UNITED STATES ARMY
INSTITUTE FOR MILITARY ASSISTANCE

ST 31-91B

US ARMY SPECIAL FORCES MEDICAL HANDBOOK

1 MARCH 1982

SPECIAL FORCES MEDICAL HANDBOOK

CONTENTS

PREFACE

This book is designed to serve as a ready reference and review for Special Forces (SF) medics. It covers diseases and medical problems that SF medics may encounter in various areas of the world. It does not, however, take the place or eliminate the need for a comprehensive medical area study.

Many treatments given in this handbook would best be given in a hospital where a laboratory and special equipment are available, and personnel with serious injuries or illnesses should be evacuated to such a hospital if at all possible. Know your limitations and do not exceed them. Remember the maxim "First thou shall do no harm" and seek the assistance of more competent medical authority whenever possible.

Since we want to use as few pages as possible in presenting this information, we use common medical abbreviations throughout. For example,

A.	- analysis	h.	- hour
ABE	- acute bacterial endocarditis	HB	- hemoglobin
ad	- up to	HCl	- hydrochloride
A.M.	- ante meridiem	HCT	- hematocrit
BBT	- basal body temperature	HEENT	- head, eye, ear, nose & throat
b.i.d.	- twice a day		
B.P.	- blood pressure	Hg	- mercury
BUN	- blood urea nitrogen	h.s.	- at bedtime
BW	- biological warfare	Hx	- history
C.	- Celsius, centigrade	ID	- intradermal
CBC	- complete blood count	I&D	- incise & drain
cc.	- cubic centimeter	i.e.	- that is
CHF	- congestive heart failure	IM	- intramuscular
cm.	- centimeter	IV	- intravenous
C.N.S.	- central nervous system	IU	- international unit
COPD	- chronic obstructive pulmonary disease	kg.	- kilogram
		L.	- liter
CPR	- cardiopulmonary resuscitation	lab	- laboratory
CT	- clotting time	lb	- pound(s)
C.V.A.	- costovertebral angle; cerebrovascular accident	LLQ	- left lower quadrant
		MCL	- mid clavicular line
d.	- day; daily	med	- medication; medical; medicine
D&C	- dilatation and curretage		
DTR	- deep tendon reflex	mEq.	- milliequivalent
Dx	- diagnosis	mg.	- milligram
E. coli	- Escherichia coli	Mg	- magnesium
e.g.	- for example	MI	- myocardial infarction
F.	- Fahrenheit	MIF	- merthiolate/iodine/ formaline solution
G.I.	- gastrointestinal		
gm	- gram	min	- minute
gr.	- grain	ml.	- milliliter
gtt.	- drops	mm.	- millimeter
GU	- genitourinary	M.U.	- million units

Na - sodium (natrium)
NBC - nuclear, biological, chemical
NG - nasogastric
NPN - nonprotein nitrogen
N.P.O. - nothing by mouth
N&V - nausea & vomiting
O. - objective findings
OD - overdose
oz. - ounce
P. - plan of treatment
p.c. - after meals
P.E. - physical exam
pH - hydrogen in concentration
PID - pelvic inflammatory disease
PM - preventive medicine
P.M.I. - point of maximum impulse
P.M.N. - polymorphonuclear neutrophil leukocytes
P.O. - by mouth
pO_2 - partial pressure oxygen
PP - pulsus paradoxus
P.P.D. - purified protein derivative
ppm. - parts per million
p.r.n. - as required or as needed
psi - pounds per square inch
PTB - primary tuberculosis
p.v. - through the vagina
q. - every
q.d. - every day
q. h. - every ___ hours
q.i.d. - four times a day
q.s. - sufficient quantity
qt. - quart
S. - subject findings
SBE - subacute bacterial endocarditis
sec - second
sed. - sedimentation
SLR - straight leg raise
sp. gr. - specific gravity
spp. - species
SQ - subcutaneous
S and S - signs and symptoms
stat. - immediately
STS - serologic test for syphilis
Sx - symptoms
T. - temperature
tab. - tablet
TB - tuberculosis
t.i.d. - three times a day
Tx - treatment
U. - unit
URI - upper respiratory infection
U.S.P. - United States Pharmacopeia
VD - venereal disease
VS - vital signs
W.B.C. - white blood cell, white blood count
W.H.O. - World Health Organization
wo - without
wt. - weight

SYMBOLS

- increase

- decrease

- greater than

- less than

14 July 1982

Holders of ST 31-91B, Special Forces Medical Handbook, should add to/change the text as follows:

Page

iv bottom right column, under SYMBOLS, add

↑ - increase

↓ - decrease

> - greater than

< - less than

1-15 line 2, add ↓ before or in center and right columns

line 11 (Breath sounds & voice), same as for line 2

1-21 bottom page, 2d para from bottom under O, add ↑ before W.B.C. and > before 20,000

1-73 para 1-51 O., first line, add ↓ before B.P.

2-17 mid page, last para before A., 2d & 3d lines, add + sign over -; should read 89 ± 27 & 124 ± 68

D-2 para D-4c, line 3, add ~ over =; should read W.B.C. $\simeq$ 4,500

In addition to the above, users should be aware that superscripts and subscripts in the text are sometimes out of line due to mechanical error.

CHAPTER 1

BODY SYSTEMS

Section I - Integumentary System

1-1. SKIN. Tough elastic structure covering the entire body consisting of two layers: the epidermis and the dermis.

1-2. DIAGNOSIS OF SKIN DISEASES BY PHYSICAL EXAMINATION.

a. Primary lesion. Earliest changes to appear:

(1) Macule. Flat discolored spot of varied size 10 mm. or smaller.

(2) Patch. Flat discolored spot of varied size 10 mm. or larger.

(3) Papule. Solid elevated lesion 10 mm. or smaller.

(4) Plaque. A group of confluent papules.

(5) Nodule. Palpable solid lesion 5-10 mm. (may or may not be elevated).

(6) Tumors. Larger nodules usually 20 mm. or larger.

(7) Vesicle. Circumscribed elevated lesion 5 mm. or smaller containing serous fluid.

(8) Bulla. Circumscribed elevated lesion 5 mm. or larger.

(9) Pustule. Superficial elevated lesion containing pus.

(10) Wheal. Transient elevated lesion caused by local edema.

b. Secondary lesions result from either evolution (natural) of the primary lesions or patient manipulation of primary lesions.

(1) Scales. Heaped up parts of epithelium.

(2) Crusts (Scab). Dried serum, blood, or pus.

(3) Erosion. Loss of part or all of the epidermis.

(4) Ulcer. Loss of epidermis and at least part of dermis.

(5) Excoriation. Linear or hollowed-out crusted area caused by scratching, rubbing, or picking.

(6) Lichenification. Thickening of the skin with accentuation of the skin markings.

(7) Atrophy. Thinning and wrinkling of the skin resembling cigarette paper.

(8) Scar. The result of healing after destruction of the dermis.

1-3. SKIN DISORDERS.

a. Pruritus (Itching).

S. Compulsive itching accompanies primary skin disease or may be the only signs and symptoms.

O. Redness, uticarial papules, excoriated papules, fissures, crusting, etc.

A. Pruritus/Pruritus secondary to _____ skin disease.

P. Correct the skin disease, or discontinue using irritating substance, e.g., soap, clothing, chemical, etc. Use of mild tranquilizers: Valium, Vistiral. Use of major tranquilizers: Thorazine. Use of antihistamines: Benadryl 50 mg. t.i.d.

b. Contact dermatitis is divided into two types:

(1) Primary irritant contact dermatitis. Develops within a few hours, reaches peak severity in 24 hours then disappears; caused by contact with a chemical irritant.

(2) Allergic eczematous contact dermatitis. Has a delayed onset of about 18 hours, peaks in 48-72 hours, and often lasts 2-3 weeks after discontinuing exposure to the offending antigen. (Poison ivy, oak, or sumac or allergy to clothing, etc.)

(3) Symptoms vary from minor itching and redness to vesicles, redness, edema, oozing, crusting, and scaling; itching is usually sharply demarcated.

(4) Remove offending agent. Use tap water, soaks, or compresses. Blisters may be drained but leave the tops on. Oral corticosteriods - Prednisone 40-60 mg./day x 10-14 days in severe cases. Topical corticosteriods are not effective in acute phase. Antihistamines - Benadryl 50 mg. t.i.d.

1-4. BACTERIAL SKIN INFECTIONS.

a. Impetigo/Ecthyma. Superficial vesiculopustular skin infection seen chiefly in children. Ecthyma is an ulcerative form of impetigo.

S. Group A B-hemolytic streptococcus is usual cause, but Staphylococcus aureus may be cultured also.

O. Usually affects arms, legs, and face, with the legs being more susceptible to ecthyma than unexposed areas. Both may follow superficial trauma or may be secondary to skin disease or insect bites, but it is not uncommon for it to arise on normal skin.

Lesions vary from pea-sized vesicopustules to large bizarre circinate ringwormlike lesions that progress rapidly from maculopapules to vesicopustules or bullae to exudative and then to heavily crusted circinate lesions. Ecthyma is characterized by small, purulent, shallow ulcers

covered with crusts. Itching is common and scratching can spread the infection.

A. Impetigo/ecthyma.

P. Systemic antibiotics are superior to topical antibiotics. Penicillin is the drug of choice; second choice is erythromycin.

	IM Penicillin	ORAL Penicillin	Erythromycin
Child	600,000 U. Pen G	125 mg. q.i.d. x 10 days	125 mg. q.i.d. x 10 days
Adult	1.2 mil U. Pen G	250 mg. q.i.d. x 10 days	250 mg. q.i.d. x 10 days

In secondary impetigo, the underlying cause should be treated also. Neglected infection may result in cellulitis, lymphangitis, or furunculosis in adults or acute glomerulonephritis in children.

b. Erysipelas. A superficial cellulitis caused by Group A B-hemolytic streptococci.

S. The face (bilaterally), an arm, or a leg is most often involved.

O. Lesion is well demarcated, shiny, red, edematous, and tender; vesicles and bullae often develop. Patches of peripheral redness and regional lymphadenopathy are seen occasionally; high fever, chills, and malaise are common. It may be recurrent and may result in chronic lymphedema. The causative agent may be difficult to culture from the lesion, but it may be cultured from the blood.

A. Erysipelas. NOTE: Erysipelas of the face must be differentiated from herpes zoster; contact dermatitis and angioneurotic edema may also be mistaken for erysipelas.

P. Pen VK or erythromycin 250 mg. q.i.d. x 14 days. In acute cases Pen G 1.2 million U. IV q.6h. x 36-48 hrs then start Pen VK. Local discomfort may be relieved by cold packs and/or 600 mg. aspirin with 30 mg. codeine.

c. Cellulitis. Has the same S and S and is treated the same as erysipelas. The only difference is cellulitis involves deeper tissue.

d. See Chapter 2, Section III, Bacterial, for typhoid fever, gas gangrene, anthrax, tularemia, plague, leprosy, and scarlet fever.

1-5. SUPERFICIAL FUNGAL INFECTIONS.

a. See Chapter 2, Section II, Mycotic, for coccidioidomycosis, North American blastomycosis, and Paracoccidioidomycosis (South American blastomycosis).

b. Sporotrichosis. A chronic fungal infection caused by Sporothrix schenckii. It is found worldwide in soil, plants, and decaying wood. Organism is introduced by skin trauma, usually on hand, arm, or foot.

S. and O. Commonly begins with a hard, nontender subcutaneous module that later becomes adherent to the overlying skin, ulcerates (chancriform), and may persist for a long time. Within a few days to

weeks, similar modules usually develop along the lymphatics draining this area, and these may ulcerate. The lymphatic vessels become indurated and are easily palpable. Infection usually ceases to spread before the regional lymph modes are invaded, and blood-bone dissemination is rare.

Skin infection may not spread through the lymphatics but may appear only as warty or papular scaly lesions that may become pustular. Disseminated sporotrichosis presents as multiple, hard subcutaneous modules scattered over the body. These become soft but rarely rupture spontaneously. Lesions may also develop in bones, joints, muscles, and viscera.

Laboratory findings: Cultures are needed to establish diagnosis.

A. Sporotrichosis.

P. Saturated solution of potassium iodine (S.S.K.I.) 5 drops in a glass of water t.i.d., after meals, orally, increasing by 1 drop per dose until 40 drops t.i.d. are being given. Continue until signs of active disease have disappeared. Then decrease the dosage by 1 drop per dose until 5 drops per dose are being given, then discontinue. Although S.S.K.I. is not fungicidal, it does promote rapid healing. Care must be taken to reduce the dosage if signs of iodism appear.

Amphotericin B IV and miconazole have been effective in systemic infections.

c. Chromomycosis. Mainly a tropical chronic cutaneous infection caused by several species of closely related molds having a dark mycelium. Found in soil and on decaying vegetation. In humans the disease progresses slowly, occurring most frequently on the lower extremities, but it may occur on hands, arms, and elsewhere.

S. and O. Lesions begin as a papule or ulcer. Over a period of months to years, the lesions enlarge to become vegetating, papillomatous, verrucous, elevated nodules with a cauliflowerlike appearance or widespread dry verrucous plaques. The latter spread peripherally with a raised, verrucous border, leaving central atrophic scarring. The surface of the border contains minute abscesses. Satellite lesions may appear along the lymphatics. There may be a foul odor due to secondary bacterial infection. Some patients complain of itching. Elephantiasis may result if marked fibrosis and lymph stasis exist in the limb.

Lab findings: The fungus is seen as brown, thick-walled, spherical, sometimes septate cells in pus.

A. Chromomycosis.

P. Flucytosine - 150 mg./kg./d. orally or thiabendazole 25 mg./kg./d. orally. Surgical excision and skin grafting may prove useful.

d. Dermatophyte infections (Ringworm). Superficial infections caused by fungi that invade only dead tissues of the skin or its appendages (stratum corneum, nails, hair).

S. Microsporum, Trichophyton, and Epidermophyton are the genera most commonly involved.

O. Some dermatophytes produce only mild or no inflammation. In such cases, the organism may persist indefinitely, causing intermittent remissions and exacerbations of a gradually extending lesion with a scaling, slightly raised border. In other cases, an acute infection may occur typically causing a sudden vesicular and bullous disease of the feet, or an inflamed boggy lesion of the scalp (Kerion) may occur that is due to a strong immunologic reaction to the fungus; it is usually followed by remission or cure.

A. Tinea corporis - (Ringworm of the body).

Tinea pedis - (Ringworm of the feet) - athlete's foot.

Tinea unguium - (Ringworm of the nails).

Tinea capitis - (Ringworm of the scalp) - dandruff.

Tinea cruris - (Ringworm of the groin) - jock itch.

Tinea barbae - (Ringworm of the beard area).

Tinea manuum - (Ringworm of the palms and soles of the feet).

Differential diagnosis: Includes pityriasis rosea, discoid eczema, and psoriasis.

Confirmation can be made with Wood's light or KOH preparation.

P. Griseofulvin is effective against true dermatophyte infections, but not against candidiasis or tinea versicolor. Adult dosage is 500 mg. b.i.d. with meals. Duration varies from 2 weeks for tinea corporis to 6-12 months for tinea unguium. Tinactin/Mycostatin are effective against most fungal infections where applied b.i.d. to t.i.d. to affected areas and washed off before reapplication.

1-6. PARASITIC SKIN INFECTIONS.

a. Scabies. A transmissible parasitic skin infection characterized by superficial burrows, intense pruritus, and secondary infections.

S. Caused by the itch mite (Sarcoptes scabiei). The female mite tunnels into the epidermis layer and deposits her eggs along the burrow. Scabies is transmitted by skin-to-skin contact with an infected person. It is <u>not</u> transmitted by clothing or bedding.

O. Nocturnal itching, pruritic vesicles and pustules in "runs" or "galleries" especially on the sides of the fingers and the heel of the palms. Mites, ova, and black clots of feces may be visible microscopically.

A. Scabies. Confirm by demonstrating the parasite in scrapings taken from a burrow, mix with any clear fluid, and examine microscopically.

P. Disinfestation with gamma Kwell 1% cream base applied from neck down and repeated in one week. (WARNING: there is a potential of neurotoxicity from use on infants and from overuse on adults.) Treatment

should be aimed at all infected personnel. In cases of severe secondary infections, treatment should be supplemented with systemic and topical antibiotics.

b. Pediculosis (Lice). A parasitic infestation of the skin-- scalp, trunk, or pubic areas--that usually occurs in overcrowded dwellings.

S. Head and pubic lice can be found on the head and in the pubic area. Body lice are seldom found on the body as the insects only come to the skin to feed; you must look for them in the seams of clothing.

O. Pruritis with excoriation, nits (ova) on hair shafts, lice on skin or clothing, occasionally sky-blue macules (maculae caeruleae) on the inner thighs or on the lower abdomen in pubic lice infestations. You may also see secondary infections.

A. Pediculosis pubis (Crabs - Phthirus pubis). Infestation of anogenital region. Pediculosis humanus-var corporis (body louse). Differential diagnosis seborrheic dermatitis, scabies, anogenital pruritis, and eczema.

P. Cure is rapid with gamma Kwell 1% q.d. x 2 days. Repeat after 10 days to destroy the nits; practice good personal hygiene. If the infestation is widespread, wash all clothing and bedding in hot water with a strong detergent and dust the area with lindane powder.

c. See Chapter 2, Section 1, Parasitic, for African trypanosomiasis (sleeping sickness), American trypanosomiasis (Chagas' disease), and cutaneous and mucocutaneous leishmaniasis.

1-7. VIRAL INFECTIONS OF THE SKIN.

a. Herpes simplex (cold/fever sore). An acute viral infection.

S. Clinical outbreaks, which may be recurrent in the same location for years, are provoked by fever, sunburn, indigestion, fatigue, windburn, menstruation, or nervous tension.

O. Recurrent, small, grouped vesicles on an erythematous base, especially around the oral and genital area, lasting approximately 1-2 weeks. Regional lymph nodes may be swollen and tender. Burning and stinging; neuralgia may precede and accompany attacks. The lesions consist of small, grouped vesicles that may occur anywhere, but most often occur on the lips, mouth, and genitals.

A. Herpes simplex. Differential diagnosis: Distinguish from other vesicular lesions, especially herpes zoster and impetigo, in the genital area, syphilis, lymphogranuloma venereum, and chancroid.

COMPLICATIONS: Kaposi's varicelliform eruptions (eczema herpeticum or disseminated herpes simplex), encephalitis, keratitis, and perhaps cervical cancer and other neoplastic diseases.

P. Eliminate precipitating agents when possible. Apply a moistened styptic pencil several times daily to abort lesions. Dust vesicles twice daily with bismuth formic iodide or use shake lotions or camphor spirit. Epinephrine 1:1,000 applied locally b.i.d. may also be used. If there is associated cellulitis and lymphadenitis, apply cool

compresses. Treat stomatitis with mild saline mouthwash.

b. Herpes zoster (Shingles). An acute vesicular eruption due to a virus that is morphologically identical with the varicella virus.

S. Usually occurs in adults with or without a history of chickenpox during childhood and is probably a reactivation of a varicella virus infection that has been occult for many years. Persons in anergic states (Hodgkin's disease, lymphomas, or those taking immunosuppressive drugs) are at greater risk, and life-threatening dissemination (varicella) may occur.

O. Pain along the course of a nerve followed by painful groups of vesicular lesions. Involvement is unilateral and persists for approximately 2-3 weeks. Lesions are usually on the face and trunk. Swelling of regional lymph nodes may occur. Pain usually precedes eruptions by 48 hours or more and may persist and actually increase in intensity after the lesions have disappeared.

A. Herpes zoster. Differential diagnosis: Poison ivy, poison oak dermatitis, and herpes simplex, which is usually less painful. COMPLICATIONS: Persistent neuralgia, anesthesia of the affected area following healing, facial or other nerve paralysis, and encephalitis may occur.

P. Barbiturates may help control tension and nervousness associated with neuralgia. Aspirin with or without codeine (30 mg.) usually controls the pain. A single injection of triamcinolone acetonide (Kenalog) suspension (40 mg. intragluteally) may give prompt relief. Prednisone 40 mg. daily for 4 days and then continued in declining doses may also be used. Calamine lotion or other shake lotions are often of value; apply liberally and cover with a protective layer of cotton. DO NOT USE GREASES.

c. See Chapter 2, Section IV, Viral, for measles, smallpox, dengue, Colorado tick fever, and herpes genitalis.

d. See Chapter 6, Pediatrics, for chickenpox.

1-8. RICKETTSIAL DISEASES. See Chapter 2, Section V, Rickettsial and Spirochetal, for epidemic louse-borne typhus, endemic flea-borne typhus, and spotted fevers (Rocky Mountain spotted fever, Rickettsialpox, scrub typhus, trench fever, Q fever).

1-9. SPIROCHETAL DISEASES.

a. See Chapter 2, Section VI, Venereal for syphilis.

b. See Chapter 2, Section V, Rickettsial and Spirochetal, for treponemal infections (yaws, endemic syphilis, pinta).

Section II - Musculoskeletal System

1-10. GENERAL.

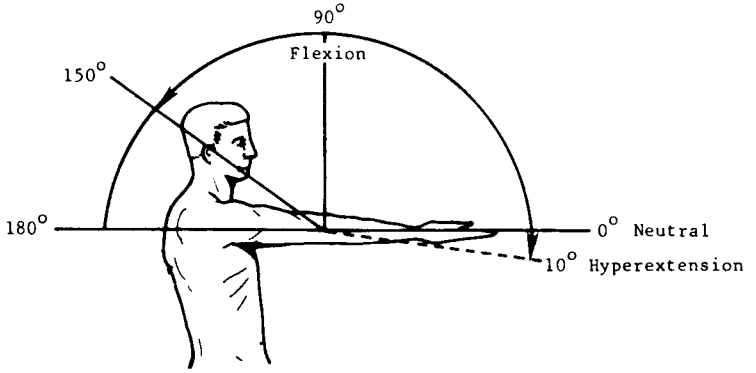
a. The history of a musculoskeletal disorder is much like any other history. A concise story of specific complaints will help the medic best determine the extent of the disorder. Questions should include chronological sequence, manner of onset, duration of symptoms, previous history, progress of the complaint, extent of disability, specific complaint of weight bearing, motion of the part, weather changes, what aggravates the complaint, what relieves it, whether it has ever been treated, and if so, what were the effects of treatment.

b. The physical examination should include the general posture and alignment of the body as a whole. Evaluate the patient's body attitude while standing and walking. The relationship of the feet to the legs and of the hips to the pelvis should be noted; also the relationship of the arms to the shoulder girdle and to the upper trunk. Next the general contour of the spine and its relation to the shoulder girdle, thorax, and pelvis should be noted. The local physical examination should include:

(1) Inspection. Contour, appearance, color, deformity, and its general relationship to the body.

(2) Palpation. Tenderness, swelling, muscle spasm, local temperature changes, and gross alterations.

(3) Range of motion. Motion is measured in degrees of a circle as illustrated below. Medic should compare affected area with uninvolved opposites or with his own joints.



(4) Joint position. Position of function is the position that gives the joint its maximum strength and efficiency. Position of comfort is the position in which the joint feels the most comfortable. Patients will always try to assume the position of comfort. It is up to the medic to insure that the affected joints are always supported in a position of function.

(5) Measurement. Atrophy or hypertrophy may be determined by measuring and comparing with uninvolved opposite.

(6) Neurologic. The strength of the affected muscles and the quality of the superficial and deep tendon reflexes should be noted. Also the integrity of cutaneous sensation should be determined when indicated.

1-11. RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS. Chronic systemic disease of unknown etiology usually involving the synovial membranes of multiple joints, tendons, or bursae.

S. and O. Common in ages 25-50; women are affected three times as often as men. Abrupt onset with symmetrical swelling of joints in the hands and feet, regional atrophy of bone and muscle, limited joint motion, the skin of the extremities may be smooth, glossy, and atrophic. Other signs and symptoms include elevated temperature, tachycardia, generalized lymphadenopathy, malnutrition, body wasting, morning stiffness, and depression. Synovial fluid is cloudy and sterile, reduced viscosity. Polymorphonuclear leukocytes typically predominate. History should rule out other types of arthritis.

A. Rheumatoid arthritis.

P. Rest, aspirin in high doses (look out for ulcer), corticosteroids, either systemically and/or intra-articular injection. Severe rebound may follow steroid withdrawal. Heat and physical therapy to maintain joint function.

1-12. OSTEOARTHRITIS. A degenerative joint disease usually affecting large weight-bearing joints of older individuals, causing deterioration of articular cartilage.

S. and O. Onset is gradual and localized to a few joints; 60-70-year age bracket; women affected 10 times as often as men; distal interphalangeal joints of the fingers frequently show modulation, obesity; pain is made worse by exercise. The cervical and lumbar spine, hip, and knee are most often involved. History, physical, laboratory findings will show minimal abnormalities.

A. Osteoarthritis.

P. Rest, weight reduction, heat, occasional brace support, aspirin, analgesics, and physical therapy.

1-13. SEPTIC ARTHRITIS. Acute disease process involving a single joint and is secondary to a bacterial infection.

S. and O. Previously healthy, case of gonorrhea usually in women, concurrent bacterial infection, fever, rash possibly, acute joint pain and stiffness, joint is warm, tender, swollen. Leukocytosis, arthrocentesis will show color to be variable, viscosity variable, clarity opaque, culture often positive, Gram's stain, W.B.C. greater than 10,000.

A. Septic arthritis.

P. Evacuate if possible; the joint may be destroyed if not promptly treated. Treat with antibiotics according to infectious organism.

1-14. GOUTY ARTHRITIS. Recurrent metabolic disease usually causing arthritis in peripherial joints due to hyperuricemia that leaves urate crystals within the joint space.

S. and O. Minor trauma may start; overindulgence in pork or alcohol; classically the joint of the big toe is affected; inflammation, pain, swelling, fever, chills, tachycardia; urate salts may precipitate in a collection called a tophus that may be mistakenly reported as calcification. These tophi may be found in the muscle surrounding the joint, the tendons, or the walls of the bursae. Usually made by history and physical. Synovial fluid will have needle-shaped urate crystals that are free in the fluid.

A. Gouty arthritis.

P. Terminate the acute attacks by the use of an anti-inflammatory drug, prophylaxis by daily use of colchicine, and prevention of further deposits of urate crystals by lowering uric acid levels with Benemid or allopurinol. Codeine may be needed to control pain.

1-15. OSTEOMYELITIS. An infection of the bone and bone marrow due to septicemia or bacteremia.

S. and O. Infected tonsils, boils, abscessed teeth, or upper respiratory infections may cause the septicemia. Direct contamination may result from open fracture or war wound. General symptoms are those of an acute toxic illness with sharp rise in temperature. Locally the involved area may be swollen, warm, and very tender to touch. There may be a severe, constant, pulsating pain, usually aggravated by motion. The diagnosis of acute osteomyelitis ideally requires the identification of the causative agent. Staphylococcus aureus is the most common, accounting for 65-70 percent of the cases. Proteus, pseudomonas, salmonella, streptococcus, acid-fast bacilli, fungi, and rickettsiae can also be the cause. Blood test will usually show an elevated leukocyte count and blood culture may be positive.

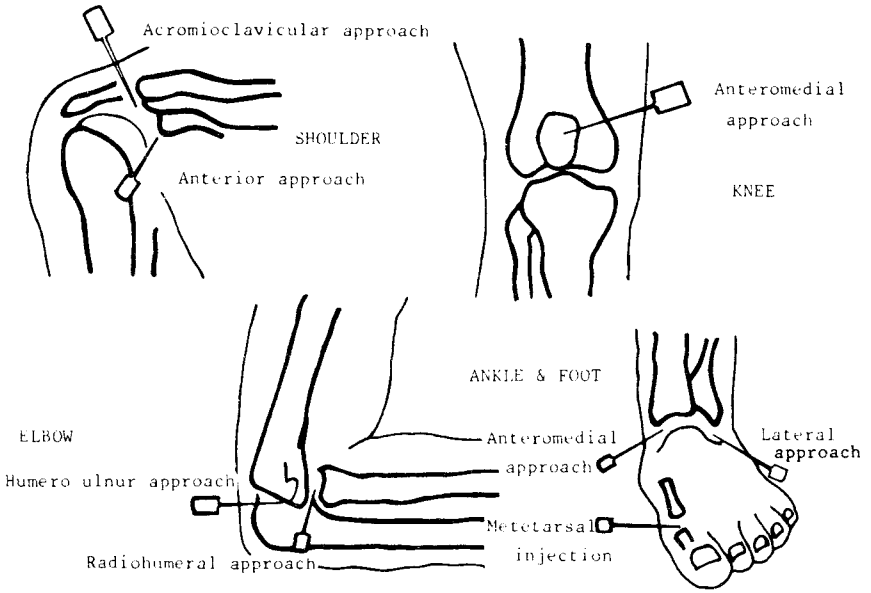
A. Osteomyelitis.

P. The successful treatment is completely dependent upon establishing an early clinical and bacterial diagnosis. Antibiotics are started as soon as diagnosis is suspected and may be altered after the results of the culture and sensitivity are known. Penicillin G with doses of 12-20 million units daily and 1-8 grams of methicillin daily, depending on patient's age. For patients that are allergic to penicillin, cephalosporin, erythromycin, or lincomycin may be given. Antibiotics should be continued for 8-12 weeks after all signs and symptoms disappear. The affected bone should be immobilized until all signs of active infection have disappeared. Aspiration of abscess may also be necessary. Chronic osteomyelitis requires surgery with radical debridement of the bone with excision of all sinuses, dead bone, scar tissue, and necrotic tissue.

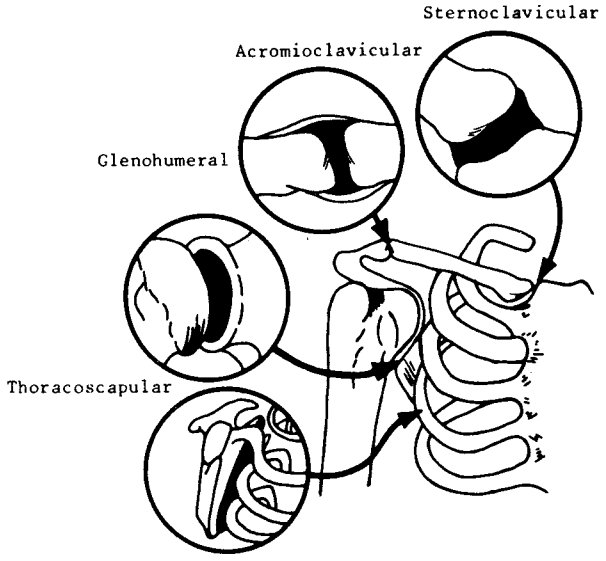
1-16. BURSITIS. Inflammation of the bursa. Bursae are lubricating devices that diminish the friction of movement. They are found beneath the skin, beneath tendons, and overlying joints. Inflammation may be due to trauma, extensive use, infection, gout, or rheumatoid arthritis. Due to the stimulus of inflammation, the lining membrane produces excess fluid causing distension of the bursa sac. The fluid may be bloody or in the case of gout, there may be urate crystals. Treatment consists of local injections of corticosteroids into the inflammed bursa. Treatment of choice is 20-40 mg. hydrocortisone following infiltration of 1% procaine. Phenylbutazone 300 mg. for 2-3 days followed by 100 mg. for 10 days is also effective. Early active movement inhibits development of limiting

adhesions.

1-17. ARTHROCENTESIS. Find the effusion. Mark the site for entry. Scrub with Betadine or iodine. Anesthetize the skin 1% lidocaine. Aspirate with 20-gage needle; insure needle is long enough. Record the volume, viscosity, color, and clarity of synovial fluid. Immediately place 0.5 ml. in sterile tube for culture with Thayes-Martin medium. Place 0.5 ml. of synovial fluid in a heparinized tube for leukocyte count. Use 0.3% saline solution as diluent for W.B.C. Prepare smears for Wright's and Gram's stain. Prepare wet smear by placing drop of synovial fluid on slide, cover with cover slip, and seal edges with nail polish.



1-18. THE SHOULDER. Shoulder pain may arise from a problem primarily in the joint or it may be referred pain. Referred pain may be due to cervical spine disorders, cardiac disorders, gallbladder diseases, or diseases involving the mediastinum or diaphragm. Referred pain will less likely have local tenderness, inflammation, and limited range of motion.



1-19. THE KNEE.

a. Collateral ligament rupture test. With the knee partially flexed, an abnormal opening of the medial aspect of the knee indicates damage to the medial collateral ligament. If the lateral collateral ligament has been injured there will be an opening on the lateral aspect of the knee.

b. Cruciate ligament rupture test. With both knees flexed, the medic grasps the leg just below the knee with both hands and pulls the tibia forward. For best results the medic should place his hip on the patient's foot. Abnormal forward motion of the tibia suggest damage to the anterior cruciate ligaments. Abnormal backward motion of the tibia suggests damage to the posterior cruciate ligaments.

c. McMurray's test for torn meniscus. The patient should be lying in the supine position with the knee fully flexed. The foot is forcibly rotated outward to its full capacity. While the foot is held outward in the rotated position, the knee is slowly extended. If a painful click is felt, this indicates a tear of the medial meniscus. If the painful click is felt when the foot is rotated inward, the tear is in the lateral meniscus.

1-20. LOW BACK PAIN. A thorough knowledge of the anatomy of the spine, particularly of the lumbosacral area, is essential to the diagnosis and treatment of low back pain. Low back pain may be due to congenital disorders, tumors, trauma, metabolic disorders, inflammatory diseases, degenerative diseases, infections, mechanical causes, or psychoneurotic disorders. This does not end the list. Trauma is the most common cause of back pain. A study of the presented disorders will help the medic in his differential diagnosis. General treatment consists of bed rest, heating

pads, firm mattress, massage, and possibly a local anesthetic infiltration to trigger points.

a. The malingerer. Malingerers exist, but every patient should be treated as a true patient until other evidence exists.

b. The tests.

(1) Have the patient sit in a chair and try to touch the floor; a patient with a severe disc herniation can usually perform while the malingerer cannot.

(2) Place the patient in the supine position. Put one hand under the heel and raise the opposite leg. A malingerer will usually lift his heel out of the medic's hand while the legitimate patient will press further into the hand.

(3) The malingering patient usually exhibits a marked withdrawal response when the medic palpates any part of his body. Squeezing the sacroiliac joints by compression from both sides usually elicits pain from the patient who is faking and not from the true patient.

(4) Muscle weakness in the injured side is usually too obvious and disproportionate to the neurological findings in the malingerer. The best course of action is to tell the patient that no organic cause can be found for the patient's symptoms.

Section III - Respiratory System

The respiratory system includes the nasal pharynx, sinuses, trachea, bronchial tree, lungs, pleura, diaphram, and the chest wall.

The upper portion of the respiratory system is covered in Chapter 1, Section IX, EENT.

1-21. PNEUMOTHORAX: The presence of air in the pleural cavity resulting in partial or total collapse of the lung.

S. Closed pneumothorax: No direct communication between pleural cavity and the atmosphere.

(1) Spontaneous pneumothorax: Due to rupture of a bleb at the surface of the lung lining. Most common in otherwise healthy males between 20-30 years of age. Sudden onset of progressive dyspnea is the most common complaint. Chest pain of variable quality (but usually pleuritic) is frequently associated. The rupture often occurs during exercise, coughing, sneezing, or straining, and the patient can usually pinpoint the onset of dyspnea to the second. The progression is usually rapid, and the patient may find himself in severe respiratory distress in minutes. The course, however, may be less acute and the patient may note only slowly increasing dyspnea on exertion for days prior to onset of frank dyspnea at rest. The chest pain is usually localized to the affected side.

(2) Tension pneumothorax: Due to rupture of a small bronchus, bronchiole, or alveolus. This results in the formation of a one-way valve that allows inspired air to enter but prevents its escape. The progressive increase in pressure from the trapped air buildup pushes the heart to the opposite side and compresses the univalved lung and great veins resulting in a decreased cardiac output. The symptoms are the same as spontaneous pneumothorax but far more rapid in progression. The chest pain usually localizes well to the affected side, initially, but may become more diffuse as the contralateral lung is involved.

O. General: The patient is usually anxious and tachypneic. Signs of varying degrees of shock may be present depending on the type and extent of the pneumothorax. The same can be said for cyanosis.

Vital Signs: Temperature is usually normal but may be subnormal if severe degree of shock is present. Pulse is usually increased and feeble. Respiration is tachypneic.

B.P.: A postural drop may be noted with significant cardiovascular compromise; a persistently low or falling supine B.P. will be seen as shock becomes more developed.

Chest Exam:	Spontaneous	Tension or Open
Chest expansion	or absent on affected side.	or absent on affected side greater than uninvolved side (which may also demonstrate poor expansion)
Resonance to percussion	Involved side>uninvolved side	Involved side> uninvolved side
Breath sounds & voice sounds	or absent on involved side	or absent on involved side
Fremitus	Absent	Absent
Tracheal deviation	Usually none	When present, is away from affected side.
P.M.I. shift	Usually none	When present, is away from affected side.
Tracheal & P.M.I. "swing" (a pendulum type motion of the heart & trachea during expiration and inspiration is often seen in pneumothorax).	Insp: Toward involved side Expir: Away from involved side	Insp: Away from involved side Exp: Toward involved side

Subcutaneous emphysema: Air in the subcutaneous tissues about the neck and chest usually indicates an underlying pneumothorax.

A. Pneumothorax. Differential diagnosis: May mimic many acute thoraxic events including pulmonary embolus and MI. The specific features of demonstrable hyperresonance with associated poor expansion of one side of the chest will usually differentiate a pneumothorax. Nonetheless, a quick rule of other possible causes should be done.

P. Closed pneumothorax:

(1) Spontaneous - Tube thoracostomy with drainage:

(a) At the 3rd or 4th intercostal space just medial to the anterior axillary line, make a short skin incision just above and roughly parallel to the inferior rib of the interspace.

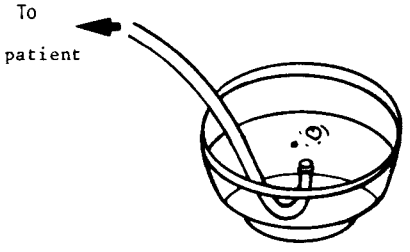
(b) Use large hemostats to separate the muscles and puncture the pleura.

(c) With the hemostats, introduce a large bore Foley catheter into the pleural space with the tip pointing superiorly (if a chest tube is available, use it).

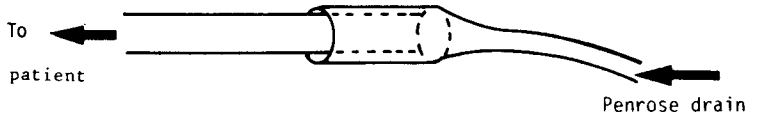
(d) The tube should be inserted 1/2 to 3/4 of its length and the balloon inflated. The catheter is then slowly pulled outward until the inflated balloon "catches" on the inner chest wall. During this time the patient should be urged to cough and strain to allow removal of pleural fluid. Once the catheter catches, it is secured with sutures. A vertical mattress suture wrapped around the tube is preferred.

The wound, too, is "tightened" with sutures, and petroleum gauze overlaid with dry dressing is placed over the entrance. Secure the edges of the dressing out to 6 inches with tape, tightly. DO NOT secure with circumferential wraps around the chest.

(e) If the tube does not have a one-way valve, one can be improvised by tying a finger cot, a finger cut out of a rubber glove, or a condom over the end of the tube and cutting a small hole in it. A rubber Penrose drain slipped over the end (with a few centimeters "left dangling") will accomplish the same (i.e., prevent air reflux into the chest). The water bowl seal can be used for the same purpose. See illustrations below.

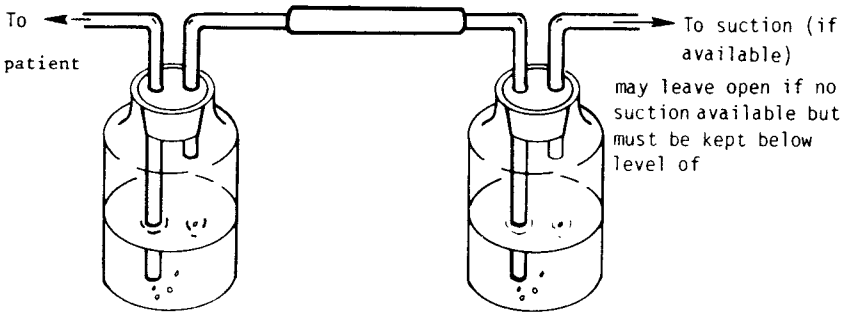


Water bowl seal bowl must be kept below level of patient.



Improvised one-way valve.

(f) If a water seal device is available or can be improvised, it is preferable. A simple 2-bottle water trap suction system is illustrated below.



Two-bottle water seal trap for pneumothorax.

(2) Tension Pneumothorax: Because of the rapid progression of derangements and their consequences (i.e., shock), heroic steps may have to be taken to buy time for tube placement and definitive management.

(a) If a tension pneumothorax is suspected and the patient is cyanotic or manifests any signs of cardiovascular compromise (e. g., postural drop in B.P., frank hypotension; cold, clammy skin, etc.), a #18 or #16 needle should be introduced into the chest to decompress the pleural space. The needle should be introduced slowly in the 2d or 3rd intercostal space MCL until the "hiss" of air can be heard (...get your ear down there and listen!!) escaping. Avoid the underside of the superior rib (see 1-27, Pleural Effusions).

