid profile, AM total testosterone level
- вору weight—regular and frequent assessments
- CALORIE COUNT—determine daily intake

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

SPECIAL

- BODY COMPOSITION AND METABOLISM STUDIES bone density scan, bioelectrical impedance, indirect calorimetry
- MALIGNANCY WORKUP (if no obvious cause for cachexia)—serum protein electrophoresis, PSA (if male), fecal immunochemical test or fecal occult blood, Pap smear and pelvic examination, mammography, CXR
- INFECTION WORKUP (if no obvious cause for cachexia)—serologies (HBV, HCV, HIV, Treponema pallidum)
- INFLAMMATORY WORKUP (if no obvious cause for cachexia)—ANA, RF, C3, C4, p-ANCA, c-ANCA, cryoglobulins

MANAGEMENT

NUTRITIONAL COUNSELING—patients with advanced disease should be encouraged to eat the food they enjoy in small and frequent portions, without have having to worry too much about their nutritional content. Dietitian referral may be useful. Aggressive measures such as parenteral or enteral feeding have limited impact on survival but may significantly decrease the quality of life. Their use should be limited to patients for whom starvation is a major component of weight loss (e.g. dysphagia from esophageal or head and neck cancer, bowel obstruction from peritoneal carcinomatosis)

OREXIGENIC AGENTS (appetite stimulants) corticosteroids (dexamethasone 4 mg PO daily, patients may experience an increase in appetite and sense of well-being. Weight gain may not occur and duration of appetite stimulation is often short. Risk of myopathy and other steroid associated side effects). **Progestational agents** (megestrol acetate 400–800 mg PO daily has been shown to improve weight and appetite. However, it is associated with increased thromboembolic risk, swelling, impotence, and GI upset

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

and may shorten survival). **Serotonin antagonists**

ANTICATABOLIC AGENTS (antimetabolic and anticytokine)—insufficient evidence

ANABOLIC AGENTS (primarily hormonal) insufficient evidence

CANNABINOIDS—approved for anorexia in HIV/AIDS but insufficient evidence in other diseases

OTHER POTENTIAL AGENTS—olanzapine and mirtazapine may be considered as appetite stimulants but insufficient evidence

TREATMENT OF NUTRITION IMPACT SYMP-TOMS—consider treatment of nausea with antiemetics, mucositis with lidocaine viscous 2% or lidocaine spray, taste changes with *zinc sulfate* 220 mg PO BID, early satiety with metoclopramide, pain with analgesics, constipation with laxatives, and depressive mood with antidepressants **EXERCISE**

TREATMENT ISSUES

MEGESTROL ACETATE VS. CORTICOSTE-ROIDS—megestrol acetate has been shown to increase appetite and weight (but not lean body mass) and may be considered for intermediate– term use if weight loss is the predominant symptom. However, its significant side effect profile and cost should be taken into consideration. Corticosteroids may be useful for short-term (i.e., weeks) use, particularly if other symptoms (e.g. pain, fatigue, nausea, dyspnea) are present. Long-term use of steroids should be avoided due to side effects

Related Topics

Nausea and Vomiting (p. 127) Supplemental Nutrition (p. 454)

Communication Issues

GOALS OF CARE DISCUSSIONS

DEFINITION—an iterative, semi-structured communication process between patients living with serious illness and their clinicians to explore/ enhance the patients' level of illness/prognostic understanding, to elicit the patients' values and preferences, and to formulate a personalized care plan. Topics of these conversations may involve life-prolonging measures (e.g. dialysis,

GOALS OF CARE DISCUSSIONS (CONT'D)

chemotherapy), advance care plans (e.g. living will, medical power of attorney), and resuscitation status (e.g. allow natural death)

QUESTIONS TO ELICIT VALUES AND GOALS

- "What are the things that are important to you as you think about your future?"
- "What makes a life worth living to you?"

GOALS OF CARE DISCUSSIONS (CONT'D)

- "What are your biggest fears as you get sicker?"
- "Have you thought about what treatments you would like or not like if your got sicker?"
- "What sort of quality of life would you consider acceptable? When would you consider it unacceptable?"

COMMUNICATION TECHNIQUES

- ASSESS PATIENT'S UNDERSTANDING of their disease and their expectations before sharing information
- "ASK-TELL-ASK" APPROACH—ask for patient's permission before starting, then share information tailored to their intellectual comprehension and emotional resilience and assess their need for further information before proceeding
- EMPATHIC RESPONSES—acknowledge patient's emotion and facilitate its expression, using phrases such as "I can see this is a difficult time for you"
- ACTIVE LISTENING—facilitate discussion by summarizing, use of appropriate pauses or phrases such as "Tell me more"
- NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION—pay attention to speech, posture, facial expression, appearance, and setting

BREAKING BAD NEWS: THE GENTLE ART OF TRUTH TELLING

★SPIKES★

SETTING—establish an appropriate setting for the discussion. Sit down and talk slowly with good eye contact. Get healthcare team and family members involved (if appropriate). Be aware of cultural and religious differences

PERCEPTION: HOW MUCH DOES PATIENT KNOW?

- "What do you understand about your illness?"
- "What did the other doctors tell you?"
- "Are you worried about your illness?"
- "How do you think you are doing now?"

INFORMATION: HOW MUCH DOES PATIENT WANT TO KNOW? WARN AND PREPARE THE PATIENT

- "I have reviewed the tests and I'm afraid that I have some bad news for you."
- "We have some difficult matters to discuss. Do you feel ready for this discussion?"
- "Would you like me to tell you everything? Or would you prefer a more general overview?"

BREAKING BAD NEWS: THE GENTLE ART OF TRUTH TELLING (CONT'D)

 "Some people like a whole lot of details, others do not. What would you prefer?"

KNOWLEDGE: DELIVER INFORMATION discuss diagnosis, treatments, prognosis, and provide understanding of the natural history of disease. Pause frequently to check understanding. If delivering prognosis, discuss it in terms of "days," "weeks," "months", or "years" instead of quoting median survival numbers. Check patient's understanding frequently: "Any questions? Would you like me to continue?"

EMOTIONS: EMPATHIC RESPONSE, NORMALIZE

- "This is a very difficult time for you and your family"
- "It is normal to feel sad and frustrated during this time"
- "I'd like to check so that I know your thoughts"

STRATEGY: EMPOWER PATIENT AND PRO-VIDE FOLLOW-UP, SUPPORT RESOURCES, AND APPROPRIATE COUNSELING

- "There is a lot we can do even though there is no cure for your disease. We will keep our eyes open for new treatments and discuss them together"
- "I know this is very difficult news and a lot of information. It may be very difficult for you to think right now. I am available anytime if you have any questions"

Baile et al. Oncologist 2000;5(4)

DISCUSSING RESUSCITATION STATUS

CONTEXT—establish an appropriate setting for the discussion. Sit down and talk slowly with good eye contact. Get healthcare team and family members involved (if appropriate)

WHAT DOES THE PATIENT UNDERSTAND?

- "What do you understand about your current health situation?"
- "Tell me about how you see your health"
- "What do you understand from what the doctors have told you?"

WHAT DOES THE PATIENT EXPECT?

- "What do you expect in the future?"
- "Have you ever thought about how you want things to be if you were much sicker?"
- "What are you hoping for?"

DISCUSS DNR ORDER, INCLUDING CONTEXT

- "If you should die despite all of our efforts, do you want us to use 'heroic measures' to bring you back?"
- "How do you want things to be when you die?"

DISCUSSING RESUSCITATION STATUS (CONT'D)

- "So, what you are saying is that you want to be as comfortable as possible when the time comes"
- "What I hear you saying is that you do not want us to 'call a code' if it would not do any good"
- "What you have said is that you want us to do everything we can to fight this cancer, but when the time comes, you want to die peacefully"
- "From what you have told me, I think it would be best if I put a DNR order on the chart"
- "Most patients who have expressed such opinions have a DNR order. I recommend that we put it on the chart"

RESPOND TO EMOTIONS

- "I can see this makes you sad"
- "Tell me more about how you are feeling"

ESTABLISH AND IMPLEMENT A PLAN

- "We will continue maximal medical therapy. However, if you die despite everything, we would not use CPR to bring you back"
- "It sounds like we should move to a plan that maximizes your comfort. Therefore, in addition to a DNR order, I would like to ask my palliative care colleagues to come give you some information"
- Document clearly in the chart "In the event of cardiorespiratory arrest, no CPR/defibrillation/

DISCUSSING RESUSCITATION STATUS (CONT'D)

intubation/mechanical ventilation/inotropes/ ICU/CCU"

WHAT IF PATIENT INSISTS ON FULL CODE STATUS DESPITE YOUR BELIEF THAT THIS WOULD CLEARLY CAUSE MORE HARM THAN GOOD?

- ENSURE GOOD COMMUNICATION—between all parties, establish trust and try to understand patient's rationale. Do not rush—give the patient and family time to digest the information and respond emotionally
- CONSIDER SOCIAL WORK CONSULT—for family conference
- ASK ABOUT RELIGION—patients may want to involve pastoral care or their own spiritual support
- CONSIDER BIOETHICIST CONSULT
- ASK FOR GUIDANCE FROM PATIENT—"If someone is on life support, it becomes clear in a few days if they can recover or whether life support is prolonging an inevitable death. If you were unable to participate in the discussion at that time, please help us to determine what the guidelines should be for deciding whether to keep you on life support or not"

von Gunten J Clin Oncol 2001;19(5)

Prognostication in Far Advanced Cancer Patients

REASONS FOR DISCUSSING PROGNOSIS

PATIENT AUTONOMY—patients have the right to know, cultural appropriateness

END-OF-LIFE PLANNING—important personal decisions influenced by time, time to express wishes (verbal, written), control of the situation/autonomy

CARE PLANNING—helps to avoid harm and discomfort by inappropriate therapies, initiation of medications (e.g. antidepressants), hospice admission

NOTE—advanced cancer is defined as locally advanced, metastatic or recurrent incurable cancer; far advanced cancer is defined as advanced cancer with a predicted survival of <3 months

PROGNOSTIC FACTORS

CLINICIAN PREDICTION OF SURVIVAL—clinician estimation of survival (generally 2–5× overestimation)

PROGNOSTIC FACTORS (CONT'D)

SYMPTOMS—poor performance status (median survival palliative performance scale 60–70%=108 days, 30–50%=41 days, 10–20%=6 days), anorexia, cachexia, dysphagia, dyspnea, delirium LABORATORY TESTS—elevated CRP, leukocytosis, lymphopenia, hypoalbuminemia, ele-

vated LDH **OTHERS**—cancer type and stage (less important in patients with far advanced cancer), comorbidities (less important if prognosis is poor. More useful in patients with longer expected survival such as those with prostate cancer)

Related Topics Impending Death (p. 433) Discussing Prognosis (p. 443)

PROGNOSTIC TOOLS

PALLIATIVE PROGNOSTIC SCORE (PaP)

- CLINICIAN PREDICTION OF SURVIVAL—>12 weeks=0, 11–12 weeks=2, 7–10 weeks=2.5, 5–6 weeks=4.5, 3–4 weeks=6, 1–2 weeks=8.5
- Karnofsky performance status— \geq 50%=0, 10-40%=2.5
- ANOREXIA—absent = 0, present = 1.5
- **DYSPNEA**—absent = 0, present = 1
- TOTAL **WBC**---4.8-8.5=0, 8.5-11=0.5, >11=1.5
- LYMPHOCYTE PERCENTAGE—20-40%=0, 12-19.9%= 1, 0-11.9%=2.5

PROGNOSTIC TOOLS (CONT'D)

• итыту—30 day survival for total score 0-5.5 = 97%, 5.6-11 = 59%, 11.1-17.5 = 25%

PALLIATIVE PROGNOSTIC INDEX (PPI)

- palliative performance scale— $\geq\!60\%\!=\!0,$ 30–50%=2.5, 10–20=4
- ORAL INTAKE—normal=0, moderately reduced = 1, severely reduced = 2.5
- едема—absent = 0, present = 1
- DYSPNEA AT REST—absent = 0, present = 3.5
- **DELIRIUM**—absent = 0, present = 4
- UTILITY—with total score of 4 as cutoff, PPV for 6 week survival is 83%, NPV is 71%

| PPS (%) | Mobility | Activity and evidence of disease | Self-care | Intake | Level of |
|---------|-------------------------|---|------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|
| 100 | Full | Normal activity and work No evidence of disease | Full | Normal | Full |
| 90 | Full | Normal activity and work Some evidence of disease | Full | Normal | Full |
| 80 | Full | Normal activity with effort Some evidence of disease | Full | Normal or reduced | Full |
| 70 | Reduced | Unable to do normal job Significant disease | Full | Normal or reduced | Full |
| 60 | Reduced | Unable to do hobby/ house work Significant disease | Occasional assist | Normal or reduced | Full or confusion |
| 50 | Mainly sit or lie | Unable to do any work Extensive disease | Considerable assist | Normal or reduced | Full or confusion |
| 40 | Mainly in bed | Unable to do most activity Extensive disease | Mainly assist | Normal or reduced | Full or drowsy±confusion |
| 30 | Totally bed bound | Unable to do any activity Extensive disease | Total care | Normal or reduced | Full or drowsy±confusion |
| 20 | Totally bed bound | Unable to do any activity Extensive disease | Total care | Minimal to sips | Full or drowsy±confusion |
| 10 | Totally bed bound | Unable to do any activity Extensive disease | Total care | Mouth care only | Drowsy or coma ± confusion |
| 0 | Dead | - | - | - | - |

PALLIATIVE PERFORMANCE SCALE (PPS)

Management of Other Distressing Symptoms

SYMPTOM CONTROL MEASURES

PRINCIPLES OF SYMPTOM MANAGEMENT

—the most critical aspect is to conduct a proper history and physical, along with targeted investigations, to identify and properly treat the underlying cause. The addition of palliative measures below may also improve quality of life

BLEEDING

- NON-PHARMACOLOGIC MEASURES—palliative radiation, arterial embolization and palliative surgeries may slow bleeding. Have dark towels by bedside in case of catastrophic bleed. Apply direct pressure and suction
- PHARMACOLOGIC MEASURES—antifibrinolytic agents (tranexamic acid 1000–1500 mg PO BID-TID, or 10 mg/kg IV q6–8 h, or 1–6.5 mg/ kg/h IV after 10 mg/kg of loading dose, aminocaproic acid 4–5 g IV over first hour, then 1 g/h in 50 mL over 8 h). If catastrophic lifethreatening bleed, consider giving midazolam 5 mg IV in syringe for rapid sedation

COUGH

- PHARMACOLOGIC MEASURES—benzonatate 100 mg PO q8h PRN, codeine 7.5–60 mg PO BID, dihydrocodeine 5–10 mg PO TID, hydrocodone 5 mg PO BID, morphine 7.5–15 mg PO BID, dextromethorphan 10–30 mg PO q6h, sodium cromoglycate 10 mg NEB QID, levodropropizine 75 mg PO TID, guaifenesin 200–400 mg PO q4h or 600 mg PO BID, gabapentin 100–300 mg PO TID
- NON-PHARMACOLOGIC MEASURES—consider endobronchial therapy for cancer airway lesions, high intrathoracic vagotomy in refractory severe cases

DIARRHEA

- NON-PHARMACOLOGIC MEASURES—avoidance of laxatives, ensure adequate hydration
- PHARMACOLOGIC MEASURES—loperamide 4 mg PO qAM, then 2 mg PO after each loose stool (exclude *Clostridioides difficile* prior to treatment with anti-motility agents), *diphenoxylate/atropine* 5 mg PO QID, *tincture of opium* 0.6 mL (6 mg, 10 mg/mL) PO q6h PRN. *Octreotide* 100–500 mg SC TID may be considered for secretory diarrhea

SYMPTOM CONTROL MEASURES (CONT'D)

HICCUPS

- NON-PHARMACOLOGIC MEASURES—breath holding, Valsalva maneuver, pressing on the eyeballs
- PHARMACOLOGIC MEASURES—metoclopramide 10 mg PO/IV q4h, chlorpromazine 25–50 mg PO QID, haloperidol 1–4 mg PO q4h, baclofen 5–20 mg PO TID

PRURITIS

- NON-PHARMACOLOGIC MEASURES—avoidance of irritants (e.g. soap), moisturizers, cooling lotions (e.g. calamine, Men-Phor®), and barriers (e.g. occlusive dressings)
- PHARMACOLOGIC MEASURES—antihistamines (e.g. diphenhydramine 25–50 mg PO q6–8 h, loratadine 10 mg PO daily), naltrexone 25–50 mg PO daily, mirtazapine 15–45 mg PO daily, gabapentin 100–300 mg PO TID, aprepitant 80 mg PO daily. For cholestasis induced pruritus, consider cholestyramine 4 g PO BID as first line, rifampin 300–600 mg PO daily as second line, and naltrexone as third line

SLEEP DISTURBANCE—cognitive behavioral therapy; sleep hygiene; melatonin, trazodone, mirtazapine; avoid benzodiazepines

THICK SECRETIONS—guaifenesin 200–400 mg PO q4h or 600 mg PO BID, glycopyrrolate 2–4 mg PO q4h

TASTE DISTURBANCE—*zinc sulfate* 200 mg PO BID ×14 days or 200 mg PO daily ×30 days

XEROSTOMIA—artificial saliva (*caphasol* 30 mL swish and swallow q4h)

EDEMA

- LYMPHEDEMA—consider non-pharmacological measures such as elevation, compression stockings, manual lymphatic drainage, complete decongestive therapy, and exercises. Diuretic therapy is often of limited effect
- ANASARCA—for selected patients with severe anasarca, consider *albumin* 25 g IV TID, *furosemide* 60 mg IV BID, fluid restriction

OVERREACTIVE BLADDER—oxybutynin 5 mg PO BID-QID





Obesity

COMPLICATIONS AND ASSOCIATED DISORDERS

ENDOCRINE

- INSULIN RESISTANCE—hyperinsulinemia, diabetes
- REPRODUCTION—irregular menses, anovulatory cycles, infertility

CARDIOVASCULAR—hypertension, dyslipidemia (\uparrow chol, \uparrow LDL, \uparrow VLDL, \uparrow TGL, \downarrow HDL), coronary artery disease, heart failure, atrial fibrillation, stroke

RESPIRATORY

- SLEEP APNEA
- OBESITY-ASSOCIATED HYPOVENTILATION SYNDROME (Pickwickian syndrome; PaCO₂ ≥45 mmHg in absence of another cause)—↓ functional residual capacity, ↓ lung compliance, ↑ chest wall impedance, V/Q abnormalities (↓ ventilation but ↑ perfusion of lower lobes), ↓ strength and endurance of respiratory muscles, ↓ ventilatory drive, closure of small airways
- PULMONARY HYPERTENSION

GI—cholelithiasis, steatohepatitis, cirrhosis, gastroesophageal reflux, Barrett esophagus, chronic diarrhea, colonic adenomas, acute pancreatitis

GU—incontinence, kidney stones, glomerulopathy

MSK—osteoarthritis, gout

NEUROLOGIC—pseudotumor cerebri

DERMATOLOGIC—striae, acanthosis nigricans, hirsutism, pressure sores

CANCER

- BREAST
- GENITOURINARY—prostate
- GYNECOLOGICAL—endometrial, ovarian
- GASTROINTESTINAL—esophagus, colorectal, liver, gallbladder, pancreas, stomach
- KIDNEY
- NON-HODGKIN LYMPHOMA
- MULTIPLE MYELOMA

Heymsfield et al. *NEJM* 2017;376(3) de Cabo et al. *NEJM* 2019;381(26)

COMPLICATIONS AND ASSOCIATED DISORDERS (CONT'D)

PSYCHOSOCIAL—↓ education, ↓ employment, depression

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

BODY MASS INDEX (BMI, weight/height²) underweight <18.5 kg/m², normal 18.5–24.9 kg/m², overweight 25–29.9 kg/m², obesity class 1 30–34.9 kg/m², obesity class 2 35–39.9 kg/m², class 3/severe or morbid obesity \geq 40 kg/m²

WAIST CIRCUMFERENCE

| Ethnic group | Men | Women |
|--------------|-----------|--------|
| Europid | ≥94 cm | ≥80 cm |
| | [≥37 in.] | [≥31.5 |
| | | in.] |
| South Asian, | ≥90 cm | ≥80 cm |
| Chinese, | [≥35.4 | [≥31.5 |
| Japanese | in.] | in.] |

Waist circumference is better predictor of cardiometabolic complications than BMI. Use Europid cutoff points for South and Central American, sub-Saharan African, Eastern Mediterranean, and Middle Eastern populations until more specific data are available

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, lytes, Cr, AST, ALT, fasting glucose and/or HbA1C, lipid profile, TSH

SPECIAL

- саядыс workup—after history and physical, consider ECG. Stress test if indicated
- SLEEP APNEA WORKUP—sleep study if clinical suspicion for obstructive sleep apnea

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INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

- овезиту нуроvентикатион workup—HCO₃ >27 mEq/L is a reasonable screening test. ABG to confirm hypercarbia. PFT and sleep study
- GI worкup—if GERD symptoms, consider EGD to assess for Barrett esophagus

MANAGEMENT

LIFESTYLE CHANGES—reduced calorie diet (estimated energy requirement with 500 kcal/day deficit would lead to weight loss of 0.5 kg/week for first 3 months. A reduction of 5-10% of initial body weight is the initial goal, as this correlates with improvement in comorbidities (≥10% usually required for clinically important improvements). Low fat vs. low carbohydrate diets equivalent to facilitate weight loss. Intermittent fasting is a form of time restricted eating (16 hours fasting and 8 hours eating) that has shown promise as a weight management solution, improves lipid metabolism, blood pressure management and glycemic control. Consult dietician for dietary/behavior modification. Exercise (at least 150 min of moderate intensity physical activity/ week). Additive benefits of combining exercise with caloric restriction on weight loss and preservation of fat free mass. Aerobic training optimal to reduce fat mass, while a resistance program is needed to increase lean body mass in middleaged overweight/obese adults. Consult psychologist if psychological issues (depression, abuse, binge eating, emotional eating) are major barriers to weight loss success. Cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) can help patients modify their insight and understanding of thoughts and beliefs concerning weight regulation, obesity and its consequences. Includes self-monitoring practices to modify behavior. CBT can be provided both by psychologists and other trained health care providers such as physicians and dieticians

Perdomo et al. Nutrients 2019;11(3) DRUG THERAPY—consider for patients with BMI >30 kg/m² or BMI >27 kg/m² if comorbid conditions. Pancreatic lipase inhibitor reduces fat absorption (orlistat 120 mg PO TID ac meals). Satiety enhancement/multiple mechanisms (phentermine/extended-release topiramate 15–92 mg PO qAM [risk of teratogenicity]; buproprion/naltrexone 8/90–32/360 mg PO qAM). GLP-1 agonist (liraglutide 0.6 mg SC daily, increase by 0.6 mg/day weekly to target 3 mg SC daily). Efficacy of pharmacotherapy should be evaluated after 3 months. If weight loss

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

achieved is satisfactory (>5% in non-diabetic, >3% in diabetic patients), treatment should be continued

SURGERY-surgery is the most effective treatment for long-term weight loss in morbidly obese patients, leading to improvements in comorbidities and decreases in overall mortality. Consider for patients with BMI >40 kg/m² or BMI >35 kg/m² if comorbid conditions. Patients in consideration for bariatric surgery require multidisciplinary assessment and long-term follow-up. Gastric restriction procedures (gastric banding [adjustable band squeezes and restricts upper gastric area] is safest but requires close follow-up and long-term outcomes inferior to other procedures; sleeve gastrectomy [resection of greater curvature gaining popularity]). Malabsorptive/ diversionary procedures decrease absorption via bypass of parts of small intestine and also result in a variable amount of restriction of gastric size (Roux-en-Y gastric bypass, biliopancreatic diversion). Outcomes of importance are the metabolic effects of the surgical procedures

RISK REDUCTION—lipid control (see HYPER-LIPIDEMIA p. 75). **Blood pressure control** (see HYPERTENSION p. 70). **Glycemic control** (see DIABETES p. 365)

TREATMENT ISSUES

OVERALL APPROACH

- Identify overweight or obese adults using BMI and waist circumference
- If BMI >25 kg/m², conduct clinical (weight loss/gain history, comorbdities, diet and physical activity assessment, depression, mood and eating disorder assessment, HR, BP, waist circumference) and laboratory investigations (fasting glucose, lipid profiles, TSH), and treat comorbidities and other health risks if present
- 3. Assess readiness to change behaviors, barriers to weight loss
- Devise goals and lifestyle modification program for weight loss and reduction of risk factors (5–10% of body weight or 0.5–1 kg/week [1.1–2.2 lb/week] for 6 months)
 - NUTRITION—reduce energy intake by 500–1000 kcal/day
 - PHYSICAL ACTIVITY—initially at least 150 minutes/week of moderate intensity aerobic exercise combined with 1–3 sessions/week of resistance exercise
 - COGNITIVE BEHAVIORAL THERAPY

- 5. Reassess progress
 - SATISFACTORY—regular monitoring. Reinforce lifestyle changes above. Address other risk factors. Periodic monitoring of weight, BMI, and waist circumference every 1–2 years
 - NON-SATISFACTORY—in addition to reinforcement of lifestyle changes, consider the following:
 - PHARMACOTHERAPY—if BMI ≥27 kg/m² plus risk factors or BMI ≥30 kg/m². Consider if patient has not lost 0.5 kg/ week [1.1 lb/week] by 3–6 months of lifestyle changes
 - BARIATRIC SURGERY—if BMI ≥35 kg/m² plus risk factors or BMI ≥40 kg/m². Consider if other weight loss attempts have failed. Requires lifelong monitoring

2015 European Guidelines for Obesity Management in Adults 2020 CMAJ Guideline Obesity in Adults

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

FAILURE TO LOSE AND MAINTAIN WEIGHT LOSS—referral to an obesity specialist, and weight management team should be considered if the patient fails to meet their weight loss targets in response to the prescribed interventions. Weight cycling, defined by repeated loss and regain of weight, should be limited as it has been linked to increased risk of hypertension, dyslipidemia and gallbladder disease

Related Topics

Cardiovascular Disorders (p. 29) Diabetes Mellitus (p. 365) Hyperlipidemia (p. 75) Hypertension (p. 70) Fatty Liver (p. 144) Sleep Apnea (p. 22)

Malabsorption Syndromes

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

SALIVARY (lipase, amylase; rare cause)—radiation, sicca

STOMACH (intrinsic factor, R factor; rare cause)—pernicious anemia, gastrectomy, vagotomy

HEPATOBILIARY (bile acids; 10% of extracolonic cases)—hepatic failure, cholestasis, biliary obstruction, terminal ileal resection

PANCREAS (lipase, amylase, HCO₃; 90% of extra-colonic causes)—cancer, chronic pancreatitis, cystic fibrosis

SMALL INTESTINE (brush border/ enterocytes)—celiac disease, lymphoma, infectious colitis, inflammatory colitis, ischemic colitis, radiation colitis

OTHERS— β -lipoprotein (abetalipoproteinemia), lymphatics (lymphoma)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

COMPLICATIONS OF MALNOURISH-MENT—infections (sepsis, abscess, pneumonia), poor wound healing, respiratory failure, death

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—diarrhea (watery, steatorrhea), flatus, abdominal distension, abdominal pain (suggests chronic pancreatitis, Crohn disease, or

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

pseudoobstruction as otherwise uncommon in malabsorption), N&V, symptoms in relation to meals (may occur within 90 min of carbohydrate ingestion), anorexia, weight loss, diet, past medical history (type 1 diabetes, celiac disease, IBD, recurrent peptic ulcer disease, previous surgery, psychiatric disorders, alcohol), medications (laxatives, diuretics, illicit drugs)

Related Topics

Cachexia (p. 442) Celiac Disease (p. 142) Vitamin B12 Deficiency (p. 453)

RATIONAL CLINICAL EXAMINATION SERIES: IS THIS PATIENT MAL-NOURISHED?

HISTORY—weight change (overall loss in past 6 months, change in past 2 weeks), dietary intake change relative to normal (duration, types include suboptimal solid diet, hypocaloric liquids, full liquid diet, starvation), gastrointestinal symptoms >2 weeks (nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, anorexia), functional capacity (duration,

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

working suboptimally, ambulatory, bedridden)

PHYSICAL—loss of subcutaneous fat (triceps, chest), muscle wasting (quadriceps, deltoids), swelling (ankle edema, sacral edema, ascites)

RISK OF MAJOR POSTOPERATIVE COM-PLICATIONS BASED ON SUBJECTIVE GLOBAL ASSESSMENT (SGA)

LR+

Well nourished

Defined as <5% weight loss or >5% total 0.66 weight loss but recent gain and improvement in appetite

Moderately malnourished

Defined as 5–10% weight loss without 0.96 recent stabilization or gain, poor dietary intake, and mild (1+) loss of subcutaneous tissue

Severely malnourished

Defined as ongoing weight loss of >10% 4.44 with severe subcutaneous tissue loss and muscle wasting often with edema

APPROACH—SGA is an "accurate predictor of patients who are at higher risk of developing complications such as infection or poor wound healing."

Detsky et al. JAMA 1994;271(1) UPDATE—several markers have been compared to the SGA for predicting malnutrition. Serum albumin <3.0 g/dL increases likelihood of moderate/severe malnutrition (LR + 3.3), but is not specific. A positive simplified Malnutrition Screening Tool (Have you lost weight without trying? How much weight have you lost [kg]? Have you been eating poorly because of decreased appetite?) increases likelihood of malnutrition (LR + 13)

Simel et al. The Rational Clinical Examination McGraw-Hill; 2009

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, PTT, fasting lipid profile, Ca, Mg, PO₄, albumin, pre-albumin, carotene, Fe, ferritin, antitransglutaminase antibody, vitamin B12, RBC folate
- имадимд—US abd

SPECIAL

COLONOSCOPY

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

- GASTROSCOPY
- MRCP/ENDOSCOPIC US—if suspect chronic pancreatitis
- **STOOL FAT**—>6 g/day suggests steatorrhea
- **D-XYLOSE TEST**—if suspect malabsorption
- BREATH TEST—for carbohydrate malabsorption, small bowel bacterial overgrowth and lactose intolerance, including H₂, ¹⁴CO₂, or ¹³CO₂
- ANTIINTRINSIC FACTOR ANTIBODY—for vitamin B12 deficiency (has replaced historical Schilling test)

MANAGEMENT

SYMPTOM CONTROL—dietitian consult. Consider supplemental nutrition

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

MARASMUS SYNDROME—deficiency of calories resulting in stunted growth in children, loss of body fat, and generalized wasting of lean body mass without significant edema

KWASHIORKOR SYNDROME—deficiency of protein with preserved adipose tissue but significant edema, muscle atrophy, and amenorrhea

FAT-SOLUBLE VITAMIN DEFICIENCY ★ KADE ★

- VITAMIN K DEFICIENCY—increased bleeding tendencies
- VITAMIN A DEFICIENCY—follicular hyperkeratosis, night blindness
- VITAMIN D DEFICIENCY—paresthesia, tetany, weakness, fractures due to osteomalacia
- VITAMIN E DEFICIENCY—skeletal myopathy, spinocerebellar ataxia, pigmented retinopathy, and hemolysis

WATER-SOLUBLE VITAMIN DEFICIENCY

- VITAMIN B1 (THIAMINE) DEFICIENCY—Wernicke syndrome, Korsakoff syndrome, Leigh syndrome (subacute necrotizing encephalomyopathy)
- VITAMIN B3 (NIACIN, NICOTINIC ACID) DEFICIENCY
 DDDD

 Dermatitis (photosensitive, pigmented, pellagra), Diarrhea, Dementia, Death
- VITAMIN B6 (PYRIDOXINE) DEFICIENCY—cheilosis, painless glossitis, acrodermatitis, angular stomatitis
- VITAMIN C DEFICIENCY—scurvy with impaired collagen synthesis leading to ecchymoses, gum bleeding, petechiae, hyperkeratosis, impaired wound healing, arthralgia, weakness, neuropathy, and depression

Anorexia–Cachexia

Vitamin B12 Deficiency

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

DIET—strict vegans, older adults, alcoholics **GASTRIC**—pernicious anemia, gastrectomy, gastritis, achlorhydria

PANCREATIC—insufficiency

SMALL BOWEL—malabsorption syndromes, ileal resection, Crohn disease, blind loops, bacterial overgrowth

DRUGS—neomycin, metformin, proton pump inhibitors, N₂O

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF VITAMIN B12 DEFICIENCY

vitamin B12 <148 pmol/L [<200 pg/mL]. Borderline is 148–222 pmol/L [200–300 pg/mL]. Normal values vary in different regions—check local laboratory ranges. Note that vitamin B12 is also called cobalamin (cbl)

VITAMIN B12 LEVELS—daily requirement 6–9 μg. Body store 2–5 mg. It takes years to deplete stores

VITAMIN B12 ABSORPTION PATHWAY

- DIET—vitamin B12–protein complex
- IN STOMACH—vitamin B12 in food is bound to protein. This is catalyzed by acid/pepsin (in stomach). Once released, vitamin B12 quickly binds to R factors produced in the saliva and qastric juice. This complex is not absorbable
- IN DUODENUM—pancreatic proteases break down B12–R factor bond. Vitamin B12 then binds to intrinsic factor (from stomach)
- IN ILEUM—absorption of vitamin B12–intrinsic factor complex

Related Topics

Macrocytic Anemia (p. 163) Malabsorption (p. 451) Vitamin Deficiencies (p. 452)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—anemia, dyspnea, chest pain, fatigue, weight loss, dementia, paresthesia, weakness, falls, diet history, past medical history (gastritis,

CLINICAL FEATURES (CONT'D)

IBD, pancreatic disorders, bowel resection, alcoholism), medications

PHYSICAL—weight loss, lemon-colored skin tone (anemia and jaundice), dementia, decreased visual acuity, optic atrophy, Lhermitte sign, anemia, atrophic glossitis, spasticity, weakness, hyperreflexia, clonus, decreased vibration, and proprioception but preserved pain and temperature sensation, abnormal heel–shin test, Romberg (unsteady with eyes closed), pronator drift, gait (altered proprioception, spastic), peripheral neuropathy, vaginal atrophy

SUBACUTE COMBINED DEGENERATION lateral (corticospinal tract) and dorsal (vibration and proprioception) columns affected. Spinothalamic tract (pain and temperature) spared. Legs affected more than arms

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC (megaloblastic anemia), peripheral smear (hypersegmented neutrophils), pancytopenia, bilirubin ([†]), LDH ([†]), vitamin B12, RBC folate

SPECIAL

- SERUM ANTI INTRINSIC FACTOR ANTIBODY—sens 50–70%; spc near 100%
- SERUM HOMOCYSTEINE LEVEL—↑ if vitamin B12 deficiency. Perform if vitamin B12 level borderline
- SERUM METHYLMALONATE LEVEL—↑ if vitamin B12 deficiency. Perform if vitamin B12 level borderline
- SCHILLING TEST—rarely performed nowadays but may help to sort out etiology
 - FIRST STAGE—administer radiolabeled cyano-Cbl 1–2 μg PO, then Cbl 1000 μg IM 1 h later to saturate tissue-binding sites and flush out any orally absorbed radiolabeled Cbl into the urine. A 24-h urine is collected. Normally 10–35% of radiolabeled oral dose is eliminated in the urine. If Cbl malabsorption, <8% is eliminated. Diagnostic possi-

INVESTIGATIONS (CONT'D)

- bilities include pernicious anemia, chronic pancreatitis, and ileal disease
- SECOND STAGE—if first stage is abnormal, repeat above but add oral intrinsic factor (after 4 weeks of vitamin B12 replacement). This helps to determine if vitamin B12 deficiency is related to pernicious anemia (improved absorption) vs. intestinal malabsorption (very low absorption)
- OTHER VARIATIONS—a trial of antibiotics (often 5 days of tetracycline) is given and the test is repeated again to investigate bacterial overgrowth syndrome. Another variation is to cook Cbl together with scrambled eggs. Patients with achlorydria will be unable to split Cbl from food proteins and urinary excretion of Cbl will be <10%

MANAGEMENT

TREAT UNDERLYING CAUSE—see above for list. Vitamin B12 1000 µg SC/IM daily×7 days, then 1000 μ g SC/IM weekly for 1 month, and same dose monthly if pernicious anemia. Can continue with parenteral therapy or switch to oral (1-2 mg/ day) once vitamin B12 levels are normalized. Alternatively, treatment with high dose oral cobalamin (1000-2000 mcg/dav) can be used but parenteral replacement should be first line therapy in patients with neurologic deficit. Because absorption is variable, repeat levels to ensure they remain normal. Hematologic parameters improve within days to weeks; neurological often fail to remit fully on treatment, but improvement may be seen within months. Watch for hypokalemia, salt retention, and thrombocytosis early in the course of therapy

Diet and Supplemental Nutrition

INTRODUCTION

This section provides an overview of nutritional assessment, hospital diet types, enteral feeds, and supplemental parenteral nutrition

OVERVIEW—malnutrition is prevalent in hospital settings (15–70% depending on population types, institution, and methods of assessment). Malnutrition independently associated with detrimental outcomes, increased healthcare costs. Nutrition screening should be completed routinely in all patients admitted to acute care settings. Nutrition assessment provides greater detail compared to nutrition screening. Nutrition screening does not require specialized expertise, and should be easy and quick to use with high sensitivity and specificity. However, the Nutrition Care in Canadian Hospitals Study reported an absence of a systematic approach related to nutrition care in the hospital setting

NUTRITION SCREENING—many nutrition screening tools have been developed both for general use and in specific disease populations. Nutrition screening is a primary mechanism for patients to be referred to a registered dietician for further nutrition assessment, diagnosis and intervention. Selected screening tools: NRS-2002, MNA-SF, MUST, NST/BAPEN, MST. Patients who screen positive, should be referred to a registered dietician for more comprehensive nutrition assessment and intervention

Rahman et al. *JPEN* 2016;40(4) Xue et al. *JPEN* 2011;35(1)

INTRODUCTION (CONT'D)

NUTRITIONAL ASSESSMENT—there are many different nutrition assessment tools available. Some techniques are sophisticated, expensive, or not widely available (e.g. cross-sectional measures of sarcopenia, whole body conductance and impedance, dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry, neutron activation). Other tools are more widely available and may be applied at the bedside (e.g. anthropometry, weight loss [>10% of usual body weight is strongly indicative of malnutrition and related to higher morbidity and mortality], mid-arm circumference, hand-grip strength, and global assessment tools (Subjective Global Assessment [SGA], and Global Leadership Initiative on Malnutrition [GLIM]). Biochemical markers such as serum albumin level, transferrin, retinol binding protein have been used but may be unreliable as they are affected by non-nutritional factors such as acute inflammatory states, protein losses (fistula, nephrotic syndrome etc), and may be normal even in states of chronic starvation due to compensatory decrease in protein degradation and shift from extracellular compartments to the intracellular. Similarly, sarcopenia may arise from both nutritional and other factors (age, lack of mobility, active inflammation), and therefore only partially responsive to nutrition therapy. A gold-standard nutrition assessment tool is still

INTRODUCTION (CONT'D)

lacking. In the clinical setting, the SGA and the instrument detailed in the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetitics/ASPEN (AND/ASPEN) are very similar clinical tools for nutrition assessment, and cover aspects of nutrition history that include body weight changes, dietary intake and functional capacity, and muscle and fat measures on physical examination. These tools have predicted malnutrition compared to other instruments, and predict morbidity, mortality, hospital length of stay and cost. Given their simplicity, these tools are recommended as practical first line bedside nutrition assessment tools

FACTORS INFLUENCING ENERGY REQUIRE-MENTS—age, previous nutritional status, comorbidities (sepsis, obesity), activity

DAILY ENERGY REQUIREMENTS

- 14 kcal/kg [6.4 kcal/lb] вору weight—BMI >40 kg/m²
- 21 kcal/kg [9.5 kcal/lb] вору weight—BMI 30–39 kg/m²
- 25 kcal/kg [11.4 kcal/lb] BODY WEIGHT—single organ failure, heavily sedated
- 30–40 kcal/kg [13.6–18.2 kcal/lb] BODY WEIGHT—multi-organ failure, sepsis, trauma, postop major surgery, severe malnutrition

Energy requirement calculations assume a dry body weight (adjust for presence of ascites/ peripheral edema)

ESTIMATION OF BASAL METABOLIC RATE (BMR)

20 kcal/kg [9.1 kcal/lb] BODY WEIGHT—can be used as a rough estimate

MIFFLIN-ST. JEOR EQUATION (Mifflin et al. Am J Clin Nutr 1990;51[2])—validated for ambulatory adults and overweight or obese individuals:

- Male: RMR = [9.99 × wt (kg)] + [6.25 × ht (cm)] [4.92 × age (years)] + 5
- Female: RMR = [9.99 × wt (kg)] + [6.25 × ht (cm)]-[4.92 × age (years)]-161

HARRIS-BENEDICT EQUATION—tends to underestimate BMR in overweight and obese patients:

- Male: RMR=66.47 + [13.75 × wt(kg)] + [5 × ht(cm)] [6.76 × age(years)]
- Female: RMR = 655.1 + [9.56 × wt(kg)] + [1.85 × ht(cm)] - [4.68 × age (years)]

ACTIVITY/STRESS FACTORS—the BMR or resting metabolic rate can be multiplied by a factor that captures stress or activity to calculate the total number of calories required

ESTIMATION OF DAILY REQUIREMENTS

DAILY PROTEIN REQUIREMENTS

- 0.5–0.8 с/кс [0.23–0.36 с/Lв] вору WEIGHT (protein restriction) for initial 48 h then 1.2–1.5 с/кс [0.55–0.68 с/Lв] вору WEIGHT decompensated cirrhosis, and hepatic encephalopathy (note: most cirrhotic patients suffer from malnourishment and protein restriction may not be warranted)
- 0.8–1 g/кд [0.36–0.45 g/LB] вору weight (protein restriction)—renal failure (no dialysis)
- 1–1.2 g/Kg [0.45–0.55 g/LB] BODY WEIGHT not septic, minor trauma/surgery, nonmalnourished, single system failure
- 1.2–1.5 G/KG [0.55–0.68 G/LB] BODY WEIGHT multi-organ failure, hemodialysis, sepsis, major trauma/surgery, closed head injury, malnutrition, peritoneal dialysis
- 1.5–2.0 g/kg [0.68–0.91 g/LB] (IDEAL) BODY WEIGHT—multiple surgeries, trauma, severe burns, long bone fractures, peritonitis

FLUID REQUIREMENTS

- Fluid requirements are highly variable, depending on the patient's state of hydration, stress, and losses (e.g. ostomy losses). Fluid restrictions may be indicated in cases of heart failure, renal or liver failure, SIADH. Calculating fluid requirements can be done in two ways:
- AGE BASED APPROACH:
 - 18–55 years = 35 mL/kg/day
 - 55–65 years = 30 mL/kg/day
 - 65 years = 25–30 mL/kg/day (minimum 1500 mL/day)
- WEIGHT BASED APPROACH:
 - For the first 10 kg of body weight, give 100 mL/kg/day
 - For the second 10 kg of body weight, add 50 mL/kg/day
 - For each additional kg of body weight, add 20 mL/kg/day if ≤50 years of age *or* 15 mL/ kg/day if >50 years of age

HOSPITAL DIET TYPES

STANDARD—regular, full fluid, clear fluid **THERAPEUTIC**—heart healthy, diabetic, renal (predialysis, hemodialysis, peritoneal dialysis), sodium restricted (2 g Na), fiber restricted, high protein/cal, gluten/lactose free

SPECIAL—diets for cultural/religious modifications, disease-specific requirements (e.g. gluten free), various nutrient-specific therapeutic modifications (e.g. high K⁺, purine restricted), neutropenic, post-gastrectomy

HOSPITAL DIET TYPES (CONT'D)

DIET CONSISTENCY MODIFICATIONS

- MODIFIED SOLIDS—pureed, diced, diced dysphagia, easy to chew, minced
- THICKENED FLUIDS—level 1 (nectar), level 2 (honey), level 3 (pudding)
- NOTE—if dysphagia suspected, consider swallowing assessment to determine most appropriate consistency

ENTERAL NUTRITION OVERVIEW

ADVANTAGES—maintains gut integrity, immunologically favorable, fewer complications compared to total parenteral nutrition

CONTRAINDICATIONS—hemodynamically unstable, severe ileus, bowel obstruction, bowel perforation, UGI bleed, distal anastomosis, NG output >1 L/24 h, high output proximal fistula, uncontrollable nausea, vomiting and/or diarrhea. While short bowel syndrome, radiation enteritis, and autoimmune enteropathy are not absolute contraindications, these conditions may exacerbate diarrhea, increase losses due to malabsorption, and worsen malnutrition. Transition to parenteral nutrition in these circumstances is frequently required to support hydration and maintain nutrition

ROUTES FOR ENTERAL FEEDS

NASOGASTRIC/KEOFEED/OROGASTRIC TUBE

—expected use <6 weeks. Risk of aspiration (orogastric used for patients with basal skull fractures or choanal atresia)

NASOJEJUNAL TUBE—expected use <6 weeks. Less chance of aspiration/pneumonia; used for patients with high risk aspiration, delayed gastric emptying, or who require feeding past ligament of Treitz (e.g. pancreatitis)

GASTROSTOMY TUBE—expected use >6 weeks. Risk of aspiration, perforation, malposition **JEJUNOSTOMY TUBE**—expected use >6 weeks. Decreased aspiration risk (used for long term post-pyloric feeds). Risk for tube migration, perforation

ADMINISTRATION OF ENTERAL FEEDS

CONTINUOUS—usually given over 24 h. Compared to bolus feed, decreased aspiration risk, and better glycemic control. Start full strength formula at 25 mL/h, increase by 25 mL q4h to goal rate. In select circumstances tube feeding rate may need to commence at a lower rate with slower advancement in feeding rate. Feeding rate advancement

ADMINISTRATION OF ENTERAL FEEDS (CONT'D)

should be completed in collaboration with the treating dietician. In hospitalized patients, check gastric residuals q4h and continue to increase if <250 mL. If >250 mL, hold feeds, initiate promotility therapies, and re-check after 4 h

NOCTURNAL—for patients eating 50% of requirements during daytime; wean off tube feed. Nocturnal feeds can also be used in the outpatient setting, to treat malnutrition together with full oral daytime diet

BOLUS/INTERMITTENT—for more mobile patients. More physiologic. Start with 1 can (250 mL) over 30–60 min 4×/day

ENTERAL NUTRITION FORMULAS

Broadly, EN formulas are divided into polymeric, semi-elemental and elemental formulas. Polymeric formulas contain whole proteins, carbohdyrates and fats, and are the preferred formula for patients who do not have maldigestion or malabsorption. Semi-elemental formulas contain partially pre-digested proteins (peptide-based), while elemental formulas contain fully predigested proteins (amino-acids). Semi-elemental and elemental formulas are more expensive and should be reserved to treat patients who are intolerant of polymeric feeds, or in those who are diagnosed with maldigestion/malabsorption

ISOSOURCE HN—1.2 kcal/mL, goal usually 60–85 mL/h; 0.053 g protein/mL. Fiber containing. Standard formula

ISOSOURCE 1.5—1.5 kcal/mL, 0.068 g protein/ mL, fiber containing

RESOURCE 2.0—2.025 kcal/mL, 0.084 g protein/mL. For fluid-restricted patients

PERATIVE—1.3 kcal/mL, 0.067 g protein/mL arginine containing, lower in fat

NOVASOURCE RENAL—2 kcal/mL, 0.074 g protein/mL For renal patients on dialysis or prerenal with high electrolytes

ISOSOURCE VHN—1 kcal/mL, 0.063 g protein/ mL. For catabolic patients, high protein

RESOURCE DIABETIC—1.06 kcal/mL, 0.064 g protein/mL. Higher fat, low carbs, fiber containing. For difficult to control blood sugars

PEPTAMEN 1.5—1.5 kcal/mL, 0.068 g protein/mL. Semi-elemental (low residue). Used for patients with malabsorption problems, severe diarrhea

PEPTAMEN AF 1.2 with PREBIO—1.2 kcal/mL, 0.0756 g protein/mL. Semi-elemental (low residue), higher protein, contains EPA/DHA and

ENTERAL NUTRITION FORMULAS (CONT'D)

fructo-oligosaccharides (FOS)/inulin (soluble fiber). For highly stressed individuals who may experience inflammation or feeding intolerance (malabsorption)

PULMOCARE—1.5 kcal/mL, 0.063 g protein/mL. Low carbohydrate to lower CO₂ production. For patients with COPD or CO₂ retention

ADDITIONS TO ENTERAL FEEDS

PECTIN—20 mL BID. Soluble fiber to decrease diarrhea

BENEPROTEIN—one scoop=6 g protein and 25 kcal

GLUTAMINE—main fuel for gut enterocytes. For burns and trauma. Consult dietician for recommendations

COMPLICATIONS OF ENTERAL FEEDS

DIARRHEA—due to osmotic load/rapid feeding rate, contamination, medications, gastroenteritis, *Clostridioides difficile* (formerly *Clostridium*) VOMITING—associated with aspiration

ASPIRATION—prevent by using small bore feeding tube (<10 Fr), monitor tube migration, post-pyloric position of tube, continuous schedule, elevation of head of bed by >30° during feeding, positioning of patient on right side, ambulation, use of promotility agents 30 min before feeding (*metoclopramide* 10 mg PO QID) to decrease post-feed gastric residual volumes, ensure bowel routine

TUBE OBSTRUCTION

CONSTIPATION—due to reduced bowel motility, dehydration/inadequate free water, inadequate fiber, bowel obstruction

PARENTERAL NUTRITION OVERVIEW

TOTAL PARENTERAL NUTRITION (TPN)

- INDICATIONS—unusable GI tract for at least 5–7 days, or malnourished with unusuable GI tract at hospital admission. Bowel resection/ obstruction/fistula without distal feeding access, intractable diarrhea/malabsorption/ vomiting, acute GI bleed, failure of enteral nutrition to meet nutritional feeds, short gut, prolonged ileus, mesenteric ischemia, radiation enteritis, autoimmune enteropathy
- CONTRAINDICATIONS—GI tract usable and capable of absorbing adequate nutrients to meet requirements within 5–7 days of NPO status in

PARENTERAL NUTRITION OVERVIEW (CONT'D)

a well-nourished patient, non-survivable injury/illness to be assessed on an individual basis, aggressive support not desired, risks of TPN outweigh benefits, inability to obtain appropriate venous access, severe hemodynamic instability

 COMPLICATIONS—GI tract mucosal atrophy, no maintenance of gut barrier, metabolic disturbances (hyperglycemia, cholestasis/hepatic steatosis, electrolyte imbalances, refeeding syndrome), cirrhosis, electrolyte derangements, volume overload, line sepsis

PERIPHERAL PARENTERAL NUTRITION (PPN)—short-term use only as nutritionally inadequate; must be <1000 mOsm, usually requires larger volumes of fluid for kcal/protein delivery. Prioritize PPN use for malnourished patients without central venous access

COMPONENTS OF TOTAL PARENTERAL NUTRITION

TRAVASOL

PROTEIN—4 kcal/g, 10% amino acid

CARBOHYDRATE—3.4 kcal/g; 70% dextrose solution

LIPID—2 kcal/mL; 20% lipid emulsion. Note: for patients receiving propofol, (dispensed in a 10% lipid emulsion; 0.1 g fat/mL), this source of energy (1.1 kcal/mL) must be taken into account in the overall nutrition prescription. Older lipid emulsions include intralipid (primarily soybean lipid, with largely n-6 lipid composition). However, newer lipid emulsions include clinoleic (largely monounsaturated lipid) and SMOF lipid (mix of soybean oil, medium chain triglycerides, olive oil and fish oil). Newer lipid emulsions are thought to protect the liver from long term cholestasis and reduce the risk of cirrhosis

ELECTROLYTES—Na (1–2 mmol/kg/day), K (60–120 mmol/day or 1–2 mmol/kg/day), Ca (10–15 mmol/day), Mg (8–20 mmol/day), PO₄ (20–40 mmol/day)

MICRONUTRIENTS—multivitamin solution (10 mL/day), vitamin K (5–10 mg/week) as required, trace element solution (1 mL/day), acetate as required. Although medications such as insulin and H₂ antagonists can be added to the PN solution, this is not recommended routinely, as PN composition adjustment takes time and cannot be addressed immediately

COMPONENTS OF TOTAL PARENTERAL NUTRITION (CONT'D)

DAILY LIPID REQUIREMENTS (FOR PAREN-TERAL NUTRITION)—0.8–1 g/kg [0.36–0.45 g/lb] (ideal) body weight. No more than 30% of energy as fat and limit lipid to < 1.0 g/kg day for hepatoprotection. At least 2–4% of total caloric intake should be essential fatty acids to prevent deficiency states

DAILY CARBOHYDRATE REQUIREMENTS (FOR PARENTERAL NUTRITION)—2-4 mg/ kg/min (start low and go slow if concern regarding refeeding syndrome)

REFEEDING SYNDROME

RISK FACTORS—severe malnutrition/chronic malnutrition due to underfeeding/chronic disease, anorexia nervosa, cancer, alcoholism, severe unintentional weight loss/morbid obesity with massive weight loss, prolonged fasting (7–10+ days)

REFEEDING SYNDROME (CONT'D)