(b) When the initial blast of air ceases, remove the needle and institute tube thoracostomy and drainage as outlined above.

(3) General care after closed thoracostomy - tube drainage:

(a) Monitor patient for signs of continued improvement (or deterioration). Have the patient cough occasionally, and check for signs of air movement in the tube or water trap system. If patient exam is consistent with sustained expansion and no air leak is noted for 24 hours, the tube may be clamped. In an uncomplicated spontaneous pneumothorax, the tube may be withdrawn after another 24 hours of continued stability. The mattress suture is drawn tight and closure effected as the tube is pulled clear. Pulling the tube in the field is, however, strongly discouraged in spontaneous pneumothorax and absolutely contraindicated in open or tension pneumothorax.

(b) If the pneumothorax persists with evidence of good air drainage (large leak into the pleural space) or without evidence of good air drainage (obstructed or poorly positioned tube) a second tube

should be placed nearby to facilitate drainage. If a significant hemothorax is present (open chest trauma, etc.) a second tube should be placed in the 6th or 7th intercostal space in the mid or posterior axillary line. The presence of fluid there should first be confirmed by needle aspiration.

(c) Tetanus prophylaxis is given and all drainage routinely Gram-stained for evidence of infection.

1-22. ASPIRATION.

a. Definition: Inspiratory sucking into the airways of fluid or other foreign material. Two types:

(1) Active aspiration: The patient's airway defense mechanisms (cough, gag, etc.) are overwhelmed by the sudden collection of matter in the posterior pharynx. This usually happens as a result of vomiting but can happen with rapid hemorrhage that drains into the area (i.e., maxillo facial trauma, severe nose bleeds). Drowning is also a type of active aspiration.

(2) Passive aspiration: Oropharyngeal secretions pool in the posterior pharynx and passively "leak" into the trachea. Almost always occurs in the presence of sluggish or absent airway defense mechanisms (obtundation, coma, etc.).

b. Pathology. Three major events may occur:

(1) Asphyxiation ("strangling"): Occurs when large volumes are aspirated resulting in extensive airway obstruction.

(2) Aspiration pneumonia: Occurs as a result of aspirating oropharyngeal secretions that contain numerous potentially pathological organisms.

(3) Chemical pneumonitis: May result from aspiration of highly acid stomach secretions. It is a type of noncardiac pulmonary edema.

S. The actual event (vomiting, choking, etc.) may have been witnessed, but it is likely that the victim of active aspiration will be found cyanotic and in severe respiratory distress. The usual history of passive aspiration is the onset of fever and progressive respiratory distress after or during a bout of obtundation.

Any recent Hx of obtundation in a patient with respiratory distress should alert the examiner for aspiration. Any Hx of conditions that may produce unconciousness (alcoholism, seizure disorder) has the same significance.

O. General appearance: With massive aspiration, vomitus or other matter may be seen about the nose and mouth. The patient may be cyanotic with varying states of conciousness (ranging from alert to frank coma) depending on degree of obstruction, time obstruction present, and nature of associated injuries.

VS: Temperature may be elevated if pneumonia or chemical pneumonitis has developed. Pulse is usually increased. R. is usually increased and labored. B.P. may be decreased or may exhibit postural drop if shock is present or imminent.

	Asphyxiation	Pneumonia	Pneumonitis
Neck	Use of accessory muscles may be prominent until near the end.	Use of accessory muscles unusual or until advanced stages.	Use of accessory muscles.
Lungs	Poor breath sound over large areas may be noted; coarse rhonchi.	Resembles findings in other pneumonias (i.e., signs of consol-idation).	The findings of pulmonary edema (rales, rhonchi, wheezing, etc.).

Lab: W.B.C.: May have leukocytosis with left shift, especially if pneumonia is present.

Sputum exam: Many W.B.C.; mixed flora.

A. The most important clue to diagnosis is the presence in the Hx of a suspect setting.

P. (1) Clear the airway by manual extraction of foreign matter. Use suction if available. The Heimlich maneuver may be necessary to clear the airway.

(2) If patient is conscious and can cough, administer regular chest percussion and drainage. If the patient is unconscious, he should be intubated and secretions removed by suction.

(3) Med: Oxygen, if available, should be administered. Antibiotics are the preferred methods: Tobramycin or gentamycin 80 mg. IV or IM b.i.d.; Penicillin G two million units IV q.6h. Bronchodilators may be of benefit. Aminophylline (as per asthma).

c. General considerations. The best treatment is prevention. Severely debilitated or obtunded patients should not have food or liquids "forced" upon them. Their heads should be kept at a 30-45° angle. If a patient has no gag reflex, cannot cough or gargle a small amount of water without choking, he should be considered a high risk for aspiration. Wet, gurgling noises on inspiration and expiration may represent impending passive aspiration in the obtunded patient. He should be immediately suctioned or his airway evacuated by postural methods.

1-23. HEMOPTYSIS. Spitting or coughing up blood of respiratory tract origin. Massive hemoptysis: hemorrhage exceeds 200 cc. in 24-hr period.

a. Pathology: The bleeding may come from a lesion anywhere in the respiratory tract. Hemoptysis can be deadly. Few patients "bleed to death;" rather death is almost always due to aspiration asphyxiation (i.e.,

they "drown" in their own blood).

b. Causes: Lung abscess/TB/some heart diseases (mitral stenosis)/crushing, penetrating or concussive chest trauma/penetrating neck injuries.

S. Question for evidence of disease states outlined above. Trauma should be obvious.

O. General appearance: Search for signs of possible respiratory collapse (cyanosis, lethargy, etc.). In severe states, use of neck accessory muscles and retractions of the chest may be seen. Dullness and poor expansion may be noted on the side where bleeding is originating (if coming from a lung). Rhonchi, rales, and wheezes may be heard. Decreased or absent breath sounds may be heard over the side most involved.

A. Hemoptysis should be obvious, but take care to distinguish from G.I. bleeding.

P. (1) Clear the airway. Chest percussion and drainage. If the bleeding is too brisk or the patient is in severe respiratory distress, intubation should be carried out with vigorous suction. Do not intubate if suction not available unless the patient is unconscious.

(2) Massive hemoptysis or any hemoptysis associated with severe respiratory distress is an emergency that cannot be adequately managed in the field. Evacuate ASAP!! The measures outlined above are temporary supportive measures only.

1-24. PNEUMONIA. An inflammation of the lung parenchyma to include the aveoli and smaller airways. Though the inflammation may be secondary to any number of processes, the term as used in this discussion will apply to infectious processes.

a. Bacterial pneumonia. An acute infection of the alveolar spaces of the lung. Organisms causing pneumonia include pneumococci, staphylococci, Group A hemolytic streptococci, Klebsiella pneumonia, Haemophilus influenzae, and Francisella tularensis.

(1) Pneumococcal pneumonia. The pneumococcus accounts for 60-80 percent of primary bacterial pneumonia. Among conditions which predispose to pneumonia are viral respiratory diseases, malnutrition, exposure to cold, noxious gases, alcohol, drugs, and cardiac failure.

S. Sudden onset of shaking chills, fever, "stabbing" chest pain, high fever (101-105°F.), productive cough with "rusty" sputum, and occasionally vomiting. A history of recent respiratory illness can often be elicited.

O. The patient appears acutely ill with marked tachypnea (30-40/minute), but no orthopnea. Respirations are grunting, nares flaring, and the patient often lies on the affected side in an attempt to splint the chest. Signs of consolidation may be lacking during the first few hours, but fine rales and suppressed breath sounds are soon heard over the involved area. Frank consolidation, involving part of a lobe or several lobes, is found later. A pleural friction rub is often heard in the early stages. Leukocytosis of 20-35 thousand/cu. mm. is the rule. Gram-stained sputum shows many R.B.C., W.B.C., and pneumococci.

A. Pneumococcal pneumonia. Differential diagnosis: Other bacterial pneumonias.

P. Penicillin G is the drug of choice. Give 600,000 units q. 12 h. IM for moderate cases. Severe cases will require up to 10 million units/24 hrs by IV infusion. An adequate airway must be maintained, if necessary, by tracheal suction, endotracheal tube, or tracheostomy. O_2 must be supplied to any patient with severe pneumonia, cyanosis, or marked dyspnea. Treat shock p.r.n. as outlined in chapter 15. Toxic delirium occurs in any severe pneumonia and may be especially difficult to manage in alcoholics. It is best controlled by promazine 50-100 mg. IM q. 4h. p.r.n. Anxiety and restlessness may be treated with phenobarbital 51-30 mg. q. 4h. One-tenth gram phenobarbital h.s. helps insure adequate rest. Force fluid to maintain a daily urinary output of at least 1,500 cc. Liquid diet intially then normal diet when patient can tolerate it. ETH with codeine, 1 tsp q. 3-4h. p.r.n. Mild pleuritic pain may be controlled by spraying the area of greatest pain with ethylchloride x 1 min, then along the long axis of the body through the entire area of pain, so that a line of frost about 1 inch wide is formed. Codeine 15-30 mg. or meperidine 50-100 mg. may be used for severe pain.

(2) Klebsiella pneumonia. Occurs primarily in person 40-60 years of age with a history of alcoholism or debilitating diseases. The causative organism is Klebsiella pneumoniae, which occurs as normal bacterial flora in the respiratory tract or gut.

S. Sudden onset of chills, fever dyspnea, cyanosis, and profound toxicity. The sputum is often red ("currant jelly"), mucoid, sticky, and difficult to expectorate.

O. Physical findings and W.B.C. are variable. Diagnosis is based on finding short, encapsulated gram-negative bacteria as the predominate organism in sputum smears.

A. Klebsiella pneumonia. Differential diagnosis: Pneumococcal pneumonia (you must have a good, well stained smear).

P. Kanamycin 0.5 gm IM q. 6-8h. (15 mg./kg./day); cephalothin 6-10 gm IV. Antibiotic therapy must be continued for at least three weeks. General supportive care is the same as for pneumococcal pneumonia.

(3) Staphylococcal pneumonia. Pneumonia caused by Staphylococcus aureus occurs as a sequel to viral infections of the respiratory tract (e.g., influenza) and in debilitated (e.g., postsurgical) patients or hospitalized infants, especially after antimicrobial drug administration.

S. There is often a history of a mild illness with headache, cough, and generalized aches that abruptly changes to a very severe illness with high fever, chills, and exaggerated cough with purulent or blood-streaked sputum and deep cyanosis.

O. There may be early signs of pleural effusion, empyema, or tension pneumothorax W.B.C. usually 20,000 cu. mm. Gram-staied sputum reveals masses of W.B.C.'s and gram-positive cocci, many of which are intracellular.

A. Staphylococcal pneumonia.

P. Initial therapy (based on sputum smear) consists of full systemic doses of a cephalosporin, a penicillinase-resistant penicillin, or vancomycin. The doses are as follows: cephalotin, 8-14 gm/day IV; methicillin, 8-16 gm/day IV; vancomycin, 2 gm/day IV; nafcillin, 6-12 gm/day IV. If empyema develops, drainage must be established. If pneumothorax develops, treat as described in chapter 16, Emergency War Surgery.

(4) Streptococcal pneumonia. Usually occurs as a sequel to viral infection of the respiratory tract, especially influenza or measles or in persons with underlying pulmonary disease.

S. The patients are usually severaly toxic and cyanotic.

O. Pleural effusion develops frequently and early and progresses to empyema in one-third of untreated patients. Diagnosis rests in finding large number of streptococci in Gram-stained sputum smears.

A. Streptococcal pneumonia.

P. Treat same as penumococcal pneumonia.

b. Viral pneumonia.

S. Relatively slow progressive symptoms. Cough may be hacking and dry or produce small amounts of nonpurulent mucoid or watery sputum. Rarely dyspneic. Usually associated signs of viral syndrome (e.g., myalgias, sore throat, rashes, runny nose, conjuctivitis, etc.). Pleuritic pain may be present but is usually much less severe than in bacterial pneumonia (splinting is rare).

O. Usually only mildly febrile if at all. Does not appear "toxic" as a rule. No chest findings of consolidation. Coarse breath sounds and sometimes sparse rales may be heard. W.B.C. is usually normal but may reach 12,000 or above with slight left shift (early) or right shift (late in course). Gram-stained sputum: No organisms or few mixed organisms.

A. Viral.

P. Therapy: Symptomatic treatment.

c. Mycoplasmal pneumonia.

S. Resembles viral pneumonia in symptomology but with slightly more acute onset and more severe expression of symptoms. Cough is usually more productive but sputum is similar in character. Malaise and myalgias may be more prominent. May occur in limited, small group epidemics (camps, schools, etc.).

O. Patient may appear mildly toxic. Fever may be high but is usually low grade. Signs of consolidation in the chest. Leukocytosis (up to 15,000) seen in only 25 percent of cases. Sputum appears similar to viral sputum.

A. Mycoplasma. Differential diagnosis: Chlamydia and rickettsia.

P. Therapy: Tetracycline P.O. 500 mg. q.4h. or erythromycin 500 mg. +10. Treatment is same for chlamydia and rickettsia.

1-25. CHRONIC BRONCHITIS AND EMPHYSEMA.

a. Chronic bronchitis: A chronic airway disorder characterized by production of thickened secretions, recurrent bouts of infection, and mucosal edema-bronchospasm. Airway obstruction develops as the disease worsens.

b. Emphysema: The term applied to distention and distortion of the alveoli or terminal bronchioles.

S. Chronic bronchitis is characterized by a cough that is persistent or recurs daily for at least 3 months a year for at least 2 successive years. The typical cough is usually worse in the morning; the patient continues to cough until the urge is relieved by coughing up the pool of mucous that has collected during the night. A variable degree of chest tightness and occasionally some wheezing may be noted in the morning, but this too is relieved somewhat once the chest has been "coughed clear." As the disease becomes more advanced, the cough worsens in severity and duration, and sputum production increases. A significant smoking history is almost always present. In the majority of cases it is a superimposed bout of respiratory infection that brings the patient to see you. During this time he usually notes a change in the color (green, brown or grey), character (thickened) or volume (increased) of sputum production. The cough may have become painful. Though a fever (usually low grade) may be present, significant degrees of dyspnea at rest are rare unless chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) was present.

With the history of chronic cough and the morning distress, the patient may also note a decrease in exercise tolerance secondary to shortness of breath. The greater the exercise intolerance the more advanced the disease.

Emphysema: In the majority of cases, it will be associated with chronic bronchitis, its signs and symptoms. The rare case of pure emphysema usually presents with dyspnea on exertion. Cough is usually not prominent until COPD develops and, when present, is productive of only small amounts of watery mucoid sputum. Likewise, repeated respiratory infections are uncommon.

Evidence of right-sided heart failure is important. In emphysema its appearance represents the onset of the terminal phase whereas in chronic bronchitics right-sided heart failure may be tolerated for some time.

O. In the early stages the findings on physical exam are nonspecific. Indeed, many exams will reveal no abnormalities to explain the respiratory abnormalities.

Chronic Bronchitis: Scattered airway coarseness (rhonchi) clearing with cough is the most consistent finding. Occasionally, wheezes may be heard, but they are very mild and also clear somewhat with cough. As the disease progresses in severity, some hyperexpansion of the chest and prolongation of the expiratory phase may be noted.

Emphysema: Airway coarseness usually not as prominent.

Otherwise the findings are similar.

Lab: The only lab study of any potential benefit in the field will be Gram-stained sputum. This should be done to support a diagnosis of infection. Though pneumonia tends to occur more frequently in these patients, the most common infection in this group is bouts of acute bronchitis. Gram's stain usually shows mod. W.B.C. (15,000-30,000), many epithelial cells, and mixed flora.

A. Differentiating chronic bronchitis from asthma may prove difficult but certain differences are helpful.

	Chronic Bronchitis	Asthma
Cough	Dominant feature, occurs chronically.	Occurs usually in association with attack (e.g. wheezing, dyspnea, etc.).
Wheezing	Mild, most notable in A.M. or during infection; clears somewhat with cough.	Dominant feature.
Dyspnea	Usually on exertion. Subacute in onset.	At rest. Usually acute in onset.
Hx of smoking	Almost always present.	Rare.

As both disorders progress through the years, the clinical pictures become less distinguishable. Both, however, terminate in a chronic obstructive lung disease with right heart problems. The differences at this point, however, are academic because treatment and long-term management will be the same regardless of the courses.

P. Management of less advanced cases of chronic bronchitis and emphysema should be carried out as outlined.

(1) Halt progression of the disease process.

(a) Stop smoking; by far, the single most important factor.

(b) Avoid areas where noxious fumes or high concentrations of particulate matter (e.g., smoke, dust, fibers, etc.) are present.

(c) Chest percussion and postural drainage in the morning and as needed through the day. The patient should be encouraged to maintain hydration (2-3 liters of water per day).

(2) Functional rehabilitation. Progressive exercise programs increase tolerance. Some patients respond to bronchodilators so this therapy is probably worth a try. Aminophylline 200-400 mg. t.i.d.-q.i.d. or theophylline 100-200 mg. t.i.d.-q.i.d. may be given. Terbutaline 2.5-5 mg. t.i.d.-q.i.d. may be administered with either aminophylline or theophylline. Some inhalants (e.g., Isuprel) may also be of some benefit especially when administered prior to a chest percussion and drainage session.

(3) Infection management.

(a) Influenza vaccine should be received yearly.

(b) Pneumococcal vaccination should be received.

(c) Acute bronchitis: Sputum gram stain +5 nonspecific (i.e., mixed flora); ampicillin or tetracycline 500 mg. P.O. q.6h. x 10 days. Sputum shows predominate organism: Treat as indicated (see pneumonia).

(4) Severe bronchitis or emphysema.

(a) Stable: The same general therapeutic program as outlined above is initiated but with more urgency. Exercise programs, as such, should not be attempted; rather the patient should be encouraged to do as much for himself as possible.

(b) "Breakdown" is marked by a sudden worsening in respiratory status (i.e., increased dyspnea, fatigue, etc.). To prevent progression to respiratory failure, some of the measures must be executed rapidly and simultaneously.

1. An IV should be started and IV aminophylline administered as described in the asthma section. Rate should not exceed 125 cc./min.

2. Terbutaline 2.5-5 mg. may be given SQ.

3. Antibiotics should be given. Treat with ampicillin or tetracycline as described.

4. Oxygen may be given CAREFULLY if available. Only Low Flow oxygen should be administered (2 liters/min). High oxygen concentrations can cause sudden respiratory arrest in the patient.

5. During the therapy the patient must be encouraged to cough and clear as much secretion as possible.

6. Right-sided heart failure that is secondary to the lung disease will only respond to improvement in pulmonary status. Digoxin will not help. Diuretics may precipitate shock, hence, should be avoided in the field.

7. Never give narcotics or sedatives that might decrease respiratory drive.

1-26. PULMONARY EMBOLISM

a. Pulmonary embolism occurs when a thrombus (blood clot) or foreign matter lodges in the pulmonary vascular bed (the pulmonary arteries or their branches).

b. Etiology. The most common type of embolus is a blood clot formed in some part of the systemic venous circulation (usually deep leg veins), that breaks loose to travel to and subsequently lodge in the pulmonary circulation. Fat globules and amniotic fluid may also embolize to the lung. Death is usually the result of shock.

S. Chief complaint: Sudden onset of unexplained dyspnea is the

most common complaint. This may or may not be associated with chest pain; usually pleuritic (i.e., sharp, localized, aggravated by deep inspiration or coughing) but may resemble that of MI. Hemoptysis may be a feature and is usually seen when pulmonary infarction has resulted. Syncope may sometimes be the presenting symptom. By far the most consistent of these symptoms is dyspnea. This complaint also has some prognostic value, as severe prolonged dyspnea is usually associated with very large emboli and a poor prognosis.

Present Hx: Since 80-90 percent of pulmonary emboli are blood clots, the patient should be questioned about any predisposing conditions. These conditions are usually marked by stasis of venous blood flow with subsequent clot formation. Question carefully for symptoms of deep vein thrombophlebitis in the legs (by far the most common source of emboli). Pre-existing congestive heart failure; shock states (traumatic, cardiac, and septic); prolonged immobilization, either general (i.e., paralysis, bed confinement, etc.) or of an extremity (i.e., paralysis, cast, traction); and post-op states are all associated with sluggish venous blood flow. In pregnant women clots may form in the pelvic veins. Severe cellulitis or gangrene of an extremity may cause clot formation in large veins if these veins are involved in the process.

Past Hx: A tendency toward recurrence has been noted in many cases of pulmonary embolism. A past Hx of pulmonary embolism or unexplained signs and symptoms suspicious of pulmonary embolism are helpful.

Occupational Hx: A high incidence has been noted in civilian occupations with long periods of immobilization (e.g., cab & truck drivers). It is likely that similar military occupations might carry with them some predisposition toward clot formation and subsequent embolization.

O. Physical findings are inconsistent and often absent with small emboli. Generally the larger the embolus, the greater the pulmonary and hemodynamic consequences, hence the more prominent the P.E. findings. The patient is usually very anxious and in moderate to serve respiratory distress. He may grimace on inspiration (secondary to pleuritic pain) and have one or both hands placed over the area where pain is greatest as if wounded there. He may be pale and clammy if obstruction is great enough to produce some degree of shock.

Vital Signs: Temperature is often slightly to moderately elevated (38-39°C.) but may be subnormal if shock is present. Tachycardia is the most consistent P.E. finding of the syndrome and has the same prognostic implications of dyspnea. Note also postural changes (see B.P.). Respirations are usually rapid and often somewhat shallow (secondary to splinting because of pain). B.P. may be normal. The presence of significant postural drop in systolic B.P. may indicate a high degree of obstruction with poor cardiac output. A low systolic B.P. may be seen when frank shock has developed. Use of accessory muscles of respiration is usually seen only when the embolus has triggered diffuse severe bronchospasm (rare). Jugular venous distention may be noted (see cardiovascular below). Asymmetrical expansion between the two sides of the thorax may be seen secondary to pain (i.e, "splinting"). In the lungs a patchy area of e>a change or bronchovesicular (tubular) breath sounds and rales may be discovered if some lung collapse (atelectasis) has occurred. Wheezing may be detected if the embolus has triggered brochospasm. A pleural friction rub may be heard if pulmonary infarction has resulted.

Dullness, e>a change with decreased breath sound may be present if a pleural effusion is present.

Cardiovascular. Kussmaul's sign (failure of the jugular veins to collapse on inspiration) may be noted. With large emboli, signs of acute right ventricular failure (see cardiovascular section) may be seen. Search for signs of venous insufficiency or thrombophlebitis in the lower extremities (the chief source of emboli).

A. Even with the aid of X rays and lab facilities, the diagnosis of pulmonary embolization may be elusive; pulmonary embolism may mimic myocardial infarction, pneumonia, asthma, spontaneous pneumothorax, cardiac tamponade, or virtually any acute or subacute cardiac or pulmonary event. The most consistent finding (tachycardia) is nonspecific and the other findings are so inconsistent as to make formulation of any type of reliable symptom-sign complex impossible. The so-called "classic triad" of dyspnea, pleuritic chest pain, and tachycardia is neither specific nor regular in occurrence. Pulmonary embolism must first be thought of before it can be diagnosed and it should be considered in any patient that develops sudden, unexplained respiratory distress in a suspect setting. In the field, the diagnosis will be a function of three factors: (1) historical and physical findings; (2) the setting in which the event occurred (e.g., thrombophlebitis, prolonged immobilization, etc.); and (3) the exclusion of other possible reasons for the distress (e.g., sudden onset of dyspnea and tachycardia in a 22-year-old trooper who has had a fractured leg immobilized for 3 days is unlikely to be having a myocardial infarction) as rapidly and practical as possible.

P. Therapy: In the field, once embolization is suspected, very little short of general supportive measures (e.g., oxygen, ventilatory assistance, etc.) can be done to remedy the effects of the embolus. Large or extensive embolization producing more than 70-80 percent of the pulmonary circulation (depending on previous respiratory status and overall health) will usually kill regardless of supportive measures. Smaller embolization (the majority) will begin to resolve within the first few days, though significant improvement in the patient's state may be noted within the first hours. Since even small emboli may produce very prominent signs and symptoms initially, it is impossible to preict the severity of the obstruction in the first hours after embolization. Vigorous supportive measures must be instituted to give the patient's body as much time as possible for resolution.

Heparin therapy is instituted to prevent further clot formation. It does not "melt" the clot already lodged in the pulmonary circulation (though it does assist resolution somewhat). Heparin may cause fatal bleeding if the dosages given are too high or the patient has another disease process or injury (e.g., active peptic ulcer, hemorrhagic or inflammatory pericarditis, internal injuries, etc.) from which uncontrollable bleeding may occur.

Given Heparin: An initial bolus of 15,000 to 20,000 units IV followed by 7,500 units SQ q.6h. or 10,000 units SQ q.8h. Heparin therapy must be monitored; in the field, clotting time is the only practical method.

Clotting Time: A stopwatch is started when 5 cc. of venous blood is drawn into a glass syringe. One ml. of blood is placed in each of three dry glass test tubes. After 3 minutes the tubes are tilted every 30 sec until the tubes can be inverted without blood spilling out. The elapsed times are noted in the 3 tubes and averaged to give the clotting time (CT). The test must be done as close to 37° C. as possible. This may be accomplished by taping the tubes to the abdomen of a volunteer. Have him sit erect on the ground with outstretched legs and recline, gradually, back on his elbows every 30 sec to check blood movement in the tubes. In warm weather the tubes may be hand warmed. Normal CT is between 4-10 minutes, but your monitoring should be based on a baseline measurement (e.g., a CT done prior to heparin Rx). Subsequent levels should be drawn just prior to administration of each intermittent dose. The goal should be to maintain a CT of approximately twice the baseline measurement. Heparin doses should be raised or lowered accordingly. If on a given dose the CT seems to stabilize where you want it (for three consecutive readings), you need only obtain this measurement once or twice daily.

Heparin therapy should be continued until the patient's cardiopulmonary status has improved. Once this occurs, the heparin may be tapered over 48 hours to 5,000 units SQ every 12 hours.

Progressive ambulation, before tapering the heparin, should be encouraged. Ace wraps should be employed on the legs during this time.

The patient should be maintained on 5,000 units SQ every 12 hours for 4-6 weeks. This dose (often referred to as "mini-dose" heparin) will not affect clotting times, so none need be done. This low dose does, however, afford some resistance to future possible clot formation.

Fat embolization: Should be suspected if sudden unexplained dyspnea, tachypnea, tachycardia, and neurological deterioration (e.g., delirium, coma, etc.) develop 12-36 hours after bone fracture (especially a major long bone or pelvic fracture). Treatment is supportive.

1-27. PLEURAL EFFUSIONS. The presence of fluid (including blood and pus) in the pleural cavity.

Pathology: The presence of fluid displaces and restricts the lung on the involved side, hindering respiration. The more fluid, the more restriction. Fluid can arise from several processes (see below).

S. and O. Progressive or worsening dyspnea is the most consistent finding. The rapidity of fluid accumulation as well as the amount of fluid present will contribute to the prominence of this symptom. Slowly developing effusions may not produce significant dyspnea until large volumes have accumulated where a rapidly developing effusion will produce dyspnea at smaller volumes. Other symptoms of pleural effusion will be related to the specific causes. Deviation of the trachea away from the affected side may be seen. Poor movement of the involved side of the chest may be noted. Dullness to percussion will be noted in the upright position. The extent of dullness (measured to the intercostal space where dullness disappears) should be marked off. Sometimes an area of hyperresonance will be noted just above the fluid level. Fremitus is absent. Decreased to absent breath sound is the rule, but loud tubular breath sounds may often be present. Also whispered sounds may be absent or less commonly increase.

Lab: Pleural fluid should be examined and the following tests performed:

(1) W.B.C. count and differential: R.B.C. count.
(2) Gram's stain.
(3) Glucose measurement (dextrostix) of fluid and blood.

Other findings related to the specific causes of the effusion may be present.

Congestive heart failure	Usually right-side; may be bilateral. W.B.C. <1,000/mm.3/glucose equals serum glucose R.B.C.<10,000/mm.3. Other evidence of CHF.
Cirrhosis	As above but with evidence of liver disease.
Bacterial or viral pneumonia	Same side as infection. May precede other evidence of pneumonia. W.B.C.>1000/mm.3 with >50%P.M.N.s/glucose<serum glucose organisms (bacteria) may be seen on Gram's stain (rare).
Tuberculosis	Same side as infection. Other evidence of PTB W.B.C.>1,000/mm.3 with >50% lymphocytes.
Pulmonary infarction	May be bloody. R.B.C.>10,000/mm.3 W.B.C.>1,000/mm.3
Subphrenic abscess	W.B.C.>1,000/mm.3 (usually) evidence of intra-abdominal infection.
Chest trauma	Frequently blood. Hx of trauma usually obtainable.
Leakage through a subclavian line	Fluid has characteristic of IV fluid used glucose>serum glucose (if D_5 was component of fluids).
Pneumothorax	Usually unremarkable but may have W.B.C. increase.

P. Thoracentesis: Because of the danger of inducing a pneumothorax, evacuation of the fluid (therapeutic thoracentesis) should be reserved for conditions where severe respiratory distress is present. A small sampling of fluid may be obtained for studies (diagnostic thoracentesis) relatively safely.

The major therapeutic effort should be directed at resolving the process responsible for the effusion. Most effusion will resorb once this is done.

1-28. ASTHMA. A disease of the airways characterized by recurrent bouts of dyspnea usually associated with wheezing and coughing.

S. Chief complaint: Dyspnea is the most outstanding complaint. Onset is usually abrupt (seconds to minutes) though there may occur, prior to the onset of frank dyspnea, a period of vague chest discomfort not always clearly defined upon questioning the patient, but often described as a "rightness" by some. Many asthmatics have learned to recognize this "aura" as a warning of impending attack. The dyspnea, when it does become

recognized, is usually progressive. Because the sensation of shortness of breath is subject to modification by factors not directly the result of the pathophysiology (i.e., anxiety, intoxication), the degree of apparent dyspnea does not correlate well with the severity of airway obstruction; hence it should not be used as a concrete clinical guide to therapy or the patient's response to therapy. Cough is usually present and may be productive of a thick, tenacious, grey-white sputum. This sputum mostly consists of bronchial secretions that have "dried out" somewhat (i.e., the water is evaporated off by air flow leaving behind the thick mucous component of the secretions) and can reach the consistency of gelatin. This inspissated mucous can plug airways, thus increasing airway obstruction. Hence a dry cough in an asthmatic during an attack may indicate a severe degree of obstruction due to the "mucous plugging" phenomena. Wheezing may or may not be perceptible to the patient and is defined further below. The duration between onset of symptoms and presentation should be obtained as the rapidity with which a patient approaches a given amount of distress (as obtained from history and physical) may prove a valuable index to the severity of the episode.

Past history: Most asthmatics are very familiar with their state and may tell you both what usually triggers an attack and what therapy they usually respond to.

Medications: Many attacks probably result from loss of medical control. Determine what medications, if any, the patient uses for asthma. If he discontinued them, determine when generally; the more medications and the higher the dosages, the more severe his disease. Steroids are the "big guns" of asthma therapy and the asthmatic requiring them for control has severe disease.

Allergies: Some asthmatics give a history of various and sundry allergic responses (hives, rhinitis, etc.) to specific substances. These patients are especially prone to anaphylactic reactions, so special attention should be given to this segment of questioning. Note here that certain drugs can precipitate or worsen an asthma attack. The most notable being salycilates and other nonsteroidol anti-inflammatory agents (e.g. Indocin, Motrin, etc.) as well as propranolol (Inderal).

O. General appearance. Asthmatics appear anxious during an attack, and the expression of fear on their faces is evident across a room. They inhale through open mouths often throwing their heads back as they do. Exhalation may be through pursed lips and the patient may lean forward as if straining to defecate. Asthmatics in moderate to severe distress prefer to sit as maximal mechanical advantage of the respiratory muscles are obtained in this position. When an asthmatic in this type of distress "lays down" on you, it may indicate he is tiring; hence, you must move quickly.

Vital signs: Should be obtained prior to any therapy.

Temperature, if elevated, may indicate presence of a concomitant infection.

Pulse is usually rapid and regular; slow or irregular pulse may indicate severe hypoxia acidosis. Pulsus paradoxus should be searched for (see B.P.).

Respirations are very important. Both the rate and character of

the respirations should be noted. Because inspiration has more muscular assist than expiration, air can be forced through partially obstructed airways, but has considerably more difficulty getting out. This results in a prolonged expiratory phase, the length of which parallels roughly the degree of obstruction. Further, as the patient breaths faster (because of hypoxia) his inspirations begin before the slower expirations are completed, hence air is trapped and the chest becomes progressively hyperexpanded. As hyperexpansion increases, the amount of air the patient is able to forcefully inspire decreases. He compensates by breathing still faster. More air is trapped and a vicious cycle ensues. For these reasons a low respiratory rate with markedly prolonged expiratory phase (exhaustion) or a rapid shallow rate in the presence of marked hyperinflation are preterminal events in the asthmatic...seconds count.

B.P.: When the B.P. is markedly elevated (>160/>100) caution should be used in the administration of epinephrine. The drugs should probably be withheld altogether in the older patient with elevated B.P. especially if there is a history of heart disease or stroke. The severity of the elevation and the patient's overall state must be weighed together. There are no hard and fast rules. An abnormal degree of pulsus paradoxus (PP) should be searched for. When the cuff is inflated, SLOWLY deflate it (1mm. Hg every 2 secs) and note at what point the systolic tones begin. If pulsus paradoxus is present, these tones will disappear during inspiration and reappear on expiration. Continue to deflate the cuff slowly and note the range over which this finding persists. If the finding persists over a range greater than 12mm./Hg, there is an abnormal degree of paradox present. This sign correlates well with the degree of obstruction (the greater the range, the more severe the obstruction) and usually reflects trends in the patient's status before they can be fully appreciated in other aspects of the physical.

The degree of pulsus paradoxus should be noted through the treatment until normal and recorded with frequently collected vital signs. In more severe degrees, the pulsus paradoxus may be noted in the peripheral pulses where it manifests as an inspiratory disappearance or weakening of the pulse. This finding is an invaluable aid to estimating the severity of obstruction and the adequacy (or inadequacy) of therapy when arterial blood gases and other labs are not available or not practicable. A note of caution here: A decrease in PP may be noted as the patient begins to succumb to exhaustion or approaches the state of maximal hyperinflation. Like any other physical sign, PP must be interpreted in light of the general clinical picture; yet here, any change is of significance.

HEENT - Dry mucous membranes should be interpreted (as an indication of possible dehydration) with caution as there is invariably some drying secondary to the prominent mouth breathing.

Neck - Use of the accessory muscles of respiration, specifically the anterior and anterolateral neck muscles, have been shown to correlate roughly with the degree of obstruction. Straining of these muscles on inspiration is seen in moderate to severe degrees of obstruction and their use will decrease and eventually disappear as obstruction is relieved. Remember, however, that use of these muscles will also become less prominent as the patient becomes exhausted...monitor the WHOLE patient!

Chest - In the field, probably the most valuable indications of the adequacy of ventilation are the magnitude and nature of chest movements.

For all practicable purposes if there is no chest expansion, the patient is not moving air. All the other parameters used to monitor the asthmatic in the field (e.g., changes in PP; presence or absence of wheezes; use of accessory muscles, etc.) should be interpreted in light of chest expansion (and to a lesser extent on the presence or absence of breath sounds).

By the mechanism previously outlined, the chest may become "locked in" a progressively increasing state of expansion by air trapping and be unable to relax to its preinspiratory position. Since the chest wall can only expand so far, the amount of air that can be forced in progressively decreases. Signs of hyperexpansion include increased or increasing anterior-posterior chest diameter (best noted at the end of expiration); decreasing respiratory excursions; increasing chest hyperresonance to percussion with loss of cardiac area dullness and widened intercostal spaces. In severe instances (approaching maximal hyperinflation) air movement decreases to the point that breath sounds and wheezes begin to fade and disappear. Expiratory movement: As stated previously, the degree of expiratory phase prolongation should be noted.

Lungs - Breath sounds may be heard in mild to moderate states, but usually become obscured by wheezing in more severe cases. Wheezing is a hallmark of partial airways obstruction. The sound is produced by air "whistling" through partially obstructed channels. Both inspiratory and expiratory wheezes are heard in asthma though expiratory wheezes are more prominent and may be the only type present in mild episodes. As obstruction is relieved, wheezing will diminish and clear breath sounds with improved respiratory excursions will be noted. Since the production of wheezes depends also on air flow, they will also diminish or vanish when ventilation falls (e.g., high degrees of hyperexpansion or patient exhaustion). Here no breath sounds will be heard, and chest expansion will be minimal to nonexistent.

Egophony ('e>a' changes) may be noted in patchy areas over all lung fields. In this case, the finding is probably secondary to collapse of small areas of lung because their airways have been completely obstructed. If the finding is very prominent over a fairly large, well demarcated area, then an associated pneumonia or collapse of a lung segment, lobe, or entire lung (depending on extent of the area) secondary to obstruction of a bronchus by a large mucous plug must be considered.

Lab: An elevated W.B.C. count and/or leftward shift in the differentiation may indicate an associated infection. If this test is to be performed, it should be done before administration of epinephrine as this agent will itself increase W.B.C. count in the leftward direction. This effect may persist for 24 hours. Exam of the sputum may reveal tiny mucous plugs that have been dislodged from the smaller airways (called Curschmann's spirals). Eosinophils may also be present in large numbers. The presence of many non-eosinophilic polymorphonuclear cells should raise suspicion of a possible associated pneumonia or bronchitis. In general, however, most of the above provide merely supportive evidence, and since more sophisticated labs will not be available, the diagnosis and management of the asthmatic in the field will depend on your abilities to obtain and interpret clinical findings.

A. Asthma.

P. Management: Therapy is aimed at reversing the pathophysiologic factors while correcting the derangements (e.g., hypoxia,

dehydration, etc.) they have produced. The treatment is staged to correspond to the classes of severity previously outlined.

	Mild	Severe
Bronchospasm:	.3-.5cc. 1:100 solution of epinephrine SQ repeat q.20min x 3 or until wheezes cleared	Administer epinephrine as scheduled but immediately after first injection administer aminophylline as follows:
	If no improvement noted or patient worsens during Tx	Aminophylline 400 mg. in 250 cc. D5 /1/2 NS run in IV over 15 min. Followed by an IV administered solution of aminophylline 200 mg. in 500 cc. D5 /1/2 NS at rate of 150-200 cc./hr until cleared. If no improvement noted at 2 hrs or patient worsens, continue infusion and,
		Give terbutaline 0.25-0.5 mg. SQ. If no improvement in 1 hr or patient worsens continue infusion and...
		Give Solu-Medrol (methylprednisolone) 1 gm IV push followed by 1 gm IV push q.6h. until clear. Solu-Cortef (hydrocortisone) may be substituted. An initial 10 gm is given IV push and subsequently q.6h. thereafter until clear.
Dehydration:	P.O. hydration (force fluids) is usually adequate	Hydration is accomplished with the aminophylline solution. D5 /1/2 is preferred but NS or Ringer's solution will suffice. ($D5^W$ in extreme emergency).
Hypoxia:	O2 not required	O2, if at all attainable, must be employed preferably by mask (because of mouth breathing)

Inspissated secretions: Are thinned by hydration and released by relief of bronchospasm to be effectively coughed up and cleared.

General therapeutic considerations: Many would view this outlined plan of management as aggressive. However, in the field, removed from sophisticated diagnostic-monitoring facilities, mechanical ventilatory assistance, and most probably oxygen, the only hope the asthmatic has is an

approach that relieves his obstruction ASAP! The old adage of "push it (aminophylline) till they puke" may be quite necessary in field practice to assure adequate blood levels. It must be remembered that it is impossible to reliably predict which episodes will respond to lower dosages or less vigorous management and that as the attack progresses your chances of retrieval diminish by large factors. In these instances, you can expect mortality rates approaching 20 times those of a hospital emergency room.

Special Considerations:

Exhaustion: Close monitoring is necessary to head off complete respiratory collapse. If the patient shows signs of "giving it up" (i.e., weakened respiratory effort manifested by a decreased or erratic respiratory rate or decreased inspiratory excursions associated with a progressive decrease in breath sounds--or wheezes in the absence of breath sounds-- and a lethargic fatigued overall appearance), therapy should be stepped up by progressing directly to steroid administration. Talk to the patient and encourage him to hang in there! Slap him or pinch him if you have to but try to buy any additional time you can. If he does not answer coherently and continues to "slip away," you must intubate and bag him until therapy begins to take effect and he can breath on his own.

Cyanosis: Slight discoloration may be noted at the nail beds and should be managed by oxygen and continued bronchodilation therapy. When it occurs in the setting of impending exhaustion (above), it is an indication for immediate intubation and ventilatory assistance.

Hyperinflation: High degrees of hyperinflation associated with decreasing excursions are an indication to step up therapy as outlined above. Once the chest becomes "fixed" at a high level of expansion, however, ventilatory assistance can usually force no more air in than the patient could. It should nonetheless be attempted since some degree of exhaustion is usually active.