MECHANISM—carbohydrate administration leading to a sudden shift from fat to carbohydrate metabolism $\rightarrow \uparrow$ insulin secretion \rightarrow stimulates cellular uptake of phosphate $\rightarrow \downarrow Mg, \downarrow PO_4$, $\downarrow K$. Key complications include cardiac (impaired contractility, heart failure, arrhythmias), neurological (seizures) and respiratory/muscular weakness

TIME FRAME—usually occurs within 3 days of initiation of feed (parenteral, enteral feed, oral intake, IV glucose)

MANAGEMENT—start carbohydrate/feeds low and increase slowly. Monitor electrolytes (lytes, Mg, PO₄ daily ×3 days and repeat PRN), monitor glycemic control, monitor fluid balance/signs of edema/fluid overload and weight, vitamin supplementation (e.g. *thiamine* 100 mg IV/PO daily for 5–7 days, *folic acid* 1 mg/day)



Physiologic Changes in Pregnancy

CLINICAL IMPLICATIONS—to maintain adequate uterine perfusion, fetal oxygenation, and nutrient delivery. May potentially mask and limit responses to serious maternal illness

| IMPORTANT CHANGES IN PREGNANCY | | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|--|--|
| | Change | Clinical implication | |
| Core temperature | Unchanged | Fever should be investigated and treated; maternal fever is teratogenic in T_1 , and associated with adverse perinatal outcomes in T_3 | |
| Upper airway | ↑ edema and friability (hyperemia and glandular function) | Nasal congestion, epistaxis and snoring common. Failed/difficult intubation more common than non-pregnant state | |
| Thorax | ↑ circumference, elevated diaphragm (~4 cm) but normal excursion | Anatomical landmarks for thoracentesis shifted. ECG changes: QRS axis deviates to left in late pregnancy \pm T-wave inversion \pm ST depression in inferior and lateral leads | |
| Tidal volume | ↑ early in T₁ at expense of FRC/RV | Expected PaO ₂ 100–110 mmHg, PaCO ₂ 28–32 mmHg (mild respiratory alkalosis), HCO ₃ | |
| Respiratory rate | Minimal increase by ~3-4 breaths/min at term | 18–21 mmol/L (compensatory reduction), arterial pH 7.40–7.45 (normal/slight alkalosis). | |
| Minute ventilation (RR \times TV) | ↑ by 50% at term | An elevated RR or low O ₂ sat should be investigated | |
| Oxygen consumption | ↑ by 15–20% | | |
| Oxygen saturation | Median 97% (93–99%) | | |
| Heart rate | \uparrow by 15–20 beats/min by $T_{\scriptscriptstyle 3}$ | Pregnancy may unmask underlying heart | |
| Stroke volume | 1 | disease, especially obstructive lesions. | |
| Cardiac output | ↑ by 30–50% (peaks ~28 | Exacerbation of pre-existing | |
| $(HR \times SV)$ | weeks) | tachyarrhythmias or <i>de novo</i> presentations | |
| Ejection fraction | Unchanged | are common. Compression of IVC by gravid uterus in supine position may 1 cardiac output by up to 25%, thus left lateral decubitus position recommended | |
| | | Greatest risk periods for cardiac decompensation are: between 28 and 32 weeks gestation (peak maternal blood volume), during labor (hemodynamic changes), and in early post-partum period (fluid shifts) | |

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| | Change | Clinical implication |
|--|---|---|
| Systemic vascular resistance | ţ | |
| Blood pressure | ↓ by 10–15 mmHg (nadir at ~18–24 weeks) with gradual increase back to baseline by 40 weeks | ↓↓ DBP > ↓ SBP → widened pulse pressure |
| Renin- angiotensin- aldosterone system | Upregulated | ↑↑ renin, ↑ aldosterone, ↓ aldosterone/renin ratio in response to systemic vasodilation, ↓ SVR and progesterone effects |
| Renal blood flow | ↑ by 80% | ↑ kidney length by 1–1.5 cm |
| Glomerular filtration rate | ↑ by 40–50% | Hyperfiltration with ↓ in serum Cr to ~35–70 mmol/L [0.4–0.8 mg/dL]; higher levels suggest renal disease. Dose adjustments for renally-cleared drugs may be required |
| Collecting system | ↑ dilatation of renal pelvis and calyces | ↑ risk of urinary tract infections and kidney stones. |
| Plasma volume | ↑ by 30–50% (1.1–1.6 L) by T_3 | JVP height remains normal. Dilution of albumin |
| RBC mass | ↑ by 40% | Iron requirements ↑ by 50%. Disproportionate ↑ in plasma volume results in physiologic anemia (hemoglobin ↓ by ~20 g/L [2 g/dL] by T ₃) |
| Coagulation system | ↑ levels of coagulation factors, decreased fibrinolysis | 10 × ↑ risk for venous thromboembolism during pregnancy and up to 6 weeks postpartum (<0.1% of all pregnancies) |
| Gastric pH | 1 | Impaired drug absorption, dose adjustments may be required |
| Lower esophageal sphincter pressure | ↓ (progesterone effect) | GERD, nausea and vomiting common. ↑ risk of aspiration with intubation |
| GI motility | ↓ (progesterone effect) | Constipation and abdominal bloating common. Impaired drug absorption, dose adjustments may be required |
| Hepatic metabolism | Changes in drug metabolism (e.g. cytochrome P450 system enzymes may be ↑ or ↓) | Dose adjustments may be required for hepatically-metabolized medications (e.g. antiepileptics) |
| Biliary system | ↓ motility, ↑ bile cholesterol secretion and saturation | ↑ risk for gallstones during pregnancy. ↑ ALP from placental production |
| Thyroid | ↑ thyroid gland size by 18% ↑ estrogen → ↑ thyroxine- binding globulin → total T4 and ↑ total T3 (but free T4 and free T3 mostly remain normal) | Thyroid function tests should be interpreted using local trimester-specific TSH and total T4 reference ranges for pregnant women. For those already on levothyroxine replacement, ~75% of women will require an increased dose during pregnancy. Homology between hCG and TSH can result in hCG mediated hyperthyroidism during pregnancy. |
| Glucose metabolism | ↑ insulin resistance (peak ~30 weeks gestation) from human placental lactogen and progesterone | Screen for gestational diabetes at 24–28 weeks gestation |
| Adapted from Green et al. Obstet Gynecol 2020;135(3) | | |

IMPORTANT CHANGES IN PREGNANCY (CONT'D)

MATERNAL MORTALITY AND RESUSCITATION

MATERNAL MORTALITY—defined as death during pregnancy or up to 1 year postpartum. Most common causes are largely preventable and include cardiovascular disease, venous thromboembolism, amniotic fluid embolus, obstetric hemorrhage, infection (sepsis), suicide, and preeclampsia/eclampsia

MATERNAL RESUSCITATION—follow ACLS algorithm for non-pregnant adult population including medications, dosages (for medications, defibrillation, cardioversion, pacing), compressions, and ventilation rate. Special considerations include: (1) obtaining venous access above the

MATERNAL MORTALITY AND RESUSCITATION (CONT'D)

diaphragm (potential obstruction from gravid uterus below diaphragm); (2) chest compressions performed higher up on sternum; (3) left uterine displacement (first-line) or left lateral tilt (secondline) to relieve aorto-caval compression by gravid uterus; (4) difficult airway and ventilation require expertise; (5) perimortem caesarean section ifn return of spontaneous circulation within 4 min; (6) remove fetal monitors for defibrillation if possible (theoretical risk to fetus). *Do not delay treatment: healthy baby requires healthy mother!*

Hypertensive Disorders of Pregnancy 2018 Hypertension Canada Guideline Management of Hypertension in Pregnancy 2014 Society of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists of Canada Guideline Hypertensive Disorders of Pregnancy

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION—see Fig. 1 for simplified classification of hypertensive disorders of pregnancy (HDP)



HELLP, hemolysis elevated liver enzymesand low platelets; SBP, systolic blood pressure.

*Rule out: white coat hypertension and transient hypertension

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PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

- HYPERTENSION—SBP ≥140 mmHg and/or DBP ≥90 mmHg (average of at least 2 measurements taken at least 15 minutes apart). HDP occurs in ~7% (5–10%) of all pregnancies
- SEVERE HYPERTENSION—SBP ≥160 mmHg and/or DBP ≥90 mmHg. Associated with increased risk of maternal stroke (ischemic and hemorrhagic) and adverse fetal outcomes
- CHRONIC (PRE-EXISTING) HYPERTENSION—SBP ≥140 and adverse fetal outcomes and/or DBP ≥90 mmHg prior to 20th week of gestation. Complicates ~1–3% of pregnancies; ~20% risk of developing superimposed preeclampsia
- GESTATIONAL HYPERTENSION—new-onset hypertension ≥20 weeks gestation; ~35% risk of evolving to preeclampsia
- PREECLAMPSIA—occurring *de novo*, defined as gestational hypertension, with maternal or fetal end-organ complications, as outlined below. *Diagnosis of preeclampsia does not require presence of proteinuria*
- SUPERIMPOSED PREECLAMPSIA—pre-existing (chronic) hypertension with the development of one or more characteristic of preeclampsia (i.e. new or worsening proteinuria [≥300 mg/ day with 24-h urine collection or ≥30 mg/ mmol on spot urine protein/Cr ratio], or resistant hypertension [i.e., uncontrolled BP with ≥3 antihypertensive drugs], or development of end-organ complications (maternal or fetal) [as outlined below]) at >20 weeks gestation

MECHANISMS OF PREECLAMPSIA—multifactorial involving complex immunologic, genetic and maternal factors that lead to impaired placentation \rightarrow placental production of numerous circulating substances that directly impair maternal systemic vascular endothelial cell function \rightarrow a broad range of maternal and fetal end-organ involvement

- MATERNAL END-ORGAN COMPLICATIONS OF PRE-ECLAMPSIA—headaches/visual symptoms, chest pain/dyspnea, oxygen saturation <97%, new-onset nausea/vomiting, elevated liver enzymes (AST/ALT) or creatinine, thrombocytopenia, hyperuricemia, oligohydramnios, IUGR, abnormal uterine artery or umbilical cord Doppler flow
- SEVERE COMPLICATIONS OF PREECLAMPSIA—these warrant consideration of delivery by obstetrical team: generalized tonic-clonic seizures (eclampsia), PRES (posterior reversible leukoencephalopathy syndrome), cortical blindness/retinal detachment, altered level of

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

consciousness, stroke, pulmonary edema, acute kidney injury (creatinine >150 µmol/L [1.7 mg/dL]), hepatic dysfunction/hematoma/ rupture, hemolysis, placental abruption, fetal demise. **HELLP** (Hemolysis, **E**levated Liver **E**nzymes, Low Platelets) syndrome = constellation of findings considered a severe form of preeclampsia

RISK FACTORS — extremes of age (<18, >40), nulliparity, multifetal gestations, prior preeclampsia, obesity, chronic (pre-existing) hypertension, type 1 or 2 diabetes mellitus, chronic kidney disease, antiphospholipid antibodies, inter-pregnancy interval ≥10 years, infertility and use of fertility treatments

CAUSES OF DEATH—stroke (both ischemic and hemorrhagic) from uncontrolled hypertension, eclampsia, and cardiac involvement (myocardial infarction and heart failure)

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—inquire about headaches, visual disturbances, epigastric or RUQ pain, new-onset nausea/vomiting, new shortness of breath, rapid increase in swelling (face, hands, legs) and weight gain, and decreased fetal movements

PHYSICAL—check vitals, look for retinal changes (edema, ischemia, hemorrhages, etc.), heart failure, edema (facial, hands, legs), RUQ tenderness, hyperreflexia and clonus

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—CBC, Cr, spot urine for protein to creatinine ratio*, AST, ALT, albumin, uric acid (hyperuricemia associated with preeclampsia)

*If unavailable, consider spot albumin to creatinine ratio, dipstick, or 24 hour urine for protein

SPECIAL

BLOOD TESTS—peripheral smear, lytes, urea, bilirubin, albumin, ALP, PTT/INR, fibrinogen, LDH if indicated

FETAL—biophysical profile and fetal US (with Dopplers)

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O_2 to keep sat >95%, IV with judicious fluid ($\uparrow \uparrow$ risk of volume overload)

 ACUTE
 LOWERING
 OF
 SEVERE

 HYPERTENSION (SBP ≥160 mmHg or DBP ≥110 mmHg)—IV labetalol (start with 10–20 mg IV,

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

repeat 20-80 mg IV q10-30 min, or infusion 1-2 mg/min, max 300 mg), oral nifedipine short-acting tablets or capsules (pending availability) 5-10 mg PO g30min, or hydralazine (start with 5 mg IV, repeat 5-10 mg IV g20-30 min, max 20 mg). Severe cases may require continuous infusion in a monitored setting. Consider urgent delivery if not controlled. Regular maternal, placental and fetal assessments by interdisciplinary team are required CHRONIC MANAGEMENT OF NON-SEVERE HYPERTENSION (SBP 140-159 mmHa or DBP 90-109 mmHq)—see Fig. 2 Target DBP of 85 mmHg (as per the CHIPS trial) to reduce episodes of severe maternal hypertension (a validated surrogate of adverse maternal and obstetrical outcomes) without significantly increasing risk of

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

adverse fetal outcomes. Start with single antihypertensive drug therapy of first-line drugs (e.g. labetalol 100–400 mg PO BID–TID, max 1200 mg/ day, nifedipine XL 20-60 mg PO daily, max 120 mg/day, or methyldopa 250-500 mg PO BID-TID, max 3 g/day, or other beta-blockers). Other antihypertensive drugs can be considered as secondline including: clonidine, hydralazine, and thiazide diuretics. If target DBP of 85 mmHg is not achieved with monotherapy, antihypertensive drugs from other classes should be added. Avoid ACE inhibitors and ARBs in pregnancy. Atenolol may be associated with fetal growth restriction and prazosin may be associated with toxicities. Regular maternal, placental and fetal assessments by interdisciplinary team are required



* see Magee et al. *Pregnancy Hypertens* 2014;4(2). (Reprinted with permission from Butalia et al. *Can J Cardiol* 2018;34(5):526-31 courtesy of Elsevier)

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

SEIZURE PREVENTION AND TREATMENT—

 $MgSO_4$ 4 g IV bolus, then 1–2 g/h×24–48 h. Re-bolus for ongoing seizures. $MgSO_4$ use generally requires 1:1 nursing to monitor for toxicity (respiratory depression, hypotension, muscle weakness, hyporeflexia). Give calcium gluconate if magnesium toxicity present. $MgSO_4$ is contraindicated in myasthenia gravis (may precipitate myasthenic crisis). Benzodiazepines, phenytoin and phenobarbital can be considered as adjunctive therapy if ongoing seizures despite $MgSO_4$

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

DELIVERY—is the definitive treatment for preeclampsia, eclampsia, and HELLP, but the patient may continue to worsen for several days after delivery. Administer steroids to promote fetal lung maturation prior to 34 weeks if early delivery **POSTPARTUM**—gestational hypertension, preeclampsia/eclampsia/HELLP syndrome can present *de novo* or worsen in the postpartum period. BP generally increases in the early postpartum period and may peak on days 3–6 postpartum due to volume redistribution. Monitor and

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

continue antihypertensive therapy. New onset of postpartum preeclampsia may require treatment with MgSO₄ and consideration of examination for retained placenta. Hypertension and biochemical abnormalities of preeclampsia generally resolve within 6–12 weeks, though these may remain present for up to a year depending on the severity. Laboratory abnormalities (e.g. proteinuria) that do not resolve by 3–6 months may require further work-up

RECURRENCE—preeclampsia recurrence rate is variable at ~10–40%. Consider antiphospholipid syndrome screen if preeclampsia or placental insufficiency <34 weeks, particularly with fetal growth restriction or placental abruption

PREVENTION OF PREECLAMPSIA—low dose *ASA* 81–162 mg PO nightly before 16 weeks' gestation has been shown to reduce the risk of early onset preeclampsia (with 162 mg dosage preferred). Exercise during pregnancy also reduced the risk of gestational hypertension and preeclampsia. Supplemental calcium 1000 mg/day (in women with dietary calcium intake <600 mg/ day) is also recommended. Neither folic acid nor

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

vitamin D have been demonstrated to be effective in \downarrow risk of preeclampsia

LONG-TERM—women with a history of HDP are at high risk of developing cardiovascular risk factors (chronic hypertension, type 2 diabetes, dyslipidemia, and obesity) within the first few years afterwards. Also 2–5 times higher risk of premature atherosclerotic vascular diseases (stroke, TIA, MI, angina, and peripheral arterial disease) and kidney disease. Routine vascular risk factor screening, prevention through lifestyle behaviours, and treatment with lifestyle and pharmacotherapy are essential. Importantly, women with history of preeclampsia experience high rates of postpartum mental health disorders (post-traumatic stress disorder, depression, and anxiety); monitor and provide mental health support

Related Topics

Hypertension (p. 70) Proteinuria (p. 91) Seizures (p. 335)

Pulmonary Diseases in Pregnancy

ASTHMA

TREATMENTS—similar to non-pregnant patients. β -agonists, anticholinergics, and glucocorticoids (inhaled, systemic) have limited fetal risks. Leukotriene antagonists if refractory. Keep O₂ sat >95% to prevent fetal hypoxia. Consider stress dose steroids during delivery if patient required moderate systemic steroids for >3 weeks in the preceding year. Trigger avoidance and treatment (e.g. usual causes of asthma exacerbation, GERD, and infections)

VENOUS THROMBOEMBOLISM

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—increased risk of DVT/PE due to ↑ factors I, VII, VIII, IX, X, von-Willebrand factor, and fibrin, ↓ protein S and fibrinolytic activity, and increased resistance to activated protein C, especially during T₃. Also, stasis due to ↓ venous tone and flow and compression of vessels by gravid uterus. Similar risk of DVT/PE in each trimester but highest post-partum; 90% of DVT in pregnancies are left-sided and majority are pelvic DIAGNOSIS—if suspect venous thromboembolism, consider initiation of LMWH while waiting for

VENOUS THROMBOEMBOLISM (CONT'D)

investigations. For DVT workup, perform compression US; if pelvic vein DVT suspected, consider MRV pelvis, Doppler study, or (postpartum) CT of pelvic veins. Otherwise, repeat compression US in 5-7 days if still symptomatic. For PE workup, perform V/Q scan if CXR normal. If CXR abnormal and/or V/Q scan non-diagnostic, proceed with CT chest (pulmonary angiogram protocol). Algorithms involving clinical features and D-dimer may help minimize radiology testing. CT (pulmonary angiogram protocol) is associated with lower fetal radiation exposure than V/Q scan in T_1-T_2 , but higher risk of maternal breast cancer (14% increased lifetime risk) and may be non-diagnostic peri-partum due to increased maternal cardiac output limiting contrast filling

RADIATION RISKS—fetal exposure of <5 cGy [5 rad] accumulatively in each pregnancy is considered acceptable, but oncologic effects controversial (e.g. childhood leukemia). Consider proximity of fetus to radiation site (i.e., radiation from CT chest > V/Q scan in T_3) and limit where possible (i.e., abdominal shields) and timing of

VENOUS THROMBOEMBOLISM (CONT'D)

exposure (early T_1 and miscarriage, later T_1 and organogenesis, $T_{2^{-3}}$ and CNS development as well as risk of childhood cancer). Gadolinium exposure in pregnancy associated with \uparrow stillbirth, neonatal death and inflammatory conditions (skin and rheumatologic)

FETAL RADIATION EXPOSURE FOR COMMON IMAGING MODALITIES

| | Estimated fetal |
|--------------|---------------------------------|
| Imaging | radiation exposure (rad) |
| Ultrasound | None |
| CXR | <0.001 |
| CT head | <0.001 |
| V/Q scan | 0.01–0.02 ventilation (V) |
| | 0.01–0.03 perfusion (Q) |
| CT chest (PE | 0.0003-0.002 (T ₁) |
| protocol) | 0.0008-0.0077 (T ₂) |
| | 0.005–0.013 (T ₃) |
| Pulmonary | <0.05 via brachial route |
| angiogram | 0.2–0.3 via femoral route |
| Cardiac | <1 |
| angiogram | |
| AXR | 0.2–0.3 |
| IVP | 0.8 (complete series) |
| | 0.2 (limited series) |
| MRI/MRV/MRA | None |
| | |

Related Topics

Asthma (p. 1) Pulmonary Embolism (p. 12)

TREATMENT—LMWH dosed using current weight (not pre-pregnancy or ideal body weight). Consider monitoring of anti-Xa level (4-6 h after last dose, target 0.6-1.2 IU/mL) given increased metabolism and elimination. Duration of therapeutic anticoagulation 3-6 months, then transition to prophylactic dose of LMWH until end of 6 weeks postpartum. Peri-partum anticoagulation regimen is individualized based upon risks of bleeding (obstetrical and neuraxial) balanced against risk of clotting (new clot <1 month, location, etc.) and centre-specific practices. If neuraxial analgesia planned, hold therapeutic LMWH×24 h and prophylactic LMWH×12 h beforehand. If unable to hold anticoagulation (e.g. acute clot <4 weeks), consider bridging with

VENOUS THROMBOEMBOLISM (CONT'D)

IV unfractionated heparin (and hold when in active labor or 2 h prior to caesarean section), and/or consider IVC filter. Systemic thrombolysis generally contraindicated (risk of fetal demise). Warfarin generally not recommended during pregnancy (teratogenic in T₁; associated with fetal CNS hemorrhage/malformations, miscarriage, stillbirth, neonatal demise). May consider warfarin as an alternative to LMWH in the postpartum period while breastfeeding

FUTURE PREGNANCIES—provide antepartum and postpartum thromboprophylaxis to women with significantly increased risk (>1% absolute risk) of venous thromboembolism. Therapeuticdose anticoagulation if already on long-term anticoagulation for established indication. Intermediate or therapeutic-dose if prior history of venous thromboembolism and high-risk thrombophilia (e.g. APLA, antithrombin deficiency), but not previously on anticoagulation. Prophylactic dose both during pregnancy and 6 weeks postpartum if prior history of venous thromboembolism (unprovoked, related to oral contraceptive pill, related to pregnancy, or in setting of low-risk thrombophilia), or for asymptomatic thrombophilia (e.g. homozygote with factor V Leiden mutation, homozygote prothrombin gene mutation, antithrombin deficiency). For all other low-risk thrombophilias, may consider 6 weeks of postpartum thromboprophylaxis in the setting of other VTE risk factors or with a positive family history of VTE

OTHER CONSIDERATIONS—compression stockings for symptom management. Caution against use of combined oral contraceptive pills

Chan et al. J Obstet Gynaecol Can 2014;36(6) 2012 ACCP Guideline VTE, Thrombophilia, Antithrombotic Therapy, and Pregnancy

AMNIOTIC FLUID EMBOLISM

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—can occur during labor and delivery or with uterine manipulation. Risk factors include older age and multiparity. Amniotic fluid enters maternal circulation \rightarrow inflammation, vasospasm, and venous occlusion \rightarrow cardiogenic shock and respiratory failure

DIAGNOSIS—clinical diagnosis with classic triad of sudden-onset dyspnea and hypoxia, hypotension, and coagulopathy. Differential diagnosis includes septic shock, pulmonary embolism, aspiration pneumonia, uterine rupture, *abruptio placentae*, and venous air embolism

TREATMENTS—supportive, supplemental O_2 , hemodynamic support (vasopressors $\pm IV$ fluids),
AMNIOTIC FLUID EMBOLISM (CONT'D)

ICU admission. Rapid delivery of the fetus (beware of risk of rapid blood loss with coagulopathy; may potentially require PRBC, FFP, platelet, and/or cryoprecipitate transfusion)

COMPLICATIONS—at least 20% maternal mortality, 25–50% of which die within the first hours

Cardiac Diseases in Pregnancy

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

HIGH-RISK

CARDIOPULMONARY

CONDITIONS—generally advise against pregnancy if any of the following conditions: tetralogy of Fallot with severe cyanosis, Eisenmenger syndrome, severe pulmonary hypertension, functional limitation NYHA 3 or 4, recent cardiac transplantation with high-dose immunosuppression, Marfan syndrome with aortic root >40 mm [1.6 in.], previous peripartum cardiomyopathy with persistent LVEF <30%, interstitial pulmonary fibrosis, lymphangioleiomyomatosis, and active lung cancer

GENERAL MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES preconception counselling to 1) advise on risks of cardiac, obstetrical and fetal complications during pregnancy, and 2) optimize cardiac medications/status prior to pregnancy. Pregnancyspecific risk tools available. Delivery with supportive measures, including aggressive pain control and early neuraxial analgesia during labor to reduce catecholamine HR response; assist second stage of labor with vacuum or forceps (to reduce prolonged Valsalva). Avoid fluid overload. Vaginal delivery recommended, but C-section may be necessary for fetal indications

Related Topics Endocarditis (p. 65) Heart Failure (p. 41) Valvular Disorders (p. 64)

VALVULAR DISORDERS

 REGURGITANT
 VALVULAR
 HEART

 DISEASE—may improve during pregnancy due to \$\phi\$ systemic vascular resistance
 Heart

STENOTIC VALVULAR HEART DISEASE may worsen during pregnancy. Symptomatic or

AMNIOTIC FLUID EMBOLISM (CONT'D)

of onset of the disease. Patients who survive are at high risk for ARDS, acute renal injury, and neurological complications due to cerebral hypoxia (up to 85%)

VALVULAR DISORDERS (CONT'D)

severe stenosis should be evaluated for correction prior to pregnancy. Valvuloplasty during pregnancy may be considered for worsening symptoms. β -blockers to decrease HR in mitral stenosis

PROSTHETIC HEART VALVE—for mechanical valves, continue oral anticoagulation until conception. During T₁ (within first 6 weeks), switch to therapeutic dose LMWH given BID (target anti-Xa level 0.7-1.2 IU/mL, 4-6 h after last dose [peak]), but avoid warfarin (teratogenic, ↑ risk if >5 mg/ day). During T₂-T₃ and up until 36 weeks gestation, treatment options include therapeutic LMWH given BID or warfarin (target INR 2.5–3.5). Choice of anticoagulation depends on risk of thrombosis (i.e., type of valve) and patient preference. Consider either LMWH plus ASA 81 mg PO daily, or warfarin for highly thrombogenic valves (i.e., mitral position, older generation mechanical valve, history of thromboembolism). Warfarin more effective for prevention of valvular thrombosis but associated with higher risk of fetal CNS hemorrhage/malformations, miscarriage, stillbirth, neonatal demise. At 36th week, anticoagulation should be switched to IV unfractionated heparin or LMWH given BID in preparation for delivery, and allow at least 10-14 days for (fetal) warfarin washout. Switch to IV unfractionated heparin exclusively 36 hours before planned delivery, stopping 4–6 h before delivery, and restarting 4–6 h after delivery if no bleeding. Preconception counseling highly recommended