Large mucous plugs: May be relieved with hydration, bronchodilators, and chest percussion. To perform percussion, the patient is placed in a manner to position the affected side up and in a head-down tilt of approximately 30º. The area is briskly slapped with cupped palms and the patient is asked to increase expiratory effort, if possible, or cough.

Intubation: Once intubated the patient's own effective mechanisms for clearing secretions (cough) are removed. Frequent suctioning is a must. Never leave a tube in place in an asthmatic unless you are ventilating him.

Immediate follow-up therapy:

Once the patient has cleared, he should be placed on theophylline 100-300 mg. t.i.d.-q.i.d. depending on severity of the episode. Terbutaline 2.5-5 mg. P.O. t.i.d.-q.i.d. may also be given with this. Those patients that require steroid therapy should be placed on prednisone 40 mg. P.O. the first day after the episode and the dose reduced by 5 mg. each day thereafter (e.g., 35 mg. the 2nd day; 30 mg. the 3rd, etc.) until they have been tapered to 5-10 mg. day. These patients and indeed all severe cases should be evacuated as soon as possible for further evaluation.

1-29. The circulatory system is composed of the heart, blood vessels, lymphactic system and their contained fluids, blood, and lymph.

a. Arterial hypertension. Elevation of systolic and/or diastolic blood pressure, either primary (essential hypertension) or secondary. Although the etiology of essential hypertension is unknown, the family history is usually suggestive of hypertension (stroke, sudden death, heart failure). Secondary hypertension is associated with kidney disease (e.g., chronic glomerulonephritis or pyelonephritis), or occlusion of one or more of the renal arteries or their branches (renovascular hypertension). An untreated hypertensive patient is at great risk of developing fatal heart failure, brain hemorrhage, or kidney failure.

S. Primary hypertension is asymptomatic until complications arise. Complications include left ventricular failure; atherosclerotic heart disease; retinal hemorrhages, exudates, and vascular accidents; cerebral vascular insufficiency; and renal failure. Hypertensive encephalopathy due to cerebral vasospasm and edema is characteristic of hypertension.

O. Consistent diastolic pressure >100 mm. Hg in patients >60 years of age; diastolic pressure >90 mm. Hg in patients <50 years of age; or systolic pressure >140 mm. Hg regardless of age. Retinal changes will range from minimal arteriolar narrowing and irregularity to frank hemorrhages and papilledema, i.e., elevation of the optic disk or blurring of the disk margins.

A. A Dx of hypertension is not warranted in a patient under 50 years of age unless the B.P. exceeds 140/90 mm. Hg on at least three separate occasions after the patient has rested for 20 minutes or more in quiet and familiar surroundings. Secondary complications will present symptomatology of the "target organs" involved:

(1) Cardiac involvement often leads to nocturnal dyspnea or cardiac asthma (inspiratory and expiratory wheezing). Angina pectoris or myocardial infarction may develop.

(2) Renal involvement may produce nocturia and hematuria. The patient may have a uremic odor. Kidneys may be enlarged and palpable.

(3) Cerebral involvement will demonstrate neurological signs ranging from a positive Babinkşi or Hoffman reflex to paralysis.

(4) Peripheral arterial disease causes intermittent claudication (limping). If the terminal aorta is involved, pain in the buttocks and low back pain appear on walking and men become impotent.

P. Treat mild hypertension (diastolic pressure 90 to 110 mm. Hg) with an oral diuretic such as chlorothiazide (Diuril) 500 mg. b.i.d. If the diuretic does not control the hypertension, methyldopa (Aldomet) 250 mg. b.i.d. to 500 mg. q.i.d., or clonidine (Catepres) or reserpine 0.25 to 0.5 mg./day should be added. Methyldopa is preferred because its side effects are better tolerated. For moderate hypertension (diastolic pressure between 111 and 125 mm. Hg) start therapy with an oral diuretic and a sympathetic depressant (e.g., methyldopa, clonidine, reserpine, or propranolol). For severe hypertension (diastolic pressure >125 mm. Hg)

therapy should be started with an oral diuretic and guanethidine (10 mg. to 150 mg./day in a single dose) simultaneously. Methyldopa should be added if needed. Patients with acute severe hypertension (diastolic pressure >150 mm. Hg) or with pressures somewhat lower but with commanding symptoms of headache, visual disturbances, somnolence or other signs of cerebral, cardiac, or renal involvement or acute pulmonary edema should be placed on strict bed rest (semi-Fowler position) and parenteral therapy instituted immediately. Diazoxide (Hyperstat) is the drug of choice; 300 mg. IV push will reduce B.P. to normal values within 5 minutes. The drug should be used only for short periods and combined with a potent diuretic such as furosemide (Lasix) 40 to 80 mg. IV. Vital signs must be monitored continuously. Be prepared to treat hypotension (see Chapter 5, Shock). Discontinue if any sign of hearing impairment develops. When B.P. has been brought under control, combinations of oral antihypertensive agents can be added as parenteral drugs are tapered off over a period of 2-3 days.

b. Thrombophlebitis. Partial or complete occlusion of a vein by a thrombus with a secondary inflammatory reaction in the wall of a vein. It occurs most frequently in the deep veins of the legs and pelvis in postoperative and postpartum patients during the fourth to fourteenth day, and in patients with fractures or other trauma, cardiac disease, or stroke, especially if prolonged bed rest is involved. Deep venous thrombosis is usually benign but occasionally terminates in lethal pulmonary embolism or chronic venous insufficiency. Superficial phlebitis alone is usually self-limiting and without serious complications; aging, malignancy, shock, dehydration, anemia, obesity, and chronic infection are predisposing factors.

S. Approximately half of patients with thrombophlebitis are asymptomatic: Others may complain of a dull ache, tightness, or frank pain in the calf or the whole leg, especially when walking. A feeling of anxiety is not uncommon.

O. Slight swelling in the involved calf (measure); bluish discoloration or prominence of the superficial veins; warmth of affected leg when both legs are exposed to room temperature; tenderness and induration or spasm in the calf muscles, with or without pain in the calf produced by dorsiflexion of the foot (Homans' sign). With deep thrombophlebitis involving the popliteal, femoral, and iliac segments, there may be tenderness and a hard cord may be palpable over the involved vein in the femoral triangle in the groin, the medial thigh, or popliteal space; slight fever and tachycardia may be present. The skin may be cyanotic if venous obstruction is severe, or pale and cool if a reflex arterial spasm is superimposed.

A. Thrombophlebitis. Differential diagnosis: Calf muscle strain or contusion. NOTE: Pain due to muscular causes is absent or minimal on dorsiflexion of the ankle with the knee flexed and maximal on dorsiflexion of the ankle with the knee extended or during SLRs (Homans' sign); cellulitis; lymphatic obstruction; acute arterial occlusion (distal pulses are absent and there is no swelling); bilateral leg edema due to heart, kidney, or liver disease.

P. Treatment: Strict bed rest; elevate legs 15-20 degrees. Ace bandage from toes to just below the knees; moist heat. Anticoagulation therapy with heparin should be initiated if there are no contraindications to its use (contraindications are peptic ulcer, significant kidney or liver disease; Hx of cerebrovascular hemorrhage, recent head trauma, or known

clotting defect). Prior to initiation of heparin therapy, a baseline clotting time must be established. (Normal Lee-White clotting time is 6-15 minutes). The dose should be adjusted to provide 2-3 times the baseline pretreatment value. Continuous IV infusion is the preferred route. Give a loading dose as an IV bolus (2,000 units) prior to starting constant infusion at a rate of approximately 1,500 units/hour for the average-sized adult. Remember that the ultimate rate must be established on the basis of clotting times obtained q.2-3h. from an arm not being infused and verified by at least 2 successive clotting times in the therapeutic range. Subsequent clotting times are repeated q.6-10h. The required dosage will usually decrease with time. If an infusion pump is not available, give deep SQ q.6h. (use small needle and inject slowly). Start dose in the range of 7,000-9,000 units for an average-sized adult. Obtain clotting time 30 minutes before each planned dose and adjust to maintain therapeutic range. The required dose should drop to 4,000-6,000 units after a day or two of therapy. Therapy should be continued until the patient is asymptomatic and the danger of embolism has passed (normally 2-3 weeks). The diagnosis of thrombophlebitis is difficult without the use of sophisticated diagnostic aids that normally are not available (phlebography isotopic scan, etc.); therefore, maximum use must be made of past and current history and the most thorough P.E. possible. The dangers of lethal pulmonary embolism must be carefully weighed against the dangers of uncontrolled hemorrhage, and each decision is made on a sound assessment of all factors involved.

Prevention: The best cure for postoperative thrombophlebitis is its prevention. Assure that circulation is maintained by active and passive exercise while patients are bedridden. Avoid tight clothing. Elevate legs or foot of bed 15-30 degrees. Flex knees. Encourage deep breathing exercise. Ambulate patient as soon as possible (walking, not standing). Dextran, 500 ml. IV during surgery and repeated on first postoperative day, appears to have a prophylactic effect, as does ASA 1 gm daily P.O. NOTE: ASA is contraindicated once anticoagulation therapy has begun.

c. Hemorrhoids. Varicosities of the veins of the hemorrhoidal plexus, often complicated by inflammation, thrombosis, and bleeding. May be external (distal to anorectal line) or internal (proximal to anorectal line).

S. Rectal bleeding, pain (may be severe), itching, protrusion, mucoid discharge from rectum.

O. Small, rounded, purplish skin-covered masses that are soft and seldom painful unless thrombosed. When thrombosed, they are hard and often extremely painful when palpitated.

A. Hemorrhoids (internal or external). Differential diagnosis: Perianal abcess, rectal neoplasms, or colitis.

P. Use stool softners or nonirritating laxatives, such as mineral oil, and soft diet to prevent hard stools and straining. Small uncomplicated hemorrhoids are usually self-limiting and respond well to conservative or minimal treatment. Manage local pain and infection with warm sitz baths and insertion of a soothing anal suppository b.i.d.-t.i.d. Avoid the use of benzocaine and other types of similar ointments as much as possible to preclude sensitizing the patient. Use hot sitz baths t.i.d.-q.i.d. to reduce thrombosed hemorrhoids. If this is unsuccessful or

patient is in extreme discomfort, excise the thrombus under 1% lidocaine local; pack lightly with iodoform gauze initially and cover with dry sterile dressing. Change dressing daily. Continue warm sitz baths. Instruct patient to avoid trauma when cleansing the anal area after bowel movements by patting with damp tissue rather than rubbing. Instruct patient not to attempt to defecate unless there is a real urge and to avoid straining at stools.

1-30. DISEASES OF THE HEART.

a. Myocardial infarction (MI). Ischemic myocardial necrosis usually resulting from a sudden reduction in blood flow to a section of the myocardium due to occlusion of a coronary artery.

S. Sudden onset of intense, crushing substernal or precordial pain, often radiating to the left shoulder, arm, or jaw. Patients break out in a cold sweat, feel weak and apprehensive, and move about seeking a position of comfort. They prefer not to lie quietly. Lightheadedness, syncope, dyspnea, orthopnea, cough, wheezing, nausea and vomiting, or abdominal bloating may also be present, singly or in combination. The pain is not relieved by nitroglycerin.

O. Patient may be cyanotic and the skin is usually cool. The pulse may be thready and the blood pressure variable. Most show some degree of hypertension unless cardiogenic shock is developing (incidence about 8-14 percent). In a severe attack, the first and second heart sounds are faint and often indistinguishable. Arrhythmia is common. Rales may be heard on auscultation and the neck veins are often distended. Fever is absent at the onset but usually rises to 100-103° F. within 24 hours. W.B.C. will be elevated with a shift to the left by the second day. The sedimentation rate is normal at onset and will rise on the second or third day.

A. Acute myocardial infarction. Differential diagnosis: Angina pectoris, acute pericarditis, acute pulmonary embolism, reflux esophagitis, acute pancreatitis, acute cholecystitis, spontaneous pneumothorax, pneumonia.

P. Be alert for cardiac arrest, particularly during the first few hours after onset (50 percent of all MI deaths occur during this period). Be prepared to initiate CPR immediately if patient does arrest (see Chapter 3, Emergency Resuscitation). Morphine SO_4 2-5 mg. slow IV, stat. repeat q. 15 min p.r.n. unless respiration falls below 12/min. Shock position, O_2 (do not use positive pressure). Lidocaine initial bolus 50-100 mg. (1 mg./kg.) IV, then IV drip at 1-4 mg. per minute. Hospitalize with strict bed rest and complete nursing care for at least 6 weeks. Sedate with 1/2 gm phenobarbital t.i.d. Low sodium, low fat, low protein diet. Monitor vital signs constantly. Be alert for signs of left-sided heart failure (see para e, Congestive heart failure), hypotension, and cardiogenic shock (see Chapter 15, Shock); evacuate when feasible.

b. Acute myocarditis. A focal or diffuse inflammation of the myocardium occurring during or after many viral, rickettsial, spirochetal, fungal, and parasitic diseases or administration of various drugs. Severe myocarditis occurs most commonly in acute rheumatic fever, diphtheria, scrub typhus, and Chagas' disease.

S. Fever, malaise, arthralgias, chest pain, dyspnea, and

palpitations. The patient may have associated pericarditis, with chest pain characteristic of pericardial involvement (see para f, Acute pericarditis). The chest pain is frequently vague and nondiagnostic.

O. Tachycardia out of proportion to the amount of fever. The B.P. is usually normal. Ausculation may reveal a tic-tac rhythm and systolic murmur. Acute circulatory collapse, emboli, and sudden death may occur.

A. Acute myocarditis. Differential diagnosis: Viral, protozoan, or bacterial infections must be distinguished from acute toxic myocarditis due to drugs or diphtheria and from myocarditis associated with acute rheumatic fever and acute glomerulonephritis by a careful analysis of each history and clinical picture as it presents.

P. Direct treatment toward underlying cause if known. In all cases when myocarditis is suspected or apparent, complete bed rest and sedation plus continued therapy of the underlying disease are needed. Oxygen is indicated when cyanosis or dyspnea occurs. Continue bed rest until all evidence of cardiac involvement disappears.

c. Bacterial endocarditis. Bacterial infection of the lining membrane of the heart. Acute bacterial endocarditis (ABE) begins abruptly and progresses rapidly. The usual cause is staphylococci and occasionally pneumococci. It may follow postabortal pelvic infection, surgery on infected tissue, or unsterile intravenous techniques. Subacute bacterial endocarditis (SBE) is usually due to alpha-hemoliticus streptococci and frequently follows a dental procedure. The disease is fatal if untreated.

S. Fever is usually present but afebrile periods may occur. Night sweats, chills, malaise, fatigue, anorexia, weight loss; myalgia; arthralgia, or redness and swelling of joints; sudden visual disturbances; paralysis; pain in the abdomen, chest, or flanks; nose bleeds; easy bruisability; and symptoms of heart failure may also occur.

O. Findings in SBE include tachycardia; splenomegaly; petechiae of the skin, mucous membranes, and ocular fundi, or beneath the nails as splinter hemorrhages; clubbing of the fingers and toes; pallor or a yellowish-brown tint of the skin; neurologic residual effects of cerebral emboli; and tender finger and toe pads. In ABE symptoms and signs are similar to those of SBE, but the course is more rapid. Suspect ABE if an otherwise healthy individual with a focal infection suddenly develops chills, high fever, and prostration. An unexplained fever in patient with a heart murmur is indicative of endocarditis. Anemia, markedly elevated sedimentation rate, variable leukocytosis, microscopic hematuria, proteinuria, and casts are commonly present in SBE and ABE.

A. Infective endocarditis due to _____.
Differential diagnosis: Lymphomas, thrombocytopenic purpura, leukemia, acute rheumatic fever, lupus erythematosus, septicemia (may be the forerunner), URIs.

P. Endocarditis due to streptococcus: Penicillin G 20-40 M.U. daily, or ampicillin 6-12 gm daily in divided doses as bolus injections q.2-4h. into an IV infusion. Probenecid 0.5 gm P.O. t.i.d. x 4-5 weeks. Streptomycin, 1 gm day; kanamycin 15 mg./kg./day; or gentamicin 5 mg./kg./per day b.i.d.-t.i.d. in divided doses. Endocarditis due to staphlococcus (penicillin resistant), nafcillin, 8-12 gm daily as a bolus

q.2h. in an IV infusion. If patient is hypersensitive to penicillin, desensitize or use vancomycin 2-3 gm IV daily in divided doses q.4h. continue Tx x 5-6 weeks. Complete nursing care. Monitor for signs of neurotoxicity and thrombophlebitis. Change injection site q.48h. and keep scrupulously clean. Evacuate if at all feasible.

d. Angina pectoris. A clinical syndrome due to myocardial ischemia producing a sensation of precordial discomfort, pressure, or a strangling sensation, characteristically precipitated by exertion and relieved by rest or nitroglycerin.

S. Squeezing or pressurelike pain, retrosternal or slightly to the left, that appears quickly during exertion and increases rapidly in intensity until the patient is compelled to stop and rest. The distribution of the distress may vary widely in different patients, but is always the same for each individual patient. The attacks usually last less than 3 minutes unless following a heavy meal or precipitated by anger, in which case they may last 15-20 minutes. The distress of angina is never a sharply localized darting pain that can be pointed to with one finger. If the patient points with one finger to the area of the apical impulse as the only site of pain, angina may almost certainly be ruled out.

O. The diagnosis of angina pectoris depends almost entirely upon the history, and it is of utmost importance that the patient be allowed to describe his symptoms to the examiner. The diagnosis is strongly supported (1) if 0.4 mg. nitroglycerin invariably shortens an attack and (2) if that amount taken immediately before hand invariably permits greater exertion before onset of an attack or prevents it entirely. Examination during an attack frequently reveals elevated B.P.; occasionally, gallop rhythm is present during pain only.

A. Angina pectoris. Differential diagnosis: Musculosketal disorders, cholecystitis, reflux esophagitis, peptic ulcer, myocardial infarction.

P. Nitroglycerin 0.3 mg. sublingually is the drug of choice. Increase dose to 0.4-0.6 mg. if smaller dose is ineffective. One amyl nitrite ampule crushed and inhaled will act in about 10 seconds. The patient should stand still or lie down as soon as the pain begins and remain quiet until the attack is over. Patients should be warned not to try to work the attack off.

e. Congestive heart failure. A clinical syndrome in which the heart fails to maintain an adequate output, resulting in diminished blood flow to the tissues and in congestion in the pulmonary and/or systemic circulation. The left or right ventricle alone may fail initially (usually the former), but ultimately combined failure is the rule. The basic causes of ventricular failure are: (1) Myocardial weakness or inflammation (e.g., myocarditis, ischemia), (2) Excess workload (e.g., hypertension, aortic insufficiency anemia, pregnancy, etc.).

S. Early manifestations of left ventricular failure include undue tachycardia, fatigue with exertion, dsypnea with mild exercise, and intolerance to cold; paroxysmal nocturnal dyspnea and cough. In advanced failure severe cough is prominent. The sputum may be tinged rusty or brown. Frank hemoptysis is rare but can occur. Acute pulmonary edema is a serious life threatening manifestation of left ventricular failure. The patient presents with extreme dyspnea, cyanosis, tachypnea, hyperpnea,

restlessness, and anxiety with a sense of suffocation. Right ventricular failure presents with increasing fatigue, awareness of fullness in the neck and abdomen, anorexia, bloating, or exertional RUQ pain. Oliguria is present in the day time; polyuria at night.

O. Signs of left ventricular failure include reduced carotid pulsation, diffuse apical impulse, palpable and audible third and fourth heart sounds, inspiratory rales, and pleural effusion. With acute pulmonary edema the pulse may be thready and the B.P. difficult to obtain. Respirations are grunting and labored with inspiration, and expiration is prolonged. Expiratory rales can be heard over both lungs. There may be marked bronchospasm or wheezing. Hypoxia is severe and cyanosis deep. Patients with right ventricular failure show signs of venous hypertension, an enlarged and tender liver, murmurs, and pitting edema of the lower extremities. CBC and sed. rate are normal in uncomplicated left heart failure. Urinalysis often shows significant proteinuria and granular casts.

A. Congestive heart failure due to _____. Differential diagnosis: Pericardial effusion, constrictive pericarditis, pulmonary disease, carcinoma of the lung, anemias, and rebound edema following the use of diuretics.

P. Bed rest (Fowler or semi-Fowler position), sedation with morphine or phenobarbital; frequent (4-6) small, bland, low calorie, low residue, sodium restricted meals with vitamin supplements. Diuretics such as hydrochlorothiazide 50 mg./day or chlorothiazide 500 mg. daily or b.i.d. are essential to management of chronic heart failure. Increase daily ingestion of foods with a high potassium content (bananas, orange juice) for potassium replacement. Administer O_2 p.r.n. for respiratory distress and hypoxia. Acute pulmonary edema is grave medical emergency demanding prompt and effective Tx. Unless in shock, the patient should sit upright with legs dangling. Give high concentrations of O_2 by mask or nasal cannula. Morphine SO_4 5-10 mg. IV or IM. Sublingual nitroglycerin 0.4-0.6 mg. q.10 min for several doses may be immediately effective. If severe, apply B.P. cuffs (or soft rubber tourniquets) to three limbs and inflate or tighten sufficiently to obstruct venous return (midway between systolic and diastolic pressure) but not arterial flow. Rotate q.15 min. NOTE: Do not apply to a limb in which an IV is running. If IV is running, deflate q.15-20 min but do not rotate. Give a rapid acting diuretic, e.g., Lasix (furosemide) 40-80 mg. IV or Edecrin 25-50 mg. IV. Aminophylline, 0.25-0.5 gm slow IV or aminophylline suppositories, 0.25-0.5 gm may be of help. Rapid digitalization is of value; however, it must be remembered that all digitalis preparations are toxic and the difference between the theraputic and toxic level is small. Do not use digitalis if there is any indication of renal failure. If renal function is normal, the following schedule may be used: Digoxin 0.25 mg. IV or P.O. stat., then 0.25 mg. q.6h. x 2 days and 0.25 mg. daily thereafter. NOTE: Digitalis maintenance may be required for the remainder of the patient's life. When stable, the patient should be carefully monitored for: (1) Status of original symptoms, (2) new symptoms or signs, (3) weight changes, (4) vital signs, (5) evidence of phlebothrombosis. Evacuate as soon as feasible.

f. Acute pericarditis. Inflammation of the pericardium. It may result from trauma, infection, or neoplasm or secondary to systemic diseases such as rheumatic fever, rheumatoid arthritis, or uremia.

S. Pleuritic or persisting substernal or precordial pain

radiating to the neck, shoulder, or back. Pain may be aggravated by thoracic motion, cough, and respiration. It is relieved by sitting up and leaning forward and may be accentuated by swallowing. Tachypnea, nonproductive cough, fever, chills, weakness, and anxiety are common.

O. Auscultation reveals to and fro friction sounds (friction rub) over 4th (L) intercostal space near sternum. Inspection and palpation sometimes reveal a diffuse apex beat. With purulent effusion may present with high, irregular fever, sweats, chills, and progressive pallor. Bulging of the precordium, increased dullness to percussion, and edema of the precordium may also be present. Leukocytosis and elevated sed. rate will be present at the onset.

A. Acute pericarditis due to_____. Differential diagnosis: Acute MI, pleurisy.

P. (1) Treat underlying condition.

(2) ASA 600 mg. P.O., codeine 15-60 mg. P.O., meperidine 50-100 mg. P.O. or IM, or morphine 10-15 mg. SQ q.4h. for pain. Sedate with phenobarbital 15-30 mg. P.O. t.i.d.-q.i.d.; 100-200 mg. phenobarbital may be given h.s. for insomnia. Prednisone 20 to 60 mg. daily in divided doses t.i.d.-q.i.d. may be required to control pain, fever, and effusion. The dose should be reduced gradually and discontinued over a period of 7-14 days. If the pericarditis is due a pyogenic infection, surgical drainage of the pericardial sac may be indicated.

1-31. DISEASES OF THE BLOOD.

a. Anemia (general). A condition in which there is a reduction in the number of circulating R.B.C.s and/or Hb in the blood. Fundamentally, all anemias are caused by one of the following conditions:

(1) Increased loss of R.B.C. due to:

(a) Hemorrhage.
(b) Increased rate of R.B.C. destruction (hemolytic anemias).

(2) Decreased production of R.B.C. due to:

(a) Deficiencies.
(b) Bone marrow suppression.

b. Iron-deficiency anemia. Chronic anemia characterized by small, pale R.B.C. and depletion of iron stores. In adults it is almost always due to occult blood loss (G.I. bleeding, excessive menstrual, excessive salicylate intake, etc.).

S. Easy fatigability, dyspnea, palpitation, angina, and tachycardia. Inability to swallow or difficulty in swallowing may exist in advanced cases. There often exists a craving for strange foodstuffs (dirt, chalk, paint, etc.).

O. Skin and mucous membranes are usually pale. In advanced cases the skin may have a waxy appearance; the hair and nails are brittle, longitudinal ridging with progressive concavity (spooning) may appear on the fingernails. The tongue may be smooth, and the lips inflamed and

cracked. Hb may be as low as 3 Mg% but R.B.C. is rarely below 2.5 m. W.B.C. is normal.

A. Iron deficiency anemia due to _____. Differential diagnosis: Other hypochromic anemias (anemias of infection, thalassemia, etc.) pernicious anemia, aplastic anemia.

P. (1) Treat underlying cause.

(2) Oral $FeSO_4$ 0.2 gm t.i.d. p.c. Continue for 3 months after Hb returns to normal. If there is bleeding in excess of 500 ml./wk over a sustained period, iron therapy will not work until the cause of bleeding is corrected. NOTE: Iron causes a color change in the stool (dark green or black). Advise patient not to be alarmed if this occurs.

c. Pernicious anemia. Anemia due to impaired absorption of vitamin B_{12}.

S. Same as iron deficiency. In addition the patient may complain of a "burning of the tongue"; constant, symmetric numbness of the feet; various G.I. disturbances (anorexia, constipation, diarrhea, vague abdominal pain); transient paresthesias of the upper extremities; and severe weight loss. There may be mental disturbances ranging from mild depression to delirium and paranoia.

O. Pallor with a trace of jaundice; loss of vibratory sensation in the lower extremities, loss of positional sense, loss of coordination; hyperactive deep tendon reflexes and positive Babinski. Occasional splenomegaly and hepatomegaly may be present. Differential smear will demonstrate large oval R.B.C. with a few small misshapen R.B.C. W.B.C. is usually less than 5,000. The granulocytes tend to be hypersegmented.

A. Pernicious anemia. Differential diagnosis: Anemia due to folic acid deficiency. NOTE: The oval shape of the R.B.C. and hypersegmentation of the W.B.C. are not characteristic of folic acid deficiency anemia.

P. Give 100 mg. vitamin B_{12} IM stat., then 100 mg. 3 times per week until blood picture returns to normal. If anemia is severe, give transfusion (after type and X-match) of packed red cells slowly.

d. Hemolytic transfusion reactions. Hemolysis of the recipient's or donor's R.B.C. (usually the latter) during or following the administration of solutions, plasma, blood, or blood components. Hemolytic reactions vary in severity depending on the degree of incompatibility, the amount of blood given, and the rate of administration. The most severe reaction occurs when donor R.B.C. are hemolized instantaneously by antibody in the recipient's plasma. These reactions constitute a grave medical emergency.

S. Sudden onset of chills and fever and pain in the vein at the local injection site or in the back, chest, or abdomen. Anxiety, apprehension, and headache are common. Under general anesthesia, spontaneous bleeding may be the only sign of a transfusion reaction.

O. Evidence of shock (see Chapter 15, Shock). Oliguria, anuria, progressing to uremia. If a hemolytic reaction is suspected, immediately take a blood sample from the patient and centrifuge it. Hemolysis will be clearly visible as a pink to dark red color in the serum.

A. Hemolytic transfusion reaction. Differential diagnosis: Minor allergic reactions. (Serum will remain clear.)

P. (1) STOP TRANSFUSION STAT.

(2) Treat for shock.

(3) To prevent renal failure, give 10% mannitol solution IV infusion at a rate of 10-15 ml./min until 1,000 ml. have been given. If diuresis occurs, continue the mannitol infusion until serum and urine are clear.

1-32. DISEASES OF THE LYMPHATIC SYSTEM.

a. Lymphadenitis. Inflammation of one or more lymph nodes. Usually secondary to a primary infection elsewhere involving the skin or subcutaneous tissue.

S. Enlarged, tender, often acutely painful lymph nodes. Systemic symptoms may be minimal or severe.

O. Primary focus of infection in the region of the affected node(s). Cellulitis, suppuration with abcess formation may occur. Low grade or chronic infections may produce firm, nontender nodes that persist indefinitely (e.g., TB and fungal infections). They may form cold abcesses or erode through the surface to create draining sinuses.

A. Lymphadenitis secondary to _____. Differential diagnosis: Lymphedema secondary to blockage of the lymph channels.

P. Treat primary infection. Apply moist heat to localize infection. Analgesics for pain. I&D abcesses.

b. Lymphangitis. Acute or chronic inflammation of the superficial or deep lymphatic channels, usually caused by streptococci or staphylococci.

S. Fever (102 to 105° F.), chills, malaise, generalized aching, and headache.

O. Patchy areas of inflammation along the path of a lymphatic channel resembling cellulitis. Lymphangitis occurring as the result of hand or foot infection presents as irregular pink, tender, linear streaks extending toward the regional lymph nodes. Lymphadenitis usually follows. Leukocytosis (W.B.C. 15,000-30,000) with shift to the left.

A. Acute lympangitis due to _____. Differential diagnosis: Acute thrompophlebitis, cellulitis.

P. Treat the original infection, but avoid all undue surgical manipulation of the wound. Use same antibiotic therapy as for acute cellulitis (Chap 1, Sec I). Antibiotics should be continued until the temperature has been normal for 72 hours and inflammation has subsided.

1-33. GENERAL. The digestive system covers the entire alimentary tract (mouth, esophagus, stomach, intestines, colon, and rectum) and all organs that aid in digestion (liver, gallbladder, and pancreas). Diseases of the mouth are covered in the dental section. Diseases of the esophagus are either minor or of such a nature that we can only treat them symptomatically.

1-34. ACUTE ABDOMEN. Usually manifested by pain, anorexia, nausea, vomiting, and fever. Physical exam shows tenderness, muscle spasm, and changes in peristalsis. Correct diagnosis depends on the precision and care in taking history and doing physical exams.

a. History.

(1) Mode of onset of abdominal pain.

(a) Patient is well one moment and seized with agonizing (explosive) pain the next; most probable diagnosis is free rupture of a hollow viscus or vascular accident. Renal and biliary colic may be very sudden in onset but are not likely to cause severe and prostrating pain.

(b) If pain is rapid in onset--moderately severe at first and becoming rapidly worse--consider acute pancreatitis, mesenteric thrombosis, or strangulation of the small bowel.

(c) Gradual onset of slowly progressive pain is characteristic of peritoneal infection or inflammation. Appendicitis and diverticulitis often start this way.

(2) Character of the pain.

(a) Excruciating pain not relieved by narcotics indicates a vascular lesion such as massive infarction of the intestine or rupture of an abdominal aneurysm.

(b) Very severe pain readily controlled by medication more typical of acute pancreatitis or the peritonitis associated with a ruptured viscus. Obstructive appendicitis and incarcerated small bowel without extensive infarction occasionally produce the same type of pain. Biliary or renal colic is usually promptly alleviated by medication.

(c) Dull, vague, and poorly localized pain usually gradual in onset strongly suggests an inflammatory process or low grade infection, e.g., appendicitis.

(d) No abdominal pain but complains of feeling of fullness that might be relieved by a bowel movement, enema provides no relief ("gas stoppage sign"). This may be present when any inflammatory lesion is walled off from free peritoneal cavity.

(e) Intermittent pain with cramps and rushes commonly seen in gastroenteritis. The peristaltic rushes have little or no relation to abdominal cramps in gastroenteritis. If the pain comes in regular cycles, rising in crescendo fashion, synchronous with the pain and then subsiding to a pain-free interval, small bowel obstruction is very likely.

(f) Radiation or a shift in localization of pain. Pain in the shoulder follows diaphragmatic irritation due to air, peritoneal fluid, or blood. Biliary pain is often referred to the right scapula and rarely to the left epigastrium and left shoulder, simulating angina pectoris. Classically, appendicitis begins in the epigastrium and settles in the right lower quadrant. A shift or spread of abdominal pain often indicates spreading peritonitis.

(g) Anorexia, nausea, and vomiting. The time of onset of these symptoms is important; if they precede the onset of pain, gastroenteritis or some systemic illness is much more likely the diagnosis than acute abdominal disorder requiring an emergency operation. The most likely possibilities are gastroenteritis, acute gastritis, acute pancreatitis, common duct stone, and high intestinal obstruction. In most other acute surgical emergencies, nausea and vomiting are not dominant symptoms though they may be present.

(h) Diarrhea, constipation, and obstipation. Some alteration of bowel function is common in most cases of acute abdominal emergencies. Diarrhea is the classic manifestation of gastroenteritis, but it may also be a dominant symptom of pelvic appendicitis. Bloody and repetitive diarrhea indicates ulceration of the colon, but you should consider bacillary or amebic dysentery first.

(i) Chills and fever. Repeated bouts of chills and fever are characteristic signs of pylephlebitis and bacteremia. Chills and fever are common in infections of the biliary or renal tract. Acute cholangitis and pyelitis present with intermittent chills and fever. In appendicitis, fever is not usually very high and there are usually no chills unless you have a perforation. In a woman with no apparent general systemic illness, a very high fever with peritoneal signs is characteristic of acute pelvic inflammatory disease (PID).

b. Routine for physical exam of the acute abdomen.

(1) General inspection (patient standing).

(2) Cough tenderness. Examine hernial rings and male genitals.

(3) Feel for spasm.

(4) One-finger palpation.

(5) Costovertebral check for tenderness.

(6) Deep palpation.

(7) Rebound tenderness.

(8) Auscultation.

(9) Rectal and pelvic examination.

1-35. DISEASES OF THE STOMACH.

a. Acute simple gastritis. This is probably the most common disturbance of the stomach and is frequently accompanied by generalized enteritis. Causes are chemical irritants (e.g., alcohol, salicylates),

bacterial infection or toxins (e.g., staphylococcal food poisoning, scarlet fever, pneumonia), viral infections (e.g., viral gastroenteritis, measles, hepatitis, influenza), and allergy (e.g., shellfish).

S. Anorexia is always present and may be the only symptom. Usually, patient complains of epigastric fullness and pressure and nausea and vomiting. Diarrhea, colic, malaise, fever, chills, headache, and muscle cramps are common with toxins or infections.

O. The patient may be prostrated and dehydrated. Examination shows mild epigastric tenderness. Hemorrhage is frequent with chemical irritants (e.g., salicylates). This may be found using a guaiac test. CBC may show a leukocytosis or in viral infections, a leukopenia.

A. Acute simple gastritis caused by _____.
Differential diagnosis: Includes peptic ulcers and appendicitis.

P. Treat the specific infection or problem. Correct fluid and electrolyte disturbance. Place patient N.P.O. until acute symptoms of pain and nausea have subided, then start giving clear liquids and progress to a soft diet as tolerated. Sedatives, Compazine, or opiates may be used as indicated. Symptoms last from 1-7 days.

b. Food poisoning and acute gastroenteritis. Food poisoning is a general term applied to the syndrome of acute anorexia, nausea, vomiting, and/or diarrhea that is attributed to food intake, especially if it affects a group of people who ate the same foods. There are numerous causative agents and organisms that have similar signs and symptoms to a greater or lesser degree. The only positive way of differentiating between these agents or organisms is by culturing the suspected food and stools of the affected individuals. Most forms of food poisoning are self-limiting and require symptomatic treatment, such as replacement of fluids and electrolytes, control of diarrhea with Lomotil, and control of nausea and vomiting with Compazine. Very rarely patients may develop hypovolemic shock and respiratory embarrassment, and this will have to be managed. Antimicrobial drugs should not be given unless the specific organism can be identified as they may aggravate the anorexia and diarrhea and prolong the course of the illness. The exception to the rule is if you suspect BOTULISM; then polyvalent antitoxin must be administered. The following chart will help in identifying the various types of food poisoning and their specific treatments.

Organism	Incubation Period (Hours)	Epidemiology	Clinical Features
Staphylococcus	1-18	Staphylococci grow in meats, dairy, and bakery products and produce entero-toxin.	Abrupt onset, intense vomiting for up to 24 hours, regular recovery in 24-48 hours. Occurs in persons eating the same food. No treatment usually necessary except to restore fluids and electrolytes.

Clostridium perfringens	8-16	Clostridia grow in rewarmed meat dishes and produce enterotoxin.	Abrupt onset of profuse diarrhea; vomiting occasionally. Recovery usual without treatment in 1-4 days. Many clostridia in cultures of food and feces of patients.
Clostridium botulinum	24-96	Clostridia grow in anaerobic foods and produce toxin.	Diplopia, dysphagia, dysphonia, respiratory embarrassment. Treatment requires clear airway, ventilation, and intravenous polyvalent antitoxin. Toxin present in food and serum. Mortality rate high.
Escherichia coli (some strains)	24-72	Organisms grow in gut and produce toxin. May also invade superficial epithelium.	Usually abrupt onset of diarrhea; vomiting rare. A serious infection in neonates. In adults, "traveler's diarrhea" is usually self-limited in 1-3 days. Use diphenoxylate (Lomotil) but no antimicrobials.
Vibrio parahaemolyticus	6-96	Organisms grow in seafood and in gut and produce toxin.	Abrupt onset of diarrhea in groups consuming the same food, especially crabs and other seafood. Recovery is usually complete in 1-3 days. Food and stool cultures are positive.
Vibrio cholerae (mild cases)	24-72	Organisms grow in gut and produce toxin.	Abrupt onset of liquid diarrhea in endemic area. Needs prompt replacement of fluids and electrolytes IV or orally. Tetracyclines shorten excretion of vibrios. Stool cultures positive.

Shigella spp. (mild cases)	24-72	Organisms grow in superficial gut epithelium and gut lumen and produce toxin.	Abrupt onset of diarrhea, often with blood and pus in stools; cramps; tenesmus; and lethargy. Stool cultures are positive. Give ampicillin, chloramphenicol, or sulfamethoxazole with trimethoprim (co-trimoxazole) in severe cases. Often mild and self-limited. Restore fluids.
Salmonella spp.	8-48	Organisms grow in gut. Do not produce toxin.	Gradual or abrupt onset of diarrhea and low-grade fever. No antimicrobials unless systemic dissemination is suspected. Stool cultures are positive. Prolonged carriage is frequent.
Clostridium difficile	?	Drug intake, e.g., clindamycin.	Especially after abdominal surgery, abrupt bloody diarrhea and fever. Toxin in stool. Oral vancomycin useful in therapy.
Campylobacter fetus	?	Organism grows in jejunum and ileum.	Fever, diarrhea; P.M.N.'s and fresh blood in stool, especially in children. Usually self-limited. Special media needed for culture. Erythromycin in severe cases with invasion.
Yersinia enterocolitica	?	Fecal-oral transmission. Food-borne.? In pets.	Severe abdominal pain, diarrhea, fever; P.M.N.'s and blood in stool; polyarthritis, erythema nodosum, especially in children. If severe, tetracycline or

gentamicin.

c. Bacillary dysentery (shigellosis). Shigellosis is a common, often mild and self-limiting disease that occasionally is serious. It is usually found in conjunction with poor sanitary conditions.

S. Abrupt onset of diarrhea (often with blood and mucus), lower abdominal cramps, and tenesmus. This is usually accompanied by fever, chills, anorexia, malaise, headache, lethargy, clouded mental condition, and in the most severe cases meningismus (S and S of meningeal irritation without actual infection), coma, and convulsions. As the illness progresses, the patient becomes weaker and more dehydrated.

O. Temperature up to 104o F., tender abdomen, and blood, mucus, and pus in the stool. Stool culture is positive for shigellae.

A. Bacillary dysentery (shigellosis). Differential diagnosis: Amebic dysentery, salmonella, gastroenteritis, E. coli, viral diarrhea, and ulcerative colitis.

P. IV fluid and electrolyte replacement, place patient N.P.O.; antispasmodics (e.g., tincture of belladonna) are helpful when cramps are severe. Avoid Lomotil or paregoric; they may improve the general symptoms but prolong fever, diarrhea, and excretion of shigella in feces. Effective stool isolation and disposal should be initiated. Drug of choice is ampicillin 250 mg. q.6h. x 5-7 days; second choice is tetracycline 250 mg. q.6h. x 5-7 days. After bowel has been at rest for a short time, start patient on clear fluids for 2-3 days, then soft diet and gradually build.

d. Amebic dysentery (see Chapter 2, Section I, Parasitic Diseases).

e. Typhoid fever (see Chapter 2, Section III, Bacterial Diseases).

f. Cholera (see Chapter 2, Section III, Bacterial Diseases).

g. Infectious hepatitis (see Chapter 2, Section IV, Viral Diseases).

h. Peptic ulcer disease. An acute or chronic benign ulceration in a portion of the digestive tract exposed to gastric secretions.

(1) Duodenal ulcer. Most common type of ulcer, four to five times more prevalent than gastric ulcer.