ENDOCARDITIS PROPHYLAXIS—not recommended for vaginal delivery and caesarean sections. May consider for select high-risk cardiac conditions (i.e. prosthetic valve, unrepaired cyanotic congenital heart defect, repaired cyanotic congenital heart defect with residual defects, cardiac transplant recipients with valvulopathy, previous endocarditis)

MYOCARDIAL DISORDERS

PERIPARTUM CARDIOMYOPATHY—dilated cardiomyopathy with LVEF <45% during last month of pregnancy or within 5 months postpartum in the absence of previous heart disease. Diagnosis of exclusion. Hypertensive disorder of pregnancy is a risk factor. Medical management similar to treatment of HF in non-pregnant individuals with diuretics, β -blockers (except atenolol, risk of fetal growth retardation), nitrates, hydralazine, and digoxin. Severe cases may require CCU care, inotropes, mechanical circulatory support, ventricular assist device, or transplant. During pregnancy, ACE inhibitors and ARBs are contraindicated, and aldosterone antagonists should be avoided if possible. During breastfeeding, ACE inhibitors (enalapril, captopril) and aldosterone antagonists (spironolactone) may be used. Anticoagulate if LVEF <35% or atrial fibrillation. Bromocriptine can be considered. Breastfeeding remains controversial. Overall prognosis variable (mortality in up to 30%, around 25-50% have full recovery of myocardial function within 6 months, and 4-7% have progressive disease eventually requiring cardiac transplant). Recurrence in up to

MYOCARDIAL DISORDERS (CONT'D)

30% with high risk of mortality in subsequent pregnancy if persistent ↓ LVEF. Preconception counseling highly recommended for subsequent pregnancies

ISCHEMIC HEART DISEASE—stress echocardiogram (preferred), exercise stress test, MIBI, and angiograms (beware radiation) can be considered for investigations

RHYTHM DISORDERS

PALPITATIONS—sinus tachycardia, ectopic beats, and syncope are common. Increased SVT in patients previously diagnosed with SVT. May treat with adenosine, β -blockers (except atenolol), calcium channel blockers, or digoxin. DC cardioversion if unstable (remove fetal monitors if possible [theoretical risk to fetus] but do not delay treatment). Investigate for underlying arrhythmia, structural abnormality (cardiomyopathy, valvular disease), and precipitant (PE, sepsis, thyrotoxicosis) as appropriate

Siu et al. Cleve Clin J Med 2004;71(12) 2018 European Society Cardiology Guidelines Management CVD Pregnancy

Hepatic Diseases in Pregnancy

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

PREGNANCY-RELATED LIVER DISEASE hyperemesis gravidarum, preeclampsia/eclampsia/HELLP syndrome, intrahepatic cholestasis of pregnancy, acute fatty liver of pregnancy

- HYPEREMESIS GRAVIDARUM (T₁₋₂, incidence 0.3−1%)—nausea, vomiting, weight loss, ↑ ALT > AST, N bili
- **PREECLAMPSIA/ECLAMPSIA** (T₂₋₃, incidence 5–10%)—see section under preeclampsia
- HELLP SYNDROME (T₃, incidence 0.1%)—preeclampsia symptoms. ↑ ALT, ↑ AST, ↑ bilirubin, ↓ platelets, ↑ LDH. May progress to DIC (30%)
- INTRAHEPATIC CHOLESTASIS OF PREGNANCY (T₂₋₃, incidence 0.1–0.2%)—functional disorder of bile formation with severe **pruritus**. ↑ ALT, ↑ AST, ↑ bilirubin (less common), ↑↑ **bile acids**. Associated with prematurity, intrauterine fetal demise, and neonatal respiratory distress syndrome
- ACUTE FATTY LIVER OF PREGNANCY (T₃, incidence ~1 per 20,000 pregnancies)—may be associated with preeclampsia. Due to fetal long-

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

chain 3-hydroxyacyl CoA dehydrogenase (L-CHAD) deficiency. Characterized by **severe liver dysfunction** (encephalopathy, hypoglycemia, coagulopathy) and commonly jaundice. Can develop central diabetes insipidus. $\uparrow \uparrow ALT$, $\uparrow \uparrow AST$, \uparrow bilirubin, \uparrow WBC, \uparrow PT, \uparrow **uric acid**. US is often normal (microvesicular fat on biopsy) and CT shows a low-density liver

PREGNANCY-AGGRAVATED LIVER DISEASE —hepatitis E, hepatitis A, HSV hepatitis, Budd-Chiari, cholelithiasis

- HEPATITIS E—may cause fulminant liver failure in pregnancy; mother to child transmission in 1/3 cases
- HEPATITIS B—pregnancy does not affect natural history of HBV infections (rare cases of fulminant hepatitis among immunocompromised). Routine screening at first prenatal visit (HBsAg). Prophylaxis and immunization for infant if mother HBV positive

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

- HEPATITIS C—pregnancy does not affect natural history of HCV infections. Mother to child transmission ~5% (up to 20% if HIV co-infection)
- CHOLELITHIASIS—associated with acute cholecystitis, choledocholithiasis, and ascending cholangitis
- отнея сомытномs—drug-induced hepatitis, malignancy

CLINICAL FEATURES

HISTORY—jaundice, pruritus, abdominal pain, ascites, swelling, encephalopathy, nausea and vomiting, headache, visual disturbances, fever, obstetrical history (current pregnancy course, previous births, previous preeclampsia), past medical history (hypertension, hepatitis, alcohol, IDU), and medications

PHYSICAL—check vitals (hypertension), edema (facial, limbs), heart (elevated JVP, S3, S4), hepatic tenderness, ascites, jaundice, and hyperreflexia

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC, peripheral smear, lytes, urea, Cr, spot urine for protein to creatinine ratio, AST, ALT, ALP (mild elevation could be from placenta), GGT, bilirubin, INR, bile acids (intrahepatic cholestasis), uric acid (acute fatty liver and preeclampsia), LDH, fibrinogen (DIC), TSH
- місковіоLоду—HBV and HCV serology
- IMAGING—US abd

MANAGEMENT

HYPEREMESIS GRAVIDARUM—rule out molar pregnancy and hyperthyroidism. Consider alternative cause of N&V if persistent (adrenal insufficiency, eating disorder). Diclectin (doxylamine and pyridoxine) is first-line, then consider metoclopramide, ondansetron, dimenhydrinate, chlorpromazine, prochlorperazine, and promethazine. Supportive fluids, nutritional replacement, and treatment of GERD. TPN and/or feeding tubes are rarely needed

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

INTRAHEPATIC CHOLESTASIS OF PREGNANCY—ursodeoxycholic acid 500 mg PO BID or cholestyramine both may reduce pruritus but no impact on fetal outcomes. Increase fetal monitoring. Obstetrical team to consider early delivery if high bile acids >100 µmol/L [40.8 mcg/ mL] because of ↑ risk of fetal demise. Cholestasis resolves following delivery without hepatic sequelae. Recurs in up to 70% of pregnancies

ACUTE FATTY LIVER OF PREGNANCY vitamin K if coagulopathic, immediate delivery, and ICU support. May progress to acute hepatic failure and DIC in >75%. Increased maternal and fetal mortality. Can recur in future pregnancies

HELLP—anti-hypertensive, MgSO₄, immediate delivery

HEPATITIS B—provide standard neonatal immunoprophylaxis and consider antiviral treatment (tenofovir) if high maternal HBV DNA levels during pregnancy. Internal fetal monitoring and prolonged rupture of membranes should be avoided

HEPATITIS C—no proven treatment during pregnancy. Internal fetal monitoring and prolonged rupture of membranes should be avoided

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

OTHER GI DISORDERS

- GERD—very common during pregnancy. May cause chronic cough and reactive airway disease symptoms. Treatments include lifestyle changes, antacids, ranitidine, PPIs, and metoclopramide
- CHOLECYSTITIS—pregnant women are at increased risk due to hormonal changes. Medical management with IV fluids, NG, and opioids. Broad-spectrum antibiotics may be added for severe disease. Cholecystectomy lowest risk during T₂

Related Topics Acute Liver Failure (p. 145) Dyspepsia (p. 130)

Infectious Diseases in Pregnancy

IMMUNIZATIONS IN PREGNANCY

VACCINATIONS—many infections follow a more severe course in pregnancy (i.e. due to changes in cell-mediated immunity), thus immunization history should be obtained in all pregnant or preconception women. Avoid live-attenuated virus vaccines in pregnancy. All pregnant women should be offered diphtheria and tetanus toxoids and acellular pertussis between 21–32 weeks of every pregnancy, regardless of previous immunization history; influenza vaccine should also be given to women pregnant during influenza season (with passive antibody transfer to newborns who cannot be vaccinated)

> Castillo et al. J Obstet Gynaecol Can 2018;40(4)

INFECTIONS ASSOCIATED WITH BIRTH DEFECTS

★TORCHES CLLAPZ★—TOxoplasma, Rubella, CMV, HSV, Enteroviruses, Syphilis, Chickenpox, Lyme, LCMV, AIDS, Parvoviruses and Zika virus infections during pregnancy are associated with birth defects (e.g. CMV 1/5 have hearing loss). Data are emerging on many other potential pathogens that may also be associated with birth defects, such as *Brucella melitensis, Coxiella burnetii* (Q fever), *Babesia microti* (babesiosis), human T-cell lymphotropic virus types I and II, hepatitis G, TT viruses, human herpesvirus 6, and dengue

SEPSIS

CLINICAL FEATURES—common cause of maternal morbidity in developed and developing world. Assess vital signs (BP, HR, RR [tachypnea never normal], temperature), and for end-organ perfusion (level of consciousness, skin mottling), as well as for potential sources of infection

TREATMENTS—medical management similar to treatment of sepsis in non-pregnant individuals with IV fluids and early empiric antibiotic therapy (see below for acceptable antibiotic choices)

INFLUENZA

CLINICAL FEATURES—increased risk of influenza-related morbidity and mortality (5 × higher risk of hospital admission overall, one out of six influenza-related deaths occur in young pregnant women). Influenza associated with adverse pregnancy outcomes (preterm birth, small for gestation age newborns). All pregnant women should receive inactivated influenza vaccine regardless of trimester

SARS AND SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19)

CLINICAL FEATURES—pregnancy does not increase the risk of acquiring the infection but may worsen the clinical course. Pregnant women infected with COVID-19 have markedly higher risk of ICU admission and mortality compared to non-pregnant women (particularly if obese, age ≥35, hypertension or pre-existing DM). Risks of congenital malformations are unlikely (but cannot be excluded); congenital infection low; neonatal infection may be acquired postpartum

TREATMENTS—supportive (oxygen) with VTE prophylaxis and dexamethasone if clinically indicated. Limited data to date (December 2020) on other treatments due to exclusion of pregnant women from clinical trials. Individualized assessment or risks/benefits required. Vaccination is recommended in pregnancy by SOGC

URINARY TRACT INFECTIONS

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—hydronephrosis and hydroureter R>L, urinary stasis, higher protein and amino-acid excretion → UTI

ASYMPTOMATIC BACTERIURIA—defined as 10⁵ CFU/mL on a "clean" sample. Occurs in 2–7% of pregnancies, associated with preterm birth, low birth weight, and perinatal mortality. Screen for bacteriuria between 12 and 16 weeks gestation, as 30–40% will develop symptomatic UTI if untreated. Treatment depends on culture and local antibiotic resistance pattern; consider *amoxicillin–clavula-nate* 500 mg PO BID×7 days, *nitrofurantoin* 100 mg PO BID×7 days (risk of hemolytic anemia). Avoid trimethoprim if alternatives available. Follow-up culture 1 week following treatment complete

ACUTE CYSTITIS—occurring in 1% of pregnancies, with treatment and follow-up as asymptomatic bacteriuria

PYELONEPHRITIS—occurring in <1% of pregnancies, complicated by septic shock and ARDS in 20%. In-patient treatment with IV antibiotics (cefazolin, ceftriaxone, or ampicillin plus gentamicin) until symptomatic improvement and afebrile for 24–48 h then PO based on drug sensitivities. Low-dose suppressive antibiotics (*nitrofurantoin* 50–100 mg PO nightly [risk of hemolytic anemia] or *cephalexin* 250–500 mg PO nightly) for remainder of pregnancy as recurrent pyelonephritis occurs in 6–8% of women without prophylaxis

HUMAN IMMUNODEFICIENCY VIRUS (HIV)

TREATMENTS—pregnant women with HIV infection should be treated with combination antiretroviral therapy (regardless of CD4 count or viral load) during pregnancy and postpartum to maintain an HIV viral load below the limit of detection throughout pregnancy. Involve an interdisciplinary team experienced in HIV in pregnancy and delivery. Treatment goals are to ↓ perinatal HIV transmission to the infant, prevent sexual HIV transmission to partners without HIV, and for a female's lifelong health

2014 Society Obstetricians Gynaecologists Canada Guidelines Care Pregnant Women with HIV and Interventions to Reduce Perinatal Transmission

TUBERCULOSIS

CLINICAL FEATURES—natural history not affected by pregnancy, but delayed recognition is common. Tuberculin skin testing and IFN-gamma release assays require expert interpretation in pregnancy

TREATMENTS—treat TB, if identified, as risk of infection to fetus is greater than risk of medications. Isoniazid, rifampin, and ethambutol safe for

Diabetes in Pregnancy

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

RISK FACTORS FOR GESTATIONAL DIABETES—previous history of gestational diabetes, impaired fasting glucose or impaired glucose intolerance, prior delivery of macrosomic infant or current fetal macrosomia (>4000 g or >90th percentile), polyhydramnios, high-risk ethnic group (indigenous, Hispanic, Arab, South Asian, Asian, Black), maternal age \geq 35, obesity (BMI \geq 30 kg/m²), family history of type 2 diabetes, corticosteroid use, PCOS, acanthosis niaricans

PRECONCEPTION CARE FOR PRE-EXISTING DIABETES (T1DM & T2DM)—optimize glycemic control prior to pregnancy (HbA1c ≤7%; ideally ≤6.5%) to lower risks of spontaneous abortion, congenital anomalies, preeclampsia, progression of retinopathy and stillbirth. Support weight reduction (if overweight) and ensure appropriate vaccinations. Screen and treat retinopathy and nephropathy. Patients on oral agents other than metformin and/or glyburide should be switched to insulin for glycemic control. Discontinue ACE inhibitors, ARBs, and statins prior

TUBERCULOSIS (CONT'D)

use during pregnancy and breastfeeding. *Pyridoxine* 25 mg PO daily is recommended for all pregnant or breastfeeding women taking isoniazid to prevent peripheral neuropathy

ANTIBIOTICS

ACCEPTABLE—penicillins, cephalosporins, azithromycin, vancomycin, metronidazole, clindamycin, erythromycin (except erythromycin estolate), nitrofurantoin (caution as risk of hemolytic anemia), and acyclovir. Consider trimethoprim—sulfamethoxazole (avoid in first trimester but use with folate if no other alternatives) and aminoglycosides (except streptomycin) in some circumstances

AVOID—tetracyclines (infant teeth staining), streptomycin (theoretical concern for fetal ototoxicity), fluoroquinolones (abnormal cartilage development in animals, but not demonstrated in humans)

Related Topics

HIV (p. 276) Tuberculosis (p. 267) Urinary Tract Infections (p. 259)

2018 Diabetes Canada Guidelines

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

to conception (or immediately upon detection of pregnancy). Supplemental *folic acid* 1 mg PO daily starting at least 3 months preconception until at least 12 weeks gestation, then 0.4–1 mg PO daily. Counsel on risk of hypertensive disorder of pregnancy and ASA to reduce this risk (see Preeclampsia section) and weight gain targets (see Obesity section)

DIAGNOSIS

DIAGNOSIS OF GESTATIONAL DIABETES screen all pregnant women between 24–28 weeks (or in first trimester) for diagnosing pre-existing diabetes if at high risk of gestational diabetes (see risk factors above):

- Step 1: 1-h 50 g oral glucose challenge test (non-fasting)
 - − If 1 h blood glucose \geq 11.1 mmol/L [\geq 200 mg/dL] → GDM
 - If 1 h blood, glucose 7.8–11.0 mmol/L [140–200 mg/dL] → perform 75 g OGTT

DIAGNOSIS (CONT'D)

- If 1 h blood glucose <7.8 mmol/L [<140 mg/ dL] → no GDM, but may consider re-testing if ongoing suspicion (e.g. macrosomia, polyhydramnios)
- Step 2 (if needed): 2-h 75 g oral glucose tolerance test (fasting)
 - − If fasting blood glucose \geq 5.3 mmol/L [\geq 95 mg/dL] → GDM
 - − If 1 h blood glucose ≥10.6 mmol/L [≥190 mg/dL] → GDM
 - − If 2 h blood glucose ≥9.0 mmol/L [≥160 mg/dL] → GDM

MANAGEMENT

ANTEPARTUM—diabetic diet and exercise. Aim for excellent glycemic control with HbA1C ≤6.5 (ideally ≤6.1% if possible). Monitor blood glucose before and after each meal. Target fasting blood glucose <5.3 mmol/L [95 mg/dL], 1 hour <7.8 mmol/L [140 mg/dL], and 2 h postprandial blood glucose <6.7 mmol/L [120 mg/dL] (modify targets if hypoglycemia occurs). Test urine for ketones during illness, or if patient suspected of overrestricting diet (starvation) in order to achieve tight glycemic control. Monitor blood pressure at each visit. In patients with pre-existing diabetes (type 1 or 2), screen for retinopathy (ophthalmologist) and nephropathy (serum creatinine and urine albumin/Cr ratio) in first trimester and again as needed. Fetal surveillance as per OB

- PREVENTION—nutritional counselling for patients with risk factors for GDM to prevent excessive weight gain; ideally <15 weeks' gestation
- GESTATIONAL—dietitian referral. If glycemic targets not achieved within 1–2 weeks, start insulin (lispo or aspart SC ac meals, and/or NPH SC nightly–BID). Adjust dose weekly, as needed. Consider glyburide or metformin for women non-adherent to or who refuse insulin (offlabel use in pregnancy, discuss risks with patient)
- TYPE 1 DIABETES—basal-bolus insulin therapy or insulin pump. Continuous glucose monitoring improves glycemic control and ↓ neonatal complications
- TYPE 2 DIABETES—switch from oral agents to insulin, preferably preconception (lispo or aspart SC ac meals, and/or NPH SC nightly—

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

BID). Adjust dose weekly, as needed. Metformin added to insulin improves glycemic control and several neonatal outcomes. Consider glyburide or metformin for women non-adherent to or who refuse insulin (off-label use in pregnancy, discuss risks with patient)

INTRAPARTUM—target blood glucose 4.0–7.0 mmol/L [72–126 mg/dL] during labor (to minimize risk of neonatal hypoglycemia). NPO, IV fluids, and monitor blood glucose q1h. Consider insulin IV infusion (rarely required for GDM), according to current blood glucose level, time of last meal, and time of last insulin injection. Women may use their own insulin pumps during labor if comfortable self-managing (but not for C-section)

POSTPARTUM—insulin requirements rapidly drop after delivery to doses similar to prepregnancy levels, especially if breastfeeding (beware of hypoglycemia). Continue blood glucose monitoring. Breastfeeding should be encouraged to reduce risk of neonatal hypoglycemia, offspring obesity, and metabolic syndrome in mother

- GESTATIONAL DIABETES—insulin rarely required postpartum. Risk of type 2 diabetes (~20% in 10 years); screen from 6 weeks to 6 months postpartum with 2 h 75 g OGTT; reminders for screening 1 uptake
- TYPE 1 DIABETES—reduce insulin (using preconception dosages as guideline). Screen for postpartum thyroiditis 6–8 weeks postpartum with TSH
- TYPE 2 DIABETES—reduce or discontinue insulin (using preconception dosages as guideline). Metformin and glyburide are the only known safe oral agents while breastfeeding

COMPLICATIONS—fetal complications include congenital anomalies (usually with preexisting diabetes), macrosomia (shoulder dystocia, birth trauma) or intrauterine growth restriction (uncommon), neonatal hypoglycemia, respiratory distress syndrome, hypocalcemia, hyperbilirubinemia, and intrauterine death. Offspring at risk for diabetes and obesity in long-term. Maternal complications include gestational hypertension, preeclampsia, polyhydramnios, preterm birth, C-section, and progression of diabetic retinopathy and nephropathy

Obesity in Pregnancy

COMPLICATIONS

FETAL COMPLICATIONS—congenital anomalies, larger for gestational age, preterm birth, and neonatal metabolic complications MATERNAL COMPLICATIONS—infertility.

miscarriage, gestational hypertension, preeclampsia, gestational diabetes, C-section, and VTE

MANAGEMENT

PRECONCEPTION—counsel on combined behavioural interventions (nutrition and physical activity) weight management prior to pregnancy to reduce the above risks. Stop pharmacotherapy for weight management because safety unknown in pregnancy

ANTEPARTUM—counsel on combined behavioural interventions to achieve weight gain targets of 5–9 kg (11–20 lbs)

POSTPARTUM—aim for weight loss of (at minimum) the amount gained during pregnancy in

MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

order to improve long-term health and future pregnancy outcomes. Breastfeeding support to help with initiation and continuation

WEIGHT GAIN TARGETS—according to prepregnancy BMI to \downarrow adverse pregnancy outcomes (adapted from Institute of Medicine, 2009)

| | Total gestational |
|---|------------------------|
| Category | weight gain targets |
| Underweight (BMI <18.5 kg/m ²) | 12.5–18 kg (28–40 lbs) |
| Normal weight (18.5–24.9 kg/m ²) | 11.5–16 kg (25–35 lbs) |
| Overweight (25.0–29.9 kg/m ²) | 7–11.5 kg (15–25 lbs) |
| Obese (≥30.0 kg/m ²) | 5–9 kg (11–20 lbs) |

Obesity Canada 2020

Thyroid Diseases in Pregnancy

HYPOTHYROIDISM IN PREGNANCY

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—hypothyroidism, when present, usually diagnosed prior to conception (most commonly Hashimoto). Around 75% of women will require an increase in levothyroxinebinding globulin→↓ total T4 and total T3. Estimated required increase in T4 to maintain euthyroidism is 25–50%. Fetus is dependent on maternal thyroid hormone until 18–20 weeks. Hypothyroidism may also be diagnosed in pregnancy (uncommon). ↑ thyroid hormone synthesis and ↑ renal clearance of iodine → i odine requirements during pregnancy, but if iodine intake insufficient (endemic) → ↓T4 and ↑TSH

MONITORING—screen high risk individuals (history of goiter, thyroid dysfunction, thyroid ablation, thyroidectomy, neck irradiation, autoimmune conditions, family history). Screening of low-risk women not recommended. Preconception, target TSH 0.2–2.5 mU/L (lower normal range). Use of pregnancy-specific local reference ranges recommended. If locally-validated reference ranges unavailable, use the following: in T₁, target TSH 0.1–2.5 mU/L (and free T4 in upper normal range); T₂, target TSH 0.2–3 mU/L (and total T4 in normal of pregnancy-adjusted range);

HYPOTHYROIDISM IN PREGNANCY (CONT'D)

and T_3 , target TSH 0.3–3 mU/L (and total T4 in normal of pregnancy-adjusted range). Use FT4 in first trimester and total T4 in second/third trimesters. Monitor TSH and free T4 (or total T4) levels q4weeks during first half of pregnancy and at least once between 26 and 32 weeks' gestation

TREATMENTS—levothyroxine can be safely given during pregnancy. As soon pregnancy is confirmed, ↑ dose by 30% empirically. Levothyroxine should be taken separately from vitamins, calcium, and/or iron supplements, and ideally on an empty stomach for best absorption. Avoid liothyronine (T3) because it does not cross placenta

COMPLICATIONS—untreated hypothyroidism associated with neonatal neuropsychological and cognitive impairment, preeclampsia and gestational hypertension, preterm labor, placental abruption, and perinatal morbidity and mortality

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

SUBCLINICAL HYPOTHYROIDISM—elevated trimester-specific TSH with normal FT4. No benefit (maternal, obstetrical, fetal, or long-term child development outcomes) with treatment

HYPERTHYROIDISM IN PREGNANCY

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—most commonly Graves disease. TSH receptor stimulating antibody $\rightarrow \uparrow$ thyroid hormone production. Hyperthyroidism may also arise from excess hCG (self-limited surge in T₁ [transient gestational thyrotoxis], multiple gestation, hyperemesis gravidarum, or molar pregnancy [hydatidiform mole]) \rightarrow hCG α -subunit nearly identical to TSH α -subunit $\rightarrow \uparrow$ thyroid hormone production $\rightarrow \downarrow$ TSH

COMPLICATIONS—preeclampsia, premature labor, placental abruption, intrauterine growth restriction, fetal goiter (from excess antithyroid drug treatment), neonatal thyrotoxicosis (typically when TSH receptor antibodies >3–5 × upper limit of normal), ↑ mortality (maternal and perinatal), and thyroid storm (rare)

SUBCLINICAL HYPERTHYROIDISM—not associated with adverse outcomes. Supportive care, reassurance, and postpartum follow-up

EXCESS hCG EFFECT—transient gestational thyrotoxicosis may be present in 5–10% of pregnancies during T₁ (\downarrow TSH, normal/slightly \uparrow FT4). Self-limited and typically resolves by T₂. Treatment is supportive with reassurance

GRAVES DISEASE—most common cause of primary hyperthyroidism in pregnancy (95%). TSH receptor antibodies can cross placenta to cause fetal thyrotoxicosis. Classically improves in pregnancy. Exacerbations may happen in T_1 and postpartum

- DIAGNOSIS—presence of symptoms predating pregnancy, eye signs, weight loss despite adequate intake, and pretibial myxedema suggestive of Graves disease. However, presence of mild–moderately enlarged thyroid gland, hypervascularity, and/or nodularity usually unhelpful in differentiating between Graves disease vs. normal physiological changes. Presence of ↑ TSH receptor antibodies suggests Graves disease. Nuclear imaging contraindicated in pregnancy. Postpartum course can also help clarify etiology
- MONITORING—use of pregnancy-specific local reference ranges recommended. If locallyvalidated reference ranges unavailable, use the

HYPERTHYROIDISM IN PREGNANCY (CONT'D)

following: in T₁, target TSH 0.1–2.5 mU/L (and free T4 in upper normal range); T₂, target TSH 0.2–3 mU/L (and *total*T4 in normal *pregnancy-adjusted* range); and T₃, target TSH 0.3–3 mU/L (and *total* T4 in normal *pregnancy-adjusted* range). Use FT4 in first trimester and *total*T4 in second/third trimesters. Monitor TSH and free T4 (or total T4) levels q4weeks