S. Symptoms may be vague or absent. In a typical case pain is described as gnawing, burning, cramplike, aching, or as heartburn; it is usually mild to moderate, located near the midline and near the xiphoid process. Pain may radiate below the ribs into the back or occasionally to the right shoulder. Patient may have nausea and may vomit small quantities of highly acid gastric juices with little or no food. Usually occurs 45-60 minutes after meals; absent in the morning before breakfast and gets progressively worse as the day passes. May be most severe between midnight and 0200. Pain is relieved by food, milk, antacids, and vomiting within 5-30 minutes. Ulcers can spontaneously get better or worse. Causative factors may be unknown but may include physical or emotional distress, trauma, or infections.

O. Examination shows superficial and deep epigastric tenderness, voluntary muscle guarding, and unilaterial spasm over duodenal bulb. Lab

work will show occult blood in the stool and anemia in chronic ulcers. Definite diagnosis depends on X ray and endoscopic examination.

NOTE: Complications include severe hemorrhage due to ulceration into a vein or artery or even bleeding from granulation tissue; perforation into the peritoneal cavity causing peritonitis; puretration into surrounding organs, usually into the pancreas, but the liver, biliary tract or gastrohepatic omentum may be involved. In 20 to 25 percent of untreated patients, minor degrees of pyloric valve obstruction occur, but major or complete obstructions are rare.

A. Peptic ulcer disease duodenal ulcer. Differential diagnosis: functional gastrointestinal disease, gastritis, gastric carcinoma, and irritable colon syndrome.

P. 2-3 weeks rest from work if possible. Relieve or avoid anxiety whenever possible. Forbid alcohol. Discontinue or avoid drugs that aggravate ulcers (e.g., phenylbutazone, indomethacin, and large amounts of salicylates). Place patient on a dietary management program.

(a) In the acute phase, start full liquid diet with hourly antacids liberalized rapidly to a regular diet.

(b) Avoid milk as therapy.

(c) Avoid interval feeding (eating small meals every few hours).

(d) Nutritious diet.

(e) Regular meals.

(f) Restrict coffee, tea, and cola beverages.

(g) Avoid foods that are known to produce unpleasant symptoms in a given individual.

Antacids, in order to be effective, must be taken frequently. In the acute phase, antacids should be given hourly. The schedule may then be changed to a full dose 1 and 3 hours after meals and at bedtime.

(2) Gastric ulcer. In many respects it is similar to duodenal ulcer.

S. There may be no symptoms or vague and atypical symptoms. Pain is epigastric and described as gnawing, burning, aching, or hunger pangs referred at times to left subcostal area. Usually occurs 45-60 minutes after meals and is relieved by food, antacids, or vomiting. Weight loss, constipation, and fatigue are common.

O. Epigastric tenderness or voluntary muscle guarding is usually the only finding. If there has been bleeding, a guaiac test will show occult blood.

NOTE: Complications are the same as with duodenal ulcers.

A. Peptic ulcer disease, gastric ulcer. Differential diagnosis: Duodenal ulcer, irritable colon, functional gastrointestinal distress, and

gastritis.

P. Treatment is the same as for duodenal ulcer. Failure to respond in 3-4 weeks is indication for surgery.

Gastric ulcers tend to be recurrent. Recurrent uncomplicated ulcers usually heal faster than the previous ulcer.

i. Acute organic intestinal obstruction. Usually involves the small intestines, particularly the ileum. Major causes are external hernia and postoperative adhesions. Less common causes are gallstones, neoplasms, foreign bodies, intussusception, granulomatous processes, internal hernia, and vovulus.

S. Colicky abdominal pain in periumbilical area becoming more constant and diffuse as distention develops. Vomiting associated with waves of pain. If obstruction is of the distal bowel, vomiting becomes fecal in nature. Loud stomach growling, unmanageable constipation, weakness, sweating, and anxiety are often present.

O. Patient is restless, often in shocklike state with tachycardia and dehydration, tender distended abdomen (can be localized but usually generalized) without peritoneal irritation. Audible and visible peristalsis, high pitched tinkles, and pain related to peristaltic rushes may be present. Temperature is normal or slightly elevated. A tender hernia may be present. W.B.C. is normal or slightly elevated.

A. Acute organic intestinal obstruction. Differential diagnosis: Renal colic, gallbladder colic, or mesenteric vascular disease.

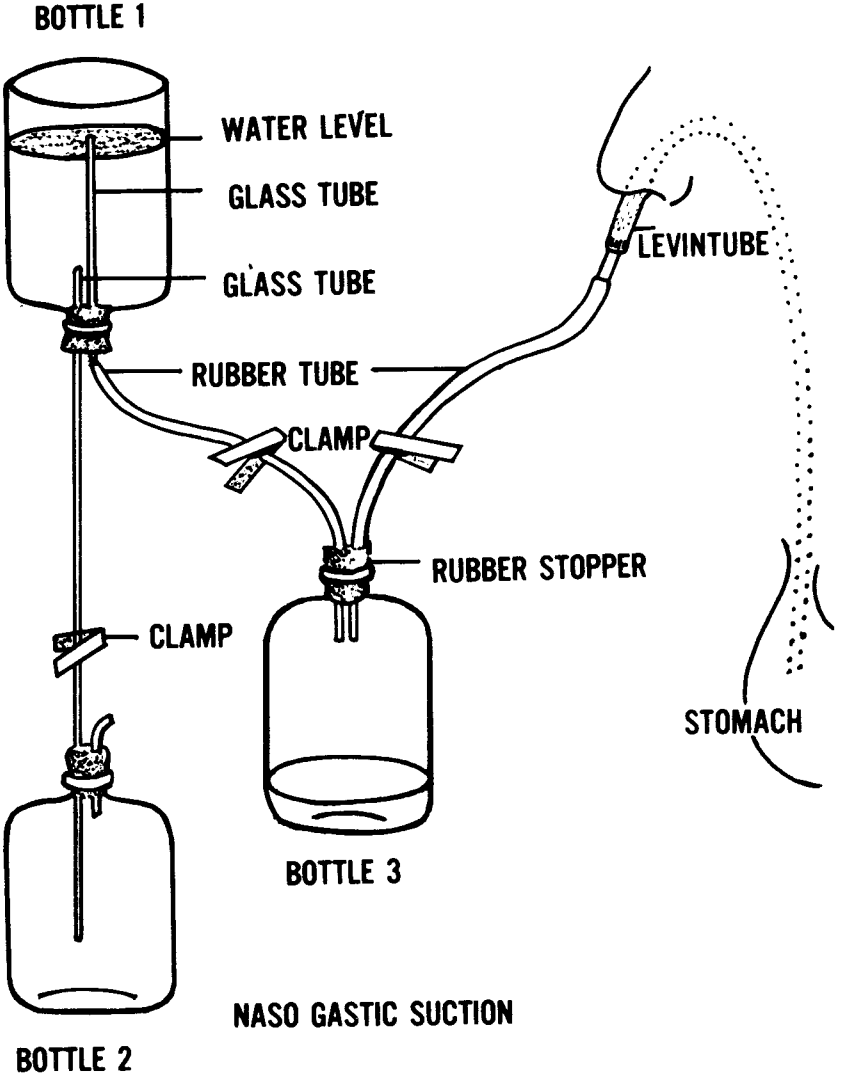
P. Place patient N.P.O. Decompress intestinal tract by nasogastric suction (see illustration on next page). Replace fluids and electrolytes by IV. Treat the cause of the obstruction. Start broad-spectrum antibiotic therapy if needed.

j. Appendicitis. One of the most frequent causes of acute abdomen. Signs and symptoms usually follow a fairly stereotyped pattern, but it can display many different manifestations that should be considered in the differential diagnosis of every case of abdominal sepsis and pain.

S. Appendicitis usually begins with generalized periumbilical or epigastric pain and 1 or 2 episodes of vomiting. Within 2-12 hours, the pain shifts to right lower quadrant where it persists as a steady soreness aggravated by walking or coughing. Patient can usually place a finger on a specific point. Anorexia, malaise, slight fever, and constipation are usual, but diarrhea occurs occasionally.

O. Rebound tenderness and spasm of the overlying abdominal muscles. Rectal tenderness is common; peristalsis is diminished or absent. Slight to moderate fever. Pain localized in right lower quadrant. W.B.C. 10-20,000 with an increase in neutrophils.

NOTE: Complications include perforation leading to generalized peritonitis, appendiceal abscess, pylephlebitis, and intestinal obstruction.


BOTTLE 1
WATER LEVEL
GLASS TUBE
GLASS TUBE
LEVINTUBE
RUBBER TUBE
CLAMP
RUBBER STOPPER
CLAMP
STOMACH
BOTTLE 3
NASO GASTIC SUCTION
BOTTLE 2

A. Appendicitis. Differential diagnosis: Acute gastroenteritis, mesenteric adenitis, Meckel's diverticulitis, regional enteritis, amebiasis, perforated duodenal ulcer, ureteral colic, ruptured ectopic pregnancy, and twisted ovarian cyst may at times mimic appendicitis.

P. Place patient under observation for diagnosis within the first 8-12 hours. Bed rest, N.P.O., start maintaining IV, avoid narcotic medication as it might mask symptoms necessary for proper diagnosis. Abdominal and rectal exam, white blood count, and differential count are repeated periodically.

(1) Once diagnosis is made, an appendectomy should be performed as soon as fluid imbalances and other systemic disturbances are controlled.

(2) Antibiotics should be administered in the presence of marked systemic reaction with severe toxicity and high fever.

(3) Emergency nonsurgical treatment when surgical facilities are not available; treat as for acute peritonitis. Acute appendicitis may subside and complications will be minimized.

k. Acute peritonitis. Localized or generalized peritonitis is the most important complication of numerous acute abdominal disorders. May be caused by infection or chemical irritation.

S. Malaise, prostration, nausea, vomiting, fever, depending on extent of involvement localized or generalized pain and tenderness, abdominal pain on coughing.

O. Elevated W.B.C., rebound tenderness referred to area of peritonitis, and tenderness to light percussion over the area. Pelvic peritonitis is associated with rectal and vaginal tenderness. Spastic muscles over area of inflammation. When peritonitis is generalized, there will be marked rigidity of the entire abdominal wall. This rigidity is frequently diminished or absent in the late stages of peritonitis, in severe toxemia, and when the abdominal wall is weak, flabby, or obese. Diminished to absent peristalsis and progressive abdominal distention is found. Vomiting occurs due to pooling of gastrointestinal secretions and gas. W.B.C. will increase to 10-20,000.

A. Acute peritonitis. Differential diagnosis: Peritonitis may present a highly variable clinical picture and must be differentiated from acute intestinal obstruction, acute cholecystitis, renal colic, gastrointestinal hemorrhage, lower labor pneumonia, porphyria, periodic fever, hysteria, and central nervous system disorders.

P. Treatment is generally applicable as supportive treatment in most acute abdominal disorders. The objectives are: Control infection; minimize the effects of paralytic ileus; correct fluid, electrolyte, and nutritional disorders.

(1) Specific measures: Identify and treat the cause; this usually entails surgery to remove sources of infection such as appendicitis, gangrenous bowl, abscesses, or perforated ulcers.

(2) General: Bed rest in medium Fowler position (semi-sitting). Nasogastric (NG) suction to prevent abdominal distention and continued

until peristalsis returns and patient begins passing flatus. Place patient N.P.O. until after NG suction is discontinued, then slowly resume oral intake. IV for fluid electrolyte therapy and parenteral feeding are required. Narcotics and sedatives used liberally to insure rest and comfort. Broad-spectrum antibiotic therapy to prevent and control infections should be initiated. Blood transfusions as needed. Watch patient for signs of toxic shock and treat as required.

1. Acute Pancreatitis. A severe abdominal disease produced by acute inflammation in the pancreas and associated "escape" of pancreatic enzymes into the surrounding tissues. The exact cause is not known, but more than 80 clinical causes have been related to acute pancreatitis, everything from alcoholism to drugs.

S. Epigastric pain generally abrupt in onset is steady and severe, made worse by lying down and better by sitting up leaning forward. Pain usually radiates to the back but may radiate right or left. Nausea, vomiting, and constipation are present, and severe prostration, sweating, and anxiety are usually found. There may be a history of alcohol intake or a heavy meal immediately before the attack.

O. Tender abdomen mainly in upper abdomen, usually without guarding, rigidity, or rebound. Abdomen may be distended and bowel sounds may be absent. Temperature of 101.1-102.2°F., tachycardia, pallor, hypotension, and a cool clammy skin are often present.

Mild jaundice is common. Upper abdominal mass may be present. Acute renal failure may occur early in the course of the disease. W.B.C. 10-30,000. Urinalysis shows proteinuria, casts in 25 percent of the cases, and glucosuria in 10-20 percent of the cases.

A. Acute pancreatitis. Differential diagnosis: Pancreatitis is hard to tell from common duct stone or perforated peptic ulcer. It must also be differentiated from acute mesenteric thrombosis, renal colic, acute cholecystitis, and acute intestinal obstruction.

P. Emergency measures for impending shock: Place patient N.P.O. If bowel sounds are absent, initiate nasogastric suction. Patient should be placed at bed rest and given 100-150 mg. demerol SQ as necessary for relief of pain. Atropine may be given as an antispasmodic 0.4-0.6 mg. SQ. Start IV to replace fluids and monitor urinary output. Use shock drugs if necessary; calcium gluconate must be given IV if there is evidence of hypocalcemia with tetany. Initiate prophylactic antibiotic therapy only if fever exceeds 102°F. Patient should be constantly attended and vital signs checked every 15-30 miunutes. CBC and urinalysis should be done frequently and monitored.

(1) Follow-up care: Patient should be kept N.P.O. for 48-72 hours. Examine frequently and closely for evidence of continued inflammation of the pancreas or related structures. Conduct periodic CBC and urinalysis. Hyperfeed the patient parenterally for first 48-72 hours, then gradually introduce oral feeding. When clinical evidence of pancreatitis has cleared, place the patient on a low fat diet.

(2) Prognosis: Recurrence is common. Surgery is indicated only when diagnosis is in doubt, if conservative treatment is not working, or in the presence of an associated disorder such as stones in biliary tract.

m. Acute Cholecystitis. Cholecystitis is associated with gallstones in over 90 percent of cases. It is caused by a partial or complete cystic duct obstruction. If the obstruction is not relieved, pressure builds up within the gallbladder. Primarily as a result of ischemic changes secondary to distention, gangrene may develop with resulting perforation. This may cause generalized peritonitis but usually remains localized and forms a chronic well-circumscribed abscess cavity.

S. Usually follows a large or fatty meal. Relatively sudden onset of severe, minimally fluctuating pain localized in the epigastrium or right upper quadrant frequently radiating to infrascapular area. In the uncomplicated case, the pain may gradually subside over a 12-18 hour period. Vomiting occurs in 75 percent of cases and 50 percent of these get variable relief.

O. Right upper quadrant abdominal tenderness, guarding and rebound pain. About 15 percent of cases have a palpable gallbladder and 25 percent of cases have jaundice. Fever is usually present. W.B.C. is usually 12-15,000.

A. Acute cholecystitis. Differential diagnosis: Perforated peptic ulcer, acute pancreatitis, appendicitis, hepatitis, and pneumonia with pleurisy on the right side.

P. Place patient N.P.O. Initiate IV for maintenance and feeding. Start prophylactic antibiotic therapy. Give analgesics as needed (morphine or meperidine). Smooth muscle relaxants, such as IM atropine or probanthine, should be used. Patient should be watched closely. W.B.C. should be done several times a day. Treatment is continued until symptoms subside. Cholecystectomy is usually required but not as emergency surgery unless there is evidence of gangrene or perforation.

Section VI - Genitourinary System

1-36. The genitourinary system is made up of the male and female sexual organs, the urethra, the bladder, the ureters, and the kidneys.

1-37. GENITOURINARY TRAUMA.

a. Kidney trauma. Most commonly caused by blunt external force such as blows, kicks, falls, etc., in the flank area. Other causes are wounds such as gunshot, stabs, etc.; it is very rarely caused by spontaneous rupture of a diseased kidney.

S. Pain at site of injury with a boring or tearing sensation felt in loin or upper abdomen.

O. Swelling and progressive rigidity of affected side. If there is a tear in the renal capsule, there is usually a rapidly expanding mass in the flank. From mild to gross hematuria is present in 90 percent of the cases. Shock occurs in varying degrees. W.B.C. elevates rapidly to 20,000 and higher.

A. Kidney trauma.

P. Conservervative treatment will usually provide satisfactory results in most cases where there is no penetrating wound. Bed rest for at least 2 weeks, until urine is clear. Shock and pain measures as required. Monitor urinary output closely. Patient must force fluids to insure urinary output of 25-40 ml./hr. In serious cases, an indwelling catheter should be installed and through IV therapy provide a urinary output of 25-40 ml./hr. Antibiotic therapy should be initiated in all cases as a prophylaxis. If an infection is allowed to develop, it will cause scar tissue and further complications. If at all possible, med evac all penetrating wounds and serious cases.

b. Bladder trauma. Causes include crushing injury from blows, seatbelts, etc., particularly if the injury occurs when the bladder is full; gunshot or stab wounds; or bony fragments from fractured pelvis.

S. Severe pain in lower abdomen. Slow and painful urination due to muscle spasm after injury.

O. Hematuria, often only a few drops of blood. Progressive symptoms of peritonitis depending on the extent of bladder rupture.

A. Bladder trauma.

P. Flat in bed. Treat for shock; install indwelling catheter. Prophylactic antibiotic treatment. Treat related problems (fracture, wound, etc.).

c. External genitalia trauma. Usual causes are heavy blows, cuts, direct injury, pelvic fracture, or straddle injury.

S. Intense to excruciating pain, swelling, and rapid development of a large hematoma.

O. Vary with the severity of the condition but will consist of hematuria, spasmodic contractions of the vesicle sphincter with pain, and

persistent desire to empty the bladder with involuntary ineffectual straining efforts and shock.

A. External genital trauma.

P. Indwelling catheter, cold packs, scrotal support, pain medication, and treat related problems (shock, wound, etc).

1-38. GENITOURINARY TRACT INFLAMMATION.

a. Renal calculi. Caused by a concentration of mineral salts and crystals that are formed in the calyx of the kidney. These kidney stones vary from small sandlike particles to large oval or branching (staghorn) stones that may fill the entire renal pelvis. Many factors are contributory such as infection, obstructions, dehydration, and hereditary tendency.

S. Severe intermittent colicky pain, radiating to pelvis, testicle, and/or inner aspect of the thigh. While the stone is in the kidney, the pain is dull and intensified by motion. When the stone enters the ureter, a sudden stab of excruciating pain is felt. If stone is in the bladder, the patient may be able to void only in the horizontal position.

O. Usually accompanied by chills, fever, violent movements, sweating, and shock as the stone moves through the ureter. Frequency, urgency, oliguria (diminished amount of urine formation), dysuria (painful or difficult urination), hematuria, and possibly pyuria (pus in the urine) are contributory findings. If anuria (complete urinary suppression) develops, it is indicative of renal failure.

A. Renal calculi.

P. Relieve pain (morphine 1/4 gr. q.2-3hr). Relax ureteral spasms with Pro-Banthine, 1/100-1/150 gr. atropine, or 1/100 gr. nitroglycerin. Force fluids and keep close record of intake and output. Strain all urine for stones; these should pass within 24-36 hours. At the first sign of anuria this becomes an acute emergency and patient should be evacuated to a definitive treatment facility.

b. Acute pyelonephritis. An acute infection of the kidney usually due to an ascending infection (from bladder through ureters to kidney) but may start from a systemic bacterial infection.

S. Sudden onset with chills, fever, some muscular rigidity, frequency, urgency, and dysuria.

O. Pain on percussion of the back with radiation to costovertebral angles and along the course of the ureters. Urinalysis shows albumen, pus cells, casts, R.B.C.'s, W.B.C.'s, and bacteria. W.B.C. in excess of 20,000.

A. Acute pyelonephritis. Differential diagnosis: Cystitis.

P. Bed rest, force fluids, and soft diet. Eliminate irritants such as alcohol or cocoa. Antibiotic therapy using Gantrisin, tetracycline, or penicillin/streptomycin. Symptomatic treatment.

c. Cystitis. Bladder infection usually due to bacteria.

S. Sudden or more gradual onset of burning pain on urination, often with turbid, foul-smelling, or dark urine; frequency; difficult or painful urination; and occasionally blood in the urine. Chills and fever are rare and if temperature is over 100° F., consider possibility of other causes than cystitis.

O. Usually no positive physical findings unless the upper tract is involved. Urinalysis shows pus, bacteria, and occasional hematuria. W.B.C.'s are rare unless upper tract is involved.

A. Cystitis. Differential diagnosis: Urethritis, pyelonephritis.

P. Gantrisin (sulfisoxazole) 1 gm q.i.d. x 10 days, alternate tetracycline 1-2 250 mg. tablets q.i.d. or ampicillin 1-2 250 mg. tablets q.i.d. Give Pyridium or methenamine urinary analgesic. NOTE: This may stain urine red to deep orange. Follow up in 2 weeks.

d. Urethritis. Caused by a wide range of agents that include gonococcus, Trichomonas, E. coli, and staphylococcus.

S. Burning on urination with pyuria. Discharge from urethra with a consistency from mucoid to purulent.

O. Discharge elicited by milking the penis. Gram's stain of discharge will usually show causative agent.

A. Urethritis. Differential diagnosis: Cystitis, prostatitis.

P. Ensure correct diagnosis with Gram's stain or culture. Treat causative organism with appropriate antibiotic.

e. Epididymitis. Frequent history of infection elsewhere in the general area such as urethritis, etc. Strenuous activity may precipitate spread of the bacteria.

S. Fever, malaise, nausea, tenderness, and pain that may radiate to the groin.

O. Inflammation of scrotal skin that may flake or crack. Scrotum dusky red and warm to the touch. Slight mass in the epididymis.

A. Epididymitis. Differential diagnosis: Orchitis.

P. Bed rest with scrotal elevation. Analgesics for pain, antibiotic therapy. DO NOT massage the prostate. If swelling persists, surgery will be required.

f. Orchitis. Usually results from a complication of mumps or other acute infections.

S. Fever; pain in the groin region.

O. Swelling of the affected testicle (may be bilateral).

A. Orchitis. Differential diagnosis: Epididymitis.

P. Bed rest; suspend the scrotum in suspensory or toweling

"bridge" and apply ice bags. Give codeine or morphine as necessary for pain. Inflammatory reaction can be reduced with hydrocortisone sodium succinate, 100 mg. IV followed by 20 mg. orally q.6h. x 2-3 days. Orchitis often makes the patient very uncomfortable but very rarely results in sterility.

g. Prostatitis. Caused by bacterial infection from systemic or urethral infections. Prostatitis may be acute or chronic; overmanipulation (a lot of sex) of chronic prostatitis gives rise to acute stage symptoms.

S. Acute symptoms: Perineal pain, fever, dysuria, frequency, and urethral discharge. Chronic symptoms: Lumbosacral backache, perineal pain, mild dysuria and frequency, and scanty urethral discharge.

O. Acute stage: Palpation of the prostate shows it is enlarged, boggy, and very tender. Even gentle palpation of the prostate gland results in a copious purulent urethral discharge. Chronic stage palpation of the prostate reveals an irregularly enlarged, firm, and slightly tender prostate. CBC will often show leukocytosis. Expressed prostatic fluid shows pus cells and bacteria on microscopy.

A. Prostatitis. Differential diagnosis: Urethritis. Lower urinary tract infections.

P. Bed rest, force fluids, sitz baths t.i.d. for 15 min, analgesics, and stool softeners. For acute prostatitis initial treatment may consist of sulfamethoxazole 400 mg., plus trimethoprim 80 mg. (co-trimoxazole), 6-8 tablets daily, or tetracycline 500 mg. q.i.d. x 2 weeks or ampicillin 500 mg. q.4h. x 2 weeks; two-week treatment usually results in subsidence of the acute inflammation, but chronic prostatitis may continue because most drugs fail to reach the prostatic acini. Chronic prostatitis should be treated with prolonged antibiotic therapy accompanied by vigorous prostatic massage once weekly to promote drainage.

h. Benign prostatic hyperplasia. Caused by hyperplasia (abnormal multiplication or increase in the number of normal cells in a tissue) of the prostatic lateral and subcervical lobes resulting in enlargement of the prostate and urethral obstruction.

S. Hesitancy and straining to urinate; reduced force and caliber of the urinary stream, and nocturia. Symptoms may be overlooked until the problem is well developed when the progression of the obstruction is slow.

O. Prostate is usually enlarged on palpation. The bladder may be seen and palpated as urine retention increases. Infections commonly occur as retention increases. Hematuria may occur.

A. Benign prostatic hyperplasia. Differential diagnosis: Urethral strictures, renal calculi, bladder tumor, or carcinoma of the prostate.

P. Relieve acute urinary retention by catheterization. Maintain catheter drainage if degree of obstruction is severe. Surgery is usually necessary. Treat infections that develop.

i. Carcinoma of the prostate. Rare before age 60. It metastasizes early to the bones of the pelvis and locally may produce urethral obstruction with subsequent renal damage.

S. Obstructive symptoms similar to those of benign prostatic hyperplasia are common. Low back pain occurs with metastases to the bones of the pelvis and spine.

O. Rectal exam reveals a stone-hard prostate that is often modular and fixed. Obstructions may produce renal damage and the symptoms and signs of renal insufficiency. Urine may show evidence of infection.

A. Carcinoma of the prostate. Differential diagnosis: Benign prostatic hyperplasia, urethral strictures, renal calculi, and bladder tumor.

P. Evac to a definitive care center.

j. Acute glomerulonephritis. Glomerulonephritis is a disease affecting both kidneys. It is most common in children 3-10 years old. Most common cause is a preceding infection of the pharynx or of the skin with group AB-hemolytic streptococci.

S. Malaise, headache, anorexia, low-grade fever, puffiness around the eyes and face, flank pain, and oliguria (diminished amount of urine output in relation to fluid intake). Hematuria is usually noted as "bloody" or if the urine is acid as "brown" or "coffee-colored." Respiratory difficulty with shortness of breath may occur as a result of salt and water retention and circulatory congestion. Tenderness in the costovertebral angle is common.

O. Mild generalized edema, mild hypertension, and retinal hemorrhages may be noted. There may be moderate tachycardia and moderate to marked elevation of B.P. The diagnosis is confirmed by urine examination that may be grossly bloody or coffee-colored or may only show microscopic hematuria. In addition, the urine contains protein (1-3+), red cell casts, granular and hyaline casts, white cells, and renal epithelial cells.

A. Acute glomerulonephritis. Differential diagnosis: Other diseases in which glomerular inflammation and tubule damage are present.

P. There is no specific treatment, but eradication of B-hemolytic strep is desirable. In uncomplicated cases, treatment is symptomatic and designed to prevent overhydration and hypertension. Bed rest until clinical signs abate. Blood pressure should be normal for 1-2 weeks before resuming normal activity. When protein excretion has disminished to near normal and when white and epithelial cells excretion has decreased and stabilized, activity may be resumed on a graded basis. Excretion of protein and formed elements in the urine will increase with resumption of activity, but such increases should not be great. Fluids should be restricted in keeping with the ability of the kidney to excrete urine. If edema becomes severe, a trial using an oral diuretic should be tried.

k. Phimosis.

(1) Cause and symptoms: Foreskin not pliable enough to retract over the glans penis. This causes pain on erection and may be complicated with paraphimosis.

(2) Treatment: Cut a dorsal slit in foreskin and schedule for

circumcision.

1. Paraphimosis.

(1) Cause and symptoms: Foreskin is constricted around the glans penis and cannot be reduced.

(2) Treatment: Cut a dorsal slit in the foreskin and schedule for circumcision.

Section VII - Nervous System

1-39. This section is not intended to cover all neurological problems because most neurological problems are beyond your scope for definitive treatment. It should, however, provide you with enough information to make you aware of the neurological problems you may face and enable you to make a tentative diagnosis.

1-40. COMPOSITION OF THE NERVOUS SYSTEM.

a. The nervous system is composed of (1) Central Nervous System (C.N.S) - Cerebrum, Cerebellum, Brain Stem, Spinal Cord; (2) Peripheral Nervous System (P.N.S.) - Peripheral nerves.

b. Review of the twelve cranial nerves.

(1) First: Olfactory. Sense of smell. Injury causes loss of sense of smell.

(2) Second: Optic. Sense of sight. Injury causes optic disturbances to loss of sight in one or both eyes.

(3) Third: Oculomotor. Supplies all the muscles of the orbit except the superior oblique and external rectus; also supplies the sphincter muscle of the iris and the ciliary muscle. Injury causes dilated and fixed pupils, slight prominence of the eyeball, and drooping of the upper eyelid.

(4) Fourth: Trochlear. Supplies the superior oblique muscle (smallest of the cranial nerves). Injury makes patient unable to turn eyes downward and outward. If attempted, affected eye is twisted inward causing double vision.

(5) Fifth: Trigeminal. Innervates facial sensation and motor to muscles of mastication (largest cranial nerve). This nerve also supplies the eye, nose, teeth, gums, palate, etc." Injury can cause numerous problems from dryness of the nose and eyeball to impaired action of the lower jaw.

(6) Sixth: Abducens. Supplies the external rectus muscle. More frequently involved in base of the skull fractures than any other nerve. Injury causes an internal or convergent squint often with a certain amount of contraction of the pupil.

(7) Seventh: Facial nerve. Motor nerve of all the muscles of facial expression: the platysma and buccinator; external ear muscles; posterior belly of the digastric and stylohyoid; nerve of taste for the anterior two-thirds of the tongue; the vasodilator nerve of the submaxillary and sublingual glands; and tympanic branch supplies the stapedius muscle. Most common effect of injury is Bell's facial palsy.

(8) Eighth: Auditory. Sense of hearing. Injury causes deafness.

(9) Ninth: Glossopharyngeal. Nerve of sensation to pharynx, fauces, and tonsil. Also sensation of taste to posterior third of tongue.

(10) Tenth: Vagus. Supplies the organs of voice and

respiration with motor and sensory fibers and the pharynx, esophagus, stomach, and heart with motor fibers.

(11) Eleventh: Spinal accessory. Consists of accessory portion which is motor to larynx and pharynx and spinal portion which is motor to sternocleidomastoid and trapezius muscles.

(12) Twelfth: Hypoglossal. Motor nerve of the tongue.

1-41. RECOGNITION OF NEUROLOGICAL PROBLEMS.

a. Not all problems have neurological origin. Your first task is to recognize the potential neurologic origin of the patient's complaint. There are eight different complaints or problems that point to neurologic disease. Although each of these complaints may be produced by diseases that do not involve the nervous system, differentiating between neurological and non-neurological causes is usually easy (e.g., a patient's leg may not move correctly because it is broken; he can't see properly because he needs glasses; or he has a headache and fever after taking a typhoid immunization). The eight complaints/problems are:

(1) Something doesn't move right.

(2) Something doesn't feel right (including disorders of other sensory modalities).

(3) I can't see properly.

(4) I can't think or communicate properly.

(5) I have spells.

(6) I am dizzy.

(7) My head hurts.

(8) Patient is unconscious, unrousable, or excessively drowsy.

1-42. NEUROLOGIC HISTORY. Most patients with neurologic disease will tell their physician what is wrong with them if he can properly interpret what they are trying to say and expands the history with skillful questioning. The history should give a profile of the disorder. This provides a valuable clue to the basic disease process. A few general principles are worth mentioning.

a. Seizures (convulsions) develop more rapidly than any other form of neurologic disorder. In many cases they develop in less than one second and may disappear as quickly as they come. Neuralgias are the only other group of disorders this abrupt. Vascular disorders including stroke and migraine usually take seconds to minutes to develop. Instead of clearing rapidly they melt away over hours or days. Demyelination seldom develops as rapidly as stroke but may progress over hours to days. Tumors usually develop in weeks to months and degenerative disorders in months to years. Toxic, metabolic, and infectious disorders are variable and more likely to leave their mark on other organ systems.

b. A brief neurologic review of systems should be made. It helps the medic be sure that the neurologic disorder is restricted to the problem

area he is evaluating. Possible intellectual defects can be elicited by asking about any difficulty in thinking or remembering, comparing recent job or school performance with past achievements may be helpful, asking whether he has any difficulty understanding what is said to him or expressing himself in oral or written language. Other possible complaints relative to the head are logically explored next. These include a discussion of the patient's headaches. He should be asked about any spells, attacks of dizziness, or alteration of consciousness he may have had. Visual complaints including diplopia, scotomata, and loss of visual acuity should be solicited.

1-43. NEUROLOGICAL EXAMINATION.

a. The following checklist will help you make a neurological examination: See para b, below, for details.

(1) Mental status.

(a) Affect and mood
(b) Orientation
(c) Memory
(d) Calculation and abstraction
(e) Aphasia

(2) Patient standing.

(a) Routine gait - note:

1. Arm swing
2. Width of gait
3. Limp or other abnormality

(b) Toe walking
(c) Heel walking
(d) Tandem walking
(e) Romberg's test

(3) Patient seated on exam table.

(a) Cranial nerve tests:

1. Visual acuity
2. Visual fields to confrontation
3. Ocular fundus
4. Extraocular movements
5. Pupillary reactions
6. Smiling, voluntary and emotional
7. Tongue protrusion
8. Voluntary palate movement
9. Hearing

(b) Arm strength and coordination

1. Strength

a. Shoulder abduction
b. Elbow flexion - extension
c. Thumb adduction

d. Thumb opposition
e. Wrist dorsiflexion
f. Handgrip

2. Reflexes
   a. Biceps
   b. Triceps
   c. Radial - periosteal

3. Coordination
   a. Finger to nose
   b. Rapid alternating movements
   c. Muscle tone

(4) Patient lying down.

(a) Leg strength and coordination

1. Strength

   a. Hip flexion
   b. Knee extension
   c. Dorsiflexion of the foot

2. Reflexes

   a. Abdominal
   b. Knee jerk
   c. Ankle jerk
   d. Babinski

3. Heel to shin test

(b) Sensory examination

1. Pain

   a. Face
   b. Extremities

2. Vibration - extremities
3. Light touch

   a. Cornea
   b. Face
   c. Extremities

4. Position
   a. Fingers
   b. Toes

b. Further details on neurological examination.

(1) Mental status exam. The medic who is evaluating a patient's mental status is usually looking for elements of dementia, aphasia, depression, or anxiety. These can often be observed during history taking.

(a) Affect and mood should be observed and recorded.

Affect is how the patient transmits his feelings and mood is what he is trying to transmit. In most individuals a depressed affect reflects a depressed mood and vice versa. Flattening or dulling of affect is seen in most depressed, schizophrenic, or parkinsonian patients.

(b) Orientation to time, place, and person should be recorded.

(c) Memory can usually be judged from the quality of the history, but should be commented on. Formal memory testing is unnecessary unless there is some reason to suspect difficulty.

(d) Calculation and abstraction should be tested in patients over 50 years of age. Serial 7's and a well-known parable (such as "why shouldn't people who live in glass houses throw stones?") are usually adequate.

(2) Gait and station. Four types of gait are routinely tested: ordinary gait, heel walking, toe walking, and tandem gait. Ordinary gait is observed for gross abnormalities of carriage and width of base. Arm swing may be deficient if there is weakness (especially hemiparesis) or a basal ganglion disease such as Parkinson's disease. Asymmetric heel elevation during toe walking indicates weakness in plantar flexors of foot while asymmetric toe and foot elevation in heel walking suggests weakness of the dorsiflexion of foot and toes. Tandem walking brings out gait ataxia (broad-based gait) seen in midline cerebellar disorders. Romberg's test is an evaluation of position sense. The patient is told to stand with his feet as close together as possible. If, with his eyes open, he can only stand with a wide base, the problem is most likely cerebellar. If he stands firm with eyes open, but tends to fall upon closing his eyes, the problem is position sense (posterior column or peripheral nerve) and Romberg's sign is present. While performing the Romberg test, it is convenient to examine for arm drift, a useful test of mild shoulder weakness or proprioceptive loss. Before the patient closes his eyes, have him extend both arms, palms up and elbows stiff in front of him. If while his eyes are closed he displays a tendency for either hand to pronate or either arm to "drift" downward, you may have discovered a significant defect. About 20 seconds of holding against gravity is sufficient.

(3) Cranial nerves. Now the patient can be seated and cranial nerves tested. Smell and taste need not be routinely evaluated. Vision requires more attention. Acuity should be checked first. With glasses on, the ability to read newsprint at about two feet constitutes 20/30 vision; and at 14 inches 20/50 vision. Each eye should be tested separately. Visual fields should also be tested in each eye separately. Always check all four quadrants. In patients over 50 years, check simultaneous stimulation by quadrants, preferably by superior temporal against the inferior nasal and then inferior temporal against the superior nasal. The optic nerve head is routinely examined as part of the ophthalmoscopic exam. A simple tuning fork test for hearing should be included. Extraocular movements and pupillary reactions should always be tested. Emotional and volitional face movements should be observed. Tongue protrusion, voluntary palate elevation, and voice timbre should be examined, but these are usually included as part of the routine oropharyngeal exam. Corneal reflexes, Myerson's sign, and snouting responses should be tested. Ordinary sensation in the face is best checked later with the rest of the general sensory exam.

(4) Motor strength and coordination in the upper extremities. Acceptable techniques of muscle testing consist of the examiner trying to move a joint against resistance or evaluation of a maximum effort by the patient to overcome the examiner. I generally prefer to have the patient exert a maximum effort against my resistance for internal and external rotation at the shoulder, flexion and extension of the elbow, and flexion and extension of the knee. I usually try to overcome the patient's fixation for shoulder abduction, wrist flexion and extension, hip flexion, and foot dorsiflexion. When a patient is making a maximum effort and the examiner is able to overcome the force of his muscle contraction, gradual movement of the joint will be felt. There should be no sudden "give" or relaxation, suggesting a lack of full cooperation. There are several numerical and descriptive scales for recording weakness. Like describing unconsciousness as coma, semicoma, and lethargy, they suffer from a lack of consensus among physicians as to what the numbers mean. At this stage in the examination, shoulder abduction, elbow flexion and extension, wrist dorsiflexion, and thumb opposition and adduction should be tested bilaterally. Biceps, triceps, and radial-periosteal reflexes may be tested at this time or deferred until the patient is supine. Coordination and muscle tone should be checked. Three maneuvers are essential. The first is the familiar finger to nose test. While this is being done, watch for any tremor or involuntary movement. Rapid alternating movements consisting either of opening and closing the hands or touching the tips of each finger with the tip of the thumb is tested next. Finally, passive circumduction of each wrist should be tried while the patient opens and closes the other hand as fast as he can. This will bring out any latent muscle rigidity.

(5) Completion of the motor and reflex exam. The patient should now be placed in the supine position. Up to this point we have been deliberately sloppy in testing strength. We have been testing it without providing fixation of the limb. As a screening procedure, this is fine. If any weakness has been suspected, shoulder rotation and elbow movements should be retested with the shoulder fixed against the examining table. Wrist and hand movements can similarly be isolated. Extension of the hip, extension of the knee, and dorsiflexion of the foot should be routinely examined. If there is a question of knee weakness, have the patient assume the prone position, fix the thigh against the table, and retest flexion and extension.

Biceps, triceps, and radial-periosteal reflexes in the arm should be tested if they have not been previously. Knee jerks, ankle jerks, and abdominal reflexes should be tested, and Babinski's sign sought. All reflexes require three elements: a sensory limb, some form of central integration, and a motor response. Reflexes will be altered if any of these three elements are disturbed. Any peripheral sensory disturbance or disturbance of the lower motor neuron or muscle can abolish reflexes. The only thing that will exaggerate reflexes is a disorder of the corticospinal system (the upper motor neuron syndrome). Finally, leg coordination should be observed with the heel-to-shin test.

(6) Sensory exam. It is convenient to perform the entire sensory exam at one time with the patient lying supine. During an ordinary screening exam, pain sensation with a sharp pin and fine touch with a wisp of cotton or Kleenex should be checked on both cheeks, both hands, and both feet. Position sense should be tested at least in the toes, and vibration sense in both feet and hands. A tuning fork should be used to test vibratory sensation on bony prominences.

1-44. EPILEPSY. Any recurrent seizure pattern. Violent, involuntary contractions of the muscles, occurring singly or in series, often accompanied by sudden loss of consciousness.

a. Grand mal attacks.

(1) Focal or jacksonian seizures. Initiated by specific focal phenomena (motor or sensory). Seizures are one-sided or localized. Head and eyes may turn to one side (that opposite the lesion). Jerking of the limbs may be one-sided. This is an acquired type of epilepsy. Convulsive movements start in small muscle groups (e.g., the hand) and slowly spread to other areas, it is termed the jacksonian "march." Loss of consciousness results when it becomes a generalized convulsion. Indicates specific portion of the cerebrum where lesion is located. May have an "aura," often referred to as a warning, but in reality it is a part of the seizure. The focal point indicates area of the brain where attack originates. Should be considered the focal trigger for the seizure.

(2) Typical grand mal seizures are characterized by a cry; loss of consciousness; falling; tonic then clonic muscle contractions of the extremities, trunk and head; urinary and fecal incontinence; frothing in the mouth; biting of the tongue. About 50 percent have an aura (auditory, visual, olfactory, visceral, or mental) disturbance. Losing consciousness after crying out, the person falls making no effort to protect himself.

(a) Tonic phase: sustained contraction of all muscles; body is rigid, jaws fixed, hands clenched, legs are extended, dilated pupils, face is red or cyanotic due to spasm of respiratory muscles.

(b) Clonic phase follows tonic phase in less than a minute with jerky movements due to alternating contraction and relaxation of muscles. The attack lasts 2 to 5 minutes usually. These attacks may be followed by deep sleep, headache, or muscle soreness.

b. Petit mal attacks. Fleeting attacks of staring into space without loss of consciousness (absence attack) for 1 to 30 seconds. Can occur with loss of muscular tone. Occurs predominantly in children and can recur as frequently as 100 attacks per day. Petit mal may eventually develop into grand mal later in childhood or adolescence.

c. Status epilepticus (continuous seizures).

(1) A serious condition in which seizures of the grand mal type follow in rapid succession with no intervening period of consciousness.

(2) Treatment of this particular condition: Give sodium phenobarbital (Luminal) 0.4 to 0.8 gm or paraldehyde 3 to 6 ml. intravenously to produce brief anesthesia and to help prevent further attacks.

d. Psychomotor seizures do not conform to the classic criteria of grand mal, petit mal, or jacksonian seizures. These are minor seizures with loss of contact with environment for 1 to 2 minutes. The patient does not fall but may stagger around performing automatically and does not understand what is being said. He may resist aid. Mental confusion continues for 1 to 2 minutes after attack has ended. May develop at any age. Usually associated with brain damage.

e. Treatment of convulsive seizures.

(1) Prevent the patient from injuring himself by placing a tongue depressor, handkerchief, or padded gag between teeth to prevent biting of the tongue. Do not restrain patient. Do not leave him alone. If possible, before seizure, place a gag between the teeth, but do not use a metal object. Do not pry the teeth open. Loosen clothing, especially around the neck. Turn head to the side, allowing mucus to flow from mouth and throat. After the attack, give phenobarbital 15-30 mg. t.i.d.

(2) Patient should be hospitalized. If hospitalization is not possible, you will have to control the seizures using anticonvulsant drugs such as Dilantin 100 mg. t.i.d. to q.i.d. P.O. or IM. If seizures add phenobarbital 15-30 mg. t.i.d. to q.i.d. What you want is the lowest dose possible to prevent seizures. To accomplish this start with a low dosage and if the patient has another seizure add a little to the dosage until seizures disappear completely. Patient must not drink alcohol.

1-45. HYSTERICAL ATTACKS VS. GRAND MAL ATTACKS.

a. May resemble grand mal epilepsy. With hysterical attacks the onset is slower and movements are purposeful, incontinence and cyanosis are absent, pupils do not dilate, patient does not injure himself when he falls, does not bite his tongue, usually has history of emotional upset and neurosis.

b. Treatment is the same as (1) of epilepsy treatment.

1-46. BELL's PALSY. A paralysis of the muscles of one side of the face sometimes precipitated by exposure, chill, or trauma. Can occur at any age but most common from 20-50.

S. and O. One side of the face sags--eyelids, lips, eyebrows, or entire face.

A. Bell's palsy.

P. Keep face warm and avoid further exposure, especially to wind and dust. Protect eye with patch if necessary. Gentle upward massage of the involved muscles 5-10 minutes 2-3 times a day helps maintain muscle tone. Prednisone 40 mg. daily x 4 days, then taper to 8 mg. a day in 8 days may help. In most cases partial or complete recovery occurs usually in 2-8 weeks (1-2 years in older patients).

1-47. The endocrine system is made up of glands of internal secretion (ductless glands). The secretions (hormones) enter directly into the blood or lymph circulation. Very small quantities of hormones are produced, only a trace being necessary to produce an effect, and some of them influence the body as a whole. Because of this and the fact that endocrine disorders can mimic a wide variety of primary disease states, the diagnosis of endocrine diseases is extremely difficult to make. The hormone producing glands include the pituitary, thyroid, parathyroids, ardrenals, gonads, and pancreas.

1-48. GOITER (see Chapter 5, Nutritional Diseases and Deficiencies).

1-49. DIABETES MELLITUS. A chronic metabolic disorder, characterized by abnormal insulin secretion and a variety of metabolic and vascular manifestations reflected in a tendency toward abnormally elevated blood glucose levels, large vessel disease, microvascular disease, and neuropathy.

S. Polyuria, increased thirst and hunger, paresthesia, and fatigue. Bed wetting may signal the onset of diabetes in children. Vaginitis and pruritus vulvae are frequent initial complaints of adult females. There may be marked weight loss despite normal or increased appetite. Diabetes should be suspected in obese patients, patients with a positive family Hx of diabetes, and in women who have delivered large babies (over 9 lbs) or who have had unexplained fetal losses.

O. In mild or moderate diabetes there may be no abnormal signs at onset, whereas the patient with severe insulin deficiency may present with loss of SQ fat, dehydration, muscle wasting, anorexia, nausea, vomiting, air hunger, and if untreated, coma and death. The retina may show microaneurysms, intraretinal hemorrhages, and hard exudates. Cardiovascular signs include signs of circulatory embarrassment of the lower extremities and hypertension. Neurological signs are predominantly sensory in nature with dulled perception of vibration, pain, and temperature, particularly in the lower extremities. The ankle jerk is often absent, but the knee jerk may be retained. Urinalysis is positive for glucose and ketones with specific gravity 1.020-1.040. NOTE: Certain common therapeutic agents, e.g., ascorbic acid, salicylates, methyldopa, and levodopa, when taken in large doses, can give a false positive for glucose when using Clintest measurements or false negatives when using glucose oxidase paper strips (Clinistix, Tes-Tape, etc.). Despite the importance of the above signs and symptoms to the diabetic syndrome, none constitute the basis for a conclusive diagnosis. Whenever diabetes is suspected, it should be confirmed by a fasting blood or serum glucose and a glucose tolerance test if indicated.

A. Diabetes mellitus. Differential diagnosis: Nondiabetic (renal) glycosuria, hyperglycemia due to end organ insensivity to insulin.

P. A well balanced (sugar free) 1,000-1,200 calorie diet and weight reduction will manage many cases of mild to moderate diabetes, especially in obese patients who demonstrate symptomatology at age 40 or above. If glycosuria persists, the use of hypoglycemic agents such as insulin or tolbutamide (Oranase) is indicated. The ultimate choice of agents, route, dose, and interval must be determined by a careful analysis of serum glucose levels.

1-50. COMPLICATIONS OF DIABETES.

a. Hypoglycemia (insulin shock). An abnormally low blood sugar level and the most common complication of patients on insulin therapy.

S. Sudden onset (slower with long acting insulins) of mental confusion, bizarre behavior, sweating, palpitations, and tremulousness that may lead to coma, convulsions, and death.

O. Skin is moist, pale, and cool. There may be drooling from the mouth. Respirations are normal or shallow and the breath is usually odorless. B.P. is normal with a full bounding pulse. The urine in negative for glucose and ketones by the second voiding (there may initially be some residue from earlier hyperglycemia.) Serum glucose is <60 mg./100 ml.

A. Hypoglycemia due to insulin reaction. Differential diagnosis: Diabetic ketoacidosis, alcohol or drug induced coma, head injury, and cerebrovascular accidents. NOTE: If serum glucose is <50 mg./100 ml. the Dx is confirmed.

P. If still conscious and able to swallow, give orange juice, glucose, or any beverage containing sugar. If stuporous or unconscious, give 20-50 ml. 50% glucose IV stat. Then continue infusion at a rate of 10 gm/hr. If patient is still hypoglycemic, give a second bolus of 25 ml. 50% glucose. If unable to start IV, give 1 mg. glucagon IM or SQ then sugar by mouth when patient is awake and can swallow. If neither glucose nor glucagon is available, give 30 ml. syrup or honey in 500 ml. warm water rectally. Monitor patient response and plasma glucose level carefully.

b. Diabetic ketoacidosis. Hyperglycemic coma. Usually occurs in insulin dependent and juvenile (age <30) onset diabetics.

S. Gradual onset (1-2 days). Nausea, vomiting, abdominal pain, polyuria, intense thirst, and marked fatigue progressing to mental stupor and finally coma and death, if untreated.

O. Skin is hot, dry, and flushed with a loss of turgor. Mouth is dry. Respirations are deep, rapid, and labored. A fruity (acetone) odor is usually present on the breath. There may be signs of shock (see chapter 15). The eyeballs are soft. Urine glucose and ketones are strongly positive. Plasma glucose is >300 mg./100 ml. and ketones are strongly positive. NOTE: A rapid blood glucose determination can be made using commercially available glucose test strips (Dextrostix) and a rough quantitation of serum or plasma ketone can be made using either Ketostix or Acetest tablets. The presence of ketone may be masked if there is a strong level of lactic acid present.

A. Diabetic ketoacidosis. Differential diagnosis: Hypoglycemia, lactic acidosis due to septic, cardiogenic, or hypovolemic shock. NOTE: With lactic acidosis, the clinical picture will be approximately the same without the acetone breath or ketonuria. Blood glucose is variable.

P. (1) Diabetic ketoacidosis. Start IV .5 N saline at rate of 1 L./hr x 2 hrs, then adjust to 5-8 L. (total) over a period of 24 hours. If patient is already in shock, give N saline. Insulin (regular) 5-10 units/hr slow IV drip or IM. When blood glucose is <250 mg./100 ml., start

IV D5W at a rate of approximately 200 ml./hr with insulin q.2-4h. p.r.n. to maintain glucose level between 200 and 250 mg./100 ml.

(2) Lactic acidosis. Start IV .5 N saline at rate of 1 L./2 hours, then 1 L./2-3 hours. Na bicarbonate 2 ampules (90 mEq.) stat. Repeat with 3-4 ampules if necessary. Stop when breathing returns to normal.

c. Prevention of soft tissue complications. Diabetics are susceptible to bedsores, infection, and gangrene. Because of poor circulation, feet should be kept scrupulously clean and dry. Extreme care should be used when trimming toenails, and corn and callouses should be removed by soaking, not cutting. Use oil or lanolin to keep feet soft and avoid tight shoes. Do not apply local heat to legs and feet. Instruct the patient to brush teeth at least three times a day. Take warm baths daily and seek prompt attention for any bruise or break in the skin.

1-51. ACUTE ADRENAL INSUFFICIENCY. A clinical syndrome caused by marked deprivation or insufficient supply of adrenocortical hormones following trauma, surgery, overwhelming sepsis (principally meningococcemia), or sudden withdrawal of corticosteroid drug therapy. Acute adrenal insufficiency constitutes a grave medical emergency and is rapidly fatal if not treated.

S. Headache, lassitude, nausea, vomiting, abdominal pain, C.V.A. pain, and tenderness. Confusion or coma may be present.

O. Fever 105°F. or more, B.P., cyanosis, petechiae (especially with meningococcemia), dehydration, abnormal skin pigmentation, and lymphadenopathy marked eosinophilia. NOTE: A high eosinophil count in the presence of severe stress due to trauma, infection, or other mechanisms is strongly suggestive of adrenal failure.

A. Acute adrenal insufficiency due to _____.
Differential diagnosis: Diabetic coma, cerebrovascular accident, acute poisoning.

P. IF ADRENAL FAILURE IS SUSPECTED, TREAT AT ONCE WITHOUT WAITING FOR CONFIRMATION BY LAB RESULTS. Treat for shock (see chapter 15). Start IV fluids stat., vasopressor drugs and O_2 p.r.n. Do not give narcotics or sedatives. 100 mg. Solu-Cortef IV stat. and ~~continue~~ IV infusion of 50-100 mg. q.6h. x 1 day, then same amount q.8h. x 1 day. Continue to give q.8h. with a gradual reduction in dose until the patient is able to take food by mouth, then give oral cortisone 12.5-25 mg. q.6h. and reduce to maintenance levels p.r.n. Monitor B.P. and observe for signs of edema and hypertension. If signs of cerebral edema (unconsciousness or convulsions) or pulmonary edema occur, withhold sodium and fluids and treat these conditions. If signs of hypokalemia occur, give potassium salts or food high in potassium content (orange juice or bananas). Evacuate when feasible.

(8) Scar. The result of healing after destruction of the dermis.

1-3. SKIN DISORDERS.

a. Pruritus (Itching).

S. Compulsive itching accompanies primary skin disease or may be the only signs and symptoms.

O. Redness, uticarial papules, excoriated papules, fissures, crusting, etc.

A. Pruritus/Pruritus secondary to _____ skin disease.

P. Correct the skin disease, or discontinue using irritating substance, e.g., soap, clothing, chemical, etc. Use of mild tranquilizers: Valium, Vistiral. Use of major tranquilizers: Thorazine. Use of antihistamines: Benadryl 50 mg. t.i.d.

b. Contact dermatitis is divided into two types:

(1) Primary irritant contact dermatitis. Develops within a few hours, reaches peak severity in 24 hours then disappears; caused by contact with a chemical irritant.

(2) Allergic eczematous contact dermatitis. Has a delayed onset of about 18 hours, peaks in 48-72 hours, and often lasts 2-3 weeks after discontinuing exposure to the offending antigen. (Poison ivy, oak, or sumac or allergy to clothing, etc.)

(3) Symptoms vary from minor itching and redness to vesicles, redness, edema, oozing, crusting, and scaling; itching is usually sharply demarcated.

(4) Remove offending agent. Use tap water, soaks, or compresses. Blisters may be drained but leave the tops on. Oral corticosteriods - Prednisone 40-60 mg./day x 10-14 days in severe cases. Topical corticosteriods are not effective in acute phase. Antihistamines - Benadryl 50 mg. t.i.d.

1-4. BACTERIAL SKIN INFECTIONS.

a. Impetigo/Ecthyma. Superficial vesiculopustular skin infection seen chiefly in children. Ecthyma is an ulcerative form of impetigo.

S. Group A B-hemolytic streptococcus is usual cause, but Staphylococcus aureus may be cultured also.

O. Usually affects arms, legs, and face, with the legs being more susceptible to ecthyma than unexposed areas. Both may follow superficial trauma or may be secondary to skin disease or insect bites, but it is not uncommon for it to arise on normal skin.

Lesions vary from pea-sized vesicopustules to large bizarre circinate ringwormlike lesions that progress rapidly from maculopapules to vesicopustules or bullae to exudative and then to heavily crusted circinate lesions. Ecthyma is characterized by small, purulent, shallow ulcers

Section IX - Eye, Ear, Nose, and Throat (EENT)

1-52. EYE DISORDERS.

Conjunctivitis. Conjunctivitis is the most common eye disease. It may be acute or chronic. Most cases are due to bacterial, viral, or chlamydial infections. Other causes are allergy, chemical irritation, and fungal or parasitic infection. The mode of transmission is usually direct contact via fingers, towels, etc.

a. Bacterial conjunctivitis.

S. Copious purulent discharge and redness with no pain or blurring of vision.

O. Gram's stain of discharge usually shows streptococcus or staphylococcus organisms.

A. Bacterial conjunctivitis. Differential diagnosis: Iritis, glaucoma, corneal trauma, keratitis, and other causes of conjunctivitis.

P. Disease is usually self-limiting, lasting 10-14 days if untreated. Sulfonamide or antibiotic ophthalmic ointment applied locally t.i.d. usually clears the infection in 2-3 days.

b. Viral conjunctivitis.

S. Redness, copious watery discharge, and scanty exudate from the eye. Usually associated with systemic symptoms, pharyngitis, fever, malaise, and adenopathy.

O. Children are more often affected. Contaminated swimming pools are a major cause.

A. Viral conjunctivitis. Differential diagnosis: See bacterial conjunctivitis.

P. No specific treatment. Use antibiotic ophthalmic ointment to prevent secondary infections. Usually lasts at least 2 weeks.

c. Chlamydial keratoconjunctivitis (trachoma). Trachoma is a major cause of blindness. In endemic areas it is contracted in childhood. It is usually insidious with minimal symptoms. In adults it is acute.

S. Redness, itching, tearing, and slight discharge.

O. Bilateral follicular conjunctivitis, inflammation of the cornea, and pannus (cloudy, uneven, newly formed vascular tissue over the cornea). In the later stages, scarring of the eyelid margin may cause inversion of the eyelid and the eyelashes causing them to rub against the cornea thereby scratching and scarring the cornea. This decreases the vision, leading to blindness. Giemsa stain scraping from conjunctiva shows typical cytoplasmic inclusions in the epithelial cells. In active trachoma, the smear may also include polymorphonuclear leukocytes, plasma cells, and debris-filled macrophages.

A. Trachoma. Differential diagnosis: Other eye infections.

P. Nasal decongestants to keep eustachian tube open. Antihistamines if there is any suggestion of nasal allergy. Treat cause of blockage, e.g., tonsillitis or sinus infection. If all else fails to relieve the fluid, a myringotomy is necessary to drain the ear. Indwelling plastic tubing for drainage can be used in persistent cases.

c. Diseases of the inner ear.

(1) Meniere's disease. Characterized by recurrent episodes of severe vertigo associated with deafness and tinnitus. Meniere's disease is usually encountered in men 40-60 yrs old. Cause is not known.

S. Intermittent severe vertigo that may cause the patient to fall. Nausea, vomiting, and profuse perspiration are often associated. These attacks may last from minutes to several hours. Frequency of attacks varies. Headache, hearing loss, and tinnitus occur during and persist between attacks. Hearing loss may be progressive and in 90 percent of the cases unilateral. Involuntary eyeball movement may occur during attacks of vertigo.

O. Increased sensitivity to loud sounds and decreased speech discrimination. Marked psychic disturbance is found in many patients.

A. Meniere's disease. Differential diagnosis: Systemic infections, psychiatric disorders, and cerebrospinal injuries or disorders.

P. Reassurance, salt-free diet; antihistamines (Benadryl and Dramamine) 50-150 mg. orally 3-4 times daily may help some patients. Parenteral Dramamine, Benadryl or 0.6 mg. atropine sulfate may stop acute attacks. Meniere's disease is chronic, recurrent, and may persist for years.

(2) Acute nonsuppurative labyrinthitis.

S. Usually follows respiratory tract infections. Manifested by intense vertigo, usually with marked tinnitus, a staggering gait, and involuntary eyeball movement.

O. Hearing loss is often not present.

A. Acute nonsuppurative labyrinthitis. Differential diagnosis: Meniere's disease.

P. Bed rest, preferably in a darkened room until severe symptoms subside. Antibiotics are of little value unless there is an associated infection of the middle ear or mastoid bone. Antihistamine (Benadryl or Dramamine) may be of value. Phenobarbital 15-60 mg. 3-4 times a day is generally helpful. Thorazine HCl 50 mg. IM is useful in the acute early phase. Attacks may last for several days but recovery is usually complete.

1-54. NOSE DISORDERS.

a. Sinus infection.

S. History of an acute upper respiratory infection, swimming or diving, dental abscess or extraction, or nasal allergies. Pain, tenderness, redness, swelling over the involved sinus, fever, chills, malaise, and headache.

O. Nasal congestion and purulent nasal discharge. Lab: Smear of nasal discharge may show causative organism; white count may be elevated.

A. Sinus infection. Differential diagnosis: Acute dental infection.

P. Bed rest, sedatives, analgesics, light diet, force fluids, nasal decongestants (nose spray or drops) 2-3 times a day, local heat, and systemic antibiotics will usually clear up the infection.

b. Common cold. Caused by a wide variety of viruses, all of which exist in multiple antigenic types, and recurrent infection is common.

S. Malaise, fever, headache, nasal discomfort with watery discharge and sneezing followed by mucoid to purulent discharge, and nasal obstruction. Throat symptoms are dryness and soreness rather than actual pain and hoarseness.

O. Nasal mucosa is reddened and swollen. Pharynx and tonsils show mild to moderate infection usually without edema or exudate; cervical lymph modes may be enlarged and slightly tender. Lab: Not remarkable unless there is a secondary bacterial infection.

A. Common cold. Differential diagnosis: Flu or URI.

P. General measures: rest, forced fluid, symptomatic treatment, e.g., asiprin for headache, etc.

c. Allergic rhinitis (hay fever).

S. Nasal congestion; a profuse, watery nasal discharge; itching nose often leading to paroxysms of violent sneezing; nasal mucosa is pale and boggy; itching watery eyes; conjunctiva is often red and swollen.

O. Gram's stain of nasal secretion reveals numerous eosinophils, C.B.C. shows 5-40% eosinophilia.

A. Hay fever. Differential diagnosis: Other common upper respiratory infections.

P. Antihistamines give relief in 60-80 percent of cases but effectiveness wanes as the allergy season progresses. Sympathomimetic drugs such as ephedrine are effective by themselves or in combination with antihistamines. Sedation may be of value for tense or nervous patients.

1-55. THROAT DISEASES.

a. Acute tonsillitis is nearly always a bacterial infection, often due to streptococci.

S. Sudden onset of sore throat, fever, chills, headache, anorexia, and malaise.

O. Swollen and red tonsils with pus or exudate. Cervical nodes are frequently enlarged and tender. White count may be elevated. Gram's stain of pus or exudate may show causative organism; throat culture will.

A. Tonsillitis. Differential diagnosis: Simple pharyngitis, infectious mononucleosis, Vincent's angina, and diphtheria.

P. Bed rest, fluids, light diet, warm salt water gargles, analgesics, and antibiotics as required.

b. Simple pharyngitis. Usually bacterial or viral in nature; may be part of the syndrome of an acute specific infection (e.g., measles, scarlet fever, etc.).

S. In acute pharyngitis the throat is dry and sore; systemic symptoms are fever and malaise. Chronic pharyngitis may produce few symptoms, e.g., throat dryness with thick mucus and cough or recurrent acute episodes of more severe throat pain, dull hyperemia.

O. Acute pharyngitis, red mucosa slightly swollen with a thick sticky mucus. Chronic pharyngitis, mild swelling of the mucosa with a thick tenacious mucus often in hypopharynx.

A. Simple pharyngitis. Differential diagnosis: Other upper respiratory infections and part of the syndrome of an acute specific infection (e.g., measles, whooping cough, etc.).

P. Symptomatic treatment; rest, light diet, analgesics, warm saline gargles, and antibiotics if it is a bacterial infection.

c. Influenza transmitted by respiratory route. Although sporadic cases occur, usually occurs as pandemic or epidemic in the fall or winter. Incubation period is 1-4 days.

S. and O. Abrupt onset of fever, chills, malaise and muscular aching, substernal soreness, headache, sore throat, nonproductive cough, nasal stuffiness, mild pharynged infection, flushed face, conjunctival redness, and occasional nausea. Fever lasts 1-7 days (usually 3-5). If fever persists more than 4 days, cough becomes productive or if W.B.C. rises to about 12,000, secondary bacterial infection should be ruled out or verified and treated. Most fatalities are due to bacterial pneumonia.

Lab findings: Leukopenia is common and proteinuria may be present.

A. Influenza.

P. Symptomatic, bed rest to reduce complications, forced fluids, analgesics, and sedative cough mixture. Do Not Use antibiotics unless secondary bacterial infection develops.

CHAPTER 2

COMMUNICABLE DISEASES

Section I - Parasitic

2-1. GENERAL. Of all the diseases that afflict mankind, many parasites, especially malaria, cause the highest morbidity and mortality worldwide.

2-2. AMEBIASIS. Caused by the one-celled parasite Entamoeba histolytica. It is present throughout the world, but is especially severe in third world countries and in tropical countries. Diarrhea is the most common presentation.

S. Recurrent bouts of diarrhea and abdominal cramps, sometimes alternating with constipation.

O. Tenderness and enlargement of the liver are frequent. Semifluid stools containing no pus and only flecks of blood-stained mucus. Stools 5-10 per day often with fever up to 105° F. Abdominal colic and vomiting. Lab findings: Entamoeba histolytica trophozoites and cysts in stool specimens are difficult to detect. Even with the best lab techniques a minimum of six separate stool specimens are needed to diagnose the disease. Trophozoites are found in liquid stools; cysts are found in formed stools.

A. Amebiasis. Differential diagnosis: Other causes of diarrhea, bacillary dysentery, emotional diarrhea, diarrhea 2° to laxative abuse, diverticulitis, drugs, pernicious anemia.

P. Collect six stool samples to look for trophozoites and cysts. Trophozoites that contain ingested red blood cells are diagnostic for invasive Entamoeba histolytica. Leukocytes and macrophages are relatively rare in the stool sample; whereas in bacillary dysentery many white blood cells are present.

Treatment: Metronidazole (Flagyl) 750 mg. t.i.d. x 10 days followed by diiodohydroxyquin 650 mg. q.i.d. x 21 days.

Follow-up care: The stool should be examined six times over one week after symptoms have disappeared. If any cysts or trophozoites are found in these specimens, initiate the treatment above until symptoms are cleared.

2-3. MALARIA. Malaria is perhaps the most debilitating illness worldwide, especially in the tropics. Four species of Plasmodium are responsible: Plasmodium vivax, falciparum, malariae, and ovale.

S. Acute episodes of chills, fever, and sweating. Occasionally delirium, coma, convulsions, gastrointestinal disorders, and jaundice. The chills last from 15 minutes to an hour; nausea, vomiting, and severe headache are common at this time. Fever that follows the chills will last several hours and will often get to 104° F. or higher. The third stage, or sweating, concludes the cycle. The fever subsides and the patient falls asleep to awaken feeling fairly well. In vivax, ovale, and falciparum infections, the episodes occur every 48 hours (tertian malaria). In malariae infections (quartan malaria) the cycle takes 72 hours.

O. The thick and thin blood film, stained with Giemsa's stain or Romanovsky stain, is the mainstay of malaria diagnosis. The thin film is used primarily for species differentiation after the presence of an infection is detected on a thick film. The level of parasites in the blood varies from hour to hour; therefore the blood should be examined several times a day for 2-3 days. Anemia may be present and is usually more severe with falciparum infections. Jaundice may develop in severe infections.

A. Malaria. Differential diagnosis: Other causes of fever in tropics, urinary tract infections, typhoid fever, infectious hepatitis, dengue, leptospirosis. Examination of the blood film is essential to differentiate the above from malaria.

P. Chloroquine is used to prophylatically suppress symptoms of malaria, but it does not prevent infection. If falciparum malaria does not respond promptly to chloroquine (within 24 hours), parasite resistance to this drug must be considered.

Give chloroquine phosphate, 1 gram as initial dose, 500 mg. in 6 hours, and 500 mg. daily for the next 2 days. If patients cannot absorb the drug rapidly because of vomiting or severe diarrhea, or if they are comatose, give 250 mg. (salt) of chloroquine hydrochloride intramuscularly. Repeat in 6 hours, if necessary, and follow with oral therapy as soon as possible. Do not use chloroquine for severely ill patients whose infections originated in an endemic region for P. falciparum.

Prophylactic (suppressive) dosage: Before leaving home, the patient should take a test dose of the medication to detect possible allergic readings. Starting about 1 week before arrival in the area of malaria risk, the patient should begin chloroquine phosphate 500 mg. (salt) weekly, or the combined tablet of chloroquine 500 mg. (salt) plus primaquine phosphate 78.9 mg. (salt) weekly. After leaving the endemic area, the chloroquine should be continued for 6 weeks or the combined tablet for 8 weeks. For those taking chloroquine dose, a 14-day course of primaquine should be given if there has been significant exposure to P. vivax or P. ovale.

Primaquine phosphate: This drug has been shown to be the most effective agent against the tissue forms of P. vivax and P. ovale. The dosage for primaquine phosphate is 26.3 mg. daily for 14 days.

Treatment of malaria due to P. falciparum strains resistant to chloroquine.

When the patient can take medication orally, give quinine sulfate 650 mg. 3 times daily for 14 days plus pyrimethamine 25 mg. twice daily for 3 days, plus either sulfadiazine 500 mg. 4 times daily for 5 days, or dapsone 25 mg. daily for 28 days.

For prophylaxis, Fansidar for nonimmune individuals (pyrimethamine, 25 mg. and sulfadoxine, 500 mg.) should be given once weekly. The medication should be continued for 6 weeks after leaving the endemic area. Although Fansidar is not available in the USA, it is usually available in countries with chloroquine-resistant malaria under the trade names of Fansidar, Falcidar, or Antemal.

2-4. AFRICAN TRYPANOSOMIASIS (sleeping sickness). Rhodesian and Gambian trypanosomiasis are caused by two morphologically similar parasites

Trypanosoma rhodesiense and Trypanosoma gambiense. Trypanosomiasis occurs throughout tropical Africa from south of the Sahara to about 20 degrees South latitude. Trypanosoma gambiense is limited to West Africa up to the western Rift Valley. Trypanosoma rhodesiense occurs to the east of the Rift Valley. Both trypanosomes are transmitted by the bites of tsetse flies.

S. The patient may complain of a local inflammatory reaction (called a trypanosoma chancre). It occurs within 48 hours after a bite. The lesions may be painful or pruritic for up to 3 weeks. The patient may have personality changes, headache, apathy, somnolence, and tremors. The patient may become severely emaciated and finally become comatose.

O. Irregular fever, tachycardia, painless lymph nodes. Multiple thick wet blood smears should be taken. Other lab findings include anemia and increased sedimentation rate.

A. Trypanosomiasis. Differential diagnosis: May be mistaken for a variety of other diseases including malaria, tuberculosis, kala-azar, and cerebral syphilis.

P. Pentamidine is the drug of choice for prophylaxis of sleeping sickness, but is effective with certainty only against the Gambian type. In Rhodesian infection, pentamidine may lead to suppression of early symptoms resulting in recognition of the disease too late in its course for effective treatment. One intramuscular injection (4 mg./kilogram, maximum 300 mg.) will protect against Gambiense infection for 6 months. The drug is potentially toxic and should be used for persons at high risk. It must be emphasized that the drugs used to treat trypanosomiasis are available only from the Parasitic Disease Drug Service, Center for Disease Control, Atlanta, GA 30333, (404) 329-3670.

Suramin sodium is the drug of choice for treatment of the early stages of trypanosomiasis. Treatment is 1 gm dosages @ 1, 3, and 7 days and then weekly until a total of 7 grams have been given.

Tryparsamide has been used for a long time for Gambiense infections of the central nervous system. It is given intravenously in a 20% solution in water. The dosage is 20-40 mg./kg. (maximum dose 2 gm) given at weekly intervals for a total of 10-12 injections.

General measures: Good nursing care and treatment of anemia, concurrent infections, and malnutrition are essential in the management.

Prognosis: If untreated, most cases of African trypanosomiasis are fatal. If treated properly, the prognosis is excellent.

2-5. AMERICAN TRYPANOSOMIASIS (Chagas' disease). Chagas' disease is caused by Trypanosoma cruzi, a one-celled parasite of the blood and tissues of humans and other animals. T. cruzi is found in wild animals from southern South America to northern Mexico, Texas, and the southwestern USA. Many species of reduviid bugs (cone-nosed or kissing bugs) transmit the infection, which results from rubbing infected bug feces, passed during feeding, into the wound.

S. Intermittent fever, swollen painful lymph nodes, and occasionally convulsions.

O. Hard, edematous, red, and painful cutaneous nodules (chagoma). Unilateral palpebral and facial edema and conjunctivitis.

A. Chagas' disease. Differential diagnosis: Can be confused with kala-azar. The chagoma may be mistaken for a variety of tropical skin diseases.

P. Establish the diagnosis by taking thick and thin blood films and finding the parasite in the smears. Trypanosomes should be looked for in the blood of all patients but will usually be seen only in the acute stage of infection. Treatment of Chagas' disease is symptomatic and supportive. The best plan of action is preventive: Living quarters should be cleaned and pesticides used to eradicate the insects that transmit the disease.

2-6. LEISHMANIASIS. The clinical manifestations of leishmaniasis may be classified as (1) visceral, (2) cutaneous, and (3) mucocutaneous. These distinctions are not rigid because in the course of illness one type may develop into another. The leishmaniases are caused by different species of leishmania transmitted by the bites of sandflies (Phlebotomus).

a. Visceral leishmaniasis (kala-azar). Visceral leishmaniasis is geographically widespread. It is caused mainly by two species: Leishmania donovani in the Indian region and Leishmania infantum in USSR, China, Middle East, Mediterranean basin, and Africa. It also occurs in South America.

S. Irregular fever, insidious and chronic; onset may be acute.

O. Progressive anemia, loss of weight, progressive darkening of the skin especially the forehead and hands, gradual enlargement of the spleen and liver. The fever may be very high and the patient sometimes does not look very ill. There is a marked decrease in the W.B.C., usually less than 3,000/ml. The diagnosis is established by demonstrating Leishman-Donovan bodies in stained blood smears.

A. Leishmaniasis. Differential diagnosis: malaria.

P. Treatment of visceral leishmaniasis is difficult--the best drugs are not available for general use. The drug that is available is highly toxic, but it should be used if necessary. Amphotericin B at a dose of 0.5 mg./kg. per day is dissolved in 500 ml. of 5% dextrose and given over 6 hours on alternate days. Patients must be closely monitored. Without treatment, kala-azar is usually fatal.

b. Cutaneous leishmaniasis. Cutaneous leishmaniasis may present as self-healing ulcers (oriental sore), non-ulcerating nodules that resemble leprosy, and chronic mutilating ulcers. Cutaneous leishmaniasis is seen in the USSR, India, the Middle East, the Mediterranean basin, Africa, and Central and South America.

S and O. Cutaneous swellings appear about 2-8 weeks after bites of sandflies. The swellings may ulcerate and discharge pus, or they may remain dry. Dry and moist sores are caused by distinct leishmanias, with the dry forms having longer incubation periods.

A. Cutaneous leishmaniasis. Differential diagnosis: Syphilis, other forms of skin disease.

P. Metronidazole in the dosage required to treat amebiasis has proven effective.

c. Mucocutaneous (naso-oral) leishmaniasis. Naso-oral lesions caused by leishmaniasis are seen in South America. There it is referred to as espundia. The anterior cartilage of the nose is involved and sometimes leads to a complete erosion of the bone with disfigurement. Amphotericin B 0.25-1 mg./kg. every other day for up to 8 weeks is required to kill the organism.

2-7. SCHISTOSOMIASIS (bilharziasis). A blood fluke (trematode) infection with adult male and female worms living in veins of the host. Symptoms are related to the location of the parasite in the human host. Schistosoma mansoni and Schistosoma japonicum give rise to intestinal symptoms. Schistosoma haematobium gives rise to urinary tract symptoms.

S. Transient red itching skin rash with fever, malaise. The patient may have diarrhea, abdominal pain, loss of appetite, loss of weight. Urinary frequency, urethral and bladder pain.

O. Diarrhea and abdominal pain are common in the early stages of the disease. Diagnosis depends on finding the eggs in stool specimens. As many as 8-10 stool specimens are needed to detect the eggs.

A. Schistosomiasis should be considered in all unresponsive gastrointestinal disorders in endemic areas. Differential diagnosis: Early schistosomiasis may be confused with amebiasis or bacterial dysentery.

P. Treatment should be given only if live ova are identified. In the USA, the first drug of choice for S. haematobium and S. mansoni infections is niridazole. Outside the USA, in countries where it is available, the drug of choice is oxamniquine for S. mansoni and metrifonate for S. haematobium. Niridazole should be administered in high doses, under close medical supervision. Oral doses are 25 mg./kg. (maximum 1.5 grams) daily in 2 divided doses for 7-10 days. The side effects of the drugs include nausea, vomiting, headache, and brownish discoloration of the urine.

2-8. FASCIOLOPSIASIS. Fasciolopsis buski is a large intestinal fluke found in China, Taiwan, Southeast Asia, and India. The intermediate host is a snail. Humans are infected by eating uncooked water plants that have the parasite encysted in them. After an incubation period of several months in humans, manifestations of gastrointestinal irritation appear in all but light infections. In severe infections:

S. and O. Cramping epigastric and hypogastric pains, diarrhea, intermittent constipation, anorexia, and nausea. Edema, particularly of the face and ascites (accumulation of fluid in the abdominal cavity) may occur later. Death may result from the parasite or secondary infection.

Lab findings: Leukocytosis with moderate eosinophilia. Diagnosis is made by finding the eggs or occasionally flukes in the stools.

A. Fasciolopsiasis. Differential diagnosis: Other intestinal flukes.

P. Crystalline hexylresorcinol is the drug of choice. Adults 1

gm orally on an empty stomach in the morning. Repeat in 3-4 days. Children 0.1 gm/year of age to age 10. Same as with adult. After 2 hours give sodium sulfate or sodium citrate as a purgation to flush the intestinal tract. Two treatments are usually sufficient. Alternate drug piperazine citrate in recommended course of therapy.

2-9. LIVER FLUKES.

a. Fascioliasis. Sheep liver fluke found primarily in Latin America and the Mediterranean area. Man is infested by ingesting the metacercariae on watercrest or other aquatic vegetables.

b. Clonorchiasis. Endemic in areas of Japan, Korea, China, Formosa, and Indochina. Imported cases are seen in USA. Man is infested by eating raw or undercooked freshwater fish.

S. and O. Light infestations may be asymptomatic. Heavy infestations may present as malaise, fever, liver tenderness, and jaundice. These symptoms are transient. Progressive liver enlargement, right upper quadrant pain, and vague abdominal symptoms such as diarrhea, weakness, weight loss, tachycardia, and a variety of other symptoms may occur.

Lab findings: Leukocytosis with eosinophilia sometimes from 10-40%. Diagnosis is made by finding the eggs in the stool.

A. Fascioliasis or clonorchiasis.

P. Bithional 40 mg./kg. P.O. on alternate days over 20-30 days. Alternate drug: Emetine HCl, 1 mg./kg. IM up to 65 mg. daily for 7 days. Recovery is slow even if all the flukes are killed.

2-10. PARAGONIMIASIS. A lung fluke found throughout the Far East, West Africa, South Asia, central and northern South America. Man is infected by eating infected snails, crabs, and crayfish. Ingested immature flukes migrate through the small intestines usually to the lungs, although they can lodge in other tissues of the body or even migrate to the brain or spinal cord, but these usually fail to mature. The flukes that reach the lungs encapsulate, reach maturity, and lay eggs. These capsules swell and usually rupture into a bronchiole.

S. and O. The infection is usually asymptomatic until the flukes mature and begin laying eggs. The onset is insidious with low-grade fever and a cough that is dry at first, then turning to a viscous sputum that is rusty or blood-flecked. Pleuritic chest pain is common. The condition is chronic and progressive with dyspnea, signs of bronchitis and bronchiectasis, weakness, malaise, and weight loss. In heavy infestations, parasites in the abdomen may cause abdominal pain, diarrhea, or dysentery. Parasites in the brain or spinal cord, depending on their location, may cause seizures, palsies, or meningoencephalitis.

Lab findings: Slight leukocytosis with eosinophilia. Eggs can be readily found in the sputum if it is spun down and a smear is made from the bottom of the tube. Eggs can also be found in stool specimens.

A. Paragonimiasis.

P. Drug of choice is bithionol 40 mg./kg. of body weight given on alternate days for 10-15 doses (20-30 days).

2-11. TAPEWORM INFECTIONS. A number of tapeworms can infect humans, but only six are commonly found. Distribution is worldwide. Infestations usually occurs by eating infected and undercooked or raw beef, pork, fresh water fish, and crustaceans. Tapeworms vary in size from 1 cm. or less to 300 cm. or more.

S. and O. Adult tapeworms in human intestines usually cause no symptoms. Heavy infestations may present as weight loss, vague abdominal complaints, diarrhea, anorexia, abdominal pain, and nervous disturbances, particularly in children.

The larva of some tapeworms migrate throughout the body. In muscle or connective tissue they cause no problems, but in the brain they may cause a wide variety of manifestations: epileptic seizures, mental deterioration, personality disturbances, and internal hydrocephalus.

Lab findings: Segments of the tapeworm may be found in stool, clothing, or bedding. The ova often can be found using the scotch tape method (as used to diagnose pinworms). The eggs (ova) are found occasionally in the stool.

A. Tapeworm.

P. Drug of choice: Niclosamide. Give 2 gm orally in the morning before eating for 5 days. If niclosamide is not available, use quinacrine HCl (mepacrine). Place patient on liquid diet 24 hours prior to treatment (no milk). The evening before treatment, give saline or soapsuds enema. On morning of treatment, withhold breakfast and confine patient to bed. Give an antiemetic (Compazine) and wait 1 hour. For children 18-34 kg. give 0.5 gm; for adults or children over 45 kg. give 0.8 gm. Dose may be divided but must be given within 30 minutes. Wait 2 hours after the 30 minutes, then give saline or soapsuds purge.

2-12. TRICHINOSIS. Worldwide distribution, but it is a greater problem in the temperate areas than in the tropics. Infection occurs from eating raw or undercooked pork, but bear and walrus meat has also been implicated. Symptoms may appear in a few hours, but usual incubation period is 5-15 days.

S. and O. Symptoms vary considerably depending on the number of larva and the tissue invaded. Initial symptoms occur when mature female roundworms burrow into the small intestinal mucosa and may persist until the adults die at about 5 weeks. Diarrhea, abdominal cramps, malaise, nausea, vomiting, and occasionally constipation. The larva migrate through the bloodstream to most tissues of the body beginning at the end of the first week. This brings fever, low-grade to marked; muscle pain, especially on movement; muscle tenderness; edema; spasms; periorbital and facial edema; sweating; headaches; photophobia; weakness or exhaustion; pain on swallowing; dyspnea; coughing; hoarseness; conjunctival, retinal and nail hemorrhages; and rashes. Inflammatory reactions may produce meningitis, encephalitis, myocarditis, pneumonitis, nephritis, and peripheral and cranial nerve disorders. Death can occur in 4-6 weeks.