TREATMENTS—antithyroid drugs, preferably propylthiouracil during T₁ and methimazole durina $T_2 - T_3$ (propylthiouracil associated with idiosyncratic liver injury, methimazole associated with aplasia cutis). Mild under-treatment preferred to hypothyroidism. May require lower dosages of antithyroid medication as pregnancy progresses. Taper or discontinue medication, if possible, towards delivery date to decrease risk of neonatal goiter. **β-blockers** (prefer propranolol; avoid atenolol) for symptom control, but may lead to fetal bradycardia, fetal hypoglycemia, and intrauterine growth restriction at higher doses. Avoid radioiodine during pregnancy. If surgery required (rare), ideally during T₂. Consult high-risk obstetrician to monitor maternal and fetal health

POSTPARTUM THYROIDITIS—painless (silent) and affects 10% of postpartum women within first postpartum year (usually first 3–6 months) and may be associated with postpartum depression. Classically begins with a hyperthyroid phase followed by hypothyroid phase. Only 25% have hypothyroid phase. Most cases resolve within 1 year. Risk of recurrence is up to 25% in subsequent pregnancies. Approximately 20–40% go on to develop permanent hypothyroidism

 TREATMENTS—most patients have mild thyrotoxicosis (× 1–2 months) and do not require treatment. For symptomatic thyrotoxicosis give β-blocker. Most eventually return to euthyroid state, but some become hypothyroid. If levothyroxine is needed, start 50–100 µg PO daily, and slowly withdraw after around 6 months as hypothyroidism may have resolved. Monitor TSH q6–8 weeks

Other Disorders in Pregnancy

SEIZURES IN PREGNANCY

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY — for women with known epilepsy, 25% will have ↑ frequency (secondary to non-adherence or inappropriately low antiepileptic drug levels), 25% will have ↓ frequency, and 50% will not change in pregnancy. Risk of uncontrolled seizures in pregnancy outweighs risks of antiepileptic drugs (because ↑ maternal death from ↓ recognition and ↓ treatment). Risk of seizures in offspring is elevated at 5%. Eclampsia, intracerebral bleed, and cerebral vein thrombosis may lead to seizures in pregnancy

TREATMENTS—valproic acid has a relatively high risk of neural tube defects and should be switched to alternate antiepileptic pre-pregnancy if possible. Phenytoin, carbamazepine, and phenobarbital are potentially teratogenic (especially if polytherapy required) but can be used if indicated and after appropriate counseling. Lamotrigine and levetiracetam monotherapy have reasonable data in pregnancy. Women often require higher doses of antiepileptic meds in pregnancy due to \uparrow volume distribution, \uparrow metabolism,

renal clearance. Measurement of drug levels and symptoms may guide dosing. Folic acid 0.4 mg PO daily should be prescribed to all women on antiepileptics in the childbearing age. Those planning a pregnancy should take folic acid 5 mg PO daily in the preconception period and in first trimester, then 1 mg PO daily throughout remainder of pregnancy. Higher risk of seizures peripartum and early postpartum due to 1 seizure threshold. Treat seizures in pregnancy with benzodiazepine. Postpartum counselling on safety precautions with newborn and titrate (1) medications to pre-pregnancy dose (or slightly above). Antiepileptic drugs may increase metabolism of hormonal contraceptive agents

LUPUS IN PREGNANCY

LUPUS EXACERBATIONS—may have increased flares during pregnancy and postpartum if not in remission for >6 months prior to conception. Plaquenil, azathioprine, and corticosteroids may be used during pregnancy. Avoid NSAIDs in T₃

COMPLICATIONS—increased risk of prematurity and in utero fetal death. Patients with nephritis may have severe exacerbations with acute kidney injury, preeclampsia, and maternal death. Test for maternal anti-SSA and anti-SSB antibodies (associated with increased risk of congenital heart block and neonatal lupus) and

LUPUS IN PREGNANCY (CONT'D)

monitor fetus with fetal heart rate and echocardiogram between 18 and 26 weeks gestation with treatment guided by high-risk obstetrics team. Patients with antiphospholipid antibodies are at increased risk of preeclampsia, miscarriage, and possibly thrombosis

BREAST CANCER IN PREGNANCY

DIAGNOSIS—often delayed given physiological changes. Staging workup similar to non-pregnant women. Use MRI or US instead of CT if imaging of abdomen required

TREATMENTS—mastectomy preferred over lumpectomy to avoid radiation. If adjuvant radiation indicated, it should be deferred until after delivery. Anthracycline containing adjuvant chemotherapy can usually be safely given during T_2 and T_3 , but not in T_1 or within 2 weeks of delivery. Methotrexate is absolutely contraindicated and taxane/dose dense regimens should be avoided. Hormonal therapy is contraindicated during pregnancy. Breast-feeding contraindicated in women on hormonal therapy or chemotherapy. Stage by stage, gestational breast cancer has similar prognosis to non-pregnant counterpart

PAIN CONTROL IN PREGNANCY AND BREASTFEEDING

ACCEPTABLE—acetaminophen, opioids (watch for neonatal abstinence syndrome with higher, prolonged doses). In breastfeeding, NSAIDs can be used with little effect on BP; caution with codeine due to newborn metabolism

WITH CAUTION—NSAIDs in T₁ and T₂

CONTRAINDICATED—NSAIDs in T₃ (premature closure of ductus arteriosus, fetal renal insufficiency, and periventricular hemorrhage)

THROMBOCYTOPENIA IN PREGNANCY

PERIPARTUM CONSIDERATIONS—neuraxial anesthesia (epidural) generally safe if platelet $>75 \times 10^{9}/L$; caesarean delivery safe if platelet $>50 \times 10^{9}/L$; vaginal delivery safe if platelets $>30 \times 10^{9}/L$

GESTATIONAL THROMBOCYTOPENIA (T₃) asymptomatic and resolves rapidly after pregnancy. May be difficult to distinguish from ITP initially (until postpartum). Platelet count usually higher (> 70×10^{9} /L) in gestational thrombocytopenia. Follow platelet count q4weeks initially then q1week after 36th week

THROMBOCYTOPENIA IN PREGNANCY (CONT'D)

ITP (T_1-T_3) —may use prednisone and IVIG in pregnancy. (Avoid dexamethasone, which crosses the placenta) Platelet transfusion if acute. Monitor closely. Splenectomy is last resort (safest in T_2). 10% of newborns may also develop thrombocytopenia due to placental transfer of maternal antibodies, but intracranial hemorrhage rare (<1%). Maternal platelet count does not predict feature platelet count. Newborn platelet counts should be tested and monitored, as needed, after birth

PREECLAMPSIA/HELLP (T_2-T_3) —supportive, early delivery, steroids for lung maturity if delivered <34 weeks (see earlier sections)

TTP/HUS—presence of severe thrombocytopenia and microangiopathic hemolytic anemia (†↑↑ LDH) differentiates TTP/HUS from HELLP. Requires plasma exchange±dialysis; rarely platelet transfusions

OTHERS—DIC, nutritional deficiencies (vitamin B12, folic acid), HIV, hepatitis B and C, drugs, autoimmune diseases (APLA), hypersplenism, and primary bone marrow disorders

ANTIPHOSPHOLIPID ANTIBODY SYNDROME IN PREGNANCY

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—persistent presence of antibody against phospholipids or cell surface proteins bound to anionic phospholipids. These include lupus anticoagulants (associated with thrombotic events), anticardiolipin antibody (associated with thrombotic events and obstetric complications; false-positive VDRL), and anti- β 2GP1 antibody \rightarrow most lead to hypercoagulable state, some may inhibit coagulation. Higher risk associated with higher antibody titer

CLINICAL FEATURES—venous and arterial thrombosis and rarely hemorrhage affecting the

ANTIPHOSPHOLIPID ANTIBODY SYNDROME IN PREGNANCY (CONT'D)

lungs, heart, CNS, GI, kidneys, skin, and eyes. Also, thrombocytopenia (via ITP, TTP), Raynaud phenomenon, ↑ risk of preeclampsia/eclampsia, recurrent fetal losses (see below), and intrauterine growth restriction

CAUSES—primary APS, secondary APS (various rheumatic diseases such as SLE, infections such as HIV and drugs)

DIAGNOSIS—clinical criteria of VTE or arterial thrombosis, or \geq 3 unexplained losses <10 weeks, or \geq 1 unexplained loss of morphologically normal fetus \geq 10 weeks, or \geq 1 premature births <34 weeks because of preeclampsia/eclampsia/placental insufficiency; *plus* laboratory criteria of elevated anticardiolipin antibodies, or lupus anticoagulant, or anti- β 2GP1 antibodies, confirmed >12 weeks apart. Diagnosis requires at least one clinical and one laboratory criteria

TREATMENTS—for women with APS associated with adverse obstetric outcomes, give prophylactic LMWH and low-dose ASA during pregnancy to 6 weeks postpartum. For women with APS associated with arterial thrombosis or VTE on anticoagulation prior to pregnancy, treatment dose LMWH plus low-dose ASA during pregnancy and resume warfarin postpartum (see p. 176 for more details on ANTIPHOSPHOLIPID ANTIBODY SYNDROME)

Related Topics

Antiphospholipid Antibody Syndrome (p. 176) Breast Cancer (p. 210) Lupus (p. 304) Thrombocytopenia (p. 168) Seizures (p. 335)

17 GENERAL INTERNAL MEDICINE Janeve Desy and Shannon M. Ruzycki



Approach to Diagnostic Tests and Clinical Trials

DIAGNOSTIC TESTS

| 2×2 TABLE | | | | |
|---------------|-----------------------|----------------------|---------|--|
| | Disease present | Disease absent | Total | |
| Test positive | a (true positive) | b (false positive) | a+b | |
| Test negative | c (false negative) | d (true negative) | c+d | |
| Total | a+c | b+d | a+b+c+a | |

SENSITIVITY ★ SNOUT ★

=a/(a+c)

=out of 100 patients with disease, how many have a positive test result? Independent of prevalence, high sensitivity rules **out** disease (fewer false negatives)

SPECIFICITY **★**SPIN★

=d/(b+d)

=out of 100 people without disease, how many have a negative test result? Independent of prevalence, high specificity rules **in** disease (fewer false positives)

POSITIVE PREDICTIVE VALUE (PPV)

=a/(a+b)

=out of 100 patients with a positive test result, how many actually have disease? Increases as prevalence increases

NEGATIVE PREDICTIVE VALUE (NPV)

=d/(c+d)

=out of 100 patients with a negative test result, how many do not have disease? Decreases as prevalence increases

LIKELIHOOD RATIOS (LR)—indicates how much a given diagnostic test result will change the pretest probability of the disorder under investigation, using Fagan nomogram:

- LR 1.0 no change: pre-test probability = posttest probability
- LR >1.0 increases the post-test probability
- LR <1.0 decreases the post-test probability

DIAGNOSTIC TESTS (CONT'D)

FAGAN NOMOGRAM—easily converts from pre-test probability to post-test probability using LR (alleviating tedious calculations above)



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DIAGNOSTIC TESTS (CONT'D)

POSITIVE LIKELIHOOD RATIO (LR+)

- =(positive test in disease)/(positive test in no disease)
- =sensitivity/(1 specificity)

NEGATIVE LIKELIHOOD RATIO (LR-)

=(negative test in disease)/(negative test in no disease)

=(1 - sensitivity)/specificity

ACCURACY

- =(a+d)/(a+b+c+d)
- =how often is test correct in predicting true positive and true negative

TO CALCULATE THE POST-TEST PROBABIL-ITY OF A DIAGNOSIS AFTER A TEST

PRE-TEST PROBABILITY

- =probability of disease prior to performing test of interest
- =disease prevalence (if no other diagnostic test previously performed) or post-test probability (after other initial investigations)
- PRE-TEST ODDS
 - = pre-test probability/(1 pre-test probability)
- POST-TEST ODDS
 - = pre-test odds × likelihood ratio
- POST-TEST PROBABILITY
 - = (post-test odds)/(1 + post-test odds)

THERAPEUTIC INTERVENTIONS

2×2 TABLE

| | Outcome positive | Outcome negative | Total |
|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------|
| Exposure positive | а | Ь | a+b |
| Exposure negative | с | d | c+d |
| Total | a+c | b+d | a+b+c+d |

ODDS RATIO (OR)

- Use to express effect of exposure in a case control study
 - = (a/b)/(c/d) = ad/bc. Odds ratio approximates RR if the disease is relatively rare
 - = odds of the event in the treatment group/ odds of the event in the control group

RELATIVE RISK (RR)

- Use to express effect of exposure in a cohort study
 - = experimental event rate/control event rate

= [a/(a+b)]/[c/(c+d)]RELATIVE RISK REDUCTION (RRR)

- = |experimental event rate control event rate| / control event rate
- = | [a/(a+b)] [c/(c+d)] | / [c/(c+d)]

ABSOLUTE RISK REDUCTION (ARR)

= |experimental event rate - control event rate|= a/(a+b) - c/(c+d)

NUMBER NEEDED TO TREAT (NNT)

= 1/ARR = number of patients you would need to treat for one patient to benefit from the treatment of interest

Alcohol Withdrawal and Complications of Alcohol Use Disorder

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

ALCOHOL EQUIVALENTS — 360 mL (12 oz) of beer = 150 mL (5 oz) of wine = 45 mL (1.5 oz) of distilled spirits = 12 g of alcohol (a standard drink) THRESHOLD FOR INCREASED HEALTH RISKS — >14 drinks/week or >4 drinks/session for men and >7 drinks/week or >3 drinks/session for women or those \geq 65 years old. Cirrhosis generally requires >80 g/day (8 beers, 1 bottle of wine, or 250 mL of hard liquor) for 10–20 years

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

ALCOHOL USE DISORDER

- A problematic pattern of alcohol use leading to clinically significant impairment or distress, as manifested by at least 2 of the DSM V problematic drinking criteria, occurring within a 12 month period
- Mild= 2-3 criteria
- Moderate= 4-5 criteria
- Severe= 6 or more criteria

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

COMPLICATIONS OF EXCESS ALCOHOL

- ACUTE INTOXICATION
- ACUTE WITHDRAWAL—minor withdrawal, seizures, hallucinations, delirium tremens
- CHRONIC EXCESS ALCOHOL
 - NEUROLOGIC—Wernicke–Korsakoff syndrome, cognitive dysfunction, cerebellar degeneration, Marchiafava–Bignami disease, peripheral neuropathy, myopathy
 - PSYCHIATRIC—dependence, depression, homicide, suicide
 - cardiovascular—hypertension, coronary heart disease, dilated cardiomyopathy, arrhythmias
 - LIVER—fatty liver, alcoholic hepatitis, cirrhosis
 - PANCREAS—acute or chronic pancreatitis
 - NUTRITION—hypokalemia, hypomagnesemia, hypophosphatemia, malnutrition, overweight
 - нематоLogy—macrocytic anemia, thrombocytopenia, splenomegaly
 - CANCER—oral cavity, esophagus, pharynx, larynx, liver, breast
 - ENDOCRINE—hypoglycemia, ketosis, pseudo-Cushing disease, hyperuricemia, hypogonadism
 - social—accidents, domestic violence, fetal alcohol syndrome

DSM V CRITERIA FOR ALCOHOL WITHDRAWAL

- A. Cessation/reduction of alcohol use that has been heavy and prolonged
- B. Two or more of the following within several hours to a few days of cessation or reduction in use: autonomic hyperactivity (e.g. sweating, tachycardia), tremor, insomnia, nausea or vomiting, transient visual, tactile, or auditory hallucinations or illusions, psychomotor agitation, anxiety, generalized tonic-clonic seizures
- C. Symptoms/signs above cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning
- Rule out general medical conditions or other mental disorders

MINOR WITHDRAWAL

- TIMING—occurs within 6 h of cessation, resolves in 24–48 h
- symptoms—due to CNS and sympathetic hyperactivity, may include insomnia, tremulousness, mild anxiety, gastrointestinal upset, headache, diaphoresis, palpitations, anorexia

ALCOHOLIC HALLUCINATIONS

 тімінд—develop within 12–24 h of abstinence and resolve within 24–48 h

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY (CONT'D)

 symptoms—usually visual, although auditory and tactile phenomena may also occur. Unlike DT, there is usually no decreased level of consciousness/global confusion or autonomic dysfunction

WITHDRAWAL SEIZURES

- TIMING—usually occur within 48 h after the last drink; however, may occur after only 2 h of abstinence. Occur in 10–30% of patients in alcohol withdrawal
- symptoms—generalized tonic–clonic convulsions, usually multiple/recurrent. Predominantly seen in patients with a long history of chronic alcoholis use. Be wary of intracerebral hemorrhage with focal seizures

DELIRIUM TREMENS (DT)

- тімінд—typically begin between 72 and 96 h after the last drink and lasts 1–5 days
- syмpтомs—hallucinations, disorientation, tachycardia, hypertension, low-grade fever, agitation, and diaphoresis
- RISK FACTORS—increasing age, history of sustained drinking, history of previous delirium tremens, concurrent illness, greater number of days since the last drink, development of alcohol withdrawal with a positive blood alcohol level

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

- LABS—CBC (macrocytosis, cytopenias), lytes, urea, Cr, glucose, TSH, AST, ALT (AST/ ALT >2), ALP, bilirubin, GGT, Ca, Mg, PO₄, osmolality, ETOH level, ferritin
- місковіоLogy —blood C&S, urinalysis, urine C&S (if delirious)
- Imaging—CXR
- ECG
- ABG
- URINE DRUG SCREEN

SPECIAL

 HEAD CT—if significant or prolonged delirium, focal neurologic deficits, or focal seizures

ACUTE MANAGEMENT OF ALCOHOL WITHDRAWAL

TREAT/PREVENT COMPLICATIONS

SEIZURES OR DELIRIUM TREMENS—diazepam
 5–10 mg IV q5min or lorazepam 2–4 mg IV q15–20min until patient calm, then put symptom triggered therapy

ACUTE MANAGEMENT OF ALCOHOL WITHDRAWAL (CONT'D)

- AT RISK FOR WITHDRAWAL (fixed schedule dosing)—chlordiazepoxide 50–100 mg PO q6h and PRN×1 day, then 25–50 mg q6h and PRN×2 days. Alternatively, consider CIWA-Ar scale below
- REFRACTORY DELIRIUM TREMENS—propofol, phenobarbital

NUTRITIONAL SUPPLEMENT—thiamine deficiency (thiamine 100–250 mg IV/IM×5 days must be given before glucose solution or may worsen Wernicke encephalopathy); consider high dose thiamine for Wernicke encephalopathy (500 mg IV TID×2 days, 500 mg IV/IM daily×5 days). Multivitamin 1 tab PO daily. Replace electrolytes (K, Mg, PO₄) if low

LONG-TERM MANAGEMENT OF ALCOHOLISM

COUNSELING—support social network (Alcoholics Anonymous, counseling). Abstinence programs (outpatient, inpatient). Education (alcoholism is a chronic-relapsing disease, explain withdrawal)

MEDICATIONS—naltrexone (mu-opioid receptor antagonist) 25 mg PO daily×1 week, then 50 mg PO daily for at least 3-4 months, coupled with psychosocial intervention. Depot injection can be used if significant risk of non-adherence. Contraindicated in hepatic failure, hepatitis, elevated liver enzymes >/= 3 times normal, and recent/concomitant opioid use or opioid withdrawal. Acamprosate (GABA Agonist) 666 mg PO g8h can be used in patients with liver disease. Dose adjustment required for renal dysfunction, contraindicated if CrCl </30mL/min. Disulfiram (aldehyde dehydrogenase inhibitor) which causes a highly unpleasant sensation when patient consumes alcohol is another option

TREATMENT ISSUES FOR ALCOHOL WITHDRAWAL

REVISED CLINICAL INSTITUTE WITH-DRAWAL ASSESSMENT FOR ALCOHOL (CIWA-AR) SCALE (for use in patients who are able to answer questions)

- NAUSEA AND VOMITING (0–7)—"Do you feel sick to your stomach? Have you vomited?"
- тrемог (0–7)
- PAROXYSMAL SWEATS (0–7)
- ANXIETY (0-7)—"Do you feel nervous?"
- AGITATION (0–7)
- TACTILE DISTURBANCES (0–7)—"Do you have any itching, pins-and-needles sensations, burning,

TREATMENT ISSUES FOR ALCOHOL WITHDRAWAL (CONT'D)

or numbness, or do you feel like bugs are crawling on or under your skin?"

- AUDITORY DISTURBANCES (0-7)—"Are you more aware of sounds around you? Are they harsh? Do they frighten you? Are you hearing anything that is disturbing to you? Are you hearing things you know are not there?"
- VISUAL DISTURBANCES (0-7)—"Does the light appear to be too bright? Is its color different? Does it hurt your eyes? Are you seeing anything that is disturbing to you? Are you seeing things you know are not there?"
- HEADACHE, FULLNESS IN HEAD (0–7)—"Does your head feel different? Does it feel like there is a band around your head?"
- ORIENTATION AND CLOUDING OF SENSORIUM (0-4)— "What day is this? Where are you? Who am !?"
- υπμπγ—mild withdrawal ≤8/67 points, moderate withdrawal 9–15 points, severe withdrawal >15 points (higher risk of delirium tremens and seizures). Use of benzodiazepines recommended when score ≥9. Symptomtriggered regimens require intense monitoring, but have been shown to result in less medication use and shorter duration of treatment

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

THIAMINE DEFICIENCY SYNDROMES

- WERNICKE ENCEPHALOPATHY—encephalopathy (profound disorientation, indifference, inattentiveness, delirium, altered level of consciousness), oculomotor dysfunction (nystagmus, lateral rectus palsy, and conjugate gaze palsies), gait ataxia
- KORSAKOFF SYNDROME (irreversible)—selective anterograde and retrograde amnesia, confabulation, apathy, intact sensorium, relative preservation of long-term memory and other cognitive skills

METHANOL AND ETHYLENE GLYCOL OVERDOSE

- cAUSES—methanol and ethylene glycol can be found in anti-freeze, de-icing solutions, windshield fluids, cleaners, solvents, and fuels. The methanol metabolite formate and the ethylene glycol metabolites glycolate, glyoxylate, and oxalate result in toxic injuries. A lethal dose is around 1 g/kg
- CLINICAL FEATURES—anion (and osmolar) gap metabolic acidosis with associated Kussmaul breathing, hypotension, seizures, and altered level of consciousness. Methanol specifically is associated with mydriasis, afferent pupillary

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

defect, optic disc hyperemia, retinal edema resulting in permanent blindness and ischemic injury to the basal ganglia. Ethylene glycol can result in cranial nerve palsies, tetany, and acute kidney injury with hematuria due to crystalline nephropathy

TREATMENTS—supportive measures. NG suction may be helpful if recent ingestion (no role for activated charcoal). **NaHCO₃** 1–2 amps IV bolus, then 3 amps in 1 L D5W at 250 mL/h (if metabolic acidosis pH 21 mmol/L, increase rate to 3 mL/kg/h on dialysis; alternatively PO 1 mL/ kg 95% ethanol, then 0.15 mL/kg/h). **Cofactor therapy** includes *folic* acid 50 mg IV q4h until methanol no longer measurable (accelerates formic acid \rightarrow CO₂+H₂O); *thiamine* 100 mg IV g6h and *pyridoxine* 50 mg IV q6h until ethylene

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

glycol no longer measurable (accelerates glycoxylate \rightarrow glycine + α -hydroxy- β -ketoadipate. This reaction requires magnesium supplementation). **Hemodialysis** for confirmed intoxication (methanol level >15.6 mmol/L [>500 µg/ mL] or ethylene glycol level >8 mmol/L [>500 mg/dL]), refractory metabolic acidosis, or acute kidney injury. Folic acid, thiamine, and multivitamin as supportive measures

Rhabdomyolysis

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

SKELETAL MUSCLE DAMAGE

- MEDICATIONS alcohol, cocaine, statins, neuroleptic malignant syndrome, serotonin syndrome, malignant hyperthermia
- INFECTIONS
- HYPERACTIVITY seizures, exertion
- IMMOBILITY
- COMPARTMENT SYNDROME
- TRAUMA OR SURGERY
- ELECTROLYTE ABNORMALITIES hypokalemia, hypophosphatemia
- муоратниез polymyositis, dermatomyositis

CARDIAC MUSCLE DAMAGE—myocardial infarction

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DEFINITION OF RHABDOMYOLYSIS—CK >5 × of upper normal limit

HYPOCALCEMIA AND HYPERCALCEMIA calcium initially decreases due to ↑ deposition in muscle and ↓ bone responsiveness to PTH. May see rebound hypercalcemia in 20% of patients when rhabdomyolysis resolves

COMPLICATIONS—acute kidney injury, DIC from release of thromboplastin

INVESTIGATIONS

BASIC

 LABS—lytes, urea, Cr, CK, AST, ALT, Ca, PO₄, Mg, uric acid, troponin, LDH, urine myoglobin (positive urine dipstick for blood without RBC on microscopy)

DIAGNOSTIC ISSUES

MONITORING IN RHABDOMYOLYSIS—CK, urine output, Cr, Ca, PO_4 should be checked regularly (q4–24 h) until CK normalized (monitor hyperK, hyperPO₄, hyperuricemia, metabolic acidosis)

MANAGEMENT

ACUTE—ABC, O₂ to keep sat >90%, IV PREVENT COMPLICATIONS—IV crystalloid 3–4 L in first 3–4 h bolus, then maintenance rate that achieves a urine output of 200-300mL/hr to prevent acute kidney injury (avoid large volumes of NS as this may cause NAGMA). However, if acute kidney injury already established, be careful not to cause fluid overload. Fasciotomy for compartment syndrome

Alkaline diuresis (add 3 amps NaHCO₃ to 1 L D5W to keep urine pH >6.5, little evidence for this)

SPECIFIC ENTITIES

NEUROLEPTIC MALIGNANT SYNDROME (NMS)

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—an idiosyncratic reaction due to dopamine receptor blockade, usually with typical, and sometimes atypical, antipsychotic agents. The syndrome typically occurs within a few days of treatment, with drug levels usually within therapeutic range. May also develop after withdrawal of exogenous dopa-

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

minergic agonists, such as levodopa therapy in Parkinson disease patients

- CLINICAL FEATURES—classic tetrad of high fever, autonomic instability (tachycardia, hypertension), neuromuscular rigidity, and altered mental status. CK may be elevated if rigidity present
- DIAGNOSIS—clinical based on history and physical. Check CK
- TREATMENTS—discontinue all antidopaminergic medications. Supportive measures. Specific treatments include benzodiazepines (lorazepam), dantrolene (skeletal muscle relaxant), bromocriptine (dopamine agonist), and amantadine (dopaminergic and anticholinergic)

SEROTONIN SYNDROME

 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—Overstimulation of central and peripheral serotonin receptors, usually related to overdose of SSRIs or drug interactions that increase serotonergic neuro-

SPECIFIC ENTITIES (CONT'D)

transmission (e.g. SSRIs in combination with MAOIs or TCAs)