Lab findings: Eosinophilia 20-75% in the third or fourth week, slowly declining to normal. Adult worms are rarely found in the feces. Larva may occasionally be found in the blood in the second week. Definitive diagnosis is possible by biopsy of skeletal muscle in the third or fourth week.

A. Trichinosis.

P. Symptomatic treatment is normally all that is required. If it is known a patient has eaten infected meat within the last few days (not over 1 week), give thiabendazole 25 mg./kg. (maximum of 1.5 gm) b.i.d. after meals for 2-4 days. Severe infections, when the larva invade muscle tissue, require hospitalization and high doses of corticosteroids for 24-48 hours followed by lower doses for several days or weeks to control symptoms.

2-13. TRICHURIASIS (whipworms). Small slender worms, 30-50 mm. in length, found worldwide, particularly in the subtropics and tropics.

S. and O. Light to moderate infections rarely cause symptoms. Severe infections (10,000 or more ova per gram of feces) may present with a variety of symptoms that include abdominal pain, tenesmus (spasmodic contraction of anal sphincter with pain and persistent, involuntary, ineffectual straining effort to empty the bowel), diarrhea, distention, flatulence, nausea, vomiting, and weight loss. Blood loss may be significant and rectal prolapse may occur.

Lab findings: Characteristic barrel-shaped eggs in the stool. Eosinophilia of 5-20% in all but light infections and hypochromic anemia may be present in heavy infections.

A. Trichuriasis.

P. Mebendazole, 100 mg. b.i.d. before or after meals x 3 days. Tablets should be chewed before swallowing. No alcohol 24 hours before and after treatment. Alternate treatment soapsuds enema followed by hexylresorcinol enema (20-30 ml./kg. up to 1,200 ml.). Enema should be retained for 30 minutes before expulsion.

2-14. ASCARIASIS. The most common intestinal worm. Worldwide distribution. Infection is caused by ingestion of mature eggs in fecally contaminated food and drink. Eggs hatch and the larva penetrate the walls of the small intestines and migrate to the lungs. Adult worms are 20-40 cm. long.

S. and O. Fever, cough, hemoptysis (spitting or coughing up blood), rales, and other evidence of lung involvement. Rarely, the larva may go astray lodging in the brain, kidney, eye, spinal cord, or skin.

Heavy infections may also cause vague abdominal complaints and colic. With heavy infestations, especially if the worms are stimulated by certain oral medications or anesthetics, wandering may occur. Worms may be coughed up, vomited, or passed out through the nose. They may also cause mechanical blockage and inflammation by forcing themselves into the common bile duct, the pancreatic duct, the appendix, diverticula, and other sites.

Lab findings: Eggs in the stool; larva may occasionally be found in the sputum. CBC reveals eosinophilia.

A. Ascariasis lumbricoides. Differential diagnosis: Allergic disorders, other causes of pneumonitis, appendicitis, diverticulitis, etc.

P. Piperazine. Each ml. of syrup contains 100 mg. of piperazine hexahydrate, tablets contain 250-500 mg.

up to 14 kg. give 1 gm	once a day x 2 days
14-22 kg. give 2 gm	Heavy infections may
22-45 kg. give 3 gm	require 3 to 4 days
over 45 kg. give 3.5 gm	of treatment.

Alternate drugs are Pyrantel pamoate, mebendazole, levamisole, and bephenium hydroxynaphthoate.

2-15. STRONGYLOIDIASIS. Common in tropical and subtropical areas worldwide. Essentially an infection of humans but dogs may become infected. Larvae that are passed in the feces can remain alive for several weeks in certain soil conditions. They infect man by penetrating the skin and entering the bloodstream, and are carried to the lungs. They leave the bloodstream and ascend the bronchial tree. The larvae are then swallowed and are carried to the small intestines where they mature and lay eggs.

S. and O. Many cases are asymptomatic. Sensitized patients may develop linear, erythematous, or urticarial wheals that may be intensely pruritic or even hemorrhagic following entry of the larvae into the skin. During the migratory phase, vague symptoms develop including malaise, anorexia, fever, asthma, recurrent cough, and urticaria. Frequent gastrointestinal symptoms follow; diarrhea (may alternate with periods of normal bowel movement or constipation), nausea, vomiting, and diffuse colicky pain. In children there may be abdominal distention and persistent diarrhea accompanied by malabsorption syndrome plus weight loss and debilitation.

Lab findings: Eosinophilia normal to 50%, W.B.C. up to 20,000, and larvae or adult worms in the stools (allow the stool to stand 24-48 hours before examining).

A. Strongyloidiasis. Differential diagnosis: Epigastric pain may mimic peptic ulcer syndrome but with less relationship to meals. Can cause pneumonia. Skin invasion can resemble hookworm.

P. Drug of choice: Thiabendazole 25 mg./kg. (maximum 1.5 gm) b.i.d. x 2-3 days orally after meals.

Alternate drugs: Mebendazole, pyrantel pamoate, or levamisole.

2-16. ENTEROBIASIS (pinworms). Humans are the only host of this parasite. It occurs worldwide. Humans become infected by contaminated food, drink, or hands.

S. and O. Many patients are asymptomatic. Symptoms include pruritis of the perianal area, insomnia, restlessness, involuntary urination, and irritability, particularly in children. Mild gastrointestinal symptoms are also possible such as abdominal pain, nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, and anorexia.

Lab findings: W.B.C. normal except for modest eosinophilia (4-12%). To find eggs, apply scotch tape to the perianal skin and spread the tape over a slide for examination. This should be done on three consecutive days before the patient bathes or defecates. Adult worms should be looked for in the stool.

A. Pinworms.

P. Symptomatic patients should be treated and concurrent treatment of all household members should be considered. All bedding should be washed and personal hygiene should be stressed, e.g., careful washing of hands with soap and water after defecation and before meals, trim fingernails, avoid scratching rectal area, and keep hands away from the mouth. Eggs in a moist environment remain infective for 2-3 weeks, so it is best to repeat the medication every 2 weeks for 3 doses. Drug of choice is pyrantel pamoate 10 mg./kg. (maximum of 1 gm) in a single dose before or after meals. Repeat in 2 weeks. Alternates: Pyrvinium pamoate, mebendazole and piperazine citrate. Piperazine is last choice because the course of treatment requires 1 week.

2-17. HOOKWORM. Widespread in the tropics and subtropics. Infection of humans is through the skin in the same path as strongyloidiasis with the exception that hookworm eggs do not hatch in humans; they are passed in the stool.

S. and O. The first signs of hookworm infection is a pruritic erythematous dermatitis, either maculopapular or vesicular (ground itch) where the larvae invade the skin (allergic reactions to the invasion can occur and may be severe). Pulmonary signs are cough and bloody sputum. Two weeks or more after the skin invasion, abdominal symptoms including abdominal discomfort, flatulence, and diarrhea develop.

Lab findings: Eosinophilia present in the first few months of infection. Stool usually contains blood. (Guaiac test.) Anemia may be present depending on the number of worms. Eggs can be found in the stool; 4-5 ova per low power microscope field relates to about 5,000 eggs per gram of unconcentrated stool.

A. Hookworm.

P. Light infections in asymptomatic patients do not require treatment (up to 2,000 ova per gram of stool). Drug choice: Pyrantel pamoate 10 mg./kg./d. x 3 days orally in single dose, before or after meals.

Alternate drugs: Mebendazole 100 mg. b.i.d. x 3 days (do not use in pregnancy), bephenium hydrorynaphthoate 5 gm b.i.d. x 3 days on an empty stomach and withhold food for 2 hours; repeat in 1 week (for children less than 22 kg., cut dose in half).

2-18. FILARIASIS. Caused by one of two filarial nematodes that are transmitted by the bite of certain mosquitos. Widely distributed in the tropics and subtropics of both hemispheres and on Pacific islands. Over months the adult worms mature in or near the lymphatics or lymph nodes.

S. and O. Early manifestations are inflammatory with episodes of fever with or without inflammation of lymphatics and nodes, occurring at irregular intervals. Funiculitis (inflammation of the spermatic cord) and orchitis are common. Persistent lymph node enlargement may occur and abscesses may form at these sites. Later stages are obstructive and may not appear for months or years. Obstructive manifestations include hydrocele (accumulation of serous fluids in a saclike cavity), scrotal lymphedema, lymphatic varices, and elephantiasis. Elephantiasis may involve legs, genitalia, and less often arms and breasts.

Lab findings: Eosinophilia (10-30% or higher) in the early

stages. The count falls as the obstructive phase develops. Motile (mobile) larvae (microfilariae) are rare in the blood in the first 2-3 years, abundant after that and rare again in the advanced obstructive stage. Microfilariae should be microscopically looked for using wet thick smears of fresh anticoagulated blood.

A. Filariasis.

P. General measures: Bed rest during febrile and local inflammatory episodes. Antibiotic therapy to treat secondary infections. Suspension bandages for orchitis, epididymitis, and scrotal lymphedema. Treat mild limb edema with bed rest, elastic bandage wrap, and elevation of the affected part.

Surgical measures: Surgical removal of elephantoid scrotum, vulva, or breast should be considered. It is relatively easy and the results are usually satisfactory. Surgery for elephantiasis of a limb should be avoided. The surgery is difficult and results are poor.

Drug of choice: Diethylcarbamazine 2 mg./kg. orally after meals t.i.d. x 21-28 days. Headache, malaise, nausea, and vomiting may occur from the medication. Concurrent administration of an antihistamine and antiemetic may reduce the likelihood and intensity of allergic reactions.

Relapses may occur 3-12 months after treatment requiring several courses of treatment over 1-2 years.

Section II - Mycotic (Fungal)

2-19. COCCIDIOIDOMYCOSIS. Infection results from inhalation of arthrospores of Coccidioides immitis, a mold that grows in soil in arid regions of Southwest United States, Mexico, Central and South America. About 60 percent of infections are subclinical and unrecognized; incubation period 10-30 days.

S. Forty percent of patients develop mild to severe and prostrating symptoms that resemble those due to viral, bacterial, or other mycotic infections. Onset is usually that of a respiratory infection with fever and occasional chills, pleural pain (usually severe), muscular ache, backache, and headache (may be severe). Nasopharyngitis may be followed by bronchitis accompanied by a dry or slightly productive cough. Weakness and anorexia may become marked, leading to prostration. Symptoms of progressive coccidioidomycosis depend upon the site of dissemination. Any or all organs may be infected.

O. A morbilliform (measlelike) rash may appear 1-2 days after onset of symptoms. Arthralgia accompanied by periarticular swellings, often of the knees and ankles, is common. Erythema nodosum (painful red nodules on legs) may appear 2-20 days after onset of symptoms. Erythema multiforme (macular eruption with dark red papules or tubercules with no itching, burning, or rheumatic pain appearing in separate rings, concentric rings, disk-shaped patches, distributed elevations, and figured arrangements) may appear on the upper extremities, head, and thorax. Lab findings: May be moderate leukocytosis and eosinophilia. Sedimentation rate is elevated, returning to normal as infection subsides. There is a skin test available for coccidioidomycosis.

A. Coccidioidomycosis. Differential diagnosis: Viral,

bacterial, or other mycotic infections presenting flulike syndrome.

P. Bed rest and general symptomatic treatment until there is a complete regression of fever and a normal sedimentation rate. Amphotericin B has proven effective in some patients with disseminated disease, but because of its toxic properties, adult dose should not exceed 0.5-1 mg./kg. Therapy should begin with 1 mg./d. increasing by 5 mg. increments to 25-35 mg./d. or to 40-60 mg./d. in the acutely ill.

2-20. HISTOPLASMOSIS. Caused by Histoplasma capsulatum, a mold found in the soil in central and eastern United States, eastern Canada, Mexico, Central and South America, Africa, and Southeast Asia. Infection is presumably by inhalation of spores. May be carried by the blood to other parts of the body.

S. and O. Most cases are asymptomatic or mild and unrecognized. Symptomatic infections may present mild influenzalike characteristics lasting 1-4 days. In moderately severe cases, the patients have fever, cough, and mild chest pain lasting 5-15 days. Physical examination is usually negative.

Severe infections are divided into three groups: (1) Acute histoplasmosis frequently occurs in epidemics. Symptoms are marked prostration, fever, and occasional chest pain, but no particular symptoms relative to the lungs. X ray may show severe disseminated pneumonitis. Infection may last from 1 week to 6 months; it is rarely fatal. (2) Acute progressive histoplasmosis is usually fatal within 6 weeks or less. Fever, dyspnea, cough, weight loss, and prostration are usual sypmtoms. Diarrhea is usual in children. Mucous membrane ulcers of the oropharynx may be present. All the organs of the body are involved and liver and spleen nearly always enlarged. (3) Chronic progressive histoplasmosis is usually found in older patients with chronic obstructive lung disease. It closely resembles chronic tuberculosis; occasionally the patient will have both diseases. It appears to be primarily confined to the lungs, but all organs are involved in the terminal stage.

Lab findings: Sedimentation rate is elevated in moderate to severely ill patients. Leukopenia with normal differential count or neutropenia. Most patients with progressive disease show a progressive hypochromic anemia.

A. Histoplasmosis. Differential diagnosis: Mild cases--influenza; moderate--a typical pneumonia; severe cases--tuberculosis.

P. No specific therapy. Bed rest and symptomatic treatment for the primary form. Normal activity should not be resumed until fever has subsided. Amphotericin B has helped some patients (see coccidioidomycosis for treatment plan). Some milder forms of acute primary or early chronic disease respond to sulfadiazine therapy.

2-21. NORTH AMERICAN BLASTOMYCOSIS. A chronic systemic fungus infection caused by Blastomyces dermatitidis. Occurs more often in men. Found in central and eastern United States and Canada. A few cases have been found

in Mexico and Africa.

S. and O. Mild or asymptomatic cases are rarely found. Little is known of the mildest pulmonary phase of this disease. Cough, moderate fever, dyspnea, and chest pain are evident in symptomatic cases. These may disappear or progress with bloody and purulent sputum production, pleurisy, fever, chills, loss of weight, and prostration. Raised verrucous (tumor of the epidermis) cutaneous lesions that have an abrupt downward sloping border are usually present in disseminated blastomycosis. The surface is covered with miliary (small lesions resembling millet seeds) pustules. The border extends slowly leaving a central atrophic scar. Only cutaneous lesions are found in some patients. Lesions are most frequently seen on the skin, in bones, and in the genitourinary system, but any or all organs or tissues in the body can be attacked.

Lab findings: Usually leukocytosis, hypochromic anemia, and elevated sedimentation rate. Organism can be found in lesions. It is a thick-walled cell that may have a single bud.

A. North American blastomycosis. Differential diagnosis: Epididymitis, prostatitis, other diseases attacking bone or skin.

P. No specific treatment but amphotericin B (see coccidioidomycosis for treatment schedule). Surgical excision of cutaneous lesions may be successful. Careful follow-up for early evidence of relapse should be made for several years so therapy may be resumed if needed.

2-22. PARACOCCIDIOIDOMYCOSIS (South American Blastomycosis). Found only in South or Central America or Mexico. Caused by Paracoccidioides brasiliensis.

S. and O. Ulceration of nasopharynx usually the first symptom. Papules ulcerate and enlarge both peripherally and deeper into the subcutaneous tissue. Eventually may result in destruction of the epiglottis, vocal cords, and uvula with extension to the lips and face. Eating and drinking are extremely painful. Skin lesions of variable appearance may occur on the face. They may have a necrotic central crater with a hard hyperkeratotic border. Lymph node enlargement may be the presenting symptom or may follow mucocutaneous lesions. Lymph nodes eventually ulcerate and rupture through the skin. Some patients may present with gastrointestinal disturbances, including enlargement of liver and spleen, but symptoms are vague. Extensive ulceration of the upper gastrointestinal tract prevents sufficient intake and absorption of food causing malnutrition. Death may result from respiratory failure or malnutrition.

Lab findings: Elevated sedimentation rate, leukocytosis with neutrophilia showing a shift to the left, and sometimes eosinophilia and monocytosis. The fungus is a spherical cell that may have many buds arising from it.

A. Paracoccidioidomycosis.

P. Amphotericin B (see coccidioidomycosis for treatment plan) has had considerable success in hospitalized patients. Sulfadiazine (2-4 gm) daily or "Triple Sulfa" (1 gm) daily has been used for control and occasional cures have been reported following months or years of treatment. Relapses may occur when the drug is stopped. Drug toxicity with prolonged

high dosage is common. Rest and supportive care help in promoting a favorable response.

2-23. See Chapter 1, Section I, Integumentary System for sporotrichosis, dermatophyte infections (ringworm, athlete's foot, dandruff, etc.), and chromomycosis.

2-24. CANDIDIASIS (moniliasis, thrush). A yeast found normally in the mouth, vagina, and feces of most people. Overgrowth does not occur unless the "balance" of the oral flora is disturbed by debilitating or acute illness or in those being treated with antibiotics. Overgrowth is also favored by diabetes, iron deficiency anemia, and immunosuppressed status.

S. and O. Creamy-white curdlike patches anywhere in the mouth. Adjacent mucosa is usually erythematous, and scraping the lesion often uncovers a raw, bleeding surface. Commonly, a candidal lesion may appear as a slightly granular or irregularly eroded erythematous patch. Pain is usually present but fever and lymphadenopathy are uncommon. Concomitant candidiasis of the gastrointestinal tract (including the pharynx and esophagus) may occur. Vaginal overgrowth (see Chapter 7, Gynecology).

Systemic candidal infections are of two types: Endocarditis that almost always affects previously damaged heart valves, usually follows heart surgery or inoculation by contaminated needles or catheters. Splenomegaly and petechiae are usual, and emboli are common. Upper gastrointestinal tract candidiasis is the usual source in the other type of systemic infection. Dissemination follows antibiotic or cytotoxic chemotherapy for serious debilitating disease. The kidneys, spleen, lungs, liver, and heart are most commonly involved. Fungiuria is usual in renal disease.

Lab findings: Candida albicans is seen as a gram-positive budding cell and a pseudomycelium and is the most common cause of systemic disease.

A. Candidiasis. Differential diagnosis: Other systemic diseases depending on which area of the body is affected and other fungal skin infections.

P. Amphotericin B IV (as for coccidioidomycosis) is necessary for serious systemic infection. When combined with rifampin or flucytosine (Ancobon) 150 mg./kg./d. orally, lower doses of amphotericin B can be used and still prevent emergence of resistant organism.

Oral, gastrointestinal, and cutaneous lesions should be treated with amphotericin B, nystatin, or miconazole mouthwash, tablets, or lotions. Gentian violet, 1% in 10-20% alcohol, is also effective for oral, cutaneous, and vaginal lesions. Antibiotic therapy should be discontinued if possible. All patients with candidiasis should be checked for diabetes.

2-25. CRYPTOCOCCOSIS. An encapsulated budding yeast that is found worldwide in soil and on dried pigeon dung. Infection is acquired by inhalation.

S. and O. In the lungs, the infection may remain localized, heal, or disseminate. Upon dissemination, lesions may form in any part of the body; the most common part involved is the C.N.S. and is the usual

cause of death. Generalized meningoencephalitis occurs more frequently than localized granuloma in the brain or spinal cord. Solitary localized lesions may develop in the skin and, rarely, in bones or other organs. Pulmonary cryptococcosis presents no specific signs or symptoms. Many patients are asymptomatic, others may present with low-grade fever, pleural pain, and cough possibly with sputum production. C.N.S. involvement usually presents a history of recent URI or pulmonary infection. Usually the first and most prominent symptom is increasingly painful headaches. Vertigo, nausea, anorexia, ocular disorders, and mental deterioration develop. Neck rigidity is present, and Kernig's and Brudzinski's signs are positive. Patellar and achilles reflexes are often diminished or absent. Acneiform lesions enlarge slowly and ulcerate, often coalescing with other lesions to cover a large area.

Lab findings: Mild anemia, leukocytosis, and increased sedimentation rate.

A. Cryptococcosis. Differential diagnosis: Other systemic fungal infections with C.N.S. involvement.

P. Combination of amphotericin B (see coccidioidomycosis for dosage) and flucytosine (Ancobon), 150 mg./kg./d. in 6 hourly doses, may be curative in a 6-week regimen.

Section III - Bacterial

2-26. General. Bacteria are the most common disease causing organisms. They cause a wide variety of infections that can be located anywhere on or in the body.

2-27. STREPTOCOCCAL INFECTIONS.

a. Beta-hemolytic group A streptococci are the most common cause of exudative pharyngitis, and they also cause skin infections (impetigo). Respiratory infections are transmitted by droplets; skin infections by contact. Either may be followed by suppurative and nonsuppurative (rheumatic fever, glomerulonephritis) complications. Beta-hemolytic group B streptococci are often carried in the female genital tract and thus may infect the newborn. They are a common cause of neonatal sepsis and meningitis and may be associated with respiratory distress syndrome.

b. Streptococcal sore throat (strep throat).

S. Sudden onset of fever, sore throat, severe pain on swallowing, malaise, and nausea. Children may vomit or convulse. If scarlet fever rash occurs, the skin is diffusely erythematous, with superimposed fine red papules. The rash is most intense in the groin and axillas, blanches on pressure, and may become petechial. It fades in 2-5 days, leaving a fine desquamation.

O. Tender, enlarged cervical lymph nodes; the pharynx, soft palate, and tongue are red and edematous; and there may be a purulent exudate. In scarlet fever, the face is flushed with circumoral pallor, and the tongue is coated with protrusions of enlarged red papillae (strawberry tongue). CBC showing leukocytosis with an increase in polymorphonuclear neutrophils. Smears of the exudate from the throat show streptococci. Complications of streptococcal sore throat include sinusitis, otitis media, mastoiditis, peritonsillar abscess, suppuration of cervical lymph nodes,

reheumatic fever, and glomerulonephritis.

A. Streptococcal sore throat. Differential diagnosis: Streptococcal sore throat resembles (and cannot be reliably distinguished clinically from) the pharyngitis caused by adeno-viruses, herpes viruses, and occasionally other viruses. It also is commonly confused with infectious mononucleosis, diphtheria, candidiasis, and necrotizing ulcerative gingivostomatitis.

P. Antibiotic therapy is often given without proof of streptococcal origin if fever and leukocytosis accompany a sore throat with tender cervical lymph nodes.

(1) Benzathine penicillin G 1.2 million units IM as a single dose or procaine penicillin G 300,000 units IM daily x 10 days.

(2) Penicillin V 400,000 units q.8h. x 10 days.

(3) Patients hypersensitive to penicillin may be treated with erythromycin 500 mg. q.i.d. x 10 days.

(4) General measures include aspirin and gargling with warm saline solution to relieve sore throat. Bed rest and forced fluids until the patient is afebrile.

c. Rheumatic fever. Triggered by group A beta-hemolytic streptococcus producing a first attack of rheumatic fever in 0.3 percent of untreated or inadequately treated children. If a child has rheumatic fever once, his chances of reinfection within the next 5 years are 50 percent. Usually, the clinical manifestations of an attack of rheumatic fever tend to repeat themselves in subsequent attacks. The peak period of risk for children is 5-15 years of age.

S. and O. It takes two major or one major and two minor manifestations to justify a presumptive diagnosis of rheumatic fever. Major manifestations are:

(1) Active carditis (any one of the following).

(a) Significant new murmurs that are clearly mitral or aortic insufficiency.

(b) Pericarditis (pericardial friction rub or evidence of pericardial effusion).

(c) Evidence of congestive heart failure.

(2) Polyarthritis. Two or more joints must be involved either simultaneously or in a migratory fashion.

(3) Subcutaneous nodules. Nontender and freely movable under the skin, a few millimeters to 2 cm. in diameter, most commonly found over joints, scalp, and spinal column, and usually seen only in severe cases.

(4) Erythema marginatum. Usually occurs only in severe cases and is often mistaken for other types of skin lesions. It is a macular erythematous rash with a circinate border appearing primarily on

the trunk and extremities; the face is usually not involved.

(5) Sydenham's chorea. Progressively more severe emotional instability, involuntary movements, and muscular weakness often followed by muscular incoordination and slurring of speech. Involvement is not uncommonly limited to one side. Individual attacks are self-limiting, but may last up to 3 months.

Minor manifestations of rheumatic fever are:

(1) Fever: Usually low grade but occasionally 103-104 degrees F.

(2) Polyarthralgia: Pain in two or more joints without heat, swelling, and tenderness.

(3) History: Prior history of acute rheumatic fever or recent scarlet fever.

(4) Accelerated sedimentation rate.

(5) Positive throat culture or smear for group A streptococcus. Associated findings may include abdominal, back, and precordial pain; erythema multiforme, malaise, vomiting, nontraumatic epistaxis (nose bleed), weight loss, and anemia.

In the absence of carditis, rheumatic fever lasts on the average 89 - 27 days. With carditis, rheumatic fever lasts on the average 124 - 68 days.

A. Rheumatic fever. Differential diagnosis: Other causes of carditis, arthritis, and skin lesions. Other debilitating diseases, e.g., mononucleosis.

P. Therapy is divided into short-term and long-term treatment.

(1) Short-term therapy ranges from saving the life of a patient with severe carditis to relieving joint discomfort.

(a) Streptococcal infection must be eradicated. Benzathine penicillin G, in a single IM injection 0.6-1.2 million units, depending on patient weight, or 125-250 mg. of pencillin orally q.i.d. x 10 days. Alternate is erythromycin 250 mg. orally q.i.d. x 10 days.

(b) Aspirin (in the absence of severe carditis with congestive heart failure) 100 mg./kg./d. orally divided into 4 doses. Maximum dose regardless of weight is 5,000 mg./d. (four 5 gr. aspirin tablets q.i.d.). After 1 week reduce dosage to 50 mg./kg./d. in 4 doses and continue for at least 1 month.

(c) Congestive heart failure therapy (see Chapter 1, Section IV, The Circulatory System).

(d) Corticosteroids should be used for all patients with congestive heart failure and/or carditis. Dosage: prednisone 2 mg./kg./d. x 2 weeks orally, then 1 mg./kg./d. x 1 week, begin aspirin 50 mg./kg./d. on the third week and continue for 8 weeks.

(e) Strict bed rest is not required for patients with arthritis and mild carditis. Bed-to-chair with bathroom privileges and meals at the table for patients without severe carditis is all that is required. Strict bed rest should be maintained for patients with severe carditis at least until corticosteroid therapy is completed. Both should have gradual indoor ambulation followed by modified outdoor activity after symptoms have disappeared. This should last at least 2 months and the child should not return to school while there is clear evidence of rheumatic activity.

(f) Symptomatic treatment as necessary.

(2) Long-term therapy is aimed toward those patients who had carditis and/or congestive heart failure during the clinical course of rheumatic fever. At the present, antibacterial therapy is a lifetime undertaking to prevent recurrence. Benzathine penicillin G 1.2 million units IM once a month for life, or sulfadiazine 500 mg. in a single dose daily for patients under 60 lbs and 1 gm orally daily in a single dose for patients over 60 lbs, or erythromycin 250 mg. b.i.d. orally for patients allergic to penicillin and sulfonamides.

2-28. DIPHTHERIA. See Chapter 6, Pediatrics.

2-29. MENINGITIS.

a. General considerations. Meningitis is caused by numerous organisms. Even fungal and viral infections can cause meningitis. The most common causes of bacterial meningitis are meningococcal, pneumococcal, streptococcal, staphylococcal, Haemophilus influenzae, and tubercular infections. All but tuberculous meningitis are similar in sign and symptoms and treatment.

b. Meningococcal meningitis. About 15-40 percent of the population are nasopharyngeal carriers of meningococci, but few develop the disease. Infection is transmitted by droplets.

S. High fever, chills, and headache; back, abdominal, and extremity pain; and nausea and vomiting are present. In severe cases, rapidly developing confusion, delirium, and coma occur. Twitch or frank convulsions may also be present.

O. Petechial rash of skin and mucous membranes is found in most cases. Petechiae may vary from pinhead size to large ecchymoses or even areas of skin gangrene that may later slough if the patient survives. These petechiae usually fade in 3-4 days. Neck and back stiffness with positive Kernig (sitting or lying with the thigh flexed upon the abdomen, the leg cannot be completely extended) and Brudzinski sign. (In meningitis, flexion of the neck usually results in flexion of the hip and knee. Also when passive flexion of the lower limb on one side is made, a similar movement will be seen in the opposite limb.) Shock due to the effects of endotoxin may be present and is a bad prognostic sign.

CBC shows usually marked leukocytosis early in the course of the disease. Urine may contain protein, casts, and red cells. Lumbar puncture reveals a cloudy to frankly purulent cerebrospinal fluid, with elevated pressure, increased protein, and decreased glucose content. The fluid usually contains numerous white cells and gram-negative intracellular diplococci. The absence of organisms in a gram-stained smear does not rule

out the diagnosis.

A. Meningococcal meningitis. Differential diagnosis: Other meningitides.

P. Antibacterial therapy by IV route must be started immediately. Aqueous penicillin G 24 million units/24 hours for adults and 400,000 units per kg./24 hours for children is the drug of choice. One-fourth of the dose is given rapidly IV and the rest by continuous drip. If the patient is allergic to penicillin, chloramphenicol 100 mg./kg. daily is the preferred alternate. Treatment should continue for 7-10 days by IV route. If the possibility of Haemophilus influenzae meningitis has not been ruled out, give both sodium ampicillin 300 mg./kg. daily IV (1/4 of the dose initially and the remainder in divided doses every 4 hours) and chloramphenicol (same as before) (separately, not in mixed doses). General measures include Ringer's lactate IV drip for maintenance and to prevent hypovolemic shock. Monitor vital signs closely. If patient survives the first day, the prognosis is excellent.

2-30. TYPHOID FEVER. Caused by the gram-negative rod Salmonella typhi. Infection is transmitted by consumption of contaminated food or drink. The sources of most infections are chronic carriers with persistent gallbladder or urinary tract infections. The incubation period is 5-14 days.

S. Onset is usually insidious but may be abrupt, especially in children, with chills and a sharp rise in temperature. Usually the patient develops increasing malaise, headache, cough, general body aching, sore throat, and nosebleeds. Frequently there is abdominal pain, constipation or diarrhea, and vomiting. During this period, the fever ascends in a stepladder fashion; the maximum temperature each day is slightly higher than the previous day. Temperature is generally higher in the evening than the morning. After 7-10 days the fever stabilizes and the patient becomes very sick. "Pea soup" diarrhea or severe constipation or marked abdominal distention is common. In severe cases, the patient lies motionless and unresponsive, with eyes half shut and appearing wasted and exhausted (the "typhoid state"), but can usually be aroused to carry out simple commands. If the patient survives this portion and no complications occur, he gradually improves. Fever declines in a stepladder fashion to normal in 7-10 days and with it the other symptoms gradually disappear. Relapses may occur as late as 1-2 weeks after temperature returns to normal, but they are usually milder than the original infection.

O. Early physical findings are slight. Later, splenomegaly, abdominal distension and tenderness, relative bradycardia, dicrotic (double wave) pulse, and occasionally systolic murmur and gallop rhythm appear. During the second week of the disease, a rash (rose spots) appears principally on the trunk (pink papules 2-3 mm. in diameter that fade on pressure) and disappears over a period of 3-4 days. Leukopenia and moderate anemia are the rule. The organism may be found in the stool after the first week or possibly may be found in the urine. Blood, stool, or urine cultures are usually positive after the first week.

A. Typhoid fever. Differential diagnosis: Tuberculosis, viral pneumonia, psittacosis, infective endocarditis, brucellosis, or Q fever.

P. Active immunization should be provided for household contacts of typhoid carrier, travelers to endemic areas, and during epidemic outbreaks. Food and water should be protected and waste should be

adequately disposed of. Specific measures include ampicillin 100 mg./kg. daily IV or 4-250 mg. capsules every 4 hours orally, or chloramphenicol 1 gm q.6h. orally or IV until fever disappears, then 500 mg. q.6h. for 2 weeks. IV fluids may be necessary to supplement oral intake and maintain urine output; 100 mg. hydrocortisone q.8h. may help severely toxic patients. Strict stool and urine isolation techniques must be observed. Treatment of carriers is usually ineffective, but a trial of ampicillin first then chloramphenicol should be tried. Cholecystectomy may be effective.

2-31. CHOLERA. An acute diarrheal disease caused by vibrio cholerae or related vibrios. The infection is caused by ingestion of food or drink contaminated by feces from cases or carriers. Cholera is fatal in 50 percent of all untreated patients. The incubation period is 1-5 days, but only a small minority of those exposed become ill.

S. Typical cases have an explosive onset of frequent, watery stools that soon lose all fecal appearance and odor. The stool is grayish, turbid, and liquid, containing degenerated epithelium cells and mucus, but rarely gross pus or blood. The patient can lose up to 1 liter per hour. Vomiting may also occur early.

O. The patient rapidly becomes dehydrated and acidotic, with sunken eyes, hypotension, subnormal temperature, rapid and shallow breathing, muscle cramps, oliguria, shock, and coma. Hematocrit will rise sharply due to loss of plasma resulting in a concentration of red cells. The vibrios can easily be cultured from the stool and might possibly be found using Gram's stain of stool specimens.

A. Cholera. Differential diagnosis: Other causes of severe diarrhea, particularly those due to shigellae, viruses, E. coli enterotoxins and protozoa in endemic areas.

P. Water and electrolyte loss must be restored promptly and continuously, and acidosis must be corrected. Diarrheal loss and hemoconcentration must be measured continuously. In moderately ill patients, it may be possible to provide replacement by oral fluids given in the same volume as that lost. (See Chapter 18, IV Therapy.) Those unable to take fluid by mouth require IV fluid replacement. Tetracycline 500 mg. q.6h. x 3-5 days should also be given. Effective decontamination of excreta is essential, but strict isolation of patients is unnecessary and quarantine is undesirable.

Prevention: Cholera vaccine gives only limited protection and is of no value in controling outbreaks. In endemic areas, all water, other drinks, food, and utensils must be boiled or avoided.

2-32. BACILLARY DYSENTERY. See Chapter 1, Section V, Digestive System.

2-33. GAS GANGRENE. Produced by entry of one of several clostridia into devitalized tissues. These gram-positive rods grow and produce toxins under anaerobic conditions.

S. Onset usually sudden with rapidly increasing pain in the affected area. The wound becomes swollen and the surrounding skin is pale. This is followed by a discharge of a brown to blood-tinged, serous, foul-smelling fluid from the wound. As the disease advances, the surrounding tissue changes from pale to dusky and finally becomes deeply

discolored, with coalescent, red, fluid-filled vesicles. In the last stages of the disease, severe prostration, stupor, delirium, and coma occur.

O. The increasing pain is accompanied by a fall in blood pressure. Temperature may be elevated, but not proportionate to the severity of infection. Gas may be palpable in the tissues. In clostridial sepsis, hemolysis and jaundice are common, often complicated by renal failure. Gram's stain of the exudate should show the organism and is a valuable clue, but the clinical picture must be present to make the diagnosis.

A. Gas gangrene. Differential diagnosis: Other infections that cause gas formation, e.g., enterobacter, Escherichia, and mixed anaerobic infections including Bacteroides and Peptostreptococcus.

P. Antibiotic therapy in the form of penicillin, chloramphenicol, or chlortetracycline should be started promptly in heroic doses. Massive debridement of all involved tissue. Frequently gas in the subcutaneous tissue or fascial planes extends beyond the area of muscle involvement. In such cases the overlying skin should be incised widely and the necrotic fascia excised. Careful and complete debridement of all wounds and good wound care will eliminate almost all chance for gangrene to develop.

2-34. TETANUS. An acute central nervous system intoxication caused by toxins produced by the slender, spore-forming, gram-positive anaerobic bacillus Clostridium tetani that are found mainly in the soil and in the feces of animals and humans and that enter the body by wound contamination. In the newborn, infection often enters through the umbilical stump. Incubation period is 5-15 days.

S. Occasionally, the first symptom is pain and tingling at the wound site followed by spasticity of the nearby muscle groups; this may be all that happens. Usually the presenting symptoms are stiffness of the jaw, neck stiffness, difficulty in swallowing, and irritability. Hyperreflexia develops later, with spasms of the jaw muscles (trismus) or facial muscles and rigidity and spasm of muscles of the abdomen, back, and neck.

O. Painful tonic convulsions caused by minor stimuli (any loud noise, etc.) are common. The patient is awake and alert during the entire course of the illness. During convulsions, the glottis and the respiratory muscles go into spasm so that the patient is unable to breath, and cyanosis and asphyxia may ensue. Temperature is only slightly elevated. Although there is usually a leukocytosis, the diagnosis of tetanus is made clinically.

A. Tetanus. Differential diagnosis: Other types of acute C.N.S. infections and strychnine poisoning should also be considered.

P. Active immunization with tetanus toxoid should be universal. Adequate debridement of wounds and a booster tetanus immunization is the most important preventive measure. Specific treatment: Give tetanus immune globulin (human) 5,000 units IM. If not available, test for sensitivity to horse serum and give 100,000 units tetanus antitoxin IV. Place patient at bed rest and minimize stimulation. Sedation and anticonvulsant therapy is essential. Penicillin is of value but should not

be substituted for antitoxin. IV fluids as necessary. Tracheostomy and/or assisted respiration may be required. Mortality rate is about 40 percent higher in children and very old people.

2-35. BOTULISM. See Chapter 1, Section V, Digestive System.

2-36. ANTHRAX. A disease of sheep, cattle, horses, goats, and swine caused by Bacillus anthracis, a gram-positive spore-forming aerobe transmitted to humans by entry through broken skin mucous membranes or by inhalation. Uncommon, but most apt to occur in farmers, veterinarians, and tannery and wool workers.

S. Cutaneous anthrax. An erythematous papule appears on the exposed area of skin and becomes vesicular with a purple to black center. The area around the lesion is swollen or edematous and surrounded by vesicles. The center finally forms a necrotic eschar and sloughs. Malaise, headache, nausea, and vomiting may be present.

Pulmonary anthrax (woolsorter's disease): Fever, malaise, headache, labored or difficult breathing (dyspnea), and cough.

O. Cutaneous anthrax. Regional adenopathy and variable fever may be present. After eschar sloughs, sepsis may occur at times manifested by shock, cyanosis, sweating, and collapse. Hemorrhagic meningitis may occur. Anthrax sepsis may occur without a skin lesion.

Pulmonary anthrax: Congestion of the nose, throat, and larynx; and auscultatory or X ray signs of pneumonia.

Lab findings: White count may be elevated or low. Smears of skin lesions show gram-positive encapsulated rods.

A. Anthrax. Differential diagnosis: Rarely gram-positive spore-forming aerobic bacilli other than B. anthracis can produce similar disease.

P. Penicillin G 10 million units IV daily; or in mild localized cases tetracycline 500 mg. q.6h. x 10 days.

2-37. TULAREMIA. An infection of wild rodents, particularly rabbits and muskrats, transmitted to humans by contact with animal tissue (e.g., trapping and skinning rabbits, etc.), by the bite of certain ticks and biting flies, by eating infected undercooked meat, or by drinking contaminated water. Incubation period is 2-10 days.

S. Fever, headache, and nausea begin suddenly, and a papule develops at the site of inoculation and soon ulcerates. Lesion may be on the skin of an extremity or in the eye. If ingested, it may manifest as gastroenteritis, stupor, and delirium. There may be rashes, generalized aches, and prostration.

O. Regional lymph nodes become enlarged and tender and may suppurate (to form pus). In any type of involvement, the spleen may be enlarged. Asymptomatic infection is not rare. W.B.C. may be slightly elevated or normal. Cultures of blood, lesion, or lymph node aspirate require special culture media. There is a delayed type skin test (read in 48 hrs) that can be used.

A. Tularemia. Differential diagnosis: Rickettsial and meningococcal infections, cat scratch fever, infectious mono, and various pneumonias and fungal diseases.

P. Streptomycin 500 mg. q.6-8h. IM, together with tetracycline 500 mg. q.6h. until 5 days after patient is afebrile. Adequate fluid intake is essential and O_2 therapy may be necessary. Drainage of fluctuant lymph nodes may be needed and is safe after proper antibiotic therapy for several days.

2-38. PLAGUE. An infection of wild rodents with Pasteurella pestis, a small gram-negative rod. Transmitted from rodent to rodent and to humans by the bites of fleas. If a plague victim develops pneumonia, the infection can be transmitted by droplets and an epidemic may start. The incubation period is 2-10 days.

S. Usually sudden onset with high fever, malaise, intense headache, and generalized muscular ache. The patient appears profoundly ill and very anxious. Delirium may ensue. With systemic spread, the patient may rapidly become severely septic and comatose with purpuric spots (black plague) appearing on the skin.

O. Tachycardia is usually noted with onset of symptoms. If pneumonia develops, tachypnea, productive cough, blood-tinged sputum, and cyanosis also occur. Meningeal signs may develop; a pustule or ulcer at the site of inoculation and signs of lymphangitis may occur. Axillary, inguinal, or cervical lymph nodes become enlarged and tender and may eventually suppurate and drain. Primary plague pneumonia from droplets coughed by another patient with plague pneumonia is a fulminant pneumonitis with bloody, frothy sputum and sepsis. It is usually fatal unless treatment is started within a few hours of onset.

Lab findings: W.B.C. 12-20,000; the plague bacillus may be found in smears from aspirates of buboes using Gram's stain.