- CLINICAL FEATURES—classic triad of autonomic instability (fever, tachycardia, hypertension), neuromuscular rigidity and altered mental status. CK may be elevated if rigidity present. While many of the symptoms may be similar to neuroleptic malignant syndrome, shivering, hyperreflexia, myoclonus, and ataxia may be present in serotonin syndrome but not in neuroleptic malignant syndrome
- DIAGNOSIS—clinical based on history and physical
- TREATMENTS—discontinue all serotonergic medications. Supportive measures (oxygen, IV crystalloids for volume depletion, cardiac monitoring). In mild cases, symptoms usually resolve within 24 h. Consider benzodiazepines (if significant agitation), cyproheptadine (histamine-1 receptor antagonist) in select cases

Multisystem Disorders

SELECTED MULTISYSTEM DISORDERS

INFECTIONS

- BACTERIAL—endocarditis, TB, Whipple disease
- VIRAL—HIV, HBV, HCV, EBV, CMV
- FUNGAL—histoplasmosis, aspergillosis
- **PARASITIC**—schistosomiasis

MALIGNANCY

• solid—metastatic, paraneoplastic

LYMPHOPROLIFERATIVE—leukemia, lymphoma

INFLAMMATORY—vasculitis, rheumatoid arthritis, scleroderma, SLE, IBD

IATROGENIC—drugs

INFILTRATIVE—cryoglobulinemia, hemochromatosis, amyloidosis, sarcoidosis, porphyria ENDOCRINE—diabetes, hyperthyroidism

HEMOCHROMATOSIS

INHERITANCE—autosomal recessive with low penetrance. Among the North American population of European descent, approximately 10% are heterozygous and 0.4% are homozygous for hemochromatosis

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—mutation of HFE gene (90% homozygous for C282Y, other common mutation is the C282Y/H63D compound heterozy-gote); results in low hepcidin levels $\rightarrow \uparrow$ intestinal absorption of heme and non-heme iron \rightarrow iron deposition in organs

HEMOCHROMATOSIS (CONT'D)

CLINICAL FEATURES—generally manifest after age 40 (later in women). Skin (bronze), joints (arthralgia, destructive arthritis, classically 2nd and 3rd MCP, chondrocalcinosis), heart (arrhythmia, cardiomyopathy, heart failure), pancreas ("bronze" diabetes), thyroid (hypothyroidism), liver († LFT, hepatomegaly, fibrosis, cirrhosis, hepatocellular carcinoma 200 × † risk), gonads (hypogonadism, impotence), pituitary (hypopituitarism), infections (Listeria, Yersinia, Vibrio), fatigue

DIAGNOSIS—↑ transferrin % saturation (serum iron/TIBC×100%, most useful for screening if >45%), Fe (↑), ferritin (↑), HFE genotype testing. Liver biopsy for hepatic iron content if elevated liver enzymes or ferritin >1000 in C282Y/ C282Y homozygotes, liver biopsy versus T2-weighted MRI (can estimate hepatic iron concentration and differentiate HH from secondary iron overload) in non-C282Y homozygotes with suspected iron overload. Rule out secondary iron overload and iron loading anemias (e.g. sickle cell anemia, thalassemia major, and chronic hemolytic anemia)

TREATMENTS—alcohol cessation, phlebotomy (remove 1–2 U weekly until ferritin 50–100 ng/mL then initiate maintenance phlebotomy),

HEMOCHROMATOSIS (CONT'D)

avoid iron and vitamin C supplements, avoid raw seafood/shellfish (risk of *Vibrio*), screen first degree relatives. Chelation only if phlebotomy contraindicated (e.g. moderate/severe anemia) or not tolerated (e.g. hypotension)

2019 American College Gastroenterology Guideline Hereditary Hemochromatosis

SARCOIDOSIS

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—cause unknown, may involve antigen exposure \rightarrow activation of T-cell immunity \rightarrow non-caseating granuloma formation CLINICAL FEATURES—constitutional (fatigue, weight loss, fever), pulmonary (cough, dyspnea, chest pain. Staged according to CXR: stage I = bilateral hilar adenopathy, stage II = hilar adenopathy with parenchymal reticular opacities, upper > lower, stage III = parenchymal reticular opacities without hilar adenopathy, stage IV = advanced fibrosis with evidence of volume loss, honey-combing, hilar retraction, bullae, cysts, and emphysema. Stages not necessarily chronological), cardiac (arrhythmia especially conduction blocks, HF, sudden death), GI tract (hepatomegaly, rarely ulcers, obstruction), renal (interstitial nephritis, nephrocalcinosis, nephrolithiasis), neurologic (cranial nerve palsies especially CN VII, aseptic basilar meningitis, pituitary dysfunction, peripheral neuropathy, neuromuscular, transverse myelitis), ocular (uveitis, optic neuritis, scleritis, retinitis), endocrine (hypercalcemia, hypercalciuria, abnormal vitamin D metabolism, hypopituitarism), lymphatics (lymphadenopathy, hypersplenism), joints/ **bone** (symmetrical acute polyarthritis of ankles, chronic arthritis of large or small joints of hands and feet, bone pain with periosteal resorption), and skin (erythema nodosum, lupus pernio, subcutaneous nodules), lacrimal and parotid gland enlargement. Lofgren syndrome is an acute presentation characterized by bilateral hilar lymphadenopathy, erythema nodosum and/or peri-articular arthritis; associated with a good prognosis with >80% remission in 2 years. Heerfordt syndrome is facial palsy, fever, anterior uveitis and parotid gland enlargement

INVESTIGATIONS—blood tests (CBC, lytes, urea, Cr, Ca, ALP, serum ACE level), urine tests (urinalysis), imaging (CXR, high resolution CT chest), special (TST or IGRA, ECG, cardiac MRI if suspected cardiac involvement, TTE if suspected pulmonary hypertension, PFTs, LP and gadolinium enhanced brain MRI if neurological

SARCOIDOSIS (CONT'D)

symptoms, lymph node sampling [EBUS recommended over mediastinoscopy—see below for indications], biopsy of affected organ(s), ophthalmology referral)

DIAGNOSIS—requires compatible clinical findings plus non-necrotizing granulomatous inflammation on biopsy (not required if high clinical suspicion such as in the case of Lofgren syndrome, Heerfordt syndrome, or lupus pernio) plus exclusion of alternate causes

PROGNOSIS—50–60% have spontaneous remission within 3 years. Poor prognostic factors include age at onset >40, Black race, progressive pulmonary sarcoidosis, pulmonary hypertension and extra-thoracic disease

TREATMENTS

- LUNG INVOLVEMENT—observation if asymptomatic stage I-III disease with normal/mild PFT changes (follow up symptoms, PFTs, and imaging) or Lofgren syndrome as high chance of spontaneous remission. Inhaled steroids for mild cough (*budesonide* 800–1600 mcg BID×4–8 weeks) and systemic steroid (*prednisone* 20–40 mg PO daily×3 months) for progressive/severe disease, symptoms that interfere with quality of life. Cytotoxic agents (methotrexate, azathioprine, leflunomide, or mycophenolate mofetil) +/- anti-TNF therapy (infliximab) second line.
- SKIN AND EYE INVOLVEMENT—topical steroid
- JOINT INVOLVEMENT—NSAIDs first line, prednisone second line, hydroxychloroquine or colchicine third line
- CARDIAC INVOLVEMENT—prednisone 40–60 mg PO daily, cytotoxic agents second line, anti-TNF or cyclophosphamide if severe disease. Concurrent management of arrhythmias and reduced EF, and consideration for device therapy and transplantation
- NEUROLOGIC INVOLVEMENT—prednisone 40–60 mg PO daily in mild disease, methylprednisolone 60–80 mg IV daily in severe disease, cytotoxic agents second line, anti-TNF therapy or cyclophosphamide for severe disease

2020 American Thoracic Society Guideline Sarcoidosis West Curr Opin Rheumatol 2018;30:(3)

AMYLOIDOSIS

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—soluble amyloid precursor protein (amyloidogenic proteins: AL/primary amyloidosis = monoclonal Ig light chain variable region in plasma cell dyscrasias; AA/

AMYLOIDOSIS (CONT'D)

secondary amyloidosis = serum amyloid A in chronic inflammatory conditions; ATTR (acquired or hereditary) = derived from mutant transthyretin protein, $A\beta = A\beta$ protein precursor in Alzheimer disease, β 2-microglobulin in CKD/ hemodialysis) \rightarrow insoluble fibrils deposit in different organs

CLINICAL FEATURES—constitutional (fatigue, weight loss), skin (waxy, thick, easy bruising, racoon eyes/periorbital purpura), renal (nephrotic proteinuria, distal RTA, nephrogenic diabetes insipidus). cardiac (diastolic > systolic HF, cardiomyopathy, arrhythmia, heart block, MI), neurologic (mixed sensory/motor peripheral neuropathy, autonomic neuropathy, bowel/bladder dysfunction, intracranial bleeding, carpal tunnel syndrome), pulmonary (pleural effusion, parenchymal nodules, tracheobronchial infiltration), GI tract (hepatosplenomegaly, GI bleed, malabsorption, pseudo-obstruction/ dysmotility), hematologic (reduced activity of factor X, binding of Ca-dependent factors to amyloid), endocrine (adrenal insufficiency, hypothyroidism), soft tissues (muscle pseudo-hypertrophy, shoulder pad sign, nail dystrophy, alopecia, macroglossia is specific to AL, occurring in 20%)

DIAGNOSIS—**biopsy** of involved organ(s) (subcutaneous fat pad, minor salivary glands, or rectal tissue). Amyloid stains red with Congo red dye and shows "apple-green" birefringence under polarized light

INVESTIGATIONS—investigate cause: serum and urine protein electrophoresis and immunofixation, free light chain assay, bone marrow biopsy, and skeletal imaging (AL), immunohistochemical staining for specific amyloid protein (AA and TTR), genetic testing. **Investigate for end organ disease:** CBC, Cr, 24h urine protein, AST, ALT, ALP, bilirubin, INR, ECG, BNP, troponin, echocardiogram +/- cardiac MRI. Amyloidosis usually involves λ light chain, whereas light chain deposition disease involves κ light chain

PROGNOSIS—median survival 1–2 years for AL, only 6 months if cardiac involvement. Up to 15 years in ATTR. Prognosis dependent on underlying disease in AA

TREATMENTS—supportive (dialysis if renal failure). Treatment of underlying infectious/inflammatory disorder (AA) and plasma cell dyscrasia (AL), altered dialysis mode or renal transplant in dialysis-associated amyloidosis, tafamidis (transthyretin stabilizer) in ATTR cardiomyopathy, liver transplantation in hereditary amyloidosis

Wechalekar et al. *Lancet* 2016;387(10038) Maurer et al. *NEJM* 2018;379(11) Falk et al. *NEJM* 1997;337(13)

CRYOGLOBULINEMIA

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY-production of crvoglobulins (immunoglobulins that precipitate at temperatures <37 °C and re-dissolve on warming) that can cause end organ damage, hyperviscosity, and systemic vasculitis of small to medium vessels. Type I = monoclonal IgG/IgM/IgA/free light chains, produced by protein-secreting monoclonal gammopathies (Waldenstrom macroglobulinemia/multiple myeloma/MGUS/ CLL). Type II = mixed cryoglobulins, monoclonal IgM with RF activity and polyclonal IgG. Type III = polyclonal IgM with RF activity and polyclonal IgG, may be essential or due to immune activation from persistent viral infections (HCV/HIV/ HBV), autoimmune disease, or lymphoproliferative disorders

CLINICAL FEATURES OF TYPE I—symptoms from vascular occlusion/thrombosis +/- small vessel vasculitis. Skin (livedo reticularis, necrosis, Raynaud phenomenon, acrocyanosis, digital ischemia), arthralgia, renal (MPGN), hyperviscosity syndrome (blurred vision, confusion, headache, coma, epistaxis, oral bleeding)

CLINICAL FEATURES OF TYPE II/III—symptoms from immune complex vasculitis. Constitutional (fatigue, weight loss, arthralgia, myalgia), neurologic (peripheral neuropathy), renal (proteinuria, hematuria, MPGN), pulmonary (small airway disease), rheumatologic (Sjögren, Raynaud), skin (palpable purpura), splenomegaly, lymphadenopathy. Meltzer triad (purpura, weakness, and arthralgia)

DIAGNOSIS—laboratory (↑ cryoglobulin or cryocrit >1%, hypocomplementemia, ↑ ESR/CRP), clinical (vasculitis, thrombosis), pathological (biopsy of affected organ), secondary causes (serum protein electrophoresis, ANA, RF, HCV, HBV, HIV serology)

PROGNOSIS—10-year survival 50%. Death usually due to infection or cardiovascular disease. At risk for end-stage renal disease, secondary non-Hodqkin lymphoma

TREATMENTS—treat underlying cause, avoid cold exposure. For moderate/severe mixed cryoglobulinemia consider steroids and rituximab. Plasmapheresis for hyperviscosity syndrome, lifethreatening vasculitis, RPGN requiring dialysis

Muchtar et al. *Blood* 2017;129(3) Ramos-Casals et al. *Lancet* 2012;379(9813)

PORPHYRIA

INHERITANCE—mainly autosomal dominant with incomplete penetrance

PORPHYRIA (CONT'D)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—enzymatic defect in the heme synthesis pathway → continued production of toxic heme precursors by liver or bone marrow (porphobilinogen in acute intermittent porphyria) → accumulation in neurovisceral organs (acute hepatic porphyrias) and/or skin (photocutaneous porphyrias), with specific symptoms related to the nature of precursors. Eight types of porphyria representing defects at each of the steps of the pathway

CLINICAL FEATURES OF ACUTE HEPATIC **PORPHYRIAS**—acute intermittent porphyria most common, triad of seizures, abdominal pain, and hyponatremia, most commonly in young females, attacks can be precipitated by OCP use/ P-450 inducing medications. Attacks preceded by fatigue, anxiety, restlessness -> autonomic neuropathy (tachycardia, hypertension, arrhythmia, abdominal pain, vomiting, constipation/diarrhea), sensory neuropathy (extremity pain, back pain, numbness), motor neuropathy (weakness), cranial neuropathy (dysarthria, dysphagia, dysphonia, facial paresis), metabolic changes (dark/red urine, hepatic dysfunction, hyponatremia), and CNS symptoms (confusion, hallucinations, seizures). Occasionally may progress to diffuse muscle weakness with respiratory muscle paralysis. Long term, patients at risk of renal failure, hepatocellular carcinoma, and cholangiocarinoma

CLINICAL FEATURES OF PHOTOCUTANE-OUS PORPHYRIAS—porphyria cutanea tarda most common. Associated with hepatic iron overload, HCV, HIV, alcohol, and estrogen. Protoporphyria second most common and presents in childhood with severe burning/stinging/itching in sun exposed areas. Chronic photosensitive skin symptoms include excessive fragility, blistering, scarring, particularly on the back of hands, hypertrichosis on sun exposed skin, hyperpigmentation of face, and red/brown urine

DIAGNOSIS—for diagnosis of acute porphyria, measure spot urinary porphobilinogen (most elevated during attacks and substantial elevation confirms diagnosis) and spot urinary total porphyrins (elevated during attacks). If elevated PGB or total porphyrins, check plasma and fecal porphyrins to differentiate between types. If all normal, check urinary ALA. Ideally collect samples during acute attack. Once confirmed, genetic screening of first-degree family members. For diagnosis of porphyria cutanea tarda: total porphyrins (plasma, serum, or urinary). If elevated, perform porphyrin

PORPHYRIA (CONT'D)

fractionation and other specialized testing to determine type

TREATMENTS—for acute porphyria with moderate/severe symptoms: exogenous heme infusions (hematin 4 mg/kg IV daily x 4 days), supportive care including IV fluids (D10 in 1/2NS), analgesia, antiemetics, **avoid precipitating medications** (http://porphyriafoundation.com/ drug-database), alcohol, fasting, and infections, if possible. High-dose carbohydrate (400 g/day) diet can be considered in mild attacks. If recurrent acute attacks, prophylactic medications and liver transplantation can be curative. For cutaneous porphyria: therapy to deplete hepatic iron (phlebotomy or hydroxychloroquine), avoidance of exacerbating factors (sun, alcohol, tobacco, estrogen), treat underlying cause (e.q. HCV treatment)

Bissell et al. *NEJM* 2017;377(9) Kauppinen *Lancet* 2005;365(9455)

WHIPPLE DISEASE

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY—*Tropheryma whipplei* (Gram-positive bacillus, non-acid-fast, periodic acid-Schiff positive, found in soil, fresh and seawater sediments) \rightarrow infiltration of various organs without significant inflammatory response \rightarrow accumulation of organisms eventually causing organ failure. Typically white male predominance, mean age 50

CLINICAL FEATURES—GI (diarrhea, abdominal pain, malabsorption with weight loss and iron deficiency, GI bleed, abdominal mass, ascites), joints (seronegative, migratory, small joint predominant polyarthralgia), CNS (headache, delirium, dementia, seizures, coma, hypothalamic pituitary axis dysfunction, cerebellar ataxia, meningitis, myelopathy), eyes (supranuclear vertical oculomasticatory myorhythmia, gaze palsy, oculofacial-skeletal myorhythmia, uveitis), skin (hyperpigmentation, subcutaneous nodules, purpura), cardiac (myocarditis, pericarditis, CHF, murmur, culture negative endocarditis, hypotension), **pulmonary** (interstitial fibrosis, pleural effusion, hilar lymphadenopathy, chronic cough), hematologic (anemia, lymphadenopathy), constitutional (fever, weight loss)

DIAGNOSIS—often misdiagnosed as rheumatologic disease, immunosuppression can shorten time between prodromal symptoms and classic disease. Diagnosis usually made on small bowel biopsy (PAS-positive macrophages). Two tests required for diagnosis (i.e. PAS test followed by RT-PCR or immunohistochemistry). If biopsies

WHIPPLE DISEASE (CONT'D)

negative, consider testing other symptomatic tissues/fluid or CSF

TREATMENTS—fatal if untreated. Antibiotics (ceftriaxone 2 g IV daily×2 weeks, then trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole DS 1 tab PO BID×1-2 years), nutritional supplement (protein,

WHIPPLE DISEASE (CONT'D)

iron, folate). Disease can relapse even after many years and follow up duodenal biopsies are recommended during/after treatment

Marth et al. Lancet Infect Dis 2016:16(3) Fenollar et al. NEJM 2007:356(1)

2016 Canadian

Perioperative Assessment for Non-Cardiac Surgery **Cardiovascular Society Guidelines** and Postoperative Complications

Perioperative Cardiac Risk Assessment Patients Noncardiac Surgery

PERIOPERATIVE CARDIAC RISK ASSESSMENT

CCS PERIOPERATIVE SUMMARY

- DEFINING SURGICAL URGENCY—CCS guidelines define surgical urgency without providing specific timing. Perioperative evaluation is dictated by the surgical urgency
- EMERGENCY PROCEDURE—acute limb or lifethreatening (e.g. aortic aneurysm rupture). Emergency procedures should not be delayed for cardiac assessment
- URGENT & SEMI-URGENT PROCEDURES—limb or life-threatening (e.g. hip fracture, cancer with a potential to metastasize). Evaluate for unstable cardiac disease or obstructive cardiac disease (obtain echocardiogram): unstable angina, severe aortic stenosis (symptomatic, aortic valve area 40 mmHq, or maximum aortic velocity >4.0 m/s), severe mitral stenosis (symptoms, mitral valve area 40 mmHg or right heart failure or symptoms). Discussion with patient, surgical team, and anesthesiologist about the risks and benefits of delaying or cancelling the procedure
- ELECTIVE—procedures that can be delayed without worsening of a medical condition (e.g. knee arthroplasty). Undergo formal cardiac risk assessment

PREOPERATIVE CARDIAC ASSESSMENTfor elective procedures with expected length of stay greater than 24 hours. CCS guidelines recommend against using METS, cardiac stress testing, and routine echocardiograms to differentiate high vs. low risk

1. Risk stratification with revised cardiac risk index (RCRI): predicts risk of MI, cardiac arrest,

PERIOPERATIVE CARDIAC RISK ASSESSMENT (CONT'D)

or death at 30-days: 0/6 = 3.9%, 1/6 = 6.0%, $2/6 = 10.1\%, \geq 3/6 = 15.0\%$

- HIGH-RISK SURGERY—thoracic, intraperitoneal, or suprainguinal vascular surgery
- CAD—any MI, current angina, current nitrate use, positive exercise stress test, O waves on ECG
- HF—history of HF, PND, pulmonary edema, S3, crackles, vascular redistribution on CXR
- CVD—history of stroke or TIA
- DIABETES—use of insulin
- RENAL FAILURE—creatinine >177 µmol/L
- 2. If age >65 years, RCRI > 1, or age 45–64 years with cardiovascular disease (known CAD, CVD, peripheral arterial disease, CHF, severe pulmonary hypertension, or severe obstructive intracardiac abnormality), order a preoperative BNP
- 3. If BNP >92 mg/L or NT-proBNP >300 mg/L or result unavailable, order troponins daily for 3 days after surgery or until discharge, whichever is sooner
- 4. If BNP <92 mg/L or NT-proBNP <300 mg/L, no additional testing is required

POSTOPERATIVE TROPONIN SURVEIL-**LANCE**—more than half of postoperative MIs are asymptomatic and only detected with routine postoperative troponin measurement. Patients with postoperative troponin elevations are at increased risk of 30-day and 1-year mortality (50% cardiac mortality, 50% other cause mortality). Measure troponins daily for three days after surgery or until discharge (whichever comes first) in patients who are staying in hospital for \geq 24-hours after surgery and have postoperative cardiac com-

PERIOPERATIVE CARDIAC RISK ASSESSMENT (CONT'D)

plication risk \geq 5.0% (\uparrow BNP, age \geq 65 years, 45–64 years and cardiovascular disease, or RCRI \geq 1)

 MYOCARDIAL INJURY AFTER NONCARDIAC SURGERY (MINS)—postoperative troponin elevation not explained by another systemic disease (e.g. pulmonary embolism, sepsis). Defined by troponin T ≥0.03 ng/mL, hs-troponin ≥65 ng/L or ≥20 ng/L and increasing by 5 ng/L or more. Treatment: evaluate/treat systemic disease, consider ASA and statin, consider dabigatran

SURGICAL TIMING

- PREVIOUS MYOCARDIAL INFARCTION—bare metal stent (delay elective, non-cardiac surgery for at least 1 month), drug eluting stent (delay elective, noncardiac surgery for at least 3 months). Continue ASA perioperatively whenever possible; withhold clopidogrel and ticagrelor for 5–7 days and prasugrel for 7–10 days before surgery and restart as soon as deemed safe by the surgeon
- RECENT STROKE/TIA—delay elective surgery for 9 months when possible
- RECENT VTE—delay elective surgery for at least 1 month and ideally 3 months when possible

2018 CCS/CAIC Focused Update Guidelines Antiplatelet Therapy

PERIOPERATIVE ANTICOAGULATION MANAGEMENT

RISK STRATIFICATION

- LOW BLEEDING RISK—do not hold anticoagulation for low bleeding risk procedures (e.g. cataract surgery, dermatologic biopsies, colonoscopies, cardiac device insertion, dental procedures, thoracentesis, paracentesis, arthrocentesis)
- MODERATE BLEEDING RISK—abdominal, general, intrathoracic, orthopedic, vascular, angiography
- HIGH BLEEDING RISK—any neuraxial anesthesia, neurosurgery, open heart surgery, major vascular surgery (aneurysm repair, bypass), major orthopedic surgery (hip/knee arthroplasty), lung resection, urologic, large cancer surgeries, intestinal anastomosis, plastic surgery

BRIDGING—use of heparin products to continue anticoagulation when off warfarin prior to surgery. LMWH started two days after stopping warfarin with a half-dose given the day before surgery. UFH started two days after stopping warfarin and continued until 4 hours before surgery

- INDICATIONS FOR BRIDGING—all mechanical prosthetic mitral valves, cage-ball/disc mechanical aortic valves, atrial fibrillation with a CHADS2 score of 5 or 6, arterial or venous thromboembolism within 3 months, arterial or venous thromboembolism during interruption of anticoagulation, severe thrombophilia with previous VTE, rheumatic valvular heart disease
- BRIDGING NOT INDICATED—atrial fibrillation with CHADS2 < 4, VTE further than 12 months ago, bi-leaflet mechanical aortic valve, bioprosthetic heart valves

2018 CCS Focused Update Guideline Management Atrial Fibrillation

| Drug | Renal function | Moderate bleed risk | High bleed risk |
|-------------|-------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Dabigatran | eGFR > 50 mL/min | Hold for one day before surgery | Hold for 2 days before surgery |
| Dabigatran | eGFR 30-49 mL/min | Hold for 2 days before surgery | Hold for 4 days before surgery |
| Rivaroxaban | eGFR > 30 mL/min | Hold for one day before surgery | Hold for 2 days before surgery |
| Apixaban | eGFR > 30 mL/min | Hold for one day before surgery | Hold for 2 days before surgery |
| Warfarin | - | Hold for five days before surgery | 1 |

PERIOPERATIVE ANTICOAGULATION MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

POSTOPERATIVE DVT PROPHYLAXIS extended duration (beyond 3 weeks) is preferrable to short-term prophylaxis (<2 weeks) in patients undergoing major surgery

- MECHANICAL PROPHYLAXIS—sequential compression devices are recommended over no prophylaxis
- ORTHOPEDIC SURGERY—for hip/knee arthroplasty, use ASA or DOACs, followed by LMWH. Use LMWH for hip fracture
- GENERAL OR GYNECOLOGIC SURGERY—LMWH
- NEUROSURGERY—mechanical prophylaxis is preferrable unless high risk of VTE
- UROLOGIC PROCEDURES—for TURP, radical prostatectomy, mechanical prophylaxis unless high risk of VTE
- CARDIAC OR MAJOR VASCULAR SURGERY—LMWH or mechanical prophylaxis

2019 American Society Hematology Management Venous Thromboembolism

PERIOPERATIVE PULMONARY RISKS

RISK REDUCTION—smoking cessation with evidence-based pharmacotherapy for all patients, ideally 4 weeks preoperatively. Interventions with evidence to reduce postoperative pulmonary complications: postoperative CPAP, prophylactic mucolytics, respiratory physiotherapy, enhanced recovery after surgery protocols. Interventions with evidence of no effect on postoperative pulmonary complications: prophylactic inhaled beta-agonists, restrictive fluid regimens, epidural analgesia, postoperative high-flow nasal cannula, incentive spirometry

ADDITIONAL PERIOPERATIVE RISK ASSESSMENT

BLEEDING RISK ASSESSMENT—inquire about any recurrent bleeding tendencies and bleeding complications from past surgeries. Review Hb, platelets, INR, and PTT

ANESTHETIC RISK ASSESSMENT—inquire about past surgeries and family history of malignant hyperthermia

DELIRIUM RISK ASSESSMENT—inquire about alcohol and illicit drug use, diagnosis of dementia to assess the risk of post-operative delirium