A. Plague. Differential diagnosis: Lymphadenitis accompanying staph or strep infections of an extremity, lymphogranuloma venereum, syphilis, or tularemia. Systemic manifestations resemble those of enteric or rickettsial fevers, malaria, or flu.

P. Therapy must be started promptly when plague is suspected. Streptomycin 1 gm. IM q.6h. x 2 days then 500 mg. q.6-8h. tetracycline 500 mg. q.6h. is given at the same time. IV fluids, pressor drugs, oxygen, and tracheostomy are used as required.

2-39. LEPROSY (Hansen's disease). A chronic infectious disease caused by the acid-fast rod Mycobacterium leprae. Mode of transmission is unknown; probably involves prolonged exposure in childhood; adults rarely become infected (e.g., by tattooing). Endemic in tropical and subtropical Asia, Africa, Central and South America, the Pacific regions and southern USA.

S. & O. Onset is insidious, lesions involve skin, superficial nerves, nose, pharynx, larynx, eyes, and testicles. May occur as pale anesthetic macular lesions 1-10 cm. in diameter, discrete erythematous infiltrated nodules 1-5 cm. in diameter, or diffuse skin infiltration. Neurologic disturbances are manifested by nerve infiltration and thickening, with resultant anesthesia, neuritis, paresthesia, trophic ulcers, bone reabsorption, and shortening of the digits. In untreated

cases, the disfigurement may be extreme. Leprosy is clinically and by laboratory tests divided into two types: lepromatous and tuberculoid. In the lepromatous type, the course is progressive and malignant with abundant acid-fast bacilli in the skin lesion and a negative lepromin skin test. The tuberculoid type is benign and nonprogressive with severe asymmetrical nerve involvement of sudden onset with few bacilli in the lesions and a positive lepromin skin test. Eye involvement (keratitis and iridocyclitis), nasal ulcers, nose bleeds, anemia, and lymphadenopathy may occur.

A. Leprosy. Differential diagnosis: Skin lesions resemble those of lupus erythematosus, sarcoidosis, syphilis, erythema nodosum, erythema multiforme, and vitiligo.

P. Untreated lepromatous leprosy is progressive and fatal in 10-20 years. In tuberculoid leprosy, spontaneous recovery usually occurs in 1-3 years; however, it may produce crippling deformities. With treatment, lepromatous leprosy regresses slowly (over a period of 3-8 years). Recovery from tuberculoid leprosy is more rapid. Return of symptoms is always possible and it is safe to assume that the bacilli are never totally eradicated. The treatment of leprosy is very complicated, requiring numerous drugs (dapsone, amithiozone, thalidomide, rifampin, clofazimine and corticosteroids) in increasing doses over a period of years or indefinitely. All of this necessitates evacuation to a hospital or area better equipped to handle these cases.

2-40. TUBERCULOSIS. Caused by acid-fast Mycobacterium tuberculosis and characterized by the formation of tubercles in the lung. Occurs almost exclusively by inhalation of airborne droplets from the cough of a person with tubercle bacilli in the sputum. Ingestion of milk containing tubercle bacilli (unpasteurized) is another mode of transmission. The danger of infection from contaminated surfaces is negligible. The first or primary infection is usually a self-limiting disease in children that escapes detection. A few patients develop progressive primary tuberculosis. Another small percentage develop progressive pulmonary disease. Primary infections occurring in adults may evolve into progressive pulmonary disease without the characteristic changes of primary disease seen in children. Most people who are infected at any age do not develop the disease. Malnutrition, diabetes, measles, chronic corticosteroid treatment, silicosis, and general debility favor progression of infection into progressive pulmonary disease.

S. Symptoms may be absent or mild and nonspecific in the presence of active disease. The most frequent symptoms, when present, are cough, malaise, easy fatigability, weight loss, low-grade afternoon fever, night sweat, and pleuritic pain. Cough, when present, has no specific characteristics. Patients with pulmonary tuberculosis occasionally present with symptoms due to extra pulmonary complications such as laryngeal, renal, intestinal, or C.N.S. involvement.

O. Pulmonary signs may be difficult to elicit even in the presence of active disease. Fine persistent rales over the upper lobes may be found. These are best heard after a slight cough. Advanced disease may lead to retraction of the chest wall, deviation of the trachea, wheezes, rales, and signs of pulmonary consolidation. Pulmonary TB cannot be ruled out by physical examination only. A chest X ray is the minimum diagnostic requirement. Lab findings: Sputum smears are positive when bacteria count is high but should be confirmed with culture. Tine test may be used for

screening, but PPD 0.1 cc. 1.0 is more accurate. These tests are only for screening of patients, not for diagnostic purposes. Patients with positive skin tests should have chest X rays.

A. Pulmonary tuberculosis. Differential diagnosis: TB can mimic almost any pulmonary disease such as bacterial or viral pneumonias, lung abscess, pulmonary mycoses, bronchogenic carcinoma, sarcoidosis, and "atypical" (nontuberculosis) mycobacterial infections. Negative tine or PPD test make diagnosis of TB very unlikely.

P. Prevention: Patients with active TB should be isolated during the first 2 weeks of treatment and taught to cover their mouth and nose with disposable tissue during coughing. Close contacts must have skin test and if positive, chest X rays. If negative they should be retested in 2 months. If contact is positive and chest X ray is negative, they should receive isoniazid treatment for 1 year. Infants and children who are in close contact should be given isoniazid even if skin tests are negative, but their treatment can be discontinued if the skin test is still negative 3 months after exposure is discontinued. Persons who convert from negative to positive within 2 years who have negative X rays should receive isoniazid for 1 year. Positive reactors with negative X rays with high risk factors (e.g., prolonged corticosteroid therapy for other diseases, Hodgkin's disease, leukemia, diabetes, and silicosis) should receive isoniazid for 1 year. Preventive treatment with isoniazid consists of 300 mg. daily (10 mg./kg. daily for children) for 1 year.

Treatment for active TB

Drug	Adult Dose	Comments
Isoniazid (NH)	5-10 mg./kg. daily orally	With the sole exception of preventive treatment, this should be used only in combination with other drugs.
and		
Streptomycin	1 gm IM daily or twice weekly	
and		
ethambutol	15 mg./kg. daily orally	
or		
Aminosalicylic acid(PAS)	4-5 gm orally t.i.d. after meals	Use only when ethambutol is not available
or Isoniazid	same as above	
and		
Rifampin	600 mg. daily orally	

Most authorities advise a minimum of 12 months of treatment after it has been shown X ray lesions are stable, no cavitation is present, and cultures are negative (control is usually achieved in 2-3 months).

Severe cases may require surgery. Because of the complications, special tests, and prolonged treatment, it is best to evacuate these patients if possible.

Section IV - Viral

2-41. GENERAL. Viruses are extremely small organisms that cannot be seen under a normal microscope. Viruses cause a variety of important infectious diseases; among these are the common cold, yellow fever, hepatitis, and the majority of the infections of the upper respiratory tract.

2-42. MEASLES (Rubeola). An acute systemic viral infection transmitted by inhalation of infective droplets. One attack confers permanent immunity. Communicability is greatest during the preemptive stage, but continues as long as the rash remains. Incubation period is 10-14 days.

S. Fever often as high as 104-105 degrees F., coryza (nasal obstruction, sneezing, sore throat), persistent and nonproductive cough, malaise (may be marked), and conjunctivitis with redness, swelling, photophobia, and discharge. Koplik's spots (small red spots with bluish-white centers on the oral mucosa and often on the inner conjunctival folds and vaginal mucous membrane) appear about 2 days before the rash and last 1-4 days. Rash usually appears first on the face and behind the ears 4 days after the onset of symptoms.

O. The pharynx is red and a yellowish exudate may appear on the tonsils. The tongue is coated in the center and the tip and margins are red. Moderate generalized lymphadenopathy is common; splenomegaly occurs occasionally. The initial lesions of the rash are pinhead-sized papules that coalesce to form the brick-red irregular blotchy maculopapular rash and that may further coalesce, in severe cases, to form an almost uniform erythema on some areas of the body. By the second day, the rash begins to coalesce on the face as it appears on the trunk. On the third day, the rash begins to coalesce on the trunk as it appears on the extremities and begins to fade on the face. Thereafter, it fades in the order of its appearance. Hyperpigmentation remains in fair-skinned individuals and severe cases.

A typical measles is a rarely occurring syndrome in children or adults who have received inactive or live measles vaccine and as a result have developed hypersensitivity rather than protective immunity. When infected with mild measles virus, they develop high fever, unusual rashes (papular, hemorrhagic), arthralgias, and pneumonitis, often with severe illness and a substantial mortality rate. Leukopenia is usually present unless there is a secondary bacterial infection. Complications include encephalitis, bronchopneumonia or bronchiolitis, and secondary bacteria infections.

A. Measles. Differential diagnosis: Rubella, chickenpox, smallpox, infectious mononucleosis, enterovirus infections, and drug eruptions.

P. Isolate the patient for the week following onset of rash and keep at bed rest until afebrile. Give aspirin, saline eye sponges, vasoconstrictor nose drops, and sedative cough mixture as necessary; treat complications as needed.

Prevention: Multiple virus vaccines are available (measles,

mumps, rubella) and can be used for prevention in the first 24 hours after exposure.

2-43. RUBELLA (German measles). A systemic viral infection transmitted by inhalation of infective droplets. Only moderately communicable. One attack usually confers permanent immunity. Disease can be transmitted for 1 week before rash appears. Incubation period is 14-21 days.

S. Fever and malaise, usually mild, with tender suboccipital adenitis may precede eruption by 1 week. Symptoms of mild head cold may be present. Joint pains occur in 25 percent of adult cases. Symptoms usually subside in about 7 days. A fine, pink maculopapular rash appears on face, trunk, and extremities in rapid progression, usually lasting one day in each area. Rubella without the rash is as common as with the rash.

O. Posterior cervical and postauricular lymphadenopathy is very common. Redness of the palate and throat, sometimes blotchy, may be noted. Diagnosis can be suspected when there is epidemiologic evidence of rubella in the area. CBC may show leukopenia early and may be followed by an increase in plasma cells.

Complications: In pregnancy, risk to the fetus is high in the first trimester and continues into the second trimester. An infant acquiring rubella in uterus may be normal at birth, but more likely will have a wide variety of manifestations including growth retardation, maculopapular rash, thrombocytopenia (abnormal decrease in number of blood platelets), cataracts, deafness, congenital heart defects, organomegaly (enlargement of organs), and many other manifestations.

A. Rubella. Differential diagnosis: Infectious mononucleosis, echovirus infections, and coxsackievirus infections.

P. Symptomatic treatment: Aspirin, fluids, rest. Rubella is mild and rarely lasts more than 3-4 days. Congenital rubella has high mortality rate and congenital defects require years of medical and surgical management.

Prevention: Live attenuated rubella virus vaccine offers complete protection. Birth control must be practiced by women for at least 3 months after the use of the vaccine.

2-43. HERPES ZOSTER (Shingles). See Chapter 1, Section I, Integumentary System.

2-44. VARICELLA (Chickenpox). See Chapter 6, Pediatrics.

2-45. VARIOLA (Smallpox). An acute, contagious, systemic viral disease. Transmitted by direct contact with infected patient or handling of contaminated articles. Thought to be eradicated worldwide as of 1979 through the efforts of the W.H.O. using smallpox vaccination. Incubation period is 7-17 days, usually 10-12 days to onset of illness, and 2-4 more days to onset of rash.

S. Abrupt onset with chills, headaches (usually frontal), intense lumbar pain, fever (up to 104 degrees F. or higher), nausea, or more frequently vomiting. Fever falls sharply on evening of third or morning of fourth day, often to normal, and eruption appears as temperature falls. Normally, rash starts first on face and soon after, on extremities

and to lesser extent on trunk.

O. Rash is of the same character in any general location, in this respect, differing markedly from rash of chickenpox. Rash is initially macules; about the second day they become papules that become vesicles from the third to fifth day. The vesicles increase in size and by the seventh to eighth day become well developed pustules. Finally scabs form. These scabs fall off in about 3 or 4 weeks. The lesions of smallpox are deep-seated with a thick protective covering and do not rupture easily. The lesion does not collapse when pricked by a needle. Recovery in untreated cases is doubtful.

A. Smallpox. Differential diagnosis: Chickenpox, herpes zoster.

P. Absolute isolation of patient in a screened but well ventilated room until all scabs and crusts have disappeared. Symptomatic treatment is forced fluids, aspirin. Do not use ointments on the skin before the drying up is complete as it increases the likelihood of abscess formation. Close attention must be given to the eyes; if necessary, they may be irrigated several times a day with 2% sodium bicarbonate solution. Weak iodine or weak permanganate baths can be used on the skin for cleansing and as a deodorant.

Successful vaccination against smallpox is an absolute preventive, but this should be repeated during an epidemic or when an individual has been exposed.

2-46. MUMPS (Endemic parotitis). See Chapter 6, Pediatrics.

2-47. POLIOMYELITIS. Three antigenically distinct types are recognized, with no cross immunity between them. Probably acquired by respiratory droplet route or by ingestion. Incubation period is 5-35 days (usually 7-14 days). Infectivity is maximal during the first week. Since the introduction of effective vaccine, poliomyelitis has become rare in the developed areas of the world.

S. and O.

(1) Abortive poliomyelitis: Headache, fever, vomiting, diarrhea, constipation, and sore throat.

(2) Nonparalytic poliomyelitis: Headache; neck, back, and extremity pain; lethargy; and irritability are present. Muscle spasm in extensors of neck and back is always present and usually present in the hamstring muscles. Muscle spasm is variably present in other muscles. Spasm may be seen when patient is at rest or elicited by putting each muscle through the maximum range of motion. Resistance to neck flexion is noted after a varying range of free flexion. Straight leg raising is less than 90 degrees. The muscles may be tender to palpation.

(3) Paralytic poliomyelitis: May occur at any time during the febrile (feverish) period. Symptoms of nonparalytic poliomyelitis plus tremor and muscle weakness. Paresthesia and urinary retention are noted occasionally. Constipation and abdominal distention are common. Paralytic poliomyelitis may be divided into two forms that may coexist. Spinal poliomyelitis (weakness of muscles supplied by spinal nerves) and bulbar poliomyelitis (weakness of muscles supplied by cranial nerves and variable

"encephalitis" symptoms). Other symptoms include diplopia (double vision) (uncommon), facial weakness, dysphasia (speech impairment), nasal voice, weakness of the sternocleidomastoid and trapezius muscles (difficulty in chewing, inability to swallow or expel saliva), and regurgitation of fluids through the nose. The most life threatening aspect is respiratory paralysis. Paralysis may quickly become maximal or progress over several days until temperature becomes normal. Deep tendon reflexes are diminished or lost, often asymmetrically. Lethargy or coma may be due to encephalitis or hypoxia, most often caused by hypoventilation.

Lab findings: W.B.C. may be normal or slightly elevated.

A. Poliomyelitis. Differential diagnosis: Other forms of aseptic meningitis due to other enterovirus (muscle tenderness and spasm, if present, point to polio) is very difficult to distinguish from polio. Acute infectious polyneuritis (Guillain-Barre) and tick bite paralysis may initially resemble poliomyelitis.

P. Symptomatic: Maintain comfortable but changing positions on a firm mattress with footboard, sponge rubber pads or rolls, sandbags, and light splints. Hotpacks for the extremities and analgesic drugs usually control muscle spasm and pain. IV therapy may be needed to prevent dehydration. Indwelling catheter may be required. Intestinal hypoactivity may lead to fecal impaction. Cases of bulbar poliomyelitis involving respiratory muscles require intensive care. Attention must be focused on maintaining a clear airway, handling secretions, preventing respiratory infections, and maintaining adequate ventilation. Assisted ventilation and tracheostomy are often required.

Prevention of deformities is best accomplished by avoiding active exercise during febrile period and substituting passive range of motion exercises and frequent changes of position. As soon as fever subsides, early mobilization and active exercise should be started. Early bracing and splinting for therapeutic purposes are recommended.

Prevention: Oral live virus vaccine (Sabin), the trivalent form is preferable for immunizing children and infants. Adults who are exposed to poliomyelitis or plan to travel in endemic areas should receive the oral vaccine also.

2-48. DENGUE (Breakbone fever, dandy fever). Viral disease transmitted by Aedes mosquito. Occurs only in active mosquito season (warm weather). Incubation period 3-15 days (usually 5-8 days).

S. Sudden onset of high fever, chilliness, severe aching (breakbone) of the head, back, and extremities, accompanied by sore throat, prostration, and depression. Initial febrile phase lasts 3-4 days, usually followed by remission of a few hours to 2 days. A rash appears in 80 percent of cases during remission or during second febrile phase that lasts 1-2 days and is accompanied by similar but milder symptoms.

O. May be conjunctival redness and flushing or blotching of the skin. Rash may be scarlatiniform, morbilliform, macropapular, or petechial, appearing first on dorsum of hands and feet and spreads to the arms, legs, trunk, and neck, but rarely to the face. Rash lasts 2 hours to several days and may be followed by peeling. Petechial rashes and gastrointestinal hemorrhages occur in a high portion of cases in Southeast Asia.

Lab findings: Leukopenia is characteristic.

A. Dengue. Differential diagnosis: Before the rash appears, it is difficult to distinguish from malaria, yellow fever, or influenza.

P. Symptomatic treatment: Treat shock, give salicylates as required, forced fluids, gradual restoration of activity during prolonged convalescence.

Prevention: Mosquito control. An effective vaccine has been developed but has not been produced commercially.

2-49. COLORADO TICK FEVER. An acute viral infection transmitted by tick bites, limited to western USA and most prevalent during tick season (March to August). Incubation period 3-6 days.

S. Abrupt onset of 102-105 degree F. fever, sometimes with chills. Severe myalgia, headache, photophobia, anorexia, nausea, vomiting, and generalized weakness.

O. Abnormal findings are limited to an occasional faint rash. Fever lasts 3 days followed by remission of 2-3 days, and then by full recurrence of symptoms for 3-4 days. Occasionally, there may be 2-3 bouts of fever. Lab findings: Leukopenia (2,000-3,000 W.B.C. with a shift to the left.

A. Colorado tick fever. Differential diagnosis: Influenza, Rocky Mountain spotted fever, and other acute leukopenic fevers.

P. Symptomatic treatment: Aspirin or codeine may be given for pain.

2-50. RABIES. See Chapter 12, Bites.

2-51. YELLOW FEVER. Transmitted by Aedes and jungle mosquitoes. Endemic to Africa and South America. Incubation period is 3-6 days.

S. Mild form: Malaise, headache, fever, retro-orbital pain, nausea, vomiting, and photophobia. Severe form: Same symptoms with sudden onset and then severe pains throughout the body, extreme prostration, bleeding into the skin and from mucous membranes, "coffee ground" vomitus, and jaundice, followed by a period of calm on about the third day when the temperature returns to normal. Then fever returns, bleeding, and later delirium.

O. Mild form: Bradycardia may be present. Severe form: Tachycardia, oliguria, erythematous face, and conjunctival redness during congestive phase. After the period of calm; bradycardia, hypotention, jaundice, and hemorrhages (gastrointestinal tract, bladder, nose, mouth, subcutaneous).

Lab findings: Proteinuria sometimes as high as 5-6 gm/L. and disappears with recovery; hematuria and leukopenia occurs, although it may not be present at the onset.

A. Yellow fever. Differential diagnosis: Mild form is difficult to distinguish from hepatitis, leptospirosis, and other forms of jaundice on clinical evidence alone.

P. Symptomatic treatment: Liquid diet, limiting food to high-carbohydrate, high-protein liquids as tolerated; IV glucose and normal saline as required; analgesics and sedatives as required; and saline enemas for constipation.

Prevention: Mosquito control and live virus vaccine for persons living in or traveling to endemic areas.

Prognosis: Mortality is high in severe form, with death occurring most commonly between the sixth and ninth days. In survivors, temperature returns to normal by seventh or eighth day.

2-52. INFLUENZA. See Chapter 1, Section IX, Eye, Ear, Nose, and Throat.

2-53. VIRAL HEPATITIS.

a. Hepatitis A ("infectious" or short incubation period hepatitis) is a generalized viral infection in which liver involvement dominates the clinical picture. It may occur sporadically or in epidemics. Transmission is usually by fecal-oral route; however, it may be transmitted (rarely) by contaminated needle stick or transfusion. There is no known carrier state with hepatitis A.

b. Hepatitis B ("serum" or long incubation period hepatitis) usually transmitted by inoculation of infected blood or blood products but can be spread by oral or sexual contact. Fecal-oral transmission has also been documented. Approximately 5-10 percent of infected individuals become carriers. The incubation period is 6 weeks to 6 months. The clinical picture is similar in Type A and B hepatitis but in Type B, the onset tends to be more insidious.

S. Clinical picture is extremely variable from asymptomatic infection without jaundice to a fulminating disease and death in a few days.

Prodromal phase: Onset varies from abrupt to insidious with general malaise, myalgia, arthralgia, easy fatigability, upper respiratory symptoms (nasal discharge, pharyngitis), and severe anorexia. Nausea and vomiting are common and diarrhea or constipation may occur. Fever usually present but rarely more than 103.1 degrees F. Return of temperature to normal often coincides with onset of jaundice. Chills or chilliness may mark an acute onset. Abdominal pain usually mild and constant in upper right quadrant or right epigastrium often aggravated by jarring or exertion. A distaste for smoking paralleling anorexia may occur early.

Icteric (jaundice) phase: Usually occurs after 5-10 days but may appear at same time as initial symptoms. There is often an intensification of prodromal symptoms with onset of jaundice. Some patients never develop jaundice.

Convalescent phase: Gradual improvement over a 3-16 week period. Most patients recover fully.

O. Hepatomegaly: Rarely marked - present in over half of cases. Liver tenderness is usually present. Splenomegaly is present in 15 percent of cases, and soft enlarged lymph nodes, especially in cervical or epitrochlear area, may occur. Signs of general toxemia vary from minimal to severe.

Lab findings: W.B.C. is normal to low (abnormal or "atypical" lymphocytes may suggest mononucleosis; mono spot test may be positive). Mild proteinuria is common and bilirubinuria often precedes jaundice.

A. Hepatitis. Differential diagnosis: Infectious mononucleosis, cytomegalic inclusion, leptospirosis, secondary syphilis, Q fever, and drug-induced liver disease. Distinguish prodromal phase from influenza, URI, and prodromal stages of the exanthematous diseases. In obstructive phase, rule out other obstructive lesions such as choledocholithiasis.

P. Symptomatic treatment: Bed rest at patient's option, forced fluids (or IV 10% dextrose if nausea and vomiting are significant problems), avoid morphine sulfate, drugs that have to be broken down by the liver, and hepatotoxic agents. Steroids have no value in hepatitis treatment. Patients should avoid strenuous exercise and alcohol. Strict isolation is not necessary, but handwashing after bowel movements is required. Thorough handwashing after handling contaminated utensils, bedding, or clothing is essential. Disinfection of feces is necessary when waterborne sewage disposal is not available. Give 5 cc. of gamma globulin (GG) to all close contacts of infected patients.

2-54. INFECTIOUS MONONUCLEOSIS. An acute infectious disease due to EB herpes virus. Universal in distribution and may occur at any age but usually occurs between ages of 10-35, either in epidemic form or sporadic cases. Probably transmitted by respiratory droplets. Incubation period is probably 5-15 days.

S. Symptoms are varied in type and severity. Fever, sore throat, and toxic symptoms (malaise, anorexia, and myalgia) occur frequently in early phase of the illness. A macular to maculopapular or occasionally petechial rash occurs in less than 50 percent of cases. Exudative pharyngitis, tonsillitis, or gingivitis may occur. Common manifestations are easy fatigability, nausea, jaundice (from hepatic involvement), headache, neck stiffness, photophobia, neuritis, and occasionally even Guillain-Barre syndrome (see Chapter 1, Section VII, Nervous System) (from C.N.S. involvement), chest pains, dyspnea, and cough (from pulmonary involvement).

O. Discrete, nonsuppurative, slightly painful, moderately enlarged lymph nodes especially those of the posterior cervical chain. Splenomegaly in 50 percent of cases. Hepatomegaly is common; and myocardial involvement with arrhythmias and tachycardia.

Lab Findings: Initially there is a granulocytopenia (decrease in number of neutrophils, basophils, and eosinophils) followed within 1 week by a lymphocytic leukocytosis (increase in lymphocytes and total number of white cells). Many lymphocytes are atypical, i.e., larger than normal adult lymphocytes, stain more darkly, and frequently show vacuolization (look like small air bubbles) of the cytoplasm and nucleus. Mononucleosis spot test will be positive.

A. Mononucleosis. Differential diagnosis: Hepatitis, streptococcal tonsillitis, diphtheria, rubella, toxoplasmosis, and, with C.N.S. involvement, meningitis.

P. Symptomatic treatment: Patient requires support and reassurance because of frequent feeling of lassitude and duration of

symptoms. If diagnosis is well established, a short course of corticosteroids can give symptomatic relief to severely ill patients. In uncomplicated cases, the fever disappears in 10 days and the lymphadenopathy and splenomegaly in 4 weeks. In some cases the illness may linger for 2-3 months, especially the lassitude and easy fatigability.

Section V - Rickettsial and Spirochetal

2-55. RICKETTSIA. Are between viruses and bacteria in size and are usually transmitted by arthropods (lice, fleas, ticks, mites), which serve as vectors.

a. Epidemic louse-borne typhus. Due to infection with Rickettsia prowazekii, a parasite of the body louse that ultimately kills the louse. Transmission occurs when a louse sucks blood from an infected individual; the louse then sucks blood from another individual and defecates at the same time; then the individual in scratching the bite rubs the infected feces into the bite wound. Dry, infectious louse feces may also be inhaled and result in human infection.

An individual who recovers from clinical or subclinical typhus may carry R. prowazekii in his lymphoid tissue for many years and even have a recurrence of typhus without exposure to lice or the infectious agent. During such a recurrence, he can serve as a source of infection for lice.

S. Prodromal malaise, cough, headache, and chest pains after 10-14 day incubation period, followed by an abrupt onset of chills, high fever, and prostration, with influenza-like symptoms, progressing to delirium and stupor. The fever is unremitting for many days, and the headache is intractably severe.

O. Conjunctivitis, flushed face, rales at lung bases, and often splenomegaly, a macular rash (that soon becomes papular) appears first in the axillas and spreads over the trunk and then the extremities. Rarely involves the face, palms, or soles. The rash becomes hemorrhagic and hypotension becomes marked in severely ill patients. There may be renal insufficiency, stupor, and delirium. Improvement begins in 13-16 days after onset with rapid drop of fever in spontaneous recovery.

Lab findings: W.B.C. is variable. Proteinuria and hematuria occur commonly.

A. Epidemic louse-borne typhus. Differential diagnosis: Murine typhus.

P. Tetracycline 250-500 mg. q.i.d. x 10 days or Vibramycin 200 mg. the first day followed by 100 mg. a day x 10 days. Alternate is chloramphenicol. Prevention consists of louse control with insecticides, particularly clothing and bedding, and frequent bathing. Immunization provides good protection against the severe disease but does not prevent infection or mild disease.

b. Endemic flea-borne typhus (murine typhus). Caused by Rickettsia typhi (R. mooseri), a parasite of rats. Transmitted to humans by bite from an infected flea that releases infected feces while sucking blood.

S. and O. Flea typhus resembles recurrent epidemic (Brill's disease) in that it has a gradual onset, fever and rash are of shorter

duration (6-13 days), and the symptoms are less severe. The rash is maculopapular mainly on the chest and fades fairly rapidly. Even without antibiotics it is a mild disease.

A. Murine typhus. Differential diagnosis: Recurrent epidemic typhus.

P. Antibiotic therapy (same as for epidemic louse-borne typhus).

Prevention: Control fleas and rats. Apply insecticides to rat runs, nests, and colonies and then poison or trap the rats.

c. Rocky Mountain spotted fever (Queenland tick typhus in Australia, Boutonneuse fever in Africa). All are caused by related Rickettsia. Rickettsii organisms through the bite of infected hard ticks. Rickettsia are often transmitted from one generation of ticks to the next without passage through an intermediate host.

S. The patient develops anorexia, malaise, nausea, headache, and sore throat 3-10 days after an infectious tick bite, progressing with chills; fever; aches in bones, joints, and muscles; nausea and vomiting; restlessness; insomnia and irritability. Delirium, lethargy, stupor, and coma may appear.

O. Face is flushed and conjunctivas injected. After 2-6 days of fever, a rash appears starting on the wrists and ankles spreading to the arms, legs, and trunk. The rash is initially small, red, and macular; over 2-3 days it becomes larger and petechial. Hepatomegaly, splenomegaly, jaundice, gangrene, myocarditis, or uremia may occur.

Lab findings: Leukocytosis, proteinuria, and hematuria are common.

A. Rocky Mountain spotted fever. Differential diagnosis: Measles, typhoid, or meningococcemia. Many other infections have similar early signs and symptoms.

P. Response to tetracycline or chloramphenicol is prompt if started early.

Prevention: Protective clothing, insect repellent, and buddy system checking for ticks at frequent intervals help.

d. Scrub typhus (Tsutsugamushi disease). Caused by Rickettsia Tsutsugamushi, a parasite of rodents that is transmitted by the bite of mite larva. The mite larva spends most of its life cycle on vegetation, and when an animal or human brushes against the vegetation, the larva drops onto them.

S. Incubation period of 1-3 weeks after bite by mite larva. Malaise, chills, severe headache, and backache. A papule develops at the site of the mite bite that vesicates and forms a flat black eschar.

O. Regional draining lymph nodes are enlarged and tender. There may be generalized adenopathy. Gradually rising fever with a generalized macular rash developing at the end of first week and is most marked on the trunk. During the second week of fever, pneumonitis, encephalitis, myocarditis, and cardiac failure may occur. The patient appears confused,

out of contact with the environment, and dulled in sensitivity.

A. Scrub typhus. Differential diagnosis: Leptospirosis, typhoid, dengue, malaria, and other rickettsial infections.

P. A tetracycline or chloramphenicol.

Prevention: Repeated area application of long-acting miticide and/or insect repellents on clothing or skin.

e. Rickettsialpox. Caused by Rickettsia akari, a parasite of mice, and transmitted by mites. The disease is fairly mild and self-limited.

S. and O. Incubation of 7-12 days with sudden onset of chills, fever, headache, photophobia, and disseminated aches and pains. Primary lesion at bite site is a red papule that vesicates and forms a black eschar. A widespread papular eruption appears 2-4 days after the onset of symptoms, becomes vesicular, and forms crusts that are shed in about 10 days.

A. Rickettsialpox. Differential diagnosis: Chickenpox or smallpox.

P. A tetracycline or chloramphenicol.

Prevention: Apply insecticide to mice runs and nests, then eliminate the mice.

f. Trench fever. A self-limited louse-borne relapsing febrile disease caused by Rickettsia quintana. Humans appear to be only animal reservoir. Occurs in epidemic form in louse-infested troops and civilians during wars and in endemic form in Central America.

S. Abrupt onset of fever lasting 3-5 days, often followed by relapses. Weakness; severe pain behind the eyes and in the back and legs.

O. Lymphadenopathy, splenomegaly, and a transient maculopapular rash may appear.

A. Trench fever. Differential diagnosis: Dengue, leptospirosis, malaria, relapsing fever, and typhus.

P. A tetracycline or chloramphenicol. The illness is self-limiting and recovery regularly occurs without treatment.

g. Q fever. Caused by Coxiella burneti, a parasite of cattle, sheep, and goats. Transmitted to humans by inhalation of contaminated dust or droplets or by ingestion of infected milk. It is excreted by cattle, goats, and sheep through feces, milk, and placenta. Coxiella is relatively resistant to pasteurization in milk. Spread from human to human is rare, but fetal infection can occur.

S. Incubation of 1-3 weeks with developing headache, prostration, muscle pains, and occasionally with a nonproductive cough, abdominal pains, or jaundice.

O. Physical signs of pneumonitis are slight. Hepatitis may be severe and endocarditis occurs rarely. Occasionally signs of

encephalopathy are present. The clinical course may be acute, chronic, or relapsing.

Lab findings: Leukopenia is often present.

A. Q fever. Differential diagnosis: Atypical pneumonia, hepatitis, brucellosis, tuberculosis, psittacosis, and other animal-borne diseases must be considered.

P. Tetracyclines can suppress symptoms and shorten the clinical course, but do not always eradicate the infection. Even in untreated cases, the mortality rate is negligible.

Prevention: Based on detection of infection in livestock, treatment and reduction in contact with the animal and dust contaminated by them, and effective pasteurization of milk.

2-56. SPIROCHETAL.

a. Syphilis. See Chapter 2, Section VI, Venereal.

b. Yaws (Frambesia, pian, bouba, parangi, domaria). An acute and chronic relapsing, contagious, nonvenereal, spirochetal disease caused by Treponema pertenue, which is morphologically indistinguishable from Treponena pallidum. Restricted to the tropical zones; the highest incidence is among native populations whose level of personal hygiene is low. It is predominately a disease of childhood, but transmission from child to mother by contact is frequent.

S. and O. Incubation period of 2-8 weeks. Initial lesion (mother yaw) appears at the site of implantation. It resembles the typical granulomatous secondary lesion, except it is often larger and healing takes longer. It is frequently still present when the secondary eruption appears. There is aching of the limbs, joint pains, and often an irregular fever is present. There may be enlargement of the regional lymph nodes. A few weeks to 4 months later the secondary or generalized stage begins with the appearance of secondary lesions scattered over the surface of the body. These lesions may involve the palms of the hands and/or the soles of the feet. The lesions are usually elevated, apparently granulomatous papules varying from a few to 50 mm. or more in diameter and tend to be round or oval. Initially the surface is composed of greatly proliferated epithelium exuding clear serum that contains concentrations of spirochettes. Later, a yellow crust forms (may be discolored by debris). In young children suffering from anemia or malnutrition, the lesions may appear as erosions with bright pink borders and whitish centers. Successive eruptions often appear before the preceding ones heal. These later lesions tend to be most numerous around the lips, axillae, genitalia, and anus. These recurring eruptions may continue for 2-3 years and lesions about the lips or on the soles of the feet may recur after many years. Healing of the secondary lesions leave only slight scarring that is never permanently atrophic and pigmented.

Nondestructive lesions of the bones are frequent in the secondary stage. They develop rapidly and resolve spontaneously in a few weeks or months, but the periosteal reaction may cause thickening of the bone resulting in deformities.

The tertiary stage of yaws usually does not appear until after a

relatively or completely symptom-free period of several years. Most commonly it begins during the third or fourth decades of life. In this stage, resolution and spontaneous cure may occur, or the disease become latent, with the subsequent appearance of relapsing tertiary lesions. The tertiary lesions are of three types: (1) extensive, spreading, superficial, and relatively clean ulcerations that gradually heal from the center; (2) cutaneous and subcutaneous nodules that break down forming deep, indolent ulcers with irregular bases (these heal from the margin and isolated islands in the base, causing atrophic scars that may be unpigmented in the early stages but later are often deeply pigmented and may cause severe contractures); (3) hyperkeratotic lesions of the soles of the feet and less commonly of the palms of the hands ("Crab Yaws") causing extensive thickening of the skin with fissures and ulcerations (painful and a source of severe disability).

Destructive bone and periosteal lesions most commonly involving the tibia, other long bones, and the hands are frequent. These are usually single or few in number and develop slowly. They may extend through the subcutaneous tissue and skin, producing chronic ulceration that responds slowly to treatment. The lesions are accompanied by local swelling, tenderness, and pain. These lesions can also occur on the skull, clavicles, scapulae, sternum, hard palate (can cause extensive destruction of the structure of the nose), and joints.

Lab findings: Spirochetes can usually be found by Giemsa's stain of exudates from lesions under darkfield examination. (India ink stain of slide also works.) Serum test for syphilis is positive.

A. Yaws. Differential diagnosis: The mucocutaneous lesions of leishmaniasis, the ulcerating lesions of leprosy, tuberculosis, and the late lesions of syphilis.

P. Treatment for the various stages of yaws is the same as for the various stages of syphilis (see Chapter 2, Section VI, Venereal).

c. Endemic syphilis. An infectious, chronic, nonvenereal infection of the intermediate tropical and temperate climates caused by Treponema pallidum (?), morphologically indistinguishable from the spirochetes of syphilis or yaws. Some authorities think that syphilis and endemic syphilis are the same disease. It occurs in localized areas in backward regions where socioeconomic levels are low and advanced education is lacking. When modern civilization reaches endemic areas through the construction of highways or development of an oil field, endemic syphilis disappears and venereal syphilis appears. It is primarily an early childhood disease and is spread by direct contact.

S. and O. Primary lesions consist of eruptions of the skin or mucous membranes, but are seldom recognized. Eruptions in the mouth are usually first, followed by moist papules in the folds of the skin. These lesions often resemble those of secondary syphilis. The late stage may appear within a few years after onset or be delayed for many years. It is characterized by plantar and palmar lesions, patchy pigmentation of the skin, and destructive lesions of the long bones, nose, and throat. Cardiovascular lesions are fairly common but involvement of the eyes, central nervous system, tabes, and paresis is rare.

Lab finding: Spirochetes may be found in wound aspirates using dark-field examination and serum test for syphilis is positive.

A. Endemic syphilis.

P. Same as yaws and syphilis (see Chapter 2, Section VI, Venereal).

d. Pinta (Mal del pinto, carate, azul, tina, lota, empeines). An acute and chronic nonvenereal disease caused by a spirochete (Treponema carateum) that is also morphologically indistinguishable from T. pallidum. Found in Central and South America, Mexico, and Cuba. Most frequent in the young and occurs most frequently in low lying and wooded areas, usually near rivers, where relative humidity is 80 percent or more and temperature is between 79 to 86° F. These people's primitive way of life and wearing of few clothes appear to promote their contacting pinta.

S. and O. Characterized by a superficial nonulcerative primary lesion, a secondary eruption, and late depigmentation and hyperkeratosis of the skin. The hands and wrists are most frequently involved, but feet and ankle involvement is common. Neurologic and cardiovascular involvement is fully as significant in late pinta as in syphilis.

Lab findings: Positive darkfield examination and STS.

A. Pinta. Differential diagnosis: Yaws, syphilis.

P. Same as for syphilis (see Chapter 2, Section VI, Venereal).

e. Relapsing fever (tick fever, famine fever, spirillum fever, febris recurrens, kimputu, garapata disease, and many others). Caused by the Borrelia species of spirochete and transmitted by tick bite or by crushed lice through abraded skin. Louse-borne relapsing fever has disappeared from the US but occurs in parts of South America, Europe, Asia, Africa, and Australia. Tick-borne relapsing fever is found in western US and Canada, Mexico, Central and South America, Europe, Africa, and Asia. Louse-borne relapsing fever is frequently found concomitantly with epidemic louse-borne typhus. Incubation period is from 2-10 days, but may be as long as 3 weeks.

S. Abrupt onset of fever (up to 104-105° F. or higher), chills, vertigo, severe headache, nausea, and vomiting. Transitory erythematous or petechial eruptions are common during the initial fever. Usually most pronounced about the neck and shoulder girdle and later extending to the chest and abdomen. Initial fever usually lasts 3-10 days. After an interval of 1-2 weeks, a relapse occurs, often somewhat milder. There may be 3-10 relapses before recovery.

O. Tachycardia occurs with the onset. Delirium occurs with high fever, and there may be various neurologic and psychic abnormalities. A slight icteric tint of the sclerae is common and marked jaundice may occur in severe cases. Hepatomegaly and splenomegaly may develop.

Lab findings: During episodes of fever, large spirochetes are seen in blood smears stained using Wright's or Giemsa's stain. Mild anemia and thrombocytopenia are common, but W.B.C. is usually normal.

A. Relapsing fever. Differential diagnosis: Malaria, leptospirosis, meningococcemia, yellow fever, typhus, or rat-bite fever.

P. Give 0.5 gm tetracycline or erythromycin in a single dose orally; 600,000 units of procaine penicillin G IM can also be used.

f. Rat-bite fever (sodoku). Uncommon acute infectious disease caused by a spirochete (Spirillum minus) that is transmitted by the bite of a rat.

S. The original rat bite heals rapidly unless secondarily infected. After an incubation period of one to several weeks, the bite site becomes swollen, indurated, painful, assumes a dusky purplish hue, and may ulcerate. Fever, chills, malaise, myalgia, arthralgia, and headache are present. After a few days, the local and systemic symptoms subside only to reappear in 24-48 hours. After the first few relapses, only the fever returns on this 24-48-hour cycle and may persist for weeks.

O. Regional lymphangitis and lymphadenitis are present. Splenomegaly may occur. A sparse, dusky-red maculopapular rash may appear on the trunk and extremities.

Lab findings: Spirochete may be found in aspirated lymph node material or in the ulcer exudate under darkfield examination. Leukocytosis is often present and STS is often falsely positive.

A. Rat-bite fever. Differential diagnosis: Streptococcal rash, tularemia, relapsing fever.

P. Give 300,000 units procaine penicillin IM q.12h. x 7 days.

g. Leptospirosis (Fort Bragg fever, Weil's disease, swineherd's disease). An acute and often severe infection caused by several Leptospira species. Leptospirosis is found worldwide. It is transmitted by ingestion of food or drink contaminated by rodents, cattle, or pigs. The disease can also be acquired by direct contact through minor skin lesions, and probably via the conjunctiva, and also through bathing in contaminated water. Incubation period is 2-20 days.