PERIOPERATIVE DIABETES MANAGEMENT

RISK REDUCTION—do not delay surgery for patients with elevated HbA1c. Measure point-ofcare test (POCT) q6h postoperative in all patients

PERIOPERATIVE DIABETES MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

with abnormal HbA1c or known diabetes. Note that 10% of patients without diabetes may have postoperative hyperglycemia. Target POCT 4.0–10.0 mmol/L in all patients after surgery. Postoperative hyperglycemia should be treated with **basal bolus insulin regimens** and *not* sliding scale insulin alone, even if the patient is NPO. **Patients with type 1 diabetes must always receive basal insulin, even when NPO, to prevent DKA**. Patients receiving insulin should undergo POCT q6h

- PERIOPERATIVE ORAL MEDICATION MANAGEMENT
 - METFORMIN, DPP4-INHIBITORS (-GLIPTINS), GLP-1
 ANALOGUES (-TIDES)—continue in the perioperative period unless eGFR <25 ml/min
 - sglt-2 INHIBITORS (-GLIFLOZINS)—hold three days before surgery and restart when eating and drinking well
 - REPAGLINIDE, SULPHONYLUREAS (GLICLAZIDE, GLYBURIDE)—hold on the day of surgery and restart when eating and drinking well
- PERIOPERATIVE INSULIN MANAGEMENT
 - ULTRA-LONG-ACTING INSULIN (DEGLUDEC)—give 80% of usual dose starting three days before surgery. Resume usual dose when eating well. Continue even if NPO
 - LONG-ACTING INSULIN (GLARGINE, LEVEMIR) give 80% of usual dose on the day before and day of surgery. Resume usual dose when eating well. Continue even if NPO
 - INTERMEDIATE-ACTING INSULIN (NPH)—give 80% of usual dose at HS before surgery and 50% of usual dose on the morning of surgery. Resume usual dose when eating well. Continue even if NPO
 - MEALTIME DOSES OF SHORT- OR RAPID-ACTING INSULIN—hold only when NPO. Resume usual dose when eating well
 - CORRECTION DOSES OF SHORT- OR RAPID-ACTING INSULIN—continue at usual dose throughout perioperative period, even if NPO

2018 Diabetes Canada Guidelines

INVESTIGATIONS FOR PERIOPERATIVE PATIENTS

PRINCIPLE—asymptomatic patients undergoing low-risk noncardiac surgery do not require routine laboratory tests. Consider type and screen, CBC, electrolytes, and creatinine in select patients undergoing high risk procedures

2019 Choosing Wisely Canada

INVESTIGATIONS FOR PERIOPERATIVE PATIENTS (CONT'D)

CARDIAC INVESTIGATIONS

- ECG—not required in asymptomatic patients undergoing low risk noncardiac surgery
- ECHOCARDIOGRAPHY—should only be ordered to investigate for suspected intracardiac obstructive disease or pulmonary hypertension
- NON-INVASIVE TESTING—exercise stress test, stress MIBI, dobutamine stress echocardiogram are associated with surgical delays and no difference in cardiac outcomes. Should only be ordered if otherwise clinically indicated
- ANGIOGRAPHY—associated with surgical delays and no difference in outcomes. Should only be ordered if otherwise clinically indicated

PULMONARY INVESTIGATIONS

- ABG—for patients with suspected hypoxia or hypercapnia
- CXR—should not be obtained in asymptomatic patients
- PULMONARY FUNCTION TESTS—required only to diagnose or stage patients with lung disease of unknown severity
- LUNG RESECTION WORKUP—patients with preoperative FEV1>2L (>80% predicted) and DLCO >80% predicted can likely tolerate pneumonectomy. Patients with FEV160% predicted can probably tolerate lung resection. Predicted postoperative FEV1 or DLCO 20 mL/kg/min will likely tolerate surgery

2013 ACCP Guideline Physiologic Evaluation Patient Lung Cancer Resectional Surgery

BACTERIAL ENDOCARDITIS PROPHYLAXIS

Only given to patients with the highest risk of developing endocarditis, which include the following **HIGH-RISK CARDIAC CONDITIONS**

- PROSTHETIC—any prosthetic cardiac valve, prosthetic material used for cardiac valve repair
- CYANOTIC CONGENITAL HEART DISEASE—unrepaired, recently repaired (<6 months), completely repaired but with residual defects at the site or adjacent to the site of the prosthetic device
- CARDIAC TRANSPLANT RECIPIENTS WITH REGURGITANT VALVULOPATHY

PREVIOUS ENDOCARDITIS

PROCEDURES

- ORAL CAVITY—manipulation of gingival or periapical region of teeth, perforation of oral mucosa
- RESPIRATORY TRACT—if incision/biopsy of respiratory mucosa (tonsillectomy, adenoidec-

BACTERIAL ENDOCARDITIS PROPHYLAXIS (CONT'D)

tomy), bronchoscopy with a rigid bronchoscope, or flexible bronchoscopy if biopsy performed

- GI/GU TRACT—generally not recommended in the absence of active infection
- MSK—if infected skin, skin structure, or musculoskeletal tissue

PROPHYLAXIS REGIMENS—give one of the following 30–60 min prior to procedure: *amoxicillin* 2 g PO/IM/IV, *cefazolin* 1 g IV/IM, *ceftriaxone* 1 g IV/IM, *cephalexin* 2 g PO, *clindamy-cin* 600 mg PO/IM/IV, *azithromycin* 500 mg PO, *clarithromycin* 500 mg PO

2007 AHA Guidelines Prevention of Infective Endocarditis

PERIOPERATIVE MEDICATION MANAGEMENT

CARDIOVASCULAR AGENTS— β -blockers (continue throughout the perioperative period). α -Agonists (continue up to and including day of surgery. If prolonged NPO, substitute with TD clonidine or IV methyldopa). Calcium channel blockers (continue throughout the perioperative period). ACE inhibitor/ARB (hold within 24-hours of surgery). Diuretics (hold within 24-hours of surgery). Statins (continue throughout perioperative period). Fibrates/niacin/cholestyramine/ezetimibe (hold within 24-hours of surgery)

NSAIDS—some vascular protective effect but also potential renal failure. Hold 3 days before surgery, substitute with acetaminophen as needed

STEROIDS—patients taking prednisone >20 mg/day for >3 weeks or with Cushingoid features should be assumed to have HPA axis suppression. For **minor stress** (local anesthetic), no stress dose steroids needed. For **moderate stress** (orthopedic, perivascular), consider 2× physiologic replacement (*hydrocortisone* 50 mg IV on call to OR, then 25 mg q8h×24 h, then normal dose). For **major stress** (intra-abdominal, cardiac), consider high-dose steroid (*hydrocortisone* 100 mg IV on call to OR, then 50 mg q8h×24 h, then 25 mg q8h×24 h, then resume maintenance) **LEVOTHYROXINE** (T4)—may be continued throughout the perioperative period

NEUROLOGIC AGENTS—anti-epileptics (continue up to and including day of surgery. If NPO, substitute with IV phenytoin or phenobarbital). **Antidepressants/Li** (continue up to day before surgery but stop day of surgery. Resume postop with oral intake)

PERIOPERATIVE MEDICATION MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

2016 Canadian Cardiovascular Society Guidelines Perioperative Cardiac Risk Assessment Patients Noncardiac Surgery

POSTOPERATIVE COMPLICATIONS

MAJOR CARDIAC COMPLICATIONS—myocardial infarction, arrhythmia

MAJOR PULMONARY COMPLICATIONS pneumonia, respiratory failure with prolonged mechanical ventilation, bronchospasm, atelectasis, exacerbation of underlying chronic lung disease HEMATOLOGIC COMPLICATIONS—bleeding,

thrombosis

POSTOPERATIVE FEVER ★7WS★

- wound—infection
- wind—pulmonary (pneumonia, atelectasis, PE)
- weins ('veins')—DVT/PE
- water—UTI
- wonder drugs
- what the heck—sepsis
- WHAT ELSE—thyroid storm

POSTOPERATIVE DELIRIUM ★DIMS★ (see p. 422 for more details)

- DRUGS—alcohol withdrawal, benzodiazepines, pain (i.e. lack of appropriate drugs)
- INFECTIONS—pneumonia, UTI, sepsis
- METABOLIC—myocardial infarction, hypoxia (pulmonary embolism), electrolyte abnormalities

structural—stroke, intracranial hemorrhage
 POSTOPERATIVE HYPERTENSION (see p. 70 for more details)

- **PHYSIOLOGIC**—pain, bladder distension/atony, confusion/agitation, thyroid storm
- PATHOLOGIC—infections, stroke
- DRUGS—alcohol withdrawal, withdrawal of antihypertensive medications, neuroleptic malignant syndrome, malignant hyperthermia

POSTOPERATIVE COMPLICATIONS (CONT'D)

POSTOPERATIVE ACUTE RENAL FAILURE (see p. 83 for more details)

- PRE-RENAL—blood loss, fluid loss, ACE inhibitors, NSAIDs, cyclosporin
- RENAL—ATN (ischemic, contrast, aminoglycosides), AIN (penicillins, cephalosporins), microvascular (cholesterol emboli)

POST-RENAL—urinary retention

POSTOPERATIVE BLEEDING (see p. 171 for more details)

- ↑ INR—factor deficiency or inhibitor (VII), liver disease, vitamin K deficiency, DIC, warfarin
- ↑ INR AND PTT—factor deficiency (X, V, II, I), liver disease, vitamin K deficiency, DIC, warfarin
- **PTT**—factor deficiency and inhibitor (VIII, IX, XI), heparin, von Willebrand disease
- PLATELET DISORDER—Von Willebrand disease, renal failure, liver failure, myeloproliferative disorders

POSTOPERATIVE THROMBOCYTOPENIA (see p. 168 for more details)

- **PSEUDOTHROMBOCYTOPENIA**—platelet clumping (recollect in citrate)
- **DILUTIONAL**—transfusions, bleeding
- DECREASED PRODUCTION—less likely but possible
- sequestration—less likely but possible
- DESTRUCTION—DIC, drugs (HITT with heparin, GPIIb/IIIa inhibitors, thiazides, sulfonamides, rifampin, indomethacin), alloimmune (post-transfusion)

Smoking Cessation

COMPLICATIONS AND SMOKING-ASSOCIATED DISORDERS

CANCER—lung, head and neck (larynx, pharynx, oral cavity), esophagus, pancreas, bladder, kidney, stomach, cervix, AML

CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASES—CAD, CVD, PVD, Buerger disease

RESPIRATORY DISEASES—COPD, pneumonia

COMPLICATIONS AND SMOKING-ASSOCIATED DISORDERS (CONT'D)

METABOLIC—diabetes mellitus, infertility, premature menopause, osteoporosis

COAGULOPATHY

MORTALITY—all-cause mortality ~3-fold higher (death most commonly from neoplastic, vascular or respiratory causes)

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF SMOKING

NICOTINE ADDICTION—related to the combination of: (1) pleasurable effects of nicotine (e.g. relief of anxiety and arousal); (2) pleasurable effects of associated environmental triggers (e.g. coffee and meals); and (3) the unpleasurable effects of nicotine withdrawal (e.g. dysphoria, anxiety, irritability, insomnia, decreased concentration, increased appetite and over the long-term increased weight)

LUNG CANCER—cigarette smoke contains numerous carcinogens: *N*-nitrosamines and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons are metabolized to nitrosamine ketone and *N*'-nitrosonornicotine by the cytochrome P450 system, which form DNA adducts, leading to mutations and eventually cancer. Duration of cigarette exposure is a greater risk factor than the number of cigarettes smoked per day. Cigarette smoking is a greater risk factor than pipe or cigar smoking. Smokers have a $10-30 \times$ increased risk of lung cancer. The risk of lung cancer returns close to baseline (80–90% reduction) after 10-15 years of smoking cessation. Secondhand smokers have up to $2 \times$ increased risk of lung cancer

LIFE EXPECTANCY—on average, 13.2 and 14.5 years shorter for male and female smokers compared to non-smokers, respectively. Smoking cessation between 45 and 54 years of age reduces risk of death associated with continued smoking by two-thirds.

MANAGEMENT OF SMOKING CESSATION (COMBINATION THERAPY SUPERIOR TO MONOTHERAPY)

COUNSELING—identify smoking cues, use cognitive and behavioral methods to break the link. **Remove cues** (remove ash trays, avoid settings where smoking occurs, suggest other smokers in the household quit at the same time). **Coping** (inform family/friends/co-workers about quitting and seek support, plan strategies for stress management). **Referral** to a nicotine cessation program

DRUG THERAPY—should be individualized (considerations include cost, prior use, contraindications, and preference). Controller medications: Varenicline (nicotinic acetylcholine receptor partial agonist—decreases nicotine reward pathway) 0.5 mg PO daily for days 1–3,

MANAGEMENT OF SMOKING CESSATION (COMBINATION THERAPY SUPERIOR TO MONOTHERAPY) (CONT'D)

then 0.5 mg PO BID days 4-7, then 1 mg PO BID. Standard therapy is 12 weeks but can be extended up to 12 months. Recommended over bupropion. More effective if prescribed in combination with a nicotine patch but increased risk of adverse events when combined. Bupropion SR (dopamine/norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor) 150 mg PO daily \times 3 days, then BID \times 7–12 weeks. can be extended for up to 1 year. Target guit date after at least 1 week of treatment. Reliever medications (more effective when combined with controller medications): Nicotine replacement (gum, lozenges, inhaler, nasal spray, transdermal patch - if smoking >10 cigarettes/day, dose is 21 mg daily \times 6 weeks, then 14 mg daily \times 2 weeks, then 7 mg daily×2 weeks). E-cigarettes/personal vaporizers may assist with abstinence; however, some safety concerns are emerging (including e-cigarette or vaping product use associated lung injury)

TREATMENT ISSUES

APPROACH TO COUNSELING

- SCREENING—screen for tobacco use at every visit, identify dependence and explore willingness to quit. All patients can be offered combination therapy (counseling and pharmacotherapy) and followed longitudinally. All patients should be referred to adjunct behavioral support programs (web based, phone based, or in person)
- EXPLORE PATIENT'S OWN REASONS TO QUIT—CUIrent health, social (e.g. children), or economic issues. Explain comorbidities associated with smoking. "As your doctor, I need you to know that quitting smoking is the most important thing you can do to protect your health"
- IF PATIENT READY TO QUIT OR REDUCE SMOKING WITHIN 30 DAYS—offer counseling (quit date, what works, what does not, express confidence, problem solving strategies) and drug therapy
- IF PATIENT WANTS TO QUIT BUT NOT NOW—explore barriers to smoking cessation (nicotine dependence, fear of failure, lack of social support or self-confidence, concern about weight gain, depression, substance abuse). Explore reasons

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

to quit. Offer counseling and drug therapy. Set quit date. Follow-up

 IF PATIENT NOT READY TO QUIT—avoid argument. Offer counseling and drug therapy. Use the 5R's of motivational intervention (relevance, risks of continued use, rewards of quitting, roadblocks to quitting, repeat every 6–12 months)

OBSTACLES TO CESSATION

- WEIGHT GAIN AFTER CESSATION—2.3–4.5 kg [5–10 lb]
- PHYSIOLOGICAL—withdrawal symptoms (see pathophysiology) usually begin few hours after the last cigarette, peak 2–3 days later, and wane over several weeks
- PSYCHOLOGICAL—smoking is a learned behavior/ritual. High risk of relapse (40% at 5 years); requires clinical follow-up

SIDE EFFECTS OF SMOKING CESSATION METHODS

 NICOTINE REPLACEMENT THERAPY—increased blood pressure and heart rate, palpitations. Other side effects specific to delivery method include: gum/lozenges-mouth irritation, jaw pain, dyspepsia, patch-skin irritation, nasal spray/inhaler-nose/throat/oral irritation, cough. No absolute contraindications but not recommended in unstable angina, recent MI, or pheochromocytoma (increases catecholamine release). Inhalers not recommended in bronchospastic disease

TREATMENT ISSUES (CONT'D)

- BUPROPION SR—insomnia, headache, dry mouth, nausea and vomiting, agitation, reduced seizure threshold (contraindicated if seizure disorder or increased seizure risk). Discontinuation rate ~10%. Contraindicated if current/recent use of MAO inhibitors. Not recommended during treatment with linezolid (increased risk of serotonin syndrome)
- VARENICLINE—dose-related nausea and vomiting, insomnia, abnormal dreams, headaches, constipation, diarrhea, flatulence, and dyspepsia. Not recommended in pregnancy. Prior black box warning about neuropsychiatric side effects and increased suicidality was removed after a large RCT showed no difference in these outcomes. Monitoring for these symptoms is still recommended

PROGNOSTIC ISSUES

CESSATION RATE

- WITHOUT HELP—<10%
- COMBINED DRUG THERAPY AND COUNSEL-ING—25–30% long term

2020 ATS Guideline Initiating Pharmacologic Treatment Tobacco-Dependent Adults Reid et al. *CMAJ* 2016;188(17-18) Rigotti *NEJM* 2002;346(7)

Havs et al. NEJM 2008;359(19)

Medical Fitness to Drive

2019 Canadian Medical Association Fitness to Drive

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

A single diagnosis does not determine a patient's right to drive but does signal the possible need for a **functional assessment**. A functional assessment is a structured assessment to exercise judgement and take necessary actions required to drive. It may or may not include a road test

- MOTOR VEHICLE LICENSING AUTHORITY—final responsibility for issuing/revoking licenses
- PHYSICIANS—responsible for reporting people they believe to be unfit drivers. In some jurisdictions, it is mandatory to report (varies by jurisdiction). Physicians have been held liable for negligence if a patient is involved in a motor vehicle accident.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES (CONT'D)

- UNCERTAINTY—if not sure about medical fitness for driving, advise patient not to drive. Document and inform the appropriate government agency
- BALANCE—interest of public has priority over confidentiality and rights of individual driver
- LICENSE TYPE—commercial license vs. private vehicle

OLDER DRIVERS — ★ CANDRIVE★ (Cognition, Acute or fluctuating illness, Neuromuscular disease or neurological effects, Drugs, Record prior accidents, In-care experiences suggesting highrisk, Vision, Ethanol use)

GENERAL PRINCIPLES (CONT'D)

| DURATION OF NO DRIVING FOR SPECIFIC DISORDERS | | | |
|--|--|--|--|
| Disorders | Private driver | Commercial driver | |
| Seizures | | | |
| Single, unprovoked seizure before diagnosis | 3 months, neuro assessment needed with EEG and MRI | 12 months, neuro assessment needed with EEG and MRI | |
| Epilepsy | 6 months seizure-free on meds. Patient must be adherent to medications | 5 years seizure-free on or off meds | |
| After initiating or changing anti-epileptics | 3 months from a change in medications | 6 months from a change in medications | |
| Alcohol withdrawal seizures | 6 months (alcohol and seizure free, adherent and completed rehabilitation) | 6 months (alcohol and seizure free, adherent and completed rehabilitation) | |
| Syncope | | | |
| A single episode that is explained and unlikely to recur | No restriction | No restriction | |
| A single episode that is unexplained | 1 week | 12 months | |
| Diagnosed or treated syncope (e.g. pacemaker inserted) | 1 week | 1 month | |
| Reversible etiology of syncope | Successful treatment | Successful treatment | |
| Recurrent unexplained syncope | 3 months | 12 months | |
| Cardiovascular | | | |
| Stable angina Unstable angina | No restrictions 48 h after PCI, 7 days after discharge if no PCI | No restrictions 7 days after PCI, 30 days after discharge if no PCI | |
| NSTEMI with PCI | 48 h | 7 days | |
| NSTEMI no PCI | 7 days after discharge | 30 days after discharge | |
| STEMI | 1 month after discharge | 3 months after discharge | |
| CABG | 1 month after discharge | 3 months after discharge | |
| Heart failure | No if NYHA IV, home inotropes, or LV assist | No if NYHA \geq III, EF <35% | |
| | 6 months | Never | |
| Sustained VT, LVEF | 6 months 4 weeks | 3 months | |
| Sustained VT, LVEF < 35% | 3 months | Never | |

| GENERAL PRINCIP | LES (CONT'D) | | |
|--|---|---|--|
| Disorders SVT, AF or atrial flutter | Private driver No restriction if no impairment in consciousness, satisfactory rate control; consider anticoagulation | Commercial driver No restriction if no impairment in consciousness, satisfactory rate control; consider anticoagulation | |
| Mobitz II 2° AVB, acquired 3° AVB, alternate LBBB or RBBB | No driving | No driving | |
| Permanent Pacemaker | 1 week after implant (regular PM | checks required) | |
| ICD | Depends on indication | No driving | |
| AAA | No if >6 cm (men), >5.5 cm (women) | | |
| Cerebrovascular | | | |
| TIA | Requires medical assessment | Requires medical assessment | |
| Stroke | 1 month | 1 month | |
| Other disorders | | | |
| Vision | No if poor vision <20/50, hemianopsia, or diplopia | No if poor vision <20/30, hemianopsia, or diplopia | |
| Diabetes on insulin | Must have no microvascular or macrovascular complications that impair capacity to drive and no episodes of severe hypoglycemia in last 6 months while awake | Must have regular physician monitoring and cannot have uncontrolled DM (including A1c over 12%). See Canadian Diabetes Guidelines for details. Must have no microvascular or macrovascular complications that impair capacity to drive and no episodes of severe hypoglycemia in last 6 months while awake | |
| COPD, on supplemental oxygen | Road test required | No driving | |

NOTE—regulations for reporting/restriction in individual jurisdictions may vary

Obtaining Consent for Medical Procedures

CONSENTING PROCESS

CONTEXT—establish an appropriate setting for the discussion

WHAT DOES THE PATIENT UNDERSTAND?

- "What do you understand about your illness?"
- "Have you had any similar procedures before?"
- Obtain a general impression of patient's competence

DISCUSS THE RATIONALE AND POTENTIAL BENEFITS REGARDING THE PROCEDURE, EXPLAIN DETAILS OF PROCEDURE

- POSITIONING
- LOCAL ANESTHETIC—ask about allergies
- ACTUAL PROCEDURE—degree of detail tailored to patient's comprehension and interest. Assess bleeding risk

CONSENTING PROCESS (CONT'D)

- ESTIMATED DURATION
- POTENTIAL COMPLICATIONS—bleeding, infections, puncture/injury of surrounding tissue, and other specific risks related to procedure

EXPLAIN ALTERNATIVES—including risk of deferring procedure, step-by-step

ASSESS UNDERSTANDING—use simple language and ask the patient to summarize what they understand

DISCUSS CONSENT FORM—patient may wish to read the consent form carefully and have some time to think about procedure

PROVIDE REASSURANCE AND FOLLOW-UP

Biomedical Ethics

ETHICAL JUDGMENT

MORAL JUDGMENT—the decision-making

- process is based on both ethical principles and facts
 ETHICAL PRINCIPLES—beneficence, nonmaleficence, autonomy, and justice
- FACTS—patient preference, competence, prognosis, and others (finances, resources)

TRUTH TELLING

EXAMPLE—patient's family members do not want bad news disclosed to patient

FACTORS TO CONSIDER—autonomy, loss of trust, patient will eventually find out, patient's need to make plans

APPROACH—ask patient if they want bad news disclosed. Ensure good communication with family

EXCEPTIONS—specific cultures, harm to patient (legally may exercise therapeutic privilege, but seldom used)

INFORMED CONSENT

EXAMPLE—patient asks to stop treatment

FACTORS TO CONSIDER—autonomy, law, CMA policy

INFORMED CONSENT—disclosure (discuss condition, treatment proposed, alternatives, risks, and benefits), capacity (competence), and voluntariness

CAPACITY

EXAMPLE—patient refuses treatment but may not be competent

REQUIREMENT—ability to understand information and appreciate consequences of *individual* decision. Competence assessment may be required, involve multidisciplinary team (p. 417)

SUBSTITUTE DECISION MAKING—legally through advance directive proxy (also known as representative agreement or personal directive), the court, or court-appointed guardian (spouse > children > parents > siblings > relatives > public trustee). The selection of guardian is based on patient's wishes, values, and beliefs more than his/her best interest judgment. Practically, however, decisions are usually made by family members and healthcare team together

BATTERY AND NEGLIGENCE

CRITERIA FOR BATTERY—doing anything (e.g. touching) without patient's consent CRITERIA FOR NEGLIGENCE

1. Physician owes patient duty of care

BATTERY AND NEGLIGENCE (CONT'D)

- 2. Physician breaches standard of care
- 3. Breach causes harm to patient
- Physician's mistake is responsible for patient's loss (causation)

CONFIDENTIALITY

EXAMPLE—HIV disclosure to spouse **FACTORS TO CONSIDER**—autonomy, need trust for therapeutic relationship

APPROACH—breaching confidentiality is based on a balance of beneficence, non-maleficence, and autonomy. Legally can breach confidentiality if required by court/law, patient consent obtained, or if public interest at stake (e.g. HIV, child abuse, and people who are unfit to drive)

FUTILITY

EXAMPLE—CPR in patient with advanced cancer **FACTORS TO CONSIDER**—limits of patient autonomy and considerations of justice and resource allocation

APPROACH—communication (understand patient's rationale), negotiation, mediation (bioethicist), and arbitration. No legal obligation to provide treatment outside of standard of care

MAY REFUSE PROVIDING TREATMENT—if harm to self/others, futility, or excessive cost to society

MEDICAL ASSISTANCE IN DYING (MAID)

EXAMPLE—ALS patient asks for medical assistance in dying

ARGUMENTS FOR—autonomy, the relief of suffering, and discrimination against physically disabled persons who cannot commit suicide

ARGUMENTS AGAINST—respect for human life, protection of vulnerable persons, and fear of abuse

LEGALLY—withdrawal of care and palliative sedation (for the purpose of maximizing comfort) are acceptable. Legality of medical assistance in dying varies by jurisdiction

GENERAL GUIDANCE FOR MAID—assessment from multidisciplinary team including physicians providing original and independent assessment. Differentiate clinician-administered (physician or nurse practitioner who directly administeres substance that causes death) vs. self-administered MAiD (provide drug that eligible person takes themselves to bring about their own death). General eligibility: mentally competent, ≥18 years old, have a grievous and irremediable medical

MEDICAL ASSISTANCE IN DYING (MAID) (CONT'D)

condition, **voluntary request** for MAiD that is not the result of outside pressure or influence, **informed consent** to receive MAiD. **Waiting/ reflection period** after request to allow consideration of request, may withdraw request at any time in the process and not obligated to proceed with MAiD even if found eligible

RESOURCE ALLOCATION

EXAMPLE—selection of organ transplant recipients

FACTORS TO CONSIDER—justice

- No one disputes that resources are scarce and rationing decisions are required
- It is unfair to ration based on implicit criteria that may vary from physician to physician
- Rationing criteria must be explicit, evenly applied, publicly known, and open to review
- It is unfair to begin rationing by denying resources to the most vulnerable patients
- 5. An alternative to rationing is to augment the availability of the scarce resource

LEVELS—macro (provincial/national), meso (hospital), micro (individual patient)

RATIONING—discrimination based on age, gender, or religion is legally and morally not feasible. Allocation based on greater benefit and/or more urgent need is acceptable. Financial considerations should be taken into account, but do not justify omission of appropriate care

RESEARCH ETHICS

EXAMPLE—placebo control

FACTORS TO CONSIDER—beneficence, nonmaleficence, autonomy, and justice. Physician torn between best interest of research community and patient

APPROACH—patient's right to care comes first ETHICAL RESEARCH METHODS—clinical equipoise (there is genuine uncertainty within the expert medical community, not necessarily on the part of the individual investigator, about the preferred treatment between the various arms of a randomized controlled trial), good experimental design (treatment arms, likely benefit > harm, inclusion and exclusion criteria, respect rights of research subjects, informed consent), and ethics review board approval

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

EXAMPLE—pharmaceutical company funded lunch

PROFESSIONAL JUDGMENT—physicians trusted by patients and society because of the fiduciary duty doctors accept to rank their primary interests (appropriate patient care, valid research, truthful, and unbiased teaching) above such secondary interests as personal gain, promotion, fame, or other benefits

APPROACH—cannot eliminate all conflicts of interest, as they are inextricable from our lives, but prevent secondary gain from dominating or appearing to dominate professional decisions or choices

Hospital Admission and Discharge Issues

PRINCIPLES OF MEDICAL MANAGEMENT

★THE 5C's★

CAUSES—identify and treat the underlying cause of disease

COMPLICATIONS—anticipate and treat complications as they arise

COMMUNICATION—educate patients regarding **lifestyle changes** and precautions (e.g. driving, sports, medical alert bracelet). Provide counseling on **risk reduction** (e.g. quit smoking, blood pressure, and lipid control) and **appropriate use of medications**

PRINCIPLES OF MEDICAL MANAGEMENT (CONT'D)

CONSULT—seek advice from other disciplines when indicated (physiotherapy, dietitian, specialists)

CONTINUITY—provide appropriate follow-up

REASONS FOR ADMISSION

MEDICAL—diagnostic workup, monitoring, IV therapy (hydration, antibiotics, chemotherapy), surgery

REASONS FOR ADMISSION (CONT'D)

NURSING—ADL assistance (eating, bathroom, mobility), monitoring (critically ill)

MENTAL—suicide or homicide risk due to psychiatric disorder

SOCIAL—usually in combination with factors above, cannot cope at home/lack of support, out-of-town, homeless

DISCHARGE CRITERIA

CRITERIA—depends on the functional, medical, mental, and social situations

DISCHARGE PLANNING—should take place from the time of admission. The goal of hospital stay is to get the patient well enough to leave hospital

DISPOSITION

HOME ± **COMMUNITY PROGRAMS**—home care (clinical care, home IV, support services, coordinating care), day program (day hospital, day support)

SUPPORTIVE HOUSING—lodge/assisted living, group homes (mental, disabled)

CARE FACILITY—long-term care, respite, subacute, rehabilitation, psychiatry

PALLIATIVE CARE—palliative care unit, home palliative care, hospice (home-based, inpatient)

Appendix A

ADVANCED CARDIAC LIFE SUPPORT

2020 American Heart Association (AHA) Guidelines for Cardiopulmonary Resuscitation and Emergency Cardiovascular Care. Circulation 2020 142:S366–S468



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OPIOID-ASSOCIATED EMERGENCY FOR HEALTHCARE PROVIDER ALGORITHM

2020 American Heart Association (AHA) Guidelines for Cardiopulmonary Resuscitation and Emergency Cardiovascular Care. Circulation 2020 142:S366–S468



Appendix B LIST OF COMMON ABBREVIATIONS

| % sat | Percentage saturation | AP | Anterior-posterior |
|--------|--|--------|---|
| 5-FU | 5-Fluorouracil | APA | Antiphospholipid antibody |
| 5-HIAA | 5-Hydroxyindoleacetic acid | APACHE | Acute physiology and chronic |
| 5HT | Serotonin | | health evaluation |
| AAA | Abdominal aortic aneurysm | APC | Adenomatosis polyposis coli |
| ABC | Airway, breathing, circulation | APS | Antiphospholipid antibody |
| Abd | Abdomen | | syndrome |
| ABG | Arterial blood gas | ARB | Angiotensin receptor blocker |
| ABI | Ankle brachial index | ARDS | Acute respiratory distress syndrome |
| ABPA | Allergic bronchopulmonary | ARR | Absolute risk reduction |
| | aspergillosis | AS | Aortic stenosis |
| ABx | Antibiotics | ASA | Acetylsalicylic acid, American |
| ACE | Angiotensin-converting enzyme | | Society of Anesthesiologists |
| ACI | Acute cardiac ischemia | ASD | Atrial septal defect |
| ACR | American College of Rheumatology | ASO | Anti-Streptolysin- O |
| ACS | Acute coronary syndrome | AST | Aspartate aminotransferase |
| ACTH | Adrenocorticotropic hormone | ATC | Around the clock |
| ADL | Activity of daily living | ATN | Acute tubular necrosis |
| ADP | Adenosine diphosphate | AV | Atrioventricular or arteriovenous |
| AF | Atrial fibrillation | AVM | Arteriovenous malformation |
| AFB | Acid fast bacilli | AVNRT | Atrioventricular nodal reentry |
| AFP | Alpha fetoprotein | | tachycardia |
| AG | Anion gap | AXR | Abdominal X-ray |
| AIDS | Acquired immunodeficiency | BAC | Bronchioloalveolar carcinoma |
| | syndrome | BAL | Bronchoalveolar lavage |
| AIN | Acute interstitial nephritis | BCC | Basal cell carcinoma |
| AJR | Abdominal jugular reflex | BID | Twice per day |
| AKI | Acute kidney injury | Bili | Bilirubin |
| ALI | Acute lung injury | BIPAP | Bilevel positive airway pressure |
| ALL | Acute lymphoblastic lymphoma | BM | Bone marrow |
| ALND | Axillary lymph node dissection | BL | Burkitt lymphoma |
| ALS | Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis | BMD | Bone mineral density |
| ALT | Alanine aminotransferase | BMI | Body mass index |
| ALP | Alkaline phosphatase | BMR | Basal metabolic rate |
| AMA | Antimitochondrial antibody | BMT | Bone marrow transplant |
| AMI | Acute myocardial infarction | BNP | B-type natriuretic peptide |
| AML | Acute myelogenous leukemia | BOOP | Bronchiolitis obliterans organizing |
| ANA | Antinuclear antibody | | pneumonia |
| ANC | Absolute neutrophil count | BP | Blood pressure |
| ANCA | Anti-neutrophilic cytoplasmic antibody | BPPV | Benign paroxysmal positional vertigo |

| BRBPR | Bright red blood per rectum | CRF | Chronic renal failure |
|--------------|-------------------------------------|---------|---------------------------------------|
| BRCA | Breast cancer gene | CRH | Corticotropin-releasing hormone |
| RSΔ | Body surface area | CRP | C-reactive protein |
| DCE | Proast colf ovamination | CRT | Cardiac resynchronization therapy |
| COL | Culture and consitivity | CSF | Cerebrospinal fluid |
| Cas | | CT | Computed tomography |
| | Calcium | CVA | Cerebral vascular disease, |
| CA 125 | Cancer antigen 125 | | costovertebral angle |
| CA 15.3 | Cancer antigen 15.3 | CVC | Central venous catheter |
| CA 19-9 | Cancer antigen 19–9 | CVD | Cerebral vascular disease |
| CABG | Coronary artery bypass graft | CVP | Central venous pressure |
| CAD | Coronary artery disease | CVVHD | Continuous veno-venous |
| CAH | Congenital adrenal hyperplasia | | hemodialysis |
| CAM | Confusion Assessment Method | CXR | Chest X-ray |
| CA-MRSA | Community-acquired methicillin- | D5W | 5 % dextrose water |
| C 1 D | resistant Staphylococcus aureus | DAT | Direct antiglobulin test |
| CAP | Community-acquired pneumonia | DBP | Diastolic blood pressure |
| CAPD | Continuous ambulatory peritoneal | DC | Direct current |
| | dialysis | DCIS | Ductal carcinoma in situ |
| CBC | Complete blood count | | Desmonressin acetate |
| CBE | Clinical breast examination | | Dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry |
| Cbl | Cobalamin | | Direct fluorescent antibody |
| CCB | Calcium channel blocker | | Debydroepiandrosterone |
| CCP | Cyclic citrullinated peptides | | Dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate |
| CCS | Canadian Cardiovascular Society | DI | Diabotos insinidus |
| CEA | Carcinoembryonic antigen | | Discominated intravascular |
| CHF | Congestive heart failure | DIC | coogulation |
| Chol | Cholesterol | מוס | Distal interphalangeal joint |
| CIN | Cervical intraepithelial neoplasia | | Distal Interprintingen Joint |
| CK | Creatine kinase | | Diddetic Retodcidosis |
| CKD | Chronic kidney disease | DLDCL | Diffusion consists of lung for corbon |
| CKMB | Creatine kinaseMB | DLCO | Diffusion capacity of lung for carbon |
| Cl | Chloride | DM | Dishotos mollitus |
| CLL | Chronic lymphocytic leukemia | | Tupo 1 diabotos mollitus |
| CMA | Canadian Medical Association | | Type T diabetes mellitus |
| CMC | Carpometacarpal joint | DIVIZ | Type 2 diabetes mellitus |
| CML | Chronic myelogenous leukemia | DIMARDS | Disease-modifying agents of |
| CMML | Chronic myelomonocytic leukemia | DNasa | Desurvite and disease |
| CMV | Cytomegalovirus | Divase | Deoxymbonuclease |
| CN | Cranial nerve, cyanide | DUI | Directly observed treatment |
| CNS | Central nervous system | DPI | Dry powder innaier |
| CO | Carbon monoxide, cardiac output | DPT | Diphtheria, pertussis, tetanus |
| COP | Cryptogenic organizing pneumonia | DS | Double strength |
| COPD | Chronic obstructive pulmonary | dsDNA | Double-stranded DNA |
| | disease | DI | Delirium tremens |
| COX | Cyclooxygenase | DVI | Deep vein thrombosis |
| CPAP | Continuous positive airway pressure | Dx | Disease |
| CPR | Cardiopulmonary resuscitation | EBV | Epstein–Barr virus |
| CR | Controlled release, complete | ECG | Electrocardiogram |
| | remission | ECOG | Eastern Cooperative Oncology |
| Cr | Creatinine | | Group |
| CrCl | Creatinine clearance | EEG | Electroencephalography |
| 0.01 | ereatime creatorice | EF | Ejection fraction |

| EGFR | Epidermal growth factor receptor | GN | Glomerulonephritis |
|----------------|---------------------------------------|----------|---|
| EHEC | Enterohemorrhagic Escherichia coli | GPA | Granulomatosis with polyangiitis |
| EIEC | Enteroinvasive Escherichia coli | GU | Genitourinary |
| EMG | Electromyography | GVHD | Graft vs. host disease |
| ENA | Extractable nuclear antigen | GYN | Gynecological |
| EPO | Erythropoietin | H&N | Head and neck |
| ER | Estrogen receptor, emergency room | Hb | Hemoglobin |
| ERCP | Endoscopic retrograde | HBV | Hepatitis B virus |
| | cholangiopancreatography | HCL | Hairy cell leukemia |
| ESAS | Edmonton symptom assessment | HCO 3 | Bicarbonate |
| | scale | Hct | Hematocrit |
| ESBL | Extended spectrum β-lactamase | HCV | Hepatitis C virus |
| ESR | Erythrocyte sedimentation rate | HD | Hemodialysis |
| ESRD | End-stage renal disease | HDI | High density lipoprotein |
| ET | Essential thrombocytosis | HELLP | Hemolysis, elevated liver enzymes. |
| ETEC | Enteropathogenic Escherichia coli | TTEEL! | low platelet count |
| ETT | Endotracheal tube | HF | Heart failure |
| FUS | Endoscopic ultrasound | ння | Hyperosmolar hyperolycemic state |
| FAP | Familial adenomatous polyposis | HHV8 | Human hernes virus 8 |
| Fe | Iron | нтт | Henarin-induced thrombocytopenia |
| FFV1 | Forced expiratory volume (1 s) | | with associated thrombosis |
| FEP | Fresh frozen plasma | ніу | Human immunodeficiency virus |
| FH | Family history | нιΔ | Human leukocyte antigen |
| FHF | Fulminant benatic failure | HMG-CoA | 3-Hydroxy-3-methylalutaryl |
| Fi∩ | Fraction of inspired ovvgen | TIMO-COA | |
| | Fluorescence in situ hybridization | HNPCC | Hereditary non-polyposis colorectal |
| FI | Follicular lymphoma | Thu cc | cancer |
| | First modical contact | HPV | Human papillomavirus |
| | Fine poodle aspirate | HR | Heart rate |
| | Focal podular hyporplacia | hsCRP | High sensitivity C-reactive protein |
| | Focal occult blood | HSII | High-grade squamous |
| | Functional residual canacity | TISIL | intraepithelial lesion |
| | Focal componental glomorulos clorosis | HSP | Henoch–Schonlein purpura |
| гэдэ Есц | Foldi segmental giomeruloscierosis | HSV | Hernes simplex virus |
| ГЭП ЕТА АДС | Functe-stimulating normone | HTIV | Human T-cell lymphoma virus |
| FIA-ADS | antibody absorption | нц | Hounsfield unit |
| | Fovor of unknown origin | HUS | Hemolytic uremic syndrome |
| | Forced vital capacity | IADI | Instrumental activities of daily living |
| | | IRD | Inflammatory bowel disease |
| GOFD | debydrogenase deficiency | IBM | Inclusion body myositis |
| CRM | Clomorular basement membrane | IBS | Irritable bowel syndrome |
| GDIVI | diohlastoma multiforme | IBW/ | Ideal body weight |
| GRS | Guillain–Barre syndrome | | Implantable |
| GCS | Glasglow coma scale | icb | cardioverter-defibrillators |
| | Granulocyte colony stimulating | ІСН | Intracerebral bemorrhage |
| | factor | | International Classification of |
| GERD | Gastroesonhageal reflux disease | ich | Headache Disorders |
| GER | Glomerular filtration rate | ICP | Intracranial pressure |
| GGT | Gamma-dutamyl transpontidaso | ICS | Inhaled corticosteroid |
| GL | Gastrointestinal | ICU | Intensive care unit |
| Gm | Gramistain | IDU | Injection drug use |
| uni | Grann stall | | injection and g abe |
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| IE | Infective endocarditis | LR+ | Positive likelihood ratio |
|-------|--|--------|---|
| IGRA | Interferon-gamma release assay | LSD | Lysergic acid diethylamide |
| IL | Interleukin | LSIL | Low-grade squamous intraepithelial |
| ILAE | International League Against | | lesion |
| | Epilepsy | LTBI | Latent tuberculosis infection |
| INF | Interferon | LUL | Left upper lobe |
| INH | Inhaler | LUQ | Left upper quadrant |
| INO | Internuclear ophthalmoplegia | LUSB | Left upper sternal border |
| INR | International normalized ratio | LV | Left ventricular |
| IPF | Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis | LVEDD | Left ventricular end diastolic |
| IPI | International prognostic index | | diameter |
| IR | Immediate release | LVEF | Left ventricular ejection fraction |
| ITP | Idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura | LVESD | Left ventricular end systolic diameter |
| IV | Intravenous | LVH | Left ventricular hypertrophy |
| IVC | Inferior vena cava | LVOT | Left ventricular outflow tract |
| IVP | Intravenous pyelogram | MAC | Mycobacterium avium complex |
| JVP | Jugular venous pressure | MAHA | Microangiopathic hemolytic anemia |
| КОН | Potassium hydroxide | MALT | Mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue |
| KPS | Karnofsky performance status | MAO | Monoamine oxidase |
| KUB | Kidney, ureter, and bladder X-ray | MAP | Mean arterial pressure |
| | study | MCA | Middle cerebral artery |
| LAA | Left atrial abnormality | MCD | Minimal change disease |
| LABA | Long acting beta agonist | MCL | Mantle cell lymphoma |
| LAD | Left anterior descending | MCP | Metacarpal joint |
| LAE | Left atrial enlargement | MCTD | Mixed connective tissue disease |
| LAHB | Left anterior hemiblock | MCV | Mean corpuscular volume |
| LAP | Leukocyte alkaline phosphatase | MDI | Metered dose inhaler |
| LBBB | Left bundle branch block | MDS | Myelodysplastic syndrome |
| LCIS | Lobular carcinoma in situ | MEDD | Morphine equivalent daily dose |
| LCX | Left circumflex artery | MELD | Model for end-stage liver disease |
| LDH | Lactate dehydrogenase | MEN | Multiple endocrine neoplasia |
| LDL | Low-density lipoprotein | MEP | Maximal expiratory pressure |
| LES | Lambert–Eaton syndrome, lower | MF | Myelofibrosis, mycosis fungoides |
| | esophageal sphincter | Ма | Magnesium |
| LFT | Liver function test | MG | Myasthenia gravis |
| LH | Luteinizing hormone | MGN | Membranous glomerulopathy |
| Li | Lithium | MGUS | Monoclonal gammopathy of |
| LLL | Left lower lobe | | uncertain significance |
| LLQ | Left lower quadrant | MHA-TP | Microhemagglutination assay for |
| LLSB | Left lower sternal border | | antibody to Treponema pallidum |
| LML | Left middle lobe | MI | Myocardial infarction |
| LMN | Lower motor neuron | MIBG | lodine-131-meta- |
| LMWH | Low molecular weight heparin | | iodobenzylguanidine |
| LN | Lymph node | MIBI | Methoxyisobutyl isonitrile |
| LOC | Level of consciousness | MIP | Maximal inspiratory pressure |
| LP | Lumbar puncture | MM | Multiple myeloma |
| Lp(a) | Lipoprotein a | MMI | Methimazole |
| LPHB | Left posterior hemiblock | MMR | Measles, mumps, and rubella |
| LPL | Lipoprotein lipase | MMSE | Mini-mental state examination |
| LR- | Negative likelihood ratio | MoCA | Montreal Cognitive Assessment |

| MPA | Microscopic polyangiitis | PAC | Paroxysmal atrial contraction |
|-------|-------------------------------------|------------|-------------------------------------|
| MPGN | Membranoproliferative | $P_a CO_2$ | Arterial carbon dioxide pressure |
| | glomerulopathy | PAN | Polyarteritis nodosa |
| MPO | Myeloperoxidase | P_aO_2 | Arterial oxygen pressure |
| MPS | Myeloproliferative syndrome | PAOP | Pulmonary artery occlusion pressure |
| MRCP | Magnetic resonance | PaP | Palliative prognostic score |
| | cholangiopancreatography | PAP | Pulmonary artery pressure |
| MRI | Magnetic resonance imaging | PBC | Primary biliary sclerosis |
| MRSA | Methicillin-resistant | PCOS | Polycystic ovarian syndrome |
| | Staphylococcus aureus | PCR | Polymerase chain reaction |
| MS | Mitral stenosis, multiple sclerosis | PCWP | Pulmonary capillary wedge pressure |
| MSI | Microsatellite instability | PDA | Patent ductus arteriosus, posterior |
| MSK | Musculoskeletal | | descending artery |
| MSM | Men who have sex with men | PE | Pulmonary embolism |
| MSSA | Methicillin-sensitive | PEA | Pulseless electrical activity |
| | Staphylococcus aureus | PEEP | Positive end expiratory pressure |
| MTC | Medullary thyroid cancer | PEF | Peak expiratory flow |
| MTP | Metatarsophalangeal joint | PFT | Positron emission tomography |
| MVA | Mitral valve area, motor vehicle | PEO | Patent foramen ovale |
| | accident | PFT | Pulmonary function test |
| MZL | Marginal zone lymphoma | PIP | Proximal interphalageal joint |
| N&V | Nausea and vomiting | PIP | Pneumocystis jirovecii pneumonia |
| Na | Sodium | PMI | Progressive multifocal |
| NAAT | Nucleic acid amplification test | | leukoencephalopathy |
| NCS | Nerve conduction studies | PMN | Polymorphonuclear neutrophil |
| NCSE | Non-convulsive status epilepticus | PMR | Polymyalgia rheumatica |
| NE | Norepinephrine | PND | Paroxysmal nocturnal dyspnea |
| NEB | Nebulizer | PNH | Paroxysmal nocturnal |
| NG | Nasogastric | | hemoglobinuria |
| NMDA | N -methyl-D-aspartic acid | РО | Oral |
| NMOU | Non-medical opioid use | POEMS | Polyneuropathy, organomegaly, |
| NMS | Neuroleptic malignant syndrome | | endocrinopathy, edema, M-protein, |
| NNT | Number needed to treat | | and skin abnormalities syndrome |
| NPH | Normal pressure hydrocephalus, | PPS | Palliative Performance Scale |
| | insulin | PPV | Positive predictive value |
| NPO | Nothing by mouth | PR | Progesterone receptor, partial |
| NPV | Negative predictive value | | remission |
| NS | Normal saline | PR3 | Anti-proteinase-3 |
| NSAID | Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory | PRES | Posterior reversible |
| | drug | | leukoencephalopathy syndrome |
| NSCLC | Non-small cell lung cancer | PRN | As needed |
| NSIP | Nonspecific interstitial pneumonia | PSA | Prostate-specific antigen |
| NSTE | Non-ST elevation | PSC | Primary sclerosing cholangitis |
| NYD | Not yet diagnosed | PSI | Pneumonia severity of illness score |
| NYHA | New York Heart Association | PSV | Pressure support ventilation |
| O&P | Ovum and parasites | PTCA | Percutaneous transluminal coronary |
| OHS | Obesity hypoventilation syndrome | | angioplasty |
| OHS | Obesity hypoventilation syndrome | PTCL | Peripheral T-cell lymphoma |
| OR | Odds ratio | PTH | Parathyroid hormone |
| OSA | Obstructive sleep apnea | PTLD | Post-transplant lymphoproliferative |
| Osmo | Osmolality | | disease |
| PA | Posterior-anterior | PTP | Post transfusion purpura |

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| PTT | Partial thromboplastin time | SLL | Chronic lymphocytic lymphoma |
|--------|-------------------------------------|---------|-------------------------------------|
| PTU | Propylthiouracil | SNRI | Serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake |
| PUD | Peptic ulcer disease | | inhibitor |
| PV | Polycythemia vera | Spc | Specificity |
| PVC | Paroxysmal ventricular contraction | SPN | Solitary pulmonary nodule |
| PVD | Peripheral vascular disease | SR | Slow release |
| QID | Four times per day | SSc | Systemic sclerosis |
| RA | Rheumatoid arthritis | SSEP | Somatosensory evoked potentials |
| RAA | Right atrial abnormality | SSRI | Selective serotonin reuptake |
| RAE | Right atrial enlargement | | inhibitor |
| RAS | Renal artery stenosis | SS | Single strength |
| RBBB | Right bundle branch block | SSS | Sick sinus syndrome |
| RBC | Red blood cell | SSSS | Staphylococcal scalded skin |
| RCA | Right coronary artery | | syndrome |
| RDW | Red blood cell distribution width | STE | ST elevation |
| RF | Rheumatoid factor | SV | Stroke volume |
| RFS | Relapse free survival | SVC | Superior vena cava |
| RLL | Right lower lobe | SVR | Systemic vascular resistance |
| RLO | Right lower guadrant | SVT | Supraventricular tachycardia |
| RMR | Resting metabolic rate | ТВ | Tuberculosis |
| RMSF | Rocky Mountain Spotted Fever | TBI | Total body irradiation |
| RNP | Ribonucleoprotein | TCA | Tricyclic antidepressants |
| RPGN | Rapidly progressive | TD | Transdermal |
| | glomerulonephritis | TEE | Transesophageal echocardiogram |
| RPR | Rapid plasma reagin | TEN | Toxic epidermal necrolysis |
| RR | Respiratory rate, relative risk | TGL | Triglyceride |
| RRR | Relative risk reduction | TIA | Transient ischemic attack |
| RSBI | Rapid shallow breathing index | TIBC | Total iron-binding capacity |
| RSV | Respiratory syncytial virus | TID | Three times per day |
| RSVP | Right ventricular systolic pressure | TIMI | Thrombolysis in myocardial |
| RTA | Renal tubular acidosis | | infarction |
| RT-PCR | Reverse transcriptase polymerase | TIPS | Transjugular intrahepatic |
| | chain reaction | | portosystemic shunt |
| RUL | Right upper lobe | TLC | Total lung capacity |
| RUO | Right upper guadrant | TMP/SMX | Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole |
| RUSB | Right upper sternal border | TNF | Tumor necrosis factor |
| SABA | Short acting beta agonist | TP-EIA | <i>Treponema pallidum</i> enzyme |
| SAH | Subarachnoid hemorrhage | | immunoassay |
| SBP | Systolic blood pressure. | TPN | Total parenteral nutrition |
| | spontaneous bacterial peritonitis | TPO | Thyroid peroxidase |
| SCC | Squamous cell carcinoma | TPPA | Treponema pallidum particle |
| SCLC | Small cell lung cancer | | agglutination assay |
| SCT | Stem cell transplant | TRH | Thyrotropin releasing hormone |
| Sens | Sensitivity | TSH | Thyroid stimulating hormone |
| SIADH | Syndrome of inappropriate | TST | Tuberculin skin test |
| | antidiuretic hormone | TTE | Transthoracic echocardiogram |
| SIRS | Systemic inflammatory response | TTP | Thrombotic thrombocytopenic |
| | syndrome | | purpura |
| SJS | Stevens-Johnson syndrome | TUR | Transurethral resection |
| SK | Streptokinase | TURP | Transurethral resection of prostate |
| SLE | Systemic lupus erythematosus | U/A | Urinalysis |

| UGI | Upper gastrointestinal | VF | Ventricular fibrillation |
|------|--------------------------------------|------|----------------------------------|
| UIP | Usual interstitial pneumonia | VHL | Von Hippel–Lindau syndrome |
| UMN | Upper motor neuron | VLDL | Very low density lipoprotein |
| UNC | Urine net charge | VRE | Vancomycin-resistant enterococci |
| US | Ultrasound | VSD | Ventricular septal defect |
| UTI | Urinary tract infection | VT | Ventricular tachycardia |
| UV | Ultraviolet | vWD | Von Willebrand disease |
| V/Q | Ventilation/perfusion | VZV | Varicella zoster virus |
| VAP | Ventilator-associated pneumonia | WBC | White blood cell |
| VC | Vital capacity | WPW | Wolff–Parkinson–White |
| VDRL | Venereal Disease Research Laboratory | | |

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