S. Sudden onset of fever (102-104o F.), chills, abdominal pains, vomiting, nausea, myalgia (especially of the calf muscles), and unrelenting frontal headache. Photophobia, sore throat, cough, and diarrhea are common. Petechial and maculopapular rashes may occur. Usually all signs and symptoms disappear within 3-4 days, but some patients may be ill for weeks. In some cases symptoms disappear for 1-3 days, then the fever and any of the initial symptoms may return.

O. Conjunctiva is markedly reddened. The liver can be palpated in 50 percent of the cases and jaundice is present about the fifth day. Capillary hemorrhages and purpuric skin lesions may appear. Meningeal irritation and associated findings of aseptic meningitis may occur.

Lab findings: W.B.C. may be normal or as high as 50,000 with neutrophilia. Urine may contain bile, protein, casts, and red cells. Spirochete may be found in urine from the tenth day to the sixth week. It can also be found in blood smears using dark-field examination during the first 10 days.

A. Leptospirosis. Differential diagnosis: Hepatitis, yellow fever, relapsing fever.

P. Give 600,000 units procaine penicillin IM q.3h. x 24h. then

q.6h. x 6 days, or 500 mg. tetracycline q.6h. x 7 days.

2-57. Venereal diseases are contagious diseases most commonly acquired through sexual intercourse or other genital contact.

2-58. GONOCOCCAL INFECTIONS (clap, dose). A specific infection of the genitourinary tract caused by Neisseria gonorrhoeae. Extragenital infections (rectal, oral, skin, and eye infection of the newborn) do occur, but not as frequently.

S. In the male, incubation 2-7 days after contact; average is 3 days. A transient mucoid urethral discharge develops that becomes a profuse, thick, greenish, purulent urethral excretion. Painful urination is the outstanding symptom. Both the discharge and the painful urination may be severe, moderate, or even absent. About 10 percent of all cases have no S or S. Rectal infections are most often asymptomatic and the result of direct implantation of infection almost always by homosexual activity. The most common complication of untreated gonorrhea is urethral strictures; others include inguinal lymphadenitis, seminal vesiculitis, epididymitis, or prostatitis.

In the female, 80-90 percent are asymptomatic, but can continue to spread the infection. In the female, dysuria or vaginal discharge is the most frequent S or S, but may be so mild as to be unnoticed. Rectal infection can be caused by contamination from cervical discharge or rectal intercourse. Complications in the female are local spread of gonorrhea causing an inflammation of the vulvovaginal gland and/or fallopian tube. This spread may continue from the fallopian tubes into the peritoneal cavity.

In both male and female, but usually female, the infection may spread through the blood and may present in varied ways depending on the area or organs the infection attacks. The most common are arthritis, skin eruptions, meningitis, endocarditis, or conjunctivitis (via blood or by contamination from genital secretion).

O. Typical intracellular gram-negative diplococci are found in the smear of the urethral discharge or cultured from any site, particularly the urethra, cervix, or rectum. It is possible to gram stain smears from urethra, cervix, or rectum and find the organism, but a negative finding does not rule out gonorrhea. History and S and S can make the diagnosis.

A. Gonorrhea. Differential diagnosis: Nonspecific urethritis (50 percent caused by chlamydiae), trichomonal and candidal vaginitis, and cervicitis. The many agents causing salpingitis, pelvic peritonitis, arthritis, proctitis, and skin lesions must be considered also.

P. Uncomplicated gonorrhea: 1 gm probenecid orally; 4.8 million units aqueous procaine penicillin G IM in 2 or more sites.

Alternative: Give 3.5 gm ampicillin together with 1 gm probenecid orally at one time. NEVER TREAT GONORRHEA WITH BENZATHINE PENICILLIN G. If allergic to penicillin, give 1.5 gm tetracycline orally stat., then 0.5 gm orally q.i.d. x 4 days or spectinomycin 2 gm IM at one time. Watch for penicillin-resistant gonorrhea. Do a followup 7 days after completion of treatment. Treat complications with spectinomycin 2 gm IM. If after followup gonorrhea is still present, think of reinfection and give spectinomycin 2 gm IM again. If spectinomycin resistant, give

cefoxitin 2 gm IM with 1 gm probenecid P.O. Alternates are tetracycline or erythromycin 0.5 gm orally q.i.d. x 10 days.

2-59. SYPHILIS. Causative agent is Treponema pallidum, a spirochete capable of infecting any organ or tissue in the body. Transmission occurs most frequently during sexual contact, but may be extragenital. The clinical course of untreated syphilis is divided into 4 stages: primary (early), secondary, latent (hidden), and tertiary (late) syphilis. The lesions associated with primary and secondary syphilis are self-limiting and resolve with few or no residual. Tertiary syphilis may be very destructive and permanently disabling and may lead to death. In general, if untreated, one-third of the people infected will undergo spontaneous cure, one-third will remain in latent stage for life, and one-third will develop serious late (tertiary) lesions.

Syphilis can be clinically cured in all of the stages, but the killing of the treponemes can cause Jarisch-Herxheimer reaction. This reaction is thought to be caused by the rapid release of antigenic materials from lysed treponemes. There may be a local and general reaction. The local reaction consists of intensification of the lesions (rashes become more pronounced, chancre becomes edematous). Systemically, frequently the temp rises to 101-102° F., occasionally as high as 104° F. Some patients have convulsions or increasing agitation requiring restraints or sedatives. Reaction usually occurs within 12 hours of treatment and usually lasts only a few hours, rarely more than 24 hours. This reaction is usually benign and of itself is not reason to discontinue treatment.

a. Primary syphilis.

S. A 10-90-day incubation period, then a primary chancre develops. This is a painless superficial ulcer with a clean base and firm indurated margins. Chancres are usually singular, but multiple lesions are not rare. Bacterial secondary infection may occur causing pain. Most frequently located on the penis, labia, cervix, or anorectal region. Occasionally found on lip, tongue, or tonsil and rarely on breast or finger. Press the edges of the primary lesion an you will feel a round pealike ball. The lesion will heal by itself, but may cause a scar. The primary chancre may pass unrecognized.

O. Enlarged regional lymph nodes that are rubbery, discrete, and nontender. Smear from lesion stains the spirochete pink using Giemsa's stain and black using silver impregnation method under dark-field illumination. The spirochete is somewhat hard to find and may require numerous smears before it is found. A serologic test for syphilis (STS) is the best test. These tests usually turn positive 1-3 weeks after the appearance of the primary lesion. If the initial STS and dark-field examination are negative, the STS should be repeated once weekly for 4 weeks.

A. Primary syphilis. Differential diagnosis: chancroid, genital herpes, lymphogranuloma venereum, or neoplasm.

P. Benzathine penicillin G 1.2 million units in each buttock for a total of 2.4 million units once. Only if patient is allergic to penicillin should tetracycline or erythromycin be used. Tetracycline 500 mg. orally q.i.d. x 15 days. Erythromycin 500 mg. orally q.i.d. x 20 days.

b. Secondary syphilis.

S. Generally appears a few weeks to 6 months after primary chancre. The most common manifestations are skin and mucosal lesions. The skin lesions are usually bilaterally symmetrical and are nonpruritic, macular, papular, pustular, or follicular (or any combination of these). Lesions are usually generalized but often involve the palms of the hands and the soles of the feet. The mucosal lesions range from ulcers and papules of the lips, mouth, throat, genitalia, and anus (mucous patches) to a diffuse redness of the pharynx. Mucous membrane and skin lesions are highly infectious during this stage. Meningeal, hepatic, renal, bone and joint invasion with resulting cranial nerve palsies, jaundice, nephrotic syndrome, and periostitis may occur. The lesions of secondary syphilis will heal spontaneously, but may relapse if undiagnosed or inadequately treated. These relapses may include any of the findings of secondary syphilis, but unlike the usually asymptomatic neurologic involvement of secondary syphilis, neurologic relapses may be fulminating, leading to death.

O. STS is positive in almost all cases. Skin and mucous membrane lesions often will show the T. pallidum spirochete on dark-field exam.

A. Secondary syphilis. Differential diagnosis: Infectious exanthems, pityriasis rosea, and drug eruptions. Visceral lesions may suggest nephritis or hepatitis from other causes. Red throat may mimic other forms of pharyngitis.

P. Same treatment as primary syphilis.

c. Latent syphilis (lasts from months to lifetime).

S. No physical signs; total diagnosis is on history.

O. Positive STS.

A. Latent syphilis.

P. Give 2.4 million units benzathine penicillin G IM once a week x 3 weeks.

d. Tertiary (late) syphilis may occur anytime after secondary syphilis, even after years of latency.

S. Essentially a vascular disease that may attack any tissue or organ. Signs and symptoms may mimic almost any disease. Called the "Great Imitator" because of this. A good in-depth history is required, looking for history of primary chancre and secondary syphilis untreated or inadaquately treated.

O. STS usually positive; T. pallidum might possibly be found in skin or mucous lesions.

A. Tertiary syphilis.

P. Same as latent syphilis, but there is no known method for reliable eradication of the treponeme from humans in the late stages of syphilis. There is also no confirmed cases where the treponeme left after treatment are capable of causing progressive disease.

e. Congenital syphilis transmitted through the placenta to the fetus.

S. May have minimal to no signs for 6-8 weeks after birth. Most common findings are on skin and mucous membranes - serous nasal discharge, mucous membrane patches, maculopapular rash, and/or condylomas (broad flat wartlike growths usually seen on genitals or near anus). These lesions are infectious. Lesions heal by themselves and if left untreated child develops defects: interstitial keratitis, Hutchinson's teeth, saddle nose, saber skins, deafness, and/or C.N.S. involvement.

O. Smears taken from lesion and checked under dark field show T. pallidum. STS is not conclusive as it is complicated by transplacental acquisition of maternal antibodies. Baby must be checked every 2-3 weeks for 4 months.

A. Congenital syphilis.

P. Aqueous penicillin G 50,000 units/kg. IM or IV in 2 divided doses daily x 10 days. Antibiotics other than Pen are not recommended.

2-60. CHANCROID. An acute localized usually self-limiting venereal disease with an incubation period of 3-5 days.

S. Initial lesion is vesicopustular with a necrotic base, surrounding erythema, and undermined edges. Multiple lesions started by autoinoculation and inguinal adenitis often develop. The adenitis is usually unilateral and consists of tender matted nodes of moderate size with overlying erythema. The nodal mass softens, becomes fluctuant, and may rupture spontaneously. With lymph node involvement, chills, fever, and malaise may develop; balanitis (inflammation of glans penis) and phimosis (tightening of the foreskin) are frequent complications. These signs usually occur in men; women frequently have no external signs.

O. Smear from lesion gram-stained shows short gram-negative bacillus (Hemophilus ducreyi). There is a skin test for chancroid; once it becomes positive, like tine test, it remains positive for life.

A. Chancroid. Differential diagnosis: Other veneral diseases and pyogenic lesions.

P. Gantrisin 500 mg. q.i.d. x 10-14 days; 0.5 gm tetracycline q.i.d. x 10-14 days; clean ulcer with soap and water b.i.d.; aspirate fluctuant buboes.

2-61. GRANULOMA INGUINALE. A chronic, relapsing granulomatous anogenital infection with an incubation period of from 1-12 weeks.

S. The initial lesion may be a vesicle, papule, or nodule usually on the penis or labia minora. The onset is insidious. This lesion becomes eroded and superficially ulcerated. The ulcer is shallow, sharply demarcated with a beefy-red friable base of granulation tissue with new nodule formation at the edge as the lesion extends. The advancing border has a characteristic rolled edge of granulation tissue. Large ulcerations may advance up onto the lower adbomen and thighs. Scar formation and healing may occur along one border while the other advances. The process may become indolent and stationary.

O. Gram-negative rod-shaped microorganisms found in mononuclear

phagocytes from smears made from tissue scraping or secretions from the ulcers.

A. Granuloma inguinale.

P. Tetracycline 500 mg. q.i.d. x 2 weeks or streptomycin 1 gm q.i.d. x 7 days IM or ampicillin 500 mg. q.i.d. x 2 weeks.

2-62. LYMPHOGRANULOMA VENEREUM. An acute and chronic sexually transmitted disease with a 5-21 day incubation period.

S. The primary lesion that is seldom seen is a transitory small papule, vesicle, or ulcer that vanishes in a week to 10 days. In the male, it is usually found on the penis and in the female, on the vaginal wall or cervix. From there, invasion of the lymphatics occur. In the male, the inguinal nodes are involved with further extension into the deep iliac nodes. At first the nodes are discrete, later becoming enlarged, matted, adherent to the skin and finally fluid filled. The overlying skin becomes discolored and ultimately sinus formation with drainage occurs, which may continue for months. Healing is accompanied by extensive scarring, which may lead to elephantiasis of the genitals and rectal strictures. In the female, inguinal involvement is rare. It usually affects the rectovaginal septum, often with no localizing symptoms, until sinuses open and drain into the rectum, and blood and pus appears in the stool; this may be accompanied by malaise, anorexia, headache, and fever. This may last for many weeks. Later, chronic proctitis occurs and occasionally rectovaginal fistulas and perirectal abscesses. Extensive scarring often leads to rectal strictures and elephantiasis of the genitals.

O. Causative organism is a large virus and requires special tests for antibodies; tests are not totally reliable.

A. Lymphogranuloma venereum. Differential diagnosis: Early lesions; syphilis, genital herpes, and chancroid. Lymph node involvement; tularemia, tuberculosis, plague, neoplasm, or pyogenic infection. Rectal strictures; neoplasm, and ulcerative colitis.

P. Tetracycline 500 mg. q.i.d. x 2-3 weeks, gentamicin 40 mg. IM b.i.d. x 2 weeks, bed rest, warm compresses for buboes, and analgesics p.r.n.; aspirate fluid-filled nodes.

2-63. HERPES GENITALIS. Caused by herpes virus type 2 (herpes simplex). Can be sexually transmitted and is increasing in frequency and seriousness. Infection during pregnancy can cause spontaneous abortion, stillbirth, and neonatal death.

S. A 4-7 day incubation period. Starts with reddened area with itching; progresses into blister that breaks and becomes painful like a burn. All of this is usually recurrent. In severe cases there may be fever, malaise, anorexia, local genital pain, dysuria, leukorrhea (white or yellowish mucous discharge), and even vaginal bleeding.

O. Typical genital lesions are multiple shallow ulcerations, vesicles, and erythematous papules. Painful bilateral inguinal adenopathy is usually present. Scrapings and biopsies may show characteristic "ground glass" appearance of cellular nuclei with numerous small intranuclear vacuoles and small scattered basophilic particles.

A. Herpes genitalis. Differential diagnosis: Other venereal diseases.

P. Symptomatic treatment. There is no known cure but there is a control being tested that appears to be effective but only as long as taken. Amino acid (al-lysine) comes in tablet form; give 1,500 mg. daily in 2 doses. When lesions disappear, 1 tab a day as a maintenance dosage. A paste can be made by crushing a tablet, making into a paste, and applying directly onto the lesion. This usually clears the lesions within 24-48 hours; so far this appears to be very effective but only as a control, not a cure. This is the only venereal disease that does not as yet have a cure.

2-64. Other diseases that are considered venereal in nature include Pediculosis pubis (crabs), scabies, hepatitis B infections, vulvovaginal candidiasis, trichomoniasis, and nongonococcal urethritis. These diseases will be covered in other sections.

2-65. Treatment of venereal diseases by itself is not enough. Control and prevention must be stressed.

a. Prevention includes classes on VD and VD prevention measures plus insuring prophylactic devices are made available.

b. Control involves early detection and treatment of infected personnel and their contacts. Every patient diagnosed as having VD should be interviewed to determine with whom he has had sexual contact during the course of his illness and from whom he might have contracted the disease. If the patient does not want to give out the names and addresses of his contacts, you can establish and use a card system. With this system you have colored 3 x 5 cards, a different color for each type VD You can hand out a number of cards to the patient and tell him to give one card to each person with whom he had sex. Have him tell them to take the card to the medic. In that way you can examine and treat prophylactically each person who brings in a card and give them cards for their sexual contacts. In this way you should be able to eliminate the majority of the VD problem.

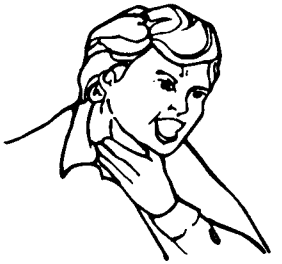
CHAPTER 3

CLEARING AIRWAY OBSTRUCTIONS AND CPR

3-1. CLEARING AN OBSTRUCTED AIRWAY.

a. Signs of obstruction in a conscious patient:

(1) Heimlich sign; hand to throat, as illustrated below.



Universal distress signal for choking.

(2) Inability to speak.

(3) Wheezing sounds and an effort to breath.

(4) Cyanosis appearing.

b. Signs in an unconscious patient:

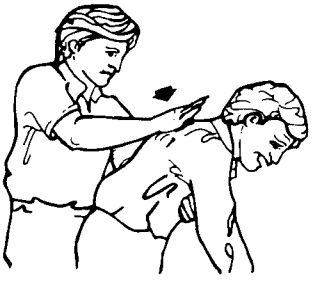
(1) Chest not rising.

(2) Cyanosis.

c. Treatment:

(1) With your fingers sweep mouth and throat of foreign material.

(2) With the heal of the hand deliver four sharp backblows between the patient's shoulder blades, as illustrated below.

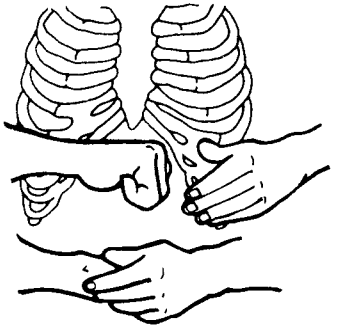


Back blow, standing.

(3) Perform abdominal thrusts:

(a) Stand behind the patient and wrap your arms around his waist.

(b) Place the thumb side of your hand against the patient's abdomen slightly above the navel and below the rib cage, as illustrated below.



Hand placement for abdominal thrust.

(c) Grasp your fist with the other hand and press into the patient's abdomen with a quick upward thrust; repeat this four times.

(4) Repeat the backblows and abdominal thrusts until airway is clear.

(5) For a prone patient:

(a) Position patient on his back.

(b) Kneel astride patient's hips facing his head.

(c) Place one hand on top of the other and position the heel of your bottom hand on the patient's abdomen, slightly above the navel and below the ribcage.

(d) Press into the patient's abdomen with four quick upward thrusts.

(6) If the obstruction is not dislodged within a few minutes, perform an emergency cricothyroidotomy.

3-2. CARDIOPULMONARY RESUSCITATION.

a. Procedure for CPR with one or two rescuers.

(1) Establish unresponsiveness by gently shaking the patient and shouting "Are you OK?" If there is no response, turn the patient flat on his back and call out for help.

(2) Establish breathlessness by kneeling beside the patient;

hyperextend his neck. Place your ear over the patient's mouth and observe for chest rise (look, listen, and feel) x 5 seconds.

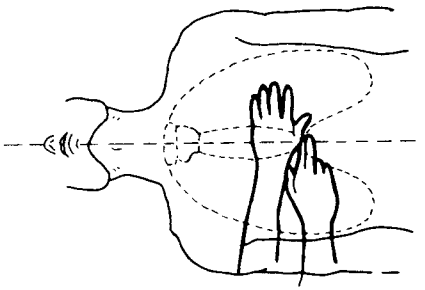
(3) If patient is not breathing, give four quick ventilations, not allowing all the air to escape between each ventilation in order to give a stairstep effect and maximum aeration of the lungs.

(4) Check for a carotid pulse.

(a) If a pulse is present, continue with mouth-to-mouth resuscitation at 12 ventilations per minute. Check for pulse and for return of spontaneous breathing after each cycle of 12 ventilations.

(b) If pulse is absent, rescuer begins CPR.

1. Initiate CPR by locating the notch where the sternum and the bottom of the ribcage meet. Place the middle finger of the lower hand on the notch and the index finger on the lower end of the sternum. Then place the heel of the other hand on the lower half of the sternum next to the index finger, as illustrated below.



Hand placement.

2. Performance standards for CPR should be in accordance with the following chart.

CARDIOPULMONARY RESUSCITATION

COMMENTS	ADULT (ONE-MAN)	ADULT (TWO-MAN)
Rate of compression	80/min	60/min
Use of hands	2 hands	2 hands
Depth of compression	1 1/2-2 inches	1 1/2-2 inches
Resuscitation only	1 per 5 sec 12/min	1 per 5 sec 12/min
CPR	15 comp 2 vent	5 comp 1 vent
Checking pulse	carotid	carotid
Breaths	full-double size	full-double size
Mouth placement	mouth-to-mouth (nose)	mouth-to-mouth (nose)
Head tilt	hyperextension	hyperextension

COMMENTS	CHILDREN	INFANTS
Rate of compression	100/min	100-120/min
Use of hands	1 hand	2 fingers
Depth of compression	3/4-1 1/2 inches	1/2-3/4 inches
Resuscitation only	1 per 5 sec 12/min	1 per 3 sec 20/min
CPR	5 comp 1 vent	5 comp 1 vent
Checking pulse	carotid	over left nipple
Breaths	regular	puffs of air
Mouth placement	mouth-to-mouth (nose)	mouth-to-mouth and nose (both)
Head tilt	hyperextension	tilt (no hyperextension)

CHAPTER 4

MENTAL DISORDERS

4-1. Many different forms of mental disorders have been named and described, and each may vary greatly in signs and symptoms. Even psychiatrists may have difficulty in diagnosing a particular case. The nervous system section is important to review and consider when evaluating and treating mental disorders. Organic factors may be responsible.

a. Terminology.

(1) Anxiety: Feeling of tension due to real or imagined danger.

(2) Compulsion: An irresistible urge to act against one's better judgment and will.

(3) Delusion: A false fixed idea that cannot be erased by reason or evidence.

(4) Hallucination: Imaginary sensory perception without actual stimulus, either visual and/or auditory.

(5) Insight: Awareness and acceptance of oneself and one's problems.

(6) Illusion: A false interpretation of a real sensory stimulus.

(7) Mental hygiene: The development of healthy mental and emotional reactions and habits.

(8) Neurosis: A functional mental disorder with feelings of anxiety in which the personality remains intact and contact with reality is maintained.

(9) Obsession: An irresistible urge to think thoughts one does not wish to think.

(10) Paranoid: Characterized by suspiciousness, ideas of persecution.

(11) Phobia: An exaggerated or morbid fear of something or situation.

(12) Psychiatry: Branch of medicine that deals with disorders of the mind, behavior, and personality.

(13) Psychosis: A mental disorder in which the personality is very seriously disorganized, and the patient is often out of contact with reality. A "major" mental illness.

b. In many cases treatment is long term and requires special facilities. We cannot hope to cover all mental problems and their treatments in one chapter. Of more importance to us is the ability to recognize approaching trouble and what to do about it.

(1) Types of individuals who are more likely to get into

trouble:

(a) The shy, retiring, withdrawn individual, who has little to do with others. He may have insufficient emotional expression that leads to the accumulation of strong feelings.

(b) The braggart who talks too long and loud of his abilities at home, at work, sexually, and socially. He is usually insecure and wants the admiration of others.

(c) The perfectionist who wants everything just so and becomes very anxious when things are wrong.

(d) The sick bay commando who translates his insecurity, worry, and anxiety into somatic complaints.

(e) The man who depreciates himself and is always apologizing is usually becoming depressed.

(2) Changes denoting approaching mental difficulty:

(a) Any persistent changes in mood in a man's behavior.

(b) Tension, anxiety, apprehensive facial expression, excessive perspiration, tremulousness.

(c) Irritability, short temper, abruptness, complaining, and faultfinding.

(d) Frequent accidents or mistakes.

(e) Depression, self-blame, self-degradation.

(f) Withdrawal, escape from others.

(g) Somatic complaints of sleeplessness, nightmares, anorexia, nausea, stomachache, headache, muscle cramps, diarrhea.

(h) Loss of contact, loss of attention, doesn't make good sense, poor thought associations, strange or unexplained behavior, difficulty thinking, memory lapses, lack of correlation between thought and emotional expression.

4-2. PSYCHOSIS. A severe, major mental disorder characterized by various degrees of personality disintegration and failure to test and evaluate external reality correctly. These men are usually without clearly defined physical cause or structural brain changes. The basic types of psychoses are:

a. Manic-depressive reaction: Marked by major mood swings and emotional instability typified by "lows" and "highs."

b. Schizophrenic reaction: Disorientation and separation of personality.

c. Paranoid reaction: Marked by suspiciousness and delusions of persecution and/or grandeur.

d. Alcoholic: Marked by alcoholism and bouts of delirium tremens.

e. Toxic (drugs): Induced by toxic agents such as drugs.

S. and O. Each psychosis is a separate case affecting a separate human being. Not all cases have all the major symptoms. Below is a generally accepted group of symptoms:

(1) Deep depression with feelings of worthlessness. One of the foremost causes of self-destruction.

(2) Abnormal and inappropriate cheerfulness, out of keeping with surroundings or reality.

(3) Loss of contact with reality with strange, bizarre behavior. May be berserk, assaultive, totally withdrawn, etc.

(4) Total withdrawal from a group to such a degree that the patient actually lives in a "world of fantasy."

(5) Delusions and hallucinations.

A. Psychosis.

P. Close supervision of the patient since his condition is characterized by rapid and major mood swings. Establish communication as soon as possible. Fear is often largely responsible for his behavior. Reassure him and appeal to the "well" aspects of his personality. Force and restraints must be used when there is no other way to protect the patient or those around him. Restraints should not be placed over chest and abdomen and should be removed as soon as possible. Tranquilization for the violent or assaultive patient is often necessary. Use antipsychotics for psychotic behavior. Use the following in priority of order:

(1) Haldol (haloperidol) 2-5 mg. IM can be given every hour if needed. The drug of choice for severe psychotic, aggressive, or other uncontrollable behavior problems.

(2) Thorazine 100 mg IM. A greater sedative than (1). Blood pressure must be monitored since it may produce hypotension.

(3) Librium 100 mg IM to relieve anxiety. Especially useful in alcohol or drug abuse.

4-3. PSYCHONEUROSIS. A relatively benign group of personality disorders that arise from an effort to deal with specific, private, internal, and or psychological problems and stressful situations that the patient is unable to master without tension or disturbing psychological devices. The symptoms are numerous and varied. The chief characteristic is anxiety; however, there is good contact with reality. The confusion or symptoms make it difficult to assign a given case to a definite type. The essential consideration is recognition of the condition and the need for treatment. It must be remembered that one neurotic symptom is not a neurosis. All of us occasionally develop one, or even several, under special duress.

S. and O. Anxiety is the chief characteristic and is the most intolerable item to the patient. This anxiety may be free and unbound, such as crying, talking, etc., or expressed as various somatic complaints.

There is good contact with reality. May function effectively until encountering a stressful situation that he is unable to cope with. Often he controls this by various psychological defense mechanism such as repression, etc. Other symptoms may be fatigue, insomnia, lowered work output, inability to concentrate and even paralyzing indecision, feelings of inferiority and inadequacy.

P. Remove the stress situation if possible. Listen to him. Often simple ventilation of his problems is all that is required. Reassure and support him but be cautious with advice. Let him work out his own solutions. Antianxiety drugs are drugs of choice and follow in order of preference.

(1) Librium 10 mg. q.i.d.

(2) Valium 5 mg. t.i.d. (Use IV if anxiety is extreme.)

(3) Phenobarbital 1 gr. tab. q.i.d. P.O.

(4) Noludar 300 to 600 mg. h.s.

4-4. PERSONALITY OR CHARACTER BEHAVIOR DISORDERS. Characterized by defects in the development or structure of the personality, rather than by mental, somatic, or emotional symptoms. These include the antisocial and amoral personality and the sexual deviate. We find this kind of disturbance the most difficult to accept as an illness. These persons seem unable to learn from experience, are incapable of conforming to ordinary rules of society, and are often the "troublemakers" and/or "wise guys." The basic types of personality or character behavior disorders are inadequate or immature personality, emotionally unstable personality, passive-aggressive personality, compulsive personality, and the schizoid personality.

S. and O. (1) Symptoms of inadequate or immature personality are: Failure in emotional, economic, and occupational adjustments. Often good natured and easy going, but inept, ineffective, and unconcerned. Egocentric with childish mannerisms such as temper tantrums, bedwetting, sleepwalking, etc. Difficulty adjusting to new situations, accepting new responsibilities, or in getting along with fellow workers. Often AWOL. Functional somatic complaints with no organic cause such as headache, pain in chest, G.I. disturbance. Often presents self at sick call as an "unwilling warrior." A young man, first enlistment, unwilling to work, etc. He tries to manipulate his environment and those about him to achieve his own ends.

(2) Symptoms of emotionally unstable personality are: Marked tendency to swing and act with his own emotional mood. Exercises little or no restraint. Euphoric, talkative, and "having a ball" with no regard to the consequences of his actions. Anger, temper tantrums, and "mad at the world." A gesture of suicide. This is an attempt to gain some goal, gain concern, show of affection, or removal from a situation. This is not planned to end fatally, but sometimes does.

(3) Symptom of passive aggressive personality are: Antagonistic and subjective to pouting. May be destructive. Stubborn with cynical "biting wit." Shrewd, knows just how far he can go and does. May be manifested by helplessness, a tendency to cling to others as "mama's boy."

(4) Others have such variable range of symptoms that they defy a specific listing.

A. Personality or character behavior disorder.

P. The most important factor is recognizing a person has psychiatric problems and referring him for prompt treatment; do not waste time attempting to diagnose his illness. Try to understand yourself and be aware of your feelings toward the patient. Sometimes it is hard to remember he is sick when his behavior is unreasonable. Try to understand the patient by being an expert observer. What does he tell you by his behavior? "All behavior has meaning." Be an interested and sympathetic listener. This is one of the most effective tools in working with disturbed patients. Giving advice is rarely of any help. Paraldehyde is the drug of choice for any disturbed patient. Opiates are contraindicated. When restraining a combatant patient, be careful that you do not get injured. Keep accurate, comprehensive reports regarding all aspects of the case. These must be kept confidential and it is best for the patient that they are kept from him. Let the psychiatrist decide how much, if any, to tell him.

4-5. ORGANIC BRAIN SYNDROMES. Caused by organic impairment of the brain due to trauma, tumors, circulatory disturbances, metabolic disturbances, convulsive disorders, toxic or intoxicated states.

S. and O. Defects in memory (most recent events). Disorientation as to time, place, person. Sudden personality change with irritability most notable. Hallucinations and delusions. Convulsions to coma.

A. Organic brain syndromes.

P. Depends on the severity of the problem; treat according to the primary presenting symptom. Avoid an aggressive dictatorial attitude. Be calm and treat patient with kindness and understanding. Never argue with a mentally disturbed patient of any kind. If restraint or a treatment is in his best interest, then perform that treatment with a minimum of fuss. Get help as necessary. Even severely disturbed patients tend to respond much better to the calm, straightforward, businesslike approach.

4-6. DISASTER REACTIONS. In this case a disaster does not necessarily involve groups of people; a disaster can pertain to one individual.

a. Emotional injuries are not as visible as a wound or a broken leg, but severe fear, excessive worry, guilt, depression, or overexcitement is evidence that emotional damage has occurred.

b. It is normal for an injured person to feel upset. The more severe the injury, the more insecure and fearful he becomes, especially if the injury is to a highly valued body part. For example, an injury to the eyes or genitals, even if relatively minor, is likely to be severely upsetting. An injury to some other part of the body may be especially disturbing to an individual for his own particular reason. For example, an injury to the hand may be terrifying to a baseball pitcher or pianist, and a facial disfigurement may be especially threatening to some men and most women.

b. Fear, insecurity, anxiety, or guilt may cause the patient to be irritable, stubborn, or unreasonable; he may seem uncooperative,

unnecessarily difficult, or even emotionally irrational.

c. The goals in treatment of disaster reactions are to return the individual to work as soon as possible. Minimize his immediate disability even if prompt return to work is not possible, decrease the intensity of his emotional reaction until more complete care (if needed) can be arranged, and prevent actions harmful to him and to efforts of others.

d. Disaster reactions and helpful measures.

(1) Normal reactions are trembling, muscular tension, perspiration, nausea, mild diarrhea, urinary frequency, pounding heart, rapid breathing, and anxiety.

(2) Underactive reactions (slowed down, numbed) are the most common reaction to disaster. Symptoms are vacant expression, standing or sitting without moving or talking, and individual appears to be without emotion.

Helpful measures include: Establish contact gently--offer a cup of coffee, drink of water, or a smoke, use his name, encourage him to talk and be a good listener. Try to get him to tell you in his own words what actually happened. Show empathy but don't overwhelm him with pity. Find him a simple routine job to do.

(3) Overactive reactions. The individual is argumentative, talks rapidly, jumps right into jobs, and works hard but doesn't complete one thing before starting something else (jumps from job to job), and he usually makes endless suggestions.

Help measures include: Let them talk about it (don't argue with them, and be aware of your own feelings), give them something warm to eat or drink or a smoke, and give them jobs requiring physical activity (make sure they are supervised on the job).

(4) Individual panic (blind flight) is not a common reaction. Symptoms include wild running about, unreasoning attempt to flee, loss of judgment, and uncontrolled weeping.

Helpful measures include: Trying kindly firmness first (don't use brutal restraint, strike them, or douse them with water), use sedatives only as last resort, get help (if necessary) to isolate, and show empathy for their problem.

(5) Physical reactions are severe nausea and vomiting and conversion hysteria (can't use some part of the body).

Helpful measures include: Show them you are interested, try to get them to talk about what happened, make them comfortable, don't call attention to their disability, and try to find them some small job to keep them busy and help make them forget their problem.

4-7. DEPRESSION. May occur in reaction to some outside adverse life situation, usually the loss of a loved one through death, divorce, etc.; financial disaster; or loss of an established role. Neurotic depression differs from episodes of normal sadness in that the patient cannot "shake off" the feeling of dejection and the effect is disproportionately intense and enduring. Any illness, severe or mild, can cause significant

depression. Corticosteroids, oral contraceptives, antihypertensive medications such as alpha methyldopa, guanethidine, clondine, and propranolol have been associated with the development of depressive syndromes. The appetite-suppressing drugs, while acting initially as stimulants, often result in a depressive syndrome when withdrawn. Alcohol, sedatives, opiates, and most of the psychedelic drugs are depressants. Depression accounts for over half of all attempted suicides. The risk of suicide must always be considered when dealing with a severely depressed patient. Suicidal thought should be inquired after, and any suicidal gesture taken seriously.

S. Somatic complaints such as headache, disrupted or excessive sleep, libido, and anxiety are common in most depressive states. With severe depression there may be delusions of a hypochondriacal or persecutory (paranoid) nature.

O. Lowered mood, varying from sadness to intense feelings of guilt and hopelessness. Difficulty in thinking, inability to concentrate or make decisions is usually present in most depression. In severe depression there may be evidence of psychomotor retardation that may progress into a stuporous condition whereas the patient may lie awake in bed but do nothing of his own accord. Responses to external stimuli may be retarded or absent. In agitated depression the patient may be restless, sad, fearful, and apprehensive. They may pace the floor and wring their hands. They may repeat over and over in an explosive manner such words as "damn." Hallucinations are rare; however, they may complain of bizarre symptoms such as "a rotting brain" or "plugged intestines." They may be destructive to property and attempt self-injury or suicide.

A. Depression due to _____. Differential diagnosis: Depression secondary to illness or injury (e.g., brain trauma, tumor, etc.) or drug intake.

P. Show empathy. Observe patient without making them feel they are being watched. Try to get the patient to ventilate. NOTE: Do this by making it obvious that you are sincerely interested in the patient's problems and by being a good listener. Don't interrogate. If the patient is agitated, sedate with either antipsychotic or anxiety drugs (see paragraph 4-3, 4-4). If agitation is extreme or medication is refused, give Valium IM or IV. Be constantly alert for a suicide attempt and evacuate when feasible.

4-8. ALCOHOLISM. There are as many explanations for the cause of alcoholism as there are alcoholics. Professional investigators even disagree on many points. Our society is oriented around an alcohol-serving social environment such as beer ball games, initiation rites, wetting down parties, rating parties, retirement parties, and almost any other excuse that 2 or more people can come up with. Alcohol is a C.N.S. depressant, in any amount, even though the sense of euphoria caused by depression of the inhibitions leads the uninitiated to claim that it is a stimulant. A practical working definition of alcoholism is: When the intake of alcohol interferes in any way with a person's job, family, physical condition, or interpersonal relationships, that person can be considered an alcoholic. It does not matter whether the person drinks all the time, rare binges, or only one drink if the above criteria are met.

a. Alcoholism is classified as:

(1) Episodic excessive drinking: Characterized by becoming intoxicated as often as 4 times per year.

(2) Habitual excessive drinking: The person becomes intoxicated more than 12 times per year or is recognizably under the influence of alcohol more than once per week.

(3) Alcohol dependence or addiction: Determined by direct evidence such as withdrawal symptoms or by strong presumptive evidence such as inability to go 1 day without drinking or continued heavy drinking in excess of three months.

b. There are many problems associated with alcoholism but the most common is delirium tremens (DTs) or alcohol withdrawal syndrome. DTs are caused by withdrawal from drinking after a period of heavy continuous drinking. Usually occurs about 48 to 72 hours after the last drinking bout.

S. and O. Attacks begin with an aversion to food, anorexia, nausea, vomiting and abdominal cramps, anxiety, restlessness, apprehension and irritability, diaphoresis, tremors, talking or mumbling continuously. Picks at imaginary objects in the air, on self, on the bed, etc. Progresses to hallucinations and nocturnal illusions, fleeting at first then becoming constant. These are primarily visual and often are animal in nature with tigers, elephants, bugs, rats, and snakes all being imagined. These hallucinations often incite terror. Patient is suggestive to sensory stimuli, especially to objects seen in dim light. Vestibular disturbances are a common complaint. He complains that the bed is rocking, the room is rotating, and even that the world is "spinning and he is afraid of flying off." The patient may have a grand mal seizure known as "Rum Fit."

A. DTs or alcohol withdrawal syndrome.

P. Place patient on bedrest in a well-lighted space. Avoid loud noises and do not leave him alone. Someone should be present to talk to him and reassure him at all times. Restraints are to be used only when absolutely necessary and then removed as soon as possible. Mylanta or Amphojel may be given to settle G.I. distress. IV therapy with vitamin supplement diet. Maintain sufficient hydration to ensure an output of 25 to 40 cc. per hour of urine. Keep input and output chart. Medications to sedate man should be used with caution since alcohol and tranquilizers do not mix. Sedate with 15 to 20 ml. paraldehyde IM.

Prophylaxis: When a heavy or binge drinker gets a severe case of the "shakes" 2 to 3 days after he has had a drink, the following measures may be used.

a. Valium for acute alcohol withdrawal 10 mg. IM or IV initially then 5 to 10 mg. q.3-4h. if necessary. Continue for 3-4 days as needed then give Valium 5-10 mg. P.O. q.i.d. as necessary.

b. Force fluids and diet balanced with vitamin supplements including B complex.

4-9. DRUG ABUSE.

a. LSD, marihuana, alcohol, and barbituate intoxication are covered in Chapter 14, NBC.

b. Stimulants (amphetamines and cocaine).

S. and O. Acute amphetamine intoxication includes sweating, tachycardia, elevated blood pressure, hyperactivity, dilation of the pupils, and acute brain syndrome with confusion and disorientation.

A. Stimulants.

P. Stimulants can be withdrawn abruptly and withdrawal usually results in lassitude, prolonged sleep, increased hunger and eating, and depression lasting several days to several weeks. Occasionally 3-10 days after discontinuing amphetamines, an abstinence syndrome develops with delirium, sleeplessness, and increased motor activity.

c. Opiate dependency. (opium, heroin, methadone, morphine, meperidine and codeine). Sudden withdrawal from narcotics is not dangerous.

S. and O. (1) Mild intoxication: Analgesia, feeling of euphoria and carefree relaxation, drowsiness, mood changes, mental clouding, occasional anxiety, frequent nausea, occasional vomiting, contracted pupils, and decreased G.I. function.

(2) Overdosage causes respiratory depression up to and including respiratory arrest, nausea and vomiting, deep sleep to coma, pinpoint pupils, peripheral vasodilation, and massive pulmonary edema.

(3) Withdrawal causes craving and anxiety within 4 hours. Yawning, tearing, runny nose, and sweating in 8 hours. Plus pupil dilation, piloerection, tremors, hot and cold flashes, aching bones and muscles, and anorexia in 12 hours. Increased intensity of the above plus insomnia restlessness and nausea, increased B.P., temperature, pulse, and respiration in 18-24 hours. Increased intensity of the above plus curled up position, vomiting, diarrhea, weight loss (about 5 lbs a day), spontaneous ejaculation or orgasm, hemoconcentration, leukocytosis, eosinopenia, and hyperglycemia in 24-36 hours.

A. Opiates. Differential diagnosis: Mild intoxication and overdose are difficult to distinguish from other drug reactions without track marks and fairly reliable history.

P. Overdose. Give antagonist such as Narcan (naloxone).4 mg. IV can be repeated at 5-10 minutes intervals. Results are dramatic. Supportive care and treat complications. Close observation x 24 hours